Cultivating Your Leadership Capabilities

Cultivating Your Leadership Capabilities

Supplemental reading for LD820 MS in Leadership Course at Granite State College, NH

GRADUATE STUDIES, GRANITE STATE COLLEGE

Contents

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1. Defining Leadership: Leadership styles

What it means to be a successful leader in today's complicated and ever-transforming world is not the same as it was decades ago. Success in leadership today has moved away from the authoritative and heroic styles of past years. In today's environment, where the workforce is constructed of teams of diverse, multi-generational, and often global employees, leaders must understand how to influence, inspire, and coach their co-workers to push their potential, while meeting both the individual and the organization's needs. Leaders must be authentic, compassionate, moral, and modest servants to their followers, who understand the benefits of mentoring their employees to become better selves.

Leadership

Leadership is used to establish direction and influencing others to follow. Leadership is the process by which an individual mobilizes people and resources to achieve a goal. It requires a learned set of skills as well as attributes that can be nurtured. Leaders inspire, challenge, and encourage others. They may persuade and influence, and they show resilience and persistence. All aspects of society have

leaders. The concept of leader may call to mind a CEO, a prime minister, a general, a sports team captain, or a school principal; examples of leadership exist across a variety of organizations.

Leaders motivate others to aspire to achieve and help them to do so. They focus on the big picture with a vision of what could be and help others to see that future and believe it is possible. In this way, leaders seek to bring substantive changes in their teams, organizations, and society.

Leadership is a relationship between followers and those who inspire them and provide direction for their efforts and commitments. Without followers, there can be no leaders and often good leaders demonstrate followership. Leadership affects how people think and feel about their work and how it contributes to a larger whole. Effective leaders often mean the difference between increasing a team's ability to perform or diminishing its performance, between keeping efforts on track or encountering disaster, and even between success or failure.

In this book, we will discuss the concepts laid out above as well as other concepts.

Leadership and Management

Leadership is one of the most important concepts in management

and many researchers have proposed theories and frameworks for understanding it. Some have distinguished among types of leadership such as charismatic, heroic, and transformational leadership. Other experts discuss the distinctions between managers and leaders, while others address the personality and cognitive factors most likely to predict a successful leader. The many dimensions of leadership indicate how complex a notion it is and how difficult effective leadership can be.

There will be more discussion on leadership and management later in this book.

What Does Successful Leadership Look Like?

Success in leadership today has numerous gauges by which to measure against. While some may weigh heavily on profit margins, others may look to employee satisfaction and retention as a better metric for leadership proficiency. For success today and in coming years, leaders need to influence their organizations to be effective with an increasingly diverse workforce who operates in a complex global environment. Leading these boundaryless organizations requires leadership who recognize that people are not just a means to an organizational outcome, but are also an end in, and of, themselves (Latham, 2014). As Gordon and Yuki (as cited in Latham, 2014) attest to, "while there is no shortage of concepts comprising

the many leadership theories, there is little consensus on what constitutes effective leadership" (p.12).

Leadership Function and Styles

Leadership function refers to the main focus or goal of the leader.

An **instrumental leader** is one who is goal-oriented and largely concerned with accomplishing set tasks. We can imagine that an army general or a Fortune 500 CEO would be an instrumental leader.

Expressive leaders are more concerned with promoting emotional strength and health, and ensuring that people feel supported. Social and religious leaders—rabbis, priests, imams, directors of youth homes and social service programs—are often perceived as expressive leaders. There is a longstanding stereotype that men are more instrumental leaders, and women are more expressive leaders. And although gender roles have changed, even today many women and men who exhibit the opposite-gender manner can be seen as deviants and can encounter resistance. Former Secretary of State Hillary Clinton's experiences provide an example of the way society reacts to a high-profile woman who is an instrumental leader. Despite the stereotype, Boatwright and Forrest (2000) have found that both men and women prefer leaders who use a combination of expressive and instrumental leadership.

Leadership styles.

Democratic leaders encourage group participation in all decision making. They work hard to build consensus before choosing a course of action and moving forward. This type of leader is particularly common, for example, in a club where the members vote on which activities or projects to pursue. Democratic leaders can be well liked, but there is often a danger that the danger will proceed slowly since consensus building is time-consuming. A further risk is that group members might pick sides and entrench themselves into opposing factions rather than reaching a solution.

Authoritarian

As the name suggests, **authoritarian leaders** issue orders and assigns tasks. These leaders are clear instrumental leaders with a strong focus on meeting goals. Often, entrepreneurs fall into this mold, like Facebook founder Mark Zuckerberg. Not surprisingly, the authoritarian leader risks alienating the workers. There are times, however, when this style of leadership can be required. In different circumstances, each of these leadership styles can be effective and successful.

Directive Leadership

This type of leadership is defined as the type of leadership where leaders provide a direct and unambiguous approach to their followers. Since the subordinates will be provided with necessary direction, guidance, and support, they will be required to achieve expected results in exchange.

Laissez-Faire leadership

This type of leadership does not exercise strict control over their subordinates directly. Most of people in the team are supposed to be highly experienced individuals. Thus, most of them do not need strict control and supervision. Due to the certain disadvantages provided by the leadership, team members may suffer from lack of communication, feedback for improvement and at the end, they may fail to meet the deadline for project completion.

Laissez-faire leaders provide a good environment to subordinates as well as empower them to take decisions themselves. As the subordinates have full authority on making decisions, laissez-faire leaders do not usually give feedback on the accomplished tasks.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is defined as the style where the leader either rewards or punishes the employee for the task accomplished. Several studies on leadership found that when the transactional leadership is employed in the organization, the mutual trust between the leader and the task-holder develops. If there is a mistake in the work of subordinates, employees are going to be punished. Thus, employees may perform not at their best, and they

may be afraid of making a mistake. As a result, they are less likely to work on new projects and learn new skills and knowledge. In contrast, employees who perform at their best are given good motivation in terms of rewards making them more motivated to work harder.

Transactional leadership, the system based on rewards is used to motivate the followers. Though, the motivation given through such approach does not last long.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders are reported to work based on the balanced approach. This can be explained by the fact that they help their subordinates to solve some of the challenging issues at the same time they teach their subordinates about the ways of tackling the problems in the similar context. Therefore, researchers believe that role of the transformational leaders can be observed regarding bringing the motivational level of their employees to the stage of self-actualization. Moreover, most common qualities that are used to describe the personality of transformational leaders include charisma, intellectual stimulation. Another name for transformational leadership is a facilitator, in other words, in this case, team members and leaders motivate each other in order to achieve high levels of performance and motivations. Thus, it is considered as one of the most commonly adopted types of leadership where team members encourage each other by different means in order to achieve organizational goals and long-term plans. Unlike other types of leadership, this type of leadership has a high level of communication between the team members. Therefore, the case of transformational leadership was related to the increased levels of motivation, higher job satisfaction, commitment, productivity, and performance. Thus, transformational leader's control, vision, and enthusiasm inspiring its followers lead to higher

results in the management. In this context, the four essential components of the transformational leaders need to be reviewed.

First is the individual consideration (Mumford et al 2000). The second one is intellectual stimulation, which means encouraging the followers to try seeing the issue from the other side and broaden the outlook on specific matters. Third, the inspirational motivation, where the leader stresses on the particular importance of an employee in the team which helps the organization to reach the goal and successful cooperation and accomplishment of the project (Chen et al. 2005).

Transformational leadership, this style serves to improve the collaboration among organization members (Keegan et al., 2004; Bass and Avolio J., 1990; Pearce, 1981). Transformational leaders let their followers feel as the part of the organization. Such leaders have a strong inspirational vision to encourage the employees of the organization care about the company goals than their own goals and interests. Such leaders are believed to be enthusiastic and energetic.

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Formal vs. Informal Leadership

Generally speaking, individuals who are assigned titles and positions of authority are expected to provide leadership. Because that leadership role is officially recognized, this is known as **formal leadership**. However, there are plenty of individuals who have formal leadership positions but do not actually provide strong leadership. This is often problematic and can leave the organization lacking direction and purpose.

There are also individuals who do not have official positions of leadership but who do exhibit leadership qualities and practices. They help create the company vision with innovative ideas, and they inspire and motivate their coworkers. When leadership is exhibited without an official position, it is known as **informal leadership**. This is a valuable trait for an employee to have

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When asked the question, "What do leaders do?", many professionals will respond that the leader's singular job is to "get results". Daniel Goleman (2000), in his article "Leadership That Gets Results", expresses that virtually no quantitative research has demonstrated which precise leadership behaviors yield positive results. He continues that literally thousands of "leadership experts" have made careers of evaluating and coaching executives, all in pursuit of producing business people who can transform and turn bold objectives into reality – be they strategic, financial, or organizational.

Several common threads emerge from the core literature which can be drawn upon to define successful leadership. While Latham's (2014) work, similar to the research of Palmer, Walls, Burgess, and Stough (2001), admit to the benefits of transformational leadership, as does the research of Bottomley, Burgess, and Fox (2014); Latham (2014) concedes transformational leadership does not completely meet the needs of today's complex environment and workforce. Instead, Latham (2014) supports the concept of servant leadership, much as Rohm and Osula's (2013) research concludes, stating that servant leadership appeals to the needs of a multi-generation labor force. The research findings of multiple works agree that there is no singular answer to a leadership approach, but instead settle on the realization that multiple approaches, used at the appropriate times, are more apt to render positive outcomes.

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2. Leadership vs. Management

The terms "management" and "leadership" have been used interchangeably, yet there are clear similarities and differences between them. Both terms suggest directing the activities of others. In one definition, managers do so by focusing on the organization and performance of tasks and by aiming at efficiency, while leaders engage others by inspiring a shared vision and effectiveness. Managerial work tends to be more transactional, emphasizing processes, coordination, and motivation, while leadership has an emotional appeal, is based on relationships with followers, and seeks to transform.

One traditional way of understanding differences between managers and leaders is that people manage things but leader, lead other people. More concretely, managers administrate and maintain the systems and processes by which work gets done. Their work includes planning, organizing, staffing, leading, directing, and controlling the activities of individuals, teams, or whole organizations for the purpose of accomplishing a goal. Basically, managers are results-oriented problem-solvers with responsibility for day-to-day functions who focus on the immediate, shorter-term needs of an organization.

In contrast, leaders take the long-term view and have responsibility for where a team or organization is heading and what it achieves. They challenge the status quo, make change happen, and work to develop the capabilities of people to contribute to achieving their shared goals. Additionally, leaders act as figureheads for their teams and organizations by representing their vision and values to outsiders. This definition of leadership may create a negative bias against managers as less noble or less important: "Leader" suggests a heroic figure, rallying people to unite under a common cause, while "manager" calls to mind less charismatic individuals who are focused solely on getting things done.

Management versus leadership. http://oer2go.org/mods/en-boundless/www.boundless.com/management/textbooks/boundless-management-textbook/leadership-9/defining-leadership-68/management-versus-leadership-338-3993/index.html Content and user contributions on this site are licensed under

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To help distinguish between leadership and management, consider the following sets of terms associated with each category:

Leadership	Management
• Influencing • Change • Direction • Vision • Innovating • Developing • Long-term • Originating • Creating • Motivating • Inspiring • People • Big Ideas	• Planning • Organizing • Controlling • Stability • Administering • Maintaining • Implementing • Instructing • Resources • Budgeting • Scheduling • Details

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Gender and the role it plays in management and leadership
Gender continues to play a role in workforce issues. Revolutions

such as "Me Too" have offered women an avenue to speak up and out against injustices they face in the workplace. Aside from the looming and disturbing sexual assault parameters that "Me Too" is based on, this movement has granted women a larger, more unified voice to request equality in the workplace. The increased opportunities include, but are not limited to, the deterrence of wage differentials and receiving consideration for high-level positions based on their worth and not their gender.

Unfortunately, Gender roles continue to play a significant role in workplace positions, specifically when utilizing the differences between management and leadership. As outlined in the *Cultivating Your Leadership Capabilities* (2019, Ch. 2), the differences are that managers manage "things" while leaders lead people. These differences in management and leadership should apply to leaders regardless of their gender, but, according to historical context, the distinction is much more prevalent between male and female leaders and managers.

What's it all about?

Throughout examining the role gender plays in the workplace, I have discovered that there is a distinction made in terms of characteristics of male versus female leaders. There is a type or "brand" put on each gender; that men are more rigid and agentic, while women are more communal and amiable (Carli, 2007, p. 66 para. 1). Using these characteristics, we can draw comparisons between the differences of management versus leadership. If these characteristics of gender roles in the workplace and differences in management and leadership align, we can then determine a causal connection as to why many women still fail to obtain equality in workplace statuses.

To understand fully the differences in observed characteristics between the genders, we can turn to Linda Carli and Alice Eagly's research. In their article, the authors cite the differences between the genders by stating, "...the clash is between two sets of associations: communal and agentic" (Carli, 2007, p. 66, para. 1). Communal can be defined as one being based in a community, or

more colloquially, a people person; someone everyone can turn to for answers. Agentic, on the other hand, can be defined as someone who is assertive, competitive, and attentive to the task at hand. Carli then goes on to explain, "Women are associated with communal qualities…being especially affectionate, helpful, friendly, kind, and sympathetic, as well as interpersonally soft-spoken, gentle, and sensitive. Men are associated with agentic qualities, which convey assertion and control" (Carli, 2007, p. 66, para. 1).

According to Spencer (2019), we can begin to base these distinctions in the characteristics of management or leadership by stating, "managers administrate and maintain the systems and processes by which work gets done…leaders take the long term view and have responsibility for where a team or organization is heading and what it achieves" (paras. 2 and 3). By using the definitions set in the paragraph above, we can draw parallels to the descriptions of management and leadership, and see the causal relationship each description brings in order to illuminate the differences between men and women in the workplace.

Is History the Enemy of Progression?

The distinctions between management and leadership can be experienced in most modern workplaces. We all have experiences where we can point to a certain supervisor and, using Spencer's definition, determine whether or not they were more a manager or a leader. What is interesting about this is, we usually do not make those distinctions firmly on the gender of the supervisor. But, by utilizing intensive research, we are able to draw those parallels between management and leadership, based in gender.

Referring back to Linda Carli and Alice Eagly's research, we can begin to understand the characteristics that lend themselves to a firm distinction between men and women in the workplace. Although we have discussed agentic characteristics as more rigid, unsympathetic, and "cold", Carli and Eagly wrote, "the agentic traits are associated in most people's minds with effective leadership – perhaps because a long history of male domination of leadership roles has made it difficult to separate the leader associations from

the male associations" (Carli, 2007, p. 66, para. 1). According to Carli and Eagly, history of workplace norms can be blamed for the innate feeling most employees have towards male leaders; that they are effective because they are men. This gives women less "wiggle room" when vying for top tier positions. Carli and Eagly wrote, "Women find themselves in a double bind. If they are highly communal, they may be criticized for not being agentic enough. But if they are highly agentic, they may be criticized for lack of communion" (Carli, 2007, p. 66, para. 1).

Carole Elliot and Valerie Stead wrote, the "literature that does address gender and leadership specifically there has been a tendency to label leadership as either masculine or feminine in style" (Elliott & Stead, 2008, p. 163). Masculine and feminine leadership styles can be traced back to Carli's interpretation (communal or agentic) but also connected to Spencer's text about the differences in characteristics between management and leadership.

The history of men in leadership roles can be based in the patriarchal norms of society. Societally, men were expected to provide for families. This societal pressure to provide has allowed me to absorb both the communal and agentic tendencies for themselves, without leaving room for women to utilize either effectively in the workplace. Eric Arthrell wrote, in a report published by Deliotte Insights, that there are four themes that characterize men in the workplace; "It's on me, I'm terrified, I can't turn to anyone, and Show me it's okay" (Arthrell, 2019, p. 10). These four themes help explain why men are thrust into an idea that they need to achieve leadership, or status in the workplace, in order to provide for their families. The theme of "I'm terrified" is particularly interesting because it is grounded in the historical idea laid out previously. In the report, it is explained that "men are afraid of failure, which leads them to overcompensate with hypercompetitive behavior to mask their insecurity and earn professional success" (Arthrell, 2019, p. 10). This innate insecurity stems from the

"protector" and "provider" societal norms that were shaped early on in western civilization.

Knowing this historical and societal context, the differences between management and leadership as it relates to gender is prevalent in workplace equities. To reiterate the points made in Spencer's (2019) article "managers are results-oriented problem-solvers with responsibility for day-to-day functions who focus on the immediate, shorter-term needs of an organization" (para. 2). Tying this to Carli's (2007) work, we can deduce that managers most align with the agentic characteristics (i.e. directing, administering, result driven individuals). Leaders, as described by Spencer (2019), "take the long-term view and have responsibility for where a team or organization is heading and what it achieves. They challenge the status quo, make change happen, and work to develop the capabilities of people to contribute to achieving their shared goals" (para. 3). In alignment with Carli's text, leaders can be described as more communal; focused on the health and strength of the team in order to ensure successful results.

According to Carrie Kerpen (2018), there was a simple reason why, in spite of being more aligned with the leader role, women were not considered to become leaders as frequently; she writes, "since men have been in charge of everything forever because they designed all the systems where people who were not men would contribute their labor either freely or for undervalued wages, its worked out really well for them to run everything" (Kerpen, 2018, para. 9). Utilizing Kerpen's explanation, it is clearer to claim that Spencer's (2019) highlights and Carli's (2007) explanation of the characteristics of the modern workplace authority figure grant us insight into how gender can and does play a role in whether women or men are managers or leaders.

Time for much needed change

The research above shows that gender disparity in management and leadership will continue to exist due to historical context and stagnant organizational models. Kerpen's statement that men control and created every institutional system in order to reap the

benefits is disturbing yet historically accurate. Management and leadership, as defined through agentic and communal properties, can provide a rift between gender equalities in the workplace.

Throughout the research, I have made clear that the agentic qualities more aligned with the management, while communal qualities aligned with leadership. Those distinctions help explain that men are more agentic, and therefore managerial, which then prompts the response that women are more communal, and therefore more prone to leadership. It can even be argued that women would make even better leaders due to this distinction. But, as we have learned through historical context, the patriarchal societal norms constrict the growth in both gender equality and the foray into management and leadership. This explanation speaks to Eagly and Carli's idea of a double bind that women face in the workplace (2007). Women who are more communal will not be considered strong leaders because of their "soft" persona or demeanor. Women who are more agentic are viewed as too harsh, and not communal enough. It is a struggle that continues in the modern workplace.

In order to fully understand why these distinctions have been made for so long, I turned to historical context to explain. Men have been considered the standard bearers in organizational management and leadership for so long now that society has come to expect men in leadership roles. There was never an opportunity for women to grow and climb in an organization because of the societal structures in place. Over time, the structures and parameters have slowly begun to break down, but we are still very far off from eliminating them completely. Until such a time, women will continue to have struggles in organizational structures.

Conclusion

Although I argue that this distinction between management and leadership, and men and women, is continuing to be a pervasive issue in the modern workplace, I am not ignorant to the fact that there are continued attempts to remedy gender inequalities across all workplaces. It is important to continue to aim towards gender

equality in the workplace, especially when society has had these strict gender parameters for so long. There is much needed change that should happen, and as professionals, we need to continue to support the efforts to instill those changes.

Everything takes time, if we continue to make conscious efforts toward gender equality in the workplace, then our organizations will continue to grow and succeed and influence change in other organizations. History should not be the enemy of progression, but it can sometimes cloud the judgment of organizational leaders, allowing them to continue to operate as they always have. Breaking the mold is difficult, but, as mentioned, women are stepping up and fighting against these inequalities daily through movements such as "Me Too". Change is good, changes to the norms of gender inequalities is even better.

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3. Emotional Intelligence

In recent years, studies regarding emotions have become more prevalent as new innovative technology has made it possible to view the human brain at work (Caruso & Salovey, 2004). We are now able to see firsthand how the brain operates while we think. This new neurobiological data allows one to see how the brain reacts when someone feels happy, sad, angry, and loved (Caruso & Salovey, 2004). Peter Salovey and David Caruso suggest that the brain's center of emotion is an integral part of what it means to think, reason, and be intelligent, thus making emotional intelligence a crucial component in understanding one's own emotions and the emotions of others (Caruso & Salovey, 2004).

To have a better understanding of emotional intelligence one must first investigate its two component terms-emotion and intelligence. Salovey, Bracket, & Mayer (2007) propose that emotions are organized responses crossing the physiological, cognitive, motivational, and experiential subsystems of the brain. Once viewed as "disorganized interruptions of mental activity that should be controlled or acute disturbances of the individual as a whole, emotions are now seen as "motivating forces which are processes which arouse, sustain, and direct activity" (Salovey, Bracket, & Mayer, 2007, p. 2).

While the definition of intelligence varies from one theorist to the next, current conceptualizations suggest that intelligence involves the ability to learn and retain knowledge, recognize problems and put knowledge to use; and solve problems, taking the information one has learned and applying it to find solutions to problems they encounter in the world around them (Cherry, 2018).

Emotional Intelligence- Salovey and Mayer Theory

The first known academic use of the term emotional intelligence (EI) came from Wayne Leon Payne in 1986 when he wrote an unpublished doctorate dissertation titled "A Study of Emotion:

Developing Emotional Intelligence." It wasn't until 1990, when Peter Salovey and John Mayer, published the first paper on EI in a scientific psychological journal, that the concept of EI became more publicly recognized (Bechtoldt, 2008). In the article, Salovey and Mayer contemplated ways to measure the differences in areas of emotion. They realized that when it comes to identifying their own feelings, the feelings of others, and solving problems related to emotional issues, some people managed better than others (Bechtoldt, 2008).

Salovey and Mayer defined emotional intelligence as a "subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own emotions and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's own thinking and actions" (Bechtoldt, 2008). They went on to define EI again in 1997 as:

- the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotions;
- the ability to access and generate feelings when they facilitate thought;
- the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge;
- and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997a, p. 10)

Salovey & Mayer Four Branch Model

Salovey and Mayer developed the Four Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence. The four branches consist of:

1. Emotional Perception and Expression
2. Emotional Facilitation of Thought (Using Emotional Intelligence)
3. Emotional Understanding
4. Emotional Management

Emotional perception and expression relate to the ability to identify emotions in one's physical and psychological states; the ability to

identify emotion in others; the ability to express emotions accurately and to express needs related to them; and finally, the ability to discriminate between accurate/honest and inaccurate/dishonest, feelings (Salovey, et al., 2007). According to Salovey, Brackett and Mayer (2007), without these competencies in the first branch, achieving emotional intelligence is impossible.

Emotional intelligence involves registering, attending to, and deciphering emotional messages as they are expressed in facial expressions, voice tone, or cultural artifacts. A person who sees the fleeting expression of fear in the face of another understands much more about the other person's emotions and thoughts than someone who misses such a signal (Salovey, et al., 2007).

The second branch of emotional intelligence concerns emotional facilitation of cognitive activities. It involves using emotions to harness and facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem solving (Grewal & Salovey, 2005). Emotions prioritize thinking. In other words, something we respond to emotionally, is something that gets our attention. Having a good system of emotional input, therefore, should helped direct thinking toward matters that are truly important" (Mayer & Salovey, 1997b, p. 1)

Understanding and Analyzing Emotions is the third branch of Salovey and Mayer's Four Brand Model. This third branch "concerns the ability to understand emotions and to utilize emotional knowledge" (Salovey, et al., 2007, p. 38). It involves recognizing the relationship between words and emotions themselves, and the causes of emotion; interpreting the meaning that emotions convey regarding relationships; understanding complex feelings; and recognizing transitions among emotions such as the transition from anger to satisfaction, or from anger to shame (Salovey, et al., 2007).

The fourth branch of Salovey and Mayer's emotional intelligence model is Emotional Management. "The ability to reflectively regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth is a critical component of being emotionally intelligent" (Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2007, p. 36.). The ability to manage emotions is the most advanced skill of EI. It involves staying open to feelings, both

pleasant and unpleasant, and "represents an interface of many factors including, emotional, and cognitive factors that must be recognized and balanced in order to manage and cope with feelings successfully" (Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2007, p. 36.).

Emotional Intelligence-The Goleman Theory

While Salovey and Mayer were the first to publish an article on emotional intelligence, true popularity of the term and concept of EI didn't take place until 1995, when Dan Goleman, published "Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More than IQ" (Bechtoldt, 2008). Goleman claimed that EI is a more important factor than Intelligent Quotient (IQ) to enjoying a successful life and maintaining fruitful and secure relationships with others (Karafyllis & Ulshofer, 2008). Goleman proposed a new definition of intelligence which included qualities such as optimism, self-control, and moral character, and suggests that unlike general intelligence, which is viewed as stable over time, EI can be learned and increased at any time during one's life (Karafyllis & Ulshofer, 2008). He also proposes that EI has a moral dimension stating that "emotional literacy goes hand and hand with education for character and moral development and for citizenship" (Karafyllis & Ulshofer, 2008, p.135).

Goleman's Four Competencies of Emotional Intelligence

Goleman defined emotional intelligence as "the ability to identify, assess, and control one's own emotions, the emotions of others, and that of groups" (Karafyllis & Ulshofer, 2008, p.135). For the purposes of this paper, the focus will be on Goleman's four emotional intelligent competencies which include Goleman's applied definitions and study of competency in self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management.

Self-Awareness. Self-awareness is one of the most recognized components of emotional intelligence as it entails knowing what one is feeling at any given time and understanding the impact those moods have on others (Karafyllis & Ulshofer, 2008). Peter Northouse indicates that self-awareness is the process in which individuals understand themselves, including their strengths and weaknesses, and the impact they have on others (Northouse, 2013).

In addition, processing self-awareness includes "reflecting on your core values, identity, emotions, motives, and goals while coming to grip with who you really are at the deepest level" (Northouse, 2013, p. 263).

Emotional intelligence specialist, Rachel Green, director of the Emotional Intelligent Institute defines self-awareness as "the skill in perceiving and understanding one's own emotions" (Green, n.d., p. 1). She admits there are many aspects to this including:

- Being able to know how you feel.
- Being able to understand the emotions that are driving your behavior, thinking or memory.
- Being aware of the emotions behind what you are saying and how you are relating to and communicating with people.
- Understanding what triggers emotions in you including; bias, prejudice and intolerances.
- Understanding the reasons behind some of your emotions. Some emotions arise because of our history and not always because of our immediate situation. (Green, n.d., p.5)

Self-awareness and leadership. Joseph Raelin, author of "Creating Leaderful Organizations" writes that leaderful practice begins with a personal awareness of your capabilities (Raelin, 2003). He states that to achieve success, many of us have forgotten who we are. "We need to be awakened" (Raelin, 2003, p. 60). The process of self-discovery offers us an opportunity to appreciate the mixture of life experiences that have led us to our present ways of being.

Many of us decide that we need to find an inner purpose to guide our everyday activities, while others need to become more aware of the gaps between intention and behavior (Raelin, 2003). Both require an ability to retrace one's reasoning and the behavioral steps that have led to the actions that play out in one's lives (Raelin, 2003).

Self-awareness means having a deep understanding of one's emotions, as well as strengths and limitations and one's values and motives (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). People with strong

self-awareness are realistic. They are not overly self-critical nor naively hopeful. They are honest with themselves and about themselves as well as honest about themselves with others (Goleman, et al., 2002). Goleman states that self-aware leaders understand their values, goals and dreams. They know where they are headed and why, and they are attuned to what feels right to them (Goleman, 2002). Self-aware people make time to reflect and think over things rather than reacting impulsively, thus bringing to their work life the thoughtful mode of self-reflection (Goleman, 2002). All these traits of self-awareness enable leaders to act with the conviction and authenticity that resonance requires (Goleman et al., 2002).

When leaders know themselves and have a clear sense of who they are and what they stand for, they have a strong anchor for their decisions and actions, therefore, people often see leaders who have greater self-awareness as authentic (Northouse, 2013). "If you don't understand your own motivations and behaviors, it's nearly impossible to develop an understanding of others. A lack of self-awareness can also thwart your ability to think rationally and apply technical capabilities" (Wilcox, 2016, p. 11).

Self-Management. Self-Management refers to managing ones' internal states, impulses, and resource (Goleman, 2015). According to Goleman, there are six competencies related to self-management including:

- Emotional Self-Control: Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check.
- Transparency: Maintaining integrity.
- Adaptability: Flexibility in handling change.
- Achievement: Striving to improve or meeting a standard of excellence.
- Initiative: Readiness to act on opportunities.
- Optimism: Persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks. (Goleman, 2015, p. 5)

Other noted definitions of self-management refer to:

the developmental (or anomic, when poorly executed) process of relating internal/individual (intention) to external/individual (behavior). It relates to all that we have evolved as a species about learning, growing and developing as human beings, physically, emotionally, mentally and spiritually–education, training, therapy, counseling and consulting, human potential activities, physical development and coaching. (Volckmann, 2002, p. 3).

Self-management and leadership. Self-management is a component of emotional intelligence as it resembles an ongoing inner conversation, freeing us from being a prisoner of our feelings (Goleman, et al., 2002). "It's what allows the mental clarity and concentrated energy that leadership demands, and what keeps disruptive emotions from throwing us off track" (Goleman, et al., 2002, p. 46). Leaders must first be able to handle their own emotions to be capable of managing those of others and "given the reality of emotional leakage, a leader's emotions have public consequences" (Goleman, et al., 2002, p. 46).

Self-management enables transparency, not only a leadership virtue, but a strength to any organization (Goleman, et al., 2002). Transparency conveys "an authentic openness to others about one's feelings, beliefs, and actions" (Goleman, et al., 2002, p. 47). It allows integrity and a sense that a leader can be trusted. Self-management at a primal level, hinges on impulse control, keeping us from acting in ways we won't regret (Goleman, et al., 2002). "The most meaningful act of responsibility that a leader can do is to control their own state of mind" (Goleman, et al., 2002, p. 47).

Social-Awareness and Interpersonal Skills. Social Intelligence (SI) is the ability to get along well with others (Albrecht, 2004). Often referred to as "people skills," SI embraces an awareness of situations and the social dynamics that govern them, and a knowledge of interaction styles and strategies that can help a person achieve his or her objectives in dealing with others. "It also involves a certain amount of self-insight and a consciousness of one's own perceptions and reaction patterns" (Albrecht, 2004, p. 1).

Karl Albrecht classifies behavior toward others as falling somewhere on a spectrum between "toxic" effect and "nourishing" effect (Albrecht, 2004). Toxic behavior makes people feel devalued, angry, frustrated, guilty or otherwise inadequate (Albrecht, 2004). Nourishing behavior makes people feel valued, respected, affirmed, encouraged or competent (Albrecht, 2004).

A continued pattern of toxic behavior indicates a low level of social intelligence – the inability to connect with people and influence them effectively. A continued pattern of nourishing behavior tends to make a person much more effective in dealing with others; nourishing behaviors are the indicators of high social intelligence. (Albrecht, 2004, p. 2)

Daniel Goleman contends that the main component of social awareness is empathy, having the ability to perceive the feelings of other people and how they see the world (Goleman, 2016).

Empathy is our social radar. It requires being able to read another's emotions; at a higher level, it entails sensing and responding to a person's unspoken concerns or feelings. At the highest levels, empathy is understanding the issues or concerns that lie behind another's feelings." (Goleman, 1998, p. 4)

Often issues around diversity and inclusion occur because people are lacking in exposure to people from other cultures or backgrounds. This lack of exposure can narrow our experiences and takes on the world which can impede diversity and inclusion (El-Attrash, 2017). If you see somebody similar to you, there's little to no effect. However, if you see someone different than you, it triggers implicit bias (El-Attrash, 2017). But while instinctual biases can be linked to the science of the brain, so can practicing empathy" (El-Attrash, 2017, p. 6).

"The key to embracing diversity with empathy is to better understand ourselves." We can't connect and be real with others if we can't be honest with ourselves" (El-Attrash, 2017, p. 9). Frieda Edgette, Certified Executive Coach and Organizational Strategist suggest five ways to reset your empathy:

1. **Be authentic.** Seek a better understanding of who you are. Develop self-awareness by exploring your identity, background, principles and life experiences.
2. **Self-manage.** What is your natural response when presented with difference or conflict? Do you fight, flee or freeze up? Take note of your default response. Develop an "in the moment" strategy to practice self-control like taking a deep breath, going for a run or just assuming a power pose.
3. **Practice active listening.** When interacting with others, watch verbal and non-verbal cues. Make sure you turn your inner voice off for a moment and focus entirely on the other person.
4. **Get curious.** Ask open-ended questions that start with "what" or "how." What experiences shaped the other person's life? Where do they get their information? What's most important to them? Your only mission is to understand.
5. **Respect, connect.** By being more open and more respectful of one another, we can improve communications and better connect, resulting in enhanced communications and productivity (El-Attrash, 2017).

Social awareness and leadership. Being aware of how others are feeling requires the ability to put ourselves in the shoes of others and to understand what another person is experiencing (Gassam, 2018). "Leaders that are more empathetic may be [more effective](#) at fostering diverse and inclusive workplaces" (Gassam, 2018, p. 1).

"At the most fundamental level, leadership requires an interaction between at least two individuals, where one individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2013, p. 5). Therefore, social awareness entails being aware of others, their feelings, moods and motivations. According to the Center of Creative Leadership, leaders who are socially aware and who have empathy not only perform better but "are better able to keep employees engaged, while employees with empathy provide customers with the very best experience" (Goleman, 2016, p. 7). Leaders who have high social awareness skills will have an easier

time navigating and managing people from a range of backgrounds. "Being an empathic leader means respecting and relating to people from varied backgrounds and perspectives. This will help create a workplace environment where diverse people can thrive, leading to organizational learning and consummate success" (University of Florida Training and Organizational Development, n.d., p. 2).

Several researchers have indicated that one of the primary responsibilities of a leader is to provide support to their followers (Carter, Lamm & Lamm, n.d.). In their research, Yukl, Gordon, and Taber (2002), defined supporting as, "showing consideration, acceptance, and concern for the needs and feelings of other people" (Carter, et al., n.d., p. 20). Leaders who support their followers are more accountable with higher levels of obligation (Carter, et al., n.d). They are more effective in helping those followers solve problems and through the process provide developmental opportunities (Carter, et al., n.d.). However, researchers have also cautioned against the overuse of support for followers. "In cases where follower responsibility is deferred to the leader, the leader has been seen as a scapegoat or surrogate for individual responsibility" (Carter, et al., n.d., p. 187).

Relationship Management. Relationship management is especially important when it comes to fostering diversity and inclusion in the workplace. People who are skilled in managing relationships are better equipped to handle conflict drawing out all parties, helping others understand differing perspectives and common ideals that everyone can endorse (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Individuals skilled in relationship management value teamwork and encourage an atmosphere that is friendly and safe, modeling respect, helpfulness and cooperation (Goleman, et al., 2002). "These competencies are critical for leading in a diverse organization effectively" (Morton, 2012, p. 11).

Relationship management & leadership. Relationship management has been identified as facilitating cooperation and team work. People skilled in managing relationships "build spirit and identity and spend time forging and cementing close

relationships beyond mere work obligations (Goleman, et al., 2002, p. 256). "Leaders have been found to achieve group cohesiveness by knowing followers, actively maintaining interpersonal relationships, and encouraging group preservation activities" (Carter, et al., n.d., p. 187).

All relationships take work, time, effort, and know-how. The know-how is emotional intelligence. Some approaches to help keep diverse and inclusive workplace relationships healthy and thriving include:

- Continuously build trust
    - Be consistent in your words and actions
- Tackle tough conversations
    - Look for agreement or common ground
    - Make sure people feel "heard"
    - Remain open and non-defensive
- Be open and curious
    - Share information about yourself
    - Show genuine interest and curiosity in others
- Always work on your communication style
    - Pay attention to times where your style has created confusion or troubled reactions
- Don't avoid the inevitable
    - Face reality
    - Use empathy and common purpose
- Align your intention with your impact
    - Think before you speak or act
    - Make careful observations (University of Florida Training and Organizational Development, n.d.).

Leaders who master personal competence by building their skills in self-awareness and self-management are the ones who excel at social competence and relationship management (University of

Florida Training and Organizational Development, n.d.). "Their social radar is soundly padded in empathy and people skills. Leveraging those, they build enduring relationships within the workplace environment and employ strategies to keep them strong and vitally connected" (University of Florida Training and Organizational Development, n.d., p. 3).

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4. Power and Influence

Leadership Power

Power is the ability to influence the behavior of others with or without resistance by using a variety of tactics to push or prompt action.

Power is the ability to get things done. People with power are able to influence others behavior to achieve a goal or objective. Others may resist attempts to make them do certain things, but an effective leader is able to overcome that resistance. Although people may regard power as evil or corrupt, power is a fact of organizational life and in itself is neither good nor bad. Leaders can use power to benefit others or to constrain them, to serve the organization's goals or to undermine them.

Another way to view power is as a resource that people use in relationships. When a leader influences subordinates, it is called downward power. We can also think of this as someone having power over someone else. On the other hand, subordinates can also exercise upward power by trying to influence the decisions of their leader. Indeed, leaders depend on their teams to get things done and in that way are subject to the power of team members.

The Six Sources of Power

Power comes from several sources, each of which has different effects on the targets of that power. Some derive from individual characteristics; others draw on aspects of an organization's structure. Six types of power are *legitimate*, *referent*, *expert*, *reward*, *coercive*, and *informational*.

Legitimate Power

Also called "positional power," this is the power individuals have from their role and status within an organization. Legitimate power usually involves formal authority delegated to the holder of the position.

Referent Power

Referent power comes from the ability of individuals to attract others and build their loyalty. It is based on the personality and interpersonal skills of the power holder. A person may be admired because of a specific personal trait, such as charisma or likability, and these positive feelings become the basis for interpersonal influence.

Expert Power

Expert power draws from a person's skills and knowledge and is especially potent when an organization has a high need for them. Narrower than most sources of power, the power of an expert typically applies only in the specific area of the person's expertise and credibility.

Reward Power

Reward power comes from the ability to confer valued material rewards or create other positive incentives. It refers to the degree to which the individual can provide external motivation to others

through benefits or gifts. In an organization, this motivation may include promotions, increases in pay, or extra time off.

Coercive Power

Coercive power is the threat and application of sanctions and other negative consequences. These can include direct punishment or the withholding of desired resources or rewards. Coercive power relies on fear to induce compliance.

Informational Power

Informational power comes from access to facts and knowledge that others find useful or valuable. That access can indicate relationships with other power holders and convey status that creates a positive impression. Informational power offers advantages in building credibility and rational persuasion. It may also serve as the basis for beneficial exchanges with others who seek that information.

All of these sources and uses of power can be combined to achieve a single aim, and individuals can often draw on more than one of them. In fact, the more sources of power to which a person has access, the greater the individual's overall power and ability to get things done.

Power Tactics

People use a variety of power tactics to push or prompt others into action. We can group these tactics into three categories: behavioral, rational, and structural.

Behavioral tactics can be soft or hard. Soft tactics take advantage of the relationship between person and the target. These tactics are more direct and interpersonal and can involve collaboration or other social interaction. Conversely, hard tactics are harsh, forceful, and direct and rely on concrete outcomes. However, they are not necessarily more powerful than soft tactics. In many circumstances, fear of social exclusion can be a much stronger motivator than some kind of physical punishment.

Rational tactics of influence make use of reasoning, logic, and objective judgment, whereas nonrational tactics rely on emotionalism and subjectivity. Examples of each include bargaining and persuasion (rational) and evasion and put downs (nonrational).

Structural tactics exploit aspects of the relationship between individual roles and positions. Bilateral tactics, such as collaboration and negotiation, involve reciprocity on the parts of both the person influencing and the target. Unilateral tactics, on the other hand, are enacted without any participation on the part of the target. These tactics include disengagement and *fait accompli*. Political approaches, such as playing two against one, take yet another approach to exert influence.

People tend to vary in their use of power tactics, with different types of people opting for different tactics. For instance, interpersonally-oriented people tend to use soft tactics, while extroverts employ a greater variety of power tactics than do introverts. Studies have shown that men tend to use bilateral and direct tactics, whereas women tend to use unilateral and indirect tactics. People will also choose different tactics based on the group situation and according to whom they are trying to influence. In the face of resistance, people are more likely to shift from soft to hard tactics to achieve their aims.

A Leader's Influence. http://oer2go.org/mods/en-boundless/ www.boundless.com/management/textbooks/boundless-

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The Role of Influence in Leadership

Influence occurs when a person's emotions, opinions, or behaviors are affected by others. It is an important component of a leader's ability to use power and maintain respect in an organization. Influence is apparent in the form of peer pressure, socialization, conformity, obedience, and persuasion. The ability to influence is an important asset for leaders, and it is also an important skill for those in sales, marketing, politics, and law.

In 1958, Harvard psychologist Herbert Kelman identified three broad varieties of social influence: compliance, identification, and internalization. Compliance involves people behaving the way others expect them to whether they agree with doing so or not. Obeying the instructions of a crossing guard or an authority figure is an example of compliance. Identification is when people behave according to what they think is valued by those who are well-liked and respected, such as a celebrity. Status is a key aspect of identification: when people purchase something highly coveted by many others, such as the latest smartphone, they are under the influence of identification. Internalization is when people accept, either explicitly or privately, a belief or set of values that leads to behavior that reflects those values. An example is following the tenets of one's religion.

How Leaders Use Influence

In an organization, a leader can use these three types of influence to motivate people and achieve objectives. For example, compliance is a means of maintaining order in the workplace, such as when employees are expected to follow the rules set by their supervisors. Similarly, identification happens when people seek to imitate and follow the actions of people they look up to and respect, for example a more experienced co-worker or trusted supervisor. Internalization results when employees embrace the vision and values of a leader and develop a commitment to fulfilling them.

Leaders use these types of influence to motivate the behaviors and actions needed to accomplish tasks and achieve goals. Individuals differ in how susceptible they are to each type of influence. Some workers may care a great deal about what others think of them and thus be more amenable to identifying the cues for how to behave. Other individuals may want to believe strongly in what they do and so seek to internalize a set of values to guide them. In organizations and in most parts of life, sources of influence are all around us. As a result, our behavior can be shaped by how others communicate with us and how we see them.

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5. Developing Leadership Skills

Methods of Leadership Development

Leader development takes place through multiple mechanisms: formal instruction, developmental job assignments, 360-degree feedback, executive coaching, and self-directed learning. These approaches may occur independently but are more effective in combination.

Formal Training

Organizations often offer formal training programs to their leaders. Traditional styles provide leaders with required knowledge and skills in a particular area using coursework, practice, "overlearning" with rehearsals, and feedback (Kozlowski, 1998). This traditional lecture-based classroom training is useful; however, its limitations include the question of a leader's ability to transfer the information from a training environment to a work setting.

Developmental Job Assignment

Following formal training, organizations can assign leaders to developmental jobs that target the newly acquired skills. A job that is developmental is one in which leaders learn, undergo personal change, and gain leadership skills resulting from the roles,

responsibilities, and tasks involved in that job. Developmental job assignments are one of the most effective forms of leader development. A "stretch" or developmental assignment challenges leaders' new skills and pushes them out of their comfort zone to operate in a more complex environment, one that involves new elements, problems, and dilemmas to resolve.

360-Degree Feedback

The 360-degree feedback approach is a necessary component of leader development that allows leaders to maximize learning opportunities from their current assignment. It systematically provides leaders with perceptions of their performance from a full circle of viewpoints, including subordinates, peers, superiors, and the leader's own self-assessment. With information coming from so many different sources, the messages may be contradictory and difficult to interpret. However, when several different sources concur on a similar perspective, whether a strength or weakness, the clarity of the message increases. For this mechanism to be effective, the leader must accept feedback and be open and willing to make changes. Coaching is an effective way to facilitate 360-degree feedback and help effect change using open discussion.

Coaching

Leadership coaching focuses on enhancing the leader's effectiveness, along with the effectiveness of the team and organization. It involves an intense, one-on-one relationship aimed at imparting important lessons through assessment, challenge, and support. Although the goal of coaching is sometimes to correct a fault, it is used more and more to help already successful leaders

move to the next level of increased responsibilities and new and complex challenges. Coaching aims to move leaders toward measurable goals that contribute to individual and organizational growth.

Self-directed Learning

Using self-directed learning, individual leaders teach themselves new skills by selecting areas for development, choosing learning avenues, and identifying resources. This type of development is a self-paced process that aims not only to acquire new skills but also to gain a broader perspective on leadership responsibilities and what it takes to succeed as a leader.

Leadership Development Models

McCauley, Van Veslor, and Ruderman (2010) described a two-part model for developing leaders. The first part identifies three elements that combine to make developmental experiences stronger: assessment, challenge, and support. Assessment lets leaders know where they stand in areas of strengths, current performance level, and developmental needs. Challenging experiences are ones that stretch leaders' ability to work outside of their comfort zone, develop new skills and abilities, and provide important opportunities to learn. Support—which comes in the form of bosses, co-workers, friends, family, coaches, and mentors—enables leaders to handle the struggle of developing.

The second part of the leader-development model illustrates that the development process involves a variety of developmental experiences and the ability to learn from them. These experiences and the ability to learn also have an impact on each other: leaders

with a high ability to learn from experience will seek out developmental experiences, and through these experiences leaders increase their ability to learn.

The leader-development process is rooted in a particular leadership context, which includes elements such as age, culture, economic conditions, population gender, organizational purpose and mission, and business strategy. This environment molds the leader development process. Along with assessment, challenge and support, leadership contexts are important aspects of the leader-development model.

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6. Katz Three Skills

Robert Katz identifies three critical skill sets for successful leaders: technical skills, interpersonal (or human) skills, and conceptual skills. Leaders must possess certain technical skills that assist them in optimizing managerial performance. While these three broad skill categories encompass a wide spectrum of capabilities, each category describes the way in which these skills interact with management at various levels.

Skills of Successful Leaders

Defining Technical Skills

Of the three skill sets identified by Katz, technical skills are the broadest, most easily defined category. A technical skill is defined as a learned capacity in just about any given field of work, study, or even play. For example, the quarterback of a football team must know how to plant his feet and how to position his arm for accuracy and distance—both technical skills. A mechanic needs to be able to deconstruct and reconstruct an engine, to employ various machinery (lifts, computer scanning equipment, etc.), and to install a muffler.

Leaders also need a broad range of technical know-how. All industries need management, and management must exist at various organizational levels. A technical skill for a leader might include a working understanding of a piece of equipment: the ability

to coach the employee on its operation, as well as communicate to people the basic functions of the machinery.

Leaders in other corporate roles and at higher levels require critical technical skills. These can include office-based competencies such as typing, programming, website maintenance, writing, giving presentations, and using software such as Microsoft Office or Adobe. Office environments require a complex set of communicative, technological, and data-organization skills in order to optimize managerial performance.

Successful leaders in an organization must learn to use the technological assets at their disposal, collecting critical information and data to communicate upward for strategic planning. An example of information management is a mid-level manager in the automotive industry who is responsible for recognizing global marketing potential. This individual must be capable of realizing the legal, demographic, social, technological, and economic considerations of entering a market; the manager will use effective research and delegation skills and also consolidate the information into a useful presentation using technological and communicative skills.

Katz postulates that the higher up in the organization an individual rises, the more conceptual skills (and fewer technical skills) are necessary. Senior managers need fewer technical skills because strategic decision-making is inherently more conceptual; mid- and lower-level skills such as data collection, assessment, and discussion are all more technical. Even so, all disciplines of management require a broad range of skill sets for effective business processes to occur.

Conceptual Skills

Conceptual skills revolve around generating ideas through creative intuitions and a comprehensive understanding of a given context.

Conceptual skills represent one of the three skill sets identified by Robert Katz as critical to leader's success in an organization. While each skill set is useful in different circumstances, conceptual skills tend to be most relevant in upper-level thinking and broad strategic situations (as opposed to lower-level and line management). As a result, conceptual skills are often viewed as critical success factors of leadership.

Conceptual thinking is difficult to define but can generally be considered as the ability to formulate ideas or mental abstractions in the mind. Conceptual skills primarily revolve around generating ideas, utilizing a combination of creative intuitions and a comprehensive understanding of a given context (i.e., incumbent 's industry, organizational mission and objectives, competitive dynamics, etc.). When combined with a variety of information, as well as a degree of creativity, conceptual thinking results in new ideas, unique strategies, and differentiation.

While all levels of leaders benefit from conceptual thinking, upper leadership spends the most time within this frame of mind (as opposed to thinking more technically—looking at and working with the detailed elements of a given operation or business process). Leaders are largely tasked with identifying and drafting a strategy for the broader operational and competitive approach of an organization.This strategic planning includes generating organizational values, policies, mission statements, ethics, procedures, and objectives. Creating this complex mix of concepts to use as an organizational foundation requires a great number of conceptual skills—formulating concepts and predicting their effects in an organizational setting.

While upper level leaders may use conceptual skills the most, all leaders must both understand and participate in the generation of company objectives and values. Of particular importance are the abilities to communicate these critical concepts to subordinates and the ability to gather useful information to convey to upper management so that the concepts can evolve. Collecting the results of conceptual thinking represent a feedback loop. Conceptual skills

are important in empowering leaders in all levels of an organization to observe the operations of an organization and frame them conceptually as an aspect of that organization's strategy, objectives, and policies. Conceptual thinking allows for accurate and timely feedback and organizational adaptability.

Interpersonal Skills

Over the years, the common definition of management has become less specific, as managerial functions can include staffing, directing, and reporting. Modern companies have fewer layers of management, as these companies instead rely on the delegation of responsibilities and authority to achieve goals. As a result, businesses often speak of leading or guiding, people rather than giving instructions for every action. Leading people represents a central component of human skills. Interpersonal skills differentiate a manager from a leader. A manager is simply manipulating resources to achieve a given objective, while a leader appeals to the human side of employees to generate creativity and motivation.These concepts of "manager" and "leader" can be distinguished within a team setting. A team leader who is unconcerned with team members' needs or who has a personal agenda that is perceived to be more important than the team's goals is more of a manager than a leader and may alienate team members. Conversely, team leaders who are admired and loyally followed are those who show concern for the team members as individuals with real needs and who place their team above their own personal agendas.

Realistically, most organizations need leaders who can view their teams analytically and objectively, evaluating inefficiencies and making unpopular choices. However, it is misleading to think that a manager has to be distant from or disliked by subordinates to execute these responsibilities. Creating a healthy environment

conducive to development, criticism, and higher degrees of achievement simply requires strong human skills, particularly in the realm of communication.

Skills of a Retail Manager. https://courses.lumenlearning.com/wm-retailmanagement/chapter/skills-of-a-retail-manager/ From: Additional Roles and Skills of Managers. *[CC BY-SA: Attribution-ShareAlike](#)*

7. Trait, contingency, behavioral, and full-range theories

For a number of years, researchers have examined leadership to discover how successful leaders are created. Experts have proposed several theories, including the trait, behavioral, contingency, and full-range models of leadership.

The Trait Theory of Leadership

The search for the characteristics or traits of effective leaders has been central to the study of leadership. Underlying this research is the assumption that leadership capabilities are rooted in characteristics possessed by individuals. Research in the field of trait theory has shown significant positive relationships between effective leadership and personality traits such as intelligence, extroversion, conscientiousness, self-efficacy, and openness to experience. These findings also show that individuals emerge as leaders across a variety of situations and tasks.

Four Theories of Leadership. http://oer2go.org/mods/en-boundless/www.boundless.com/management/textbooks/boundless-management-textbook/leadership-9/defining-leadership-68/four-theories-of-leadership-344-7580/index.html Content and user contributions on this site are licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0 with attribution required.

According to trait leadership theory, effective leaders have in common a pattern of personal characteristics that support their ability to mobilize others toward a shared vision. These traits include dimensions of personality and motives, sets of skills and capabilities, and behavior in social relationships. Using traits to explain effective leadership considers both characteristics that are inherited and attributes that are learned. This approach has been used to differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Understanding the importance of these traits can help organizations select, train, and develop leaders.

Leaders' Traits

Following studies of trait leadership, most leader traits can be organized into four groups:

- Personality: Patterns of behavior, such as adaptability and comfort with ambiguity, and dispositional tendencies, such as motives and values, are associated with effective leadership.
- Demographic: In this category, gender has received by far the most attention in terms of leadership; however, most scholars have found that gender is not a determining demographic trait, as male and female leaders are equally effective.
- Task competence: This relates to how individuals approach the execution and performance of tasks. Hoffman groups intelligence, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and emotional stability into this category.
- Interpersonal attributes:These relate to how a leader approaches social interactions. According to Hoffman and others (2011), traits such as extroversion and agreeableness are included in this category.

The Contingency Theory of Leadership

Stogdill and Mann found that while some traits were common across a number of studies, the overall evidence suggested that persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations. According to this approach, called contingency theory, no single psychological profile or set of enduring traits links directly to effective leadership. Instead, the interaction between those individual traits and the prevailing conditions is what creates effective leadership. In other words, contingency theory proposes that effective leadership is contingent on factors independent of an individual leader. As such, the theory predicts that effective leaders are those whose personal traits match the needs of the situation in which they find themselves. Fiedler's contingency model of leadership focuses on the interaction of leadership style and the situation (later called situational control). He identified three relevant aspects of the situation: the quality of the leader's relationships with others, how well structured their tasks were, and the leader's amount of formal authority.

The Behavioral Theory of Leadership

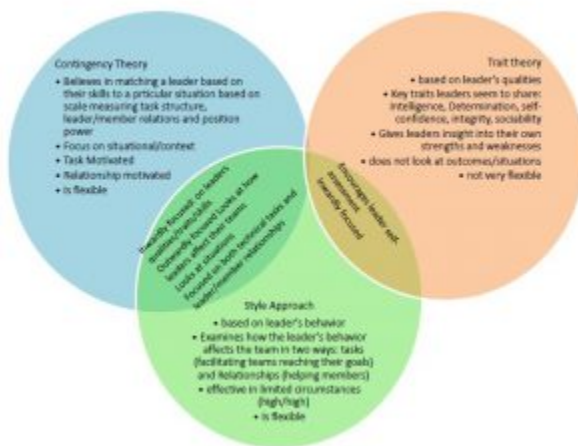In response to the early criticisms of the trait approach, theorists

began to research leadership as a set of behaviors. They evaluated what successful leaders did, developed a taxonomy of actions, and identified broad patterns that indicated different leadership styles. Behavioral theory also incorporates B.F. Skinner's theory of behavior modification, which takes into account the effect of reward and punishment on changing behavior. An example of this theory in action is a manager or leader who motivates desired behavior by scolding employees who arrive late to meetings and showing appreciation when they are early or on time.

The Full-Range Theory of Leadership

The full-range theory of leadership is a component of transformational leadership, which enhances motivation and morale by connecting the employee's sense of identity to a project and the collective identity of the organization. The four major components of the theory, which cover the full range of essential qualities of a good leader, are:

- Individualized consideration: the degree to which the leader attends to each follower's concerns and needs and acts as a mentor or coach
- Intellectual stimulation: the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions, takes risks, and solicits followers' ideas
- Inspirational motivation: the degree to which the leader articulates a vision that is appealing and inspiring to followers
- Idealized influence: the degree to which the leader provides a role model for high ethical behavior, instills pride, and gains respect and trust

Four Theories of Leadership. http://oer2go.org/mods/en-boundless/www.boundless.com/management/textbooks/boundless-management-textbook/leadership-9/defining-leadership-68/four-theories-of-leadership-344-7580/index.html

Styles and Traits theory. By Rebecca Jewett-Geragosian, (2018).

8. Path Goal Theory and Outstanding Leadership Theory

In 1971, Robert House introduced his version of a contingent theory of leadership known as the [Path-Goal theory](). According to House's theory, leaders' behavior is contingent upon the satisfaction, motivation, and [performance]() of their subordinates. House argued that the goal of the leader is to help followers identify their personal goals as well understand the [organization]()'s goals and find the path that will best help them achieve both. Because individual motivations and goals differ, leaders must modify their approach to fit the situation.

Leadership Styles

House defined four different leadership styles and noted that good leaders switch fluidly between them as the situation demands. He believed that leadership styles do not define types of leaders as much as they do types of behaviors. House's leadership styles include:

1. Directive, path-goal clarifying leader: The leader clearly defines what is expected of followers and tells them how to perform their tasks. The theory argues that this behavior has the most positive effect when the subordinates' role and task demands are ambiguous and intrinsically satisfying.
2. Achievement-oriented leader: The leader sets challenging goals for followers, expects them to perform at their highest level, and shows confidence in their ability to meet this

expectation. Occupations in which the achievement motive was most predominant were technical jobs, salespersons, scientists, engineers, and [entrepreneurs](#).

3. Participative leader: The leader seeks to collaborate with followers and involve them in the decision-making process. This behavior is dominant when subordinates are highly personally involved in their work.

4. Supportive leader: The main role of the leader is to be responsive to the emotional and psychological needs of followers. This behavior is especially needed in situations in which tasks or relationships are psychologically or physically distressing.

The Path-Goal model emphasizes the importance of the leader's ability to interpret follower's needs accurately and to respond flexibly to the requirements of a situation.

Outstanding Leadership Theory (OLT)

In 1994, House published *Organizational Behavior: The State of the Science* with Philip Podsakoff. House and Podsakoff attempted to summarize the behaviors and approaches of "outstanding leaders" that they obtained from some more modern theories and research findings. Using the Path-Goal model as a [framework](#), their Outstanding Leadership Theory (OLT) expanded the list of leadership behaviors required to channel follower's motivations and goals more effectively toward the leader's vision:

- Vision: Leaders are able to communicate a vision that meshes with the [values](#) of their followers.
- Passion and self-sacrifice: Leaders believe fully in their vision and are willing to make sacrifices in order to achieve it.
- Confidence, determination, and persistence: Leaders are

confident their vision is correct and take whatever action is
necessary to reach it.
- Image-building: Leaders are cognizant of how they are
  perceived by their followers. They strive to ensure followers
  view them in a positive light.
- Role-modeling: Leaders seek to model [qualities](#) such as
  [credibility](#) and trustworthiness that their followers would seek
  to emulate.
- [External](#) representation: Leaders are spokespersons for their
  organizations (for example, Steve Jobs).
- Expectations of and confidence in followers: Leaders trust that
  their followers can succeed and expect them to do so.
- Selective motive-arousal: Leaders are able to hone in on
  specific motives in followers and use them to push their
  followers to reach a goal.
- Frame alignment: Leaders align certain interests, values,
  actions, etc. between leadership and followers to inspire
  positive action.
- Inspirational [communication](#): Leaders are able to inspire
  followers to act using verbal and non-verbal communication.

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9. A Leader's Vision

A clear and well-communicated vision is essential for a leader to gain support and for followers to understand a leader's goals.

A vision is defined as a clear, distinctive, and specific view of the future, and is usually connected with strategic organizational advances. Effective leaders will clearly define a vision and communicate it in such a way as to foster enthusiasm and commitment throughout the organization. This ability to express a vision and use it to inspire others differentiates a leader from a manager.

Many researchers believe that vision is an essential quality of effective leaders, as important as the abilities to communicate and to build trust. Leader's decisions and strategies reflect their view of what an enterprise can be rather than what it currently is. A strong leader builds trust in the vision by acting in consistent ways with the vision and by demonstrating to others what it takes to make the vision a reality.

Vision is an essential component of an organization's success. A thriving organization will have a vision that is succinct, indicative of the direction that the company is heading, and widely understood throughout all levels of the organization. The more employees are aware of, understand, and believe in the vision, the more useful it is in directing their behavior on a daily basis.

Vision and mission are sometimes used interchangeably, but there is a useful distinction. A vision describes an organization's direction, while its mission defines its purpose. By focusing on the value an organization creates, the mission helps prioritize activities and provides a framework for decision-making.

Vision also plays a significant role in a leader's strategy for the

organization. By setting the direction, a vision underscores the necessity of all the areas of a business working toward the same goal. This unity of purpose often involves changing what is done and how, and aligning the activities and behavior of people is critical to fulfilling a leader's vision. A vision reduces ambiguity and provides focus—two benefits that are especially valuable in turbulent or rapidly changing times.

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10. Situational Leadership

Introduction

Situational theories of leadership work under the assumption that the most effective style of leadership changes from situation to situation. To be most effective and successful, a leader must be able to adapt his style and approach to diverse circumstances.

For example, some employees function better under a leader who is more autocratic and directive. For others, success will be more likely if the leader can step back and trust his team to make decisions and carry out plans without the leader's direct involvement. On a similar note, not all types of industries and business settings require the same skills and leadership traits in equal measure. Some fields demand a large measure of innovation, whereas, in others, personal charisma and relational connection with clients are far more important.

Different theories have been developed that recognize the situational aspects of leadership. Each theory attempts to provide its own analysis of how leadership can be most successful in various situations.

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

The term "situational leadership" is most commonly derived from and connected with Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard's **Situational Leadership Theory**. This approach to leadership suggests the need to match two key elements appropriately: the leader's leadership style and the followers' maturity or preparedness levels.

The theory identifies four main leadership approaches:

- **Telling:** Directive and authoritative approach. The leader makes decisions and tells employees what to do.
- **Selling:** The leader is still the decision-maker, but he communicates and works to persuade the employees rather than simply directing them.
- **Participating:** The leader works with the team members to make decisions together. He supports and encourages them and is more democratic.
- **Delegating:** The leader assigns decision-making responsibility to team members but oversees their work.

In addition to these four approaches to leadership, there are also four levels of follower maturity:

- **Level M1:** Followers have low competence and low commitment.
- **Level M2:** Followers have low competence, but high commitment.
- **Level M3:** Followers have high competence, but low commitment and confidence.
- **Level M4:** Followers have high competence and high commitment and confidence.
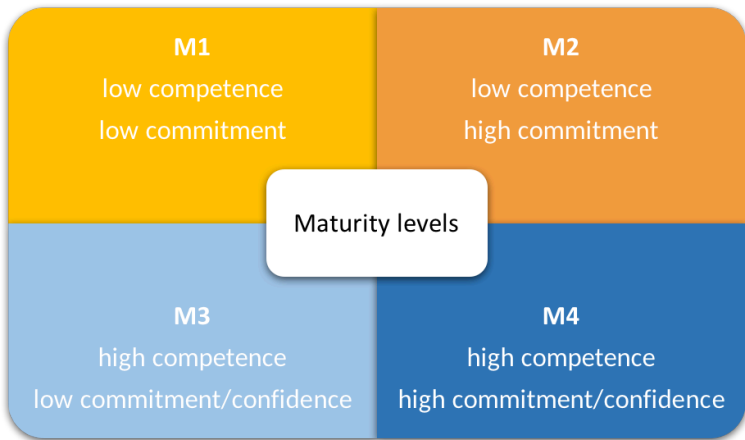
In Hersey and Blanchard's approach, the key to successful leadership is matching the proper leadership style to the corresponding maturity level of the employees. As a general rule, each of the four leadership styles is appropriate for the corresponding employee maturity level:

- The telling style works best for leading employees at the M1 level (low competence, low commitment).
- Selling style works best for leading employees at the M2 level (low competence, high commitment).
- The participating style works best for leading employees at the M3 level (high competence, low commitment/confidence).
- The delegating style works best for leading employees at the M4 level (high competence, high commitment/confidence).
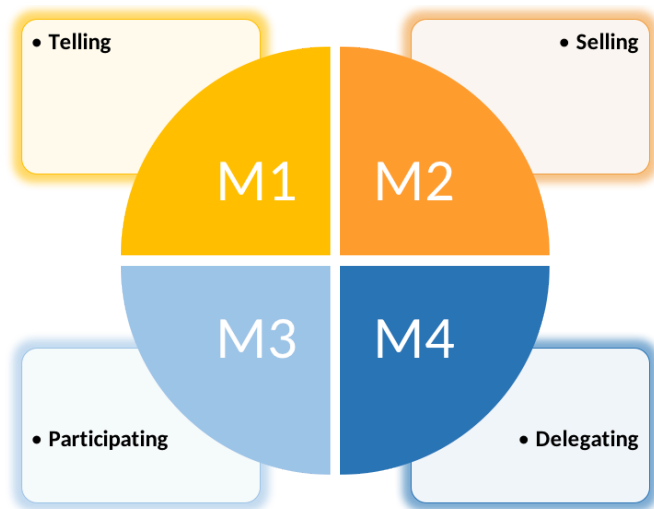
Maturity levels and leadership styles

Identifying the employee maturity level becomes a very important part of the process, and the leader must have the willingness and ability to use any of the four leadership styles as needed.

Goleman's Model of Situational Leadership

Another situational theory of leadership has been developed by Daniel Goleman. His theory incorporates his development of the concept of **emotional intelligence**. He develops that idea into six categories of situational leadership, describing the leadership style and suggesting when each style is most appropriate and likely to be successful:

Pacesetting Leader	The leader sets aggressive goals and standards and drives employees to reach them. This works with highly motivated and competent employees, but can lead to burnout due to the high energy demands and stress levels.
Authoritative Leader	The leader authoritatively provides a direction and goals for the team, expecting the team to follow his lead. The details are often left up to the team members. This works well when clear direction is needed but can be problematic if the team members are highly experienced and knowledgeable and might resent being dictated to.
Affiliative Leader	Positive reinforcement and morale-boosting style. The leader praises and encourages the employees, refraining from criticism or reprimand. The goal is to foster team bonding and connectedness, along with a sense of belonging. This approach works best in times of stress and trauma or when trust needs to be rebuilt. It is not likely to be sufficient as a long-term or exclusive strategy.
Coaching Leader	The leader focuses on helping individual employees build their skills and develop their talents. This approach works best when employees are receptive to guidance and willing to hear about their weaknesses and where they need to improve.
Democratic Leader	The leader intentionally involves followers in the decision-making process by seeking their opinion and allowing them a voice in the final decision. This works well when the leader is in need of guidance and/or the employees are highly qualified to contribute and there are not strenuous time constraints that require quick decisions.
Coercive Leader	The leader acts as the ultimate authority and demands immediate compliance with directions, even applying pressure as needed. This can be appropriate in times of crisis or disaster, but is not advisable in healthy situations.

Normative Decision Theory

One final theory we will look at is Vroom and Yetton's **Normative Decision Theory**. This approach is intended as a guide in determining the optimum amount of time and group input that should be committed to a decision. A leader has a number of options available to him in this regard:

- He can make a decision entirely by himself.
- He can use information from team members to make decisions.
- He can consult team members individually and ask their advice before making the decision.
- He can consult team members as a group before making the decision.
- He can consult the team as a group and allow the team as a whole to make the decision.

Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton provide a model that helps leaders decide when to use each approach. The model walks leaders through a series of questions about the decision to be made, and the answers will lead the decision maker to the suggested approach. The questions focus on a few key factors:

- Is decision quality highly important?
- Does the leader have sufficient information to make the decision?
- Is it highly important for team members to accept the decision?
- Are the team members likely to accept the leader's decision if he makes it individually? What if he makes it with their consultation?
- Do the team members' goals match those of the leader and organization?
- Is the problem structured and easily analyzed?
- Do team members have high levels of expertise in the matter to be decided?
- Do team members have high levels of competence in working together as a group?

Leaders are challenged not only to make good decisions but to decide who decides. At times, the best choice is to involve others in the decision.

Situation theories of leadership. Source text https://courses.lumenlearning.com/suny-principlesmanagement/ chapter/situational-theories-of-leadership/
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- Image: Leadership Approaches and Employee Maturity. **Authored by**: Aaron Spencer and Lumen Learning. **License**: *CC BY: Attribution*

11. Diversity and Inclusion

Diversity and Inclusion in the Workforce

Learning Objectives

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain the benefits of employee diversity in the workplace
- Discuss the challenges presented by workplace diversity

Diversity is not simply a box to be checked; rather, it is an approach to business that unites ethical management and high performance. Business leaders in the global economy recognize the benefits of a diverse workforce and see it as an organizational strength, not as a mere slogan or a form of regulatory compliance with the law. They recognize that diversity can enhance performance and drive innovation; conversely, adhering to the traditional business practices of the past can cost them talented employees and loyal customers.

A study by global management consulting firm McKinsey & Company indicates that businesses with gender and ethnic diversity outperform others. According to Mike Dillon, chief diversity and inclusion officer for PwC in San Francisco, "attracting, retaining and developing a diverse group of professionals stirs innovation and drives growth."

Living this goal means not only recruiting, hiring, and training talent from a wide demographic spectrum but also including all employees in every aspect of the organization.

Workplace Diversity

The twenty-first century workplace features much greater diversity than was common even a couple of generations ago. Individuals who might once have faced employment challenges because of religious beliefs, ability differences, or sexual orientation now regularly join their peers in interview pools and on the job. Each may bring a new outlook and different information to the table; employees can no longer take for granted that their coworkers think the same way they do. This pushes them to question their own assumptions, expand their understanding, and appreciate alternate viewpoints. The result is more creative ideas, approaches, and solutions. Thus, diversity may also enhance corporate decision-making.

Communicating with those who differ from us may require us to make an extra effort and even change our viewpoint, but it leads to better collaboration and more favorable outcomes overall, according to David Rock, director of the Neuro-Leadership Institute in New York City, who says diverse coworkers "challenge their own and others' thinking."

According to the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), organizational diversity now includes more than just racial, gender, and religious differences. It also encompasses different thinking styles and personality types, as well as other factors such as physical and cognitive abilities and sexual orientation, all of which influence the way people perceive the world. "Finding the right mix of individuals to work on teams, and creating the conditions in which they can excel, are key business goals for today's leaders, given that collaboration has become a paradigm of the twenty-first century workplace," according to an SHRM article.

Attracting workers who are not all alike is an important first step in the process of achieving greater diversity. However, managers cannot stop there. Their goals must also encompass inclusion, or the engagement of all employees in the corporate culture. "The far bigger challenge is how people interact with each other once they're

on the job," says Howard J. Ross, founder and chief learning officer at Cook Ross, a consulting firm specializing in diversity. "Diversity is being invited to the party; inclusion is being asked to dance. Diversity is about the ingredients, the mix of people and perspectives. Inclusion is about the container—the place that allows employees to feel they belong, to feel both accepted and different."
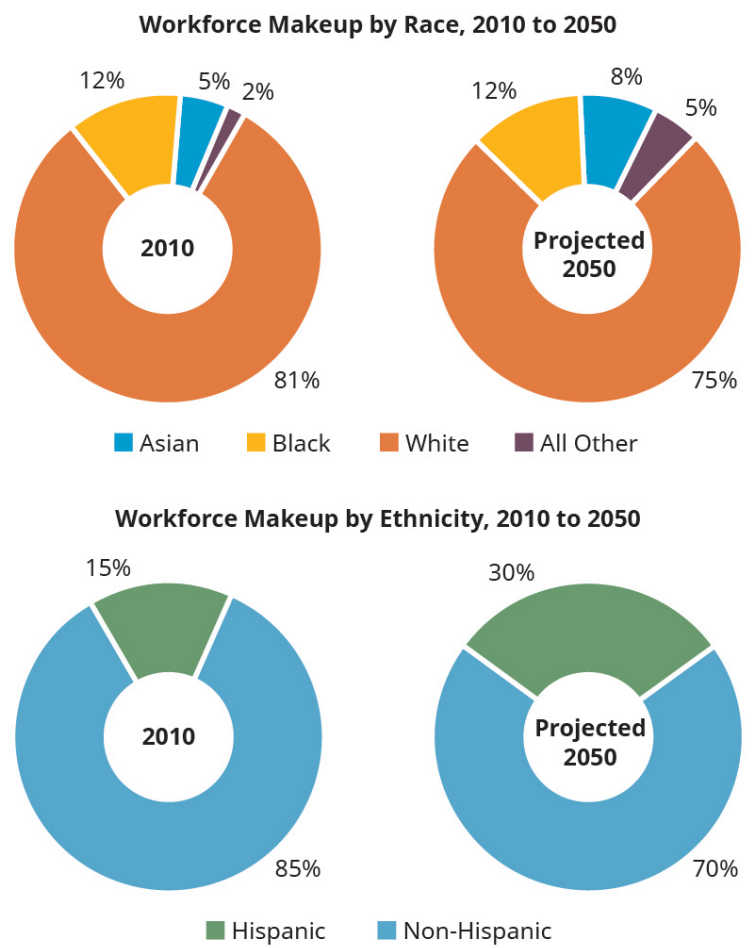
Workplace diversity is not a new policy idea; its origins date back to at least the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (CRA) or before. Census figures show that women made up less than 29 percent of the civilian workforce when Congress passed Title VII of the CRA prohibiting workplace discrimination. After passage of the law, gender diversity in the workplace expanded significantly. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), the percentage of women in the labor force increased from 48 percent in 1977 to a peak of 60 percent in 1999. Over the last five years, the percentage has held relatively steady at 57 percent. Over the past forty years, the total number of women in the labor force has risen from 41 million in 1977 to 71 million in 2017.

The BLS projects that the number of women in the U.S. labor force will reach 92 million in 2050 (an increase that far outstrips population growth).

The statistical data show a similar trend for African American, Asian American, and Hispanic workers ([(Figure)](#)). Just before passage of the CRA in 1964, the percentages of minorities in the official on-the-books workforce were relatively small compared with their representation in the total population. In 1966, Asians accounted for just 0.5 percent of private-sector employment, with Hispanics at 2.5 percent and African Americans at 8.2 percent.

However, Hispanic employment numbers have significantly increased since the CRA became law; they are expected to more than double from 15 percent in 2010 to 30 percent of the labor force in 2050. Similarly, Asian Americans are projected to increase their share from 5 to 8 percent between 2010 and 2050.

There is a distinct contrast in workforce demographics between 2010 and projected numbers for 2050. (credit: attribution: Copyright Rice University, OpenStax, under CC BY 4.0 license)

Workforce Makeup by Race, 2010 to 2050

2010
- 12%
- 5%
- 2%
- 81%

Projected 2050
- 12%
- 8%
- 5%
- 75%

■ Asian   ■ Black   ■ White   ■ All Other

Workforce Makeup by Ethnicity, 2010 to 2050

2010
- 15%
- 85%

Projected 2050
- 30%
- 70%

■ Hispanic   ■ Non-Hispanic

Much more progress remains to be made, however. For example, many people think of the technology sector as the workplace of

open-minded millennials. Yet Google, as one example of a large and successful company, revealed in its latest diversity statistics that its progress toward a more inclusive workforce may be steady but it is very slow. Men still account for the great majority of employees at the corporation; only about 30 percent are women, and women fill fewer than 20 percent of Google's technical roles ((Figure)). The company has shown a similar lack of gender diversity in leadership roles, where women hold fewer than 25 percent of positions. Despite modest progress, an ocean-sized gap remains to be narrowed. When it comes to ethnicity, approximately 56 percent of Google employees are white. About 35 percent are Asian, 3.5 percent are Latino, and 2.4 percent are black, and of the company's management and leadership roles, 68 percent are held by whites. Google is emblematic of the technology sector, and this graphic shows just how far from equality and diversity the industry remains. (credit: attribution: Copyright Rice University, OpenStax, under CC BY 4.0 license)

Google Workforce by Gender

Source: Donnelly, Grace. "Google's 2017 Diversity Report Shows Progress Hiring Women, Little Changes for Minority Workers." *Fortune.* June 29, 2017.
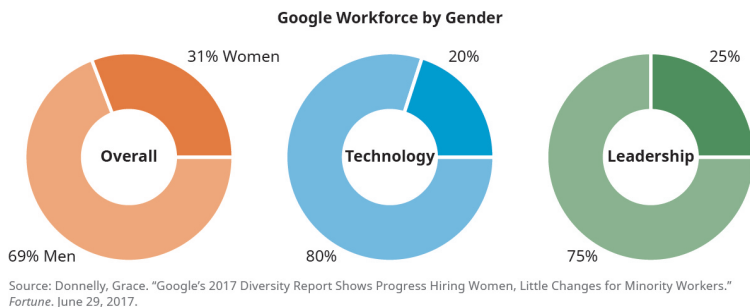
Google is not alone in coming up short on diversity. Recruiting and hiring a diverse workforce has been a challenge for most major technology companies, including Facebook, Apple, and Yahoo (now owned by Verizon); all have reported gender and ethnic shortfalls in their workforces.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) has made available 2014 data comparing the participation of women and

minorities in the high-technology sector with their participation in U.S. private-sector employment overall, and the results show the technology sector still lags.

Compared with all private-sector industries, the high-technology industry employs a larger share of whites (68.5%), Asian Americans (14%), and men (64%), and a smaller share of African Americans (7.4%), Latinos (8%), and women (36%). Whites also represent a much higher share of those in the executive category (83.3%), whereas other groups hold a significantly lower share, including African Americans (2%), Latinos (3.1%), and Asian Americans (10.6%). In addition, and perhaps not surprisingly, 80 percent of executives are men and only 20 percent are women. This compares negatively with all other private-sector industries, in which 70 percent of executives are men and 30 percent women.

Technology companies are generally not trying to hide the problem. Many have been publicly releasing diversity statistics since 2014, and they have been vocal about their intentions to close diversity gaps. More than thirty technology companies, including Intel, Spotify, Lyft, Airbnb, and Pinterest, each signed a written pledge to increase workforce diversity and inclusion, and Google pledged to spend more than $100 million to address diversity issues.

Diversity and inclusion are positive steps for business organizations, and despite their sometimes slow pace, the majority are moving in the right direction. Diversity strengthens the company's internal relationships with employees and improves employee morale, as well as its external relationships with customer groups. Communication, a core value of most successful businesses, becomes more effective with a diverse workforce. Performance improves for multiple reasons, not the least of which is that acknowledging diversity and respecting differences is the ethical thing to do.

Adding Value through Diversity

Diversity need not be a financial drag on a company, measured as a cost of compliance with no return on the investment. A recent McKinsey & Company study concluded that companies that adopt diversity policies do well financially, realizing what is sometimes called a diversity dividend. The study results demonstrated a statistically significant relationship of better financial performance from companies with a more diverse leadership team, as indicated in (Figure). Companies in the top 25 percent in terms of gender diversity were 15 percent more likely to post financial returns above their industry median in the United States. Likewise, companies in the top 25 percent of racial and/or ethnic diversity were 35 percent more likely to show returns exceeding their respective industry median.

Companies with gender and ethnic diversity generally outperform those without it. (credit: attribution: Copyright Rice University, OpenStax, under CC BY 4.0 license)

Likelihood of Financial Performance above Industry Median by Company Diversity Quartile
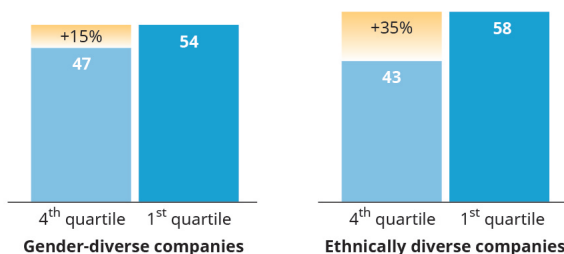
Source: Hunt, Vivian, Dennis Layton, and Sara Prince. McKinsey & Company. "Why Diversity Matters." Feb 2, 2015.

These results demonstrate a positive correlation between diversity and performance, rebutting any claim that affirmative action and other such programs are social engineering that constitutes a financial drag on earnings. In fact, the results reveal a negative correlation between performance and lack of diversity, with companies in the bottom 25 percent for gender and ethnicity

or race proving to be statistically less likely to achieve above-average financial returns than the average companies. Non-diverse companies were not leaders in performance indicators. Positive correlations do not equal causation, of course, and greater gender and ethnic diversity do not automatically translate into profit. Rather, as this chapter shows, they enhance creativity and decision-making, employee satisfaction, an ethical work environment, and customer goodwill, all of which, in turn, improve operations and boost performance.

Diversity is not a concept that matters only for the rank-and-file workforce; it makes a difference at all levels of an organization. The McKinsey & Company study, which examined twenty thousand firms in ninety countries, also found that companies in the top 25 percent for executive and/or board diversity had returns on equity more than 50 percent higher than those companies that ranked in the lowest 25 percent. Companies with a higher percentage of female executives tended to be more profitable.

Achieving equal representation in employment based on demographic data is the ethical thing to do because it represents the essential American ideal of equal opportunity for all. It is a basic assumption of an egalitarian society that all have the same chance without being hindered by immutable characteristics. However, there are also directly relevant business reasons to do it. More diverse companies perform better, as we saw earlier in this chapter, but why? The reasons are intriguing and complex. Among them are that diversity improves a company's chances of attracting top talent and that considering all points of view may lead to better decision-making. Diversity also improves customer experience and employee satisfaction.

To achieve improved results, companies need to expand their definition of diversity beyond race and gender. For example, differences in age, experience, and country of residence may result in a more refined global mind-set and cultural fluency, which can help companies succeed in international business. A salesperson may know the language of customers or potential customers from

a specific region or country, for example, or a customer service representative may understand the norms of another culture. Diverse product-development teams can grasp what a group of customers may want that is not currently being offered.

Resorting to the same approaches repeatedly is not likely to result in breakthrough solutions. Diversity, however, provides usefully divergent perspectives on the business challenges companies face. New ideas help solve old problems—another way diversity makes a positive contribution to the bottom line.

The Challenges of a Diverse Workforce

Diversity is not always an instant success; it can sometimes introduce workplace tensions and lead to significant challenges for a business to address. Some employees simply are slow to come around to a greater appreciation of the value of diversity because they may never have considered this perspective before. Others may be prejudiced and consequently attempt to undermine the success of diversity initiatives in general. In 2017, for example, a senior software engineer's memo criticizing Google's diversity initiatives was leaked, creating significant protests on social media and adverse publicity in national news outlets.

The memo asserted "biological causes" and "men's higher drive for status" to account for women's unequal representation in Google's technology departments and leadership.

Google's response was quick. The engineer was fired, and statements were released emphasizing the company's commitment to diversity.

Although Google was applauded for its quick response, however, some argued that an employee should be free to express personal opinions without punishment (despite the fact that there is no right of free speech while at work in the private sector).

In the latest development, the fired engineer and a coworker filed a class-action lawsuit against Google on behalf of three specific groups of employees who claim they have been discriminated against by Google: whites, conservatives, and men.

This is not just the standard "reverse discrimination" lawsuit; it goes to the heart of the culture of diversity and one of its greatest challenges for management—the backlash against change.

In February 2018, the National Labor Relations Board ruled that Google's termination of the engineer did not violate federal labor law and that Google had discharged the employee only for inappropriate but unprotected conduct or speech that demeaned women and had no relationship to any terms of employment. Although this ruling settles the administrative labor law aspect of the case, it has no effect on the private wrongful termination lawsuit filed by the engineer, which is still proceeding.

Yet other employees are resistant to change in whatever form it takes. As inclusion initiatives and considerations of diversity become more prominent in employment practices, wise leaders should be prepared to fully explain the advantages to the company of greater diversity in the workforce as well as making the appropriate accommodations to support it. Accommodations can take various forms. For example, if you hire more women, should you change the way you run meetings so everyone has a chance to be heard? Have you recognized that women returning to work after childrearing may bring improved skills such as time management or the ability to work well under pressure? If you are hiring more people of different faiths, should you set aside a prayer room? Should you give out tickets to football games as incentives? Or build team spirit with trips to a local bar? Your managers may need to accept that these initiatives may not suit everyone. Adherents of some faiths may abstain from alcohol, and some people prefer cultural events to sports. Many might welcome a menu of perquisites ("perks") from which to choose, and these will not necessarily be the ones that were valued in the past. Mentoring new

and diverse peers can help erase bias and overcome preconceptions about others. However, all levels of a company must be engaged in achieving diversity, and all must work together to overcome resistance.

Summary

A diverse workforce yields many positive outcomes for a company. Access to a deep pool of talent, positive customer experiences, and strong performance are all documented positives. Diversity may also bring some initial challenges, and some employees can be reluctant to see its advantages, but committed managers can deal with these obstacles effectively and make diversity a success through inclusion.

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Glossary

diversity dividend
   the financial benefit of improved performance resulting from a diverse workforce
inclusion
   the engagement of all employees in the corporate culture

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12. Leadership and Followers: Hersey and Blanchard

Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard introduced their [theory](#) of [situational leadership](#) in the 1969 book *Management of Organizational Behavior*. Situational leadership states that there is no single, ideal approach to leadership because different types of leadership are required in different contexts. The Hersey and Blanchard model explains [effective](#) leadership in terms of two variables: leadership style and the maturity of the follower(s).

Task Behavior and Relationship Behavior

For Hersey and Blanchard, leadership style is determined by the mix of task behavior and relationship behavior that the [leader](#) shows. Task behavior concerns the actions required of followers and how they should be conducted. Relationship behavior concerns how people interact together to achieve a [goal](#). The various combinations of high and low task and relationship behaviors suggest four leadership roles:

1. S1 – Telling: The leader's role is to [direct](#) the actions of the followers. The leader instructs the followers on how, what, where, and when to do a certain task. This is primarily task behavior.
2. S2 – Selling: The leader is still primarily concerned with directing action but now accepts [communication](#) from followers. This communication allows the followers to feel connected to the task and buy into the [mission](#). S2 [leading](#) is still primarily task behavior, but now it includes some relationship behavior.

3. S3 – Participating: This role is similar to S2, except now the leader welcomes shared [decision](#)-making. Participating leadership shifts the [balance](#) toward relationship behavior and away from task behavior.
4. S4 – Delegating: The leader simply ensures that progress is being made. Decisions involve a lot of [input](#) from the followers, and the process and [responsibility](#) now lie with followers. S4 is primarily relationship behavior.

Maturity

The other fundamental concept in the Hersey and Blanchard model is maturity of the group. Group maturity describes how confident group members are in the group's ability to complete its tasks. This concept, too, is broken into four categories:

Maturity levels

In Hersey and Blanchard's model, group maturity is divided into four distinct categories based on how able and willing the group is to complete the job.

1. M1: The group does not have the skills to do the job, and is unwilling or unable to take responsibility. This is a very low maturity level.
2. M2: The group is willing to work on the job but not yet able to accept responsibility. Imagine a group of volunteers working on a house for Habitat for Humanity: the volunteers are willing to perform the work, but probably not capable of building a house on their own.

3. M3: The group has experience but is not confident enough or willing to take responsibility. The main difference between M2 and M3 is that the M3 group has the skills to work effectively on the job.
4. M4: The group is willing and able to work on the job. Group members have all of the skills, confidence, and enthusiasm necessary to take ownership of the task. This is a very high level of maturity.

Because maturity level varies based on the group and the task (for example, professional football players are an M4 group on the football field, but an M1 group if asked to play baseball), the leadership style must adapt based on the situation.

Effective leadership varies not only with the person or group that is being influenced but also depending on the task, job, or function that needs to be accomplished. The Hersey and Blanchard model encourages leaders to be flexible and find the right style for the task and the group maturity level. The most successful leaders are those who adapt their leadership style to the maturity of the group they are attempting to lead or influence and to that group's purpose.

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13. Ethical Leadership

While leadership is a highly researched organizational phenomenon, ethical leadership has been primarily investigated through philosophical and normative perspectives (Benevene, Dal Corso, De Carlo, Falco, Carluccio, & Vecina, 2018). Toor and Ofori (2009) claim that "empirical research on ethical leadership is scarce. Scholars have mostly discussed ethical leadership in theoretical and conceptual terms, but there are hardly any studies providing empirical evidence about ethical leadership" (p. 534). The seminal work of Brown, Treviño, and Harrison (2005) examined ethical leadership from a descriptive lens, expanding the domain from the traditional philosophical perspective (p. 117). Benevene et al. (2018) note that "...unlike the philosophical approach, which defines [ethical leadership] from a normative approach (that is describing 'What an [ethical leader] must do')," the definition of ethical leadership proposed by Brown et al. "...adopts a descriptive approach, aimed at identifying behaviors, antecedents, and consequences of [ethical leadership]" (para. 17). Examining ethical leadership from a descriptive lens, according to Brown et al. (2005), offers a better understanding of "...what characterizes ethical leadership, and how the [construct] relates to other variables in its nomological network" (p. 117). Expanding on the traditional meaning of leadership, Brown et al. (2005) offer a constitutive definition of ethical leadership. Consistent with prior research, the definition of ethical leadership devised by Brown et al. (2005) will be used in this study to research the effects of ethical leadership and culture on employee well-being and job satisfaction. They define ethical leadership (alternatively referred to as moral leadership and ethical management) as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making" (Brown et al.,

2005, p. 120). However, emerging literature has challenged Brown et al.'s conceptualization of ethical leadership, which argues that ethical leadership is a behavioral component that exists on a continuum of leadership styles (Kacmar, Carlson, & Harris, 2013).

The conceptualization of ethical leadership is best described along two related dimensions (Brown et al., 2005; Mayer et al., 2010). The first dimension is the moral person (e.g., integrity, concern for others, justice, trustworthiness), and the second dimension is the moral leader (e.g., communicating, rewarding, punishing, emphasizing ethical standards, role modeling ethical behavior) (Mayer et al., 2010, p. 8). Hansen, Alge, Brown, Jackson, and Dunford (2013) provide a summarization of Brown et al.'s (2005) conceptualization of ethical leadership. They summarize that "as moral persons, ethical leaders are fair, principled, and genuinely concerned for their employees...[and] set, communicate, and reinforce high ethical standards" (Hansen et al., 2013, p. 438). Ethical leadership can improve employee behavior, relationships, and employee and organizational performance (Jambawo, 2018, p. 1000). However, some scholars have suggested that ethical leadership characteristics (e.g., honesty and integrity) are observable across a typology of leadership styles (Toor & Ofori, 2009). Emerging literature supports the conceptualization of ethical leadership as a behavioral component rather than a leadership style.

Despite consideration as a stand-alone construct, ethical leadership falls under the umbrella of positive forms of leadership (Kacmar et al., 2013, p. 582). Under the umbrella of positive leadership styles, Kacmar et al. (2013) include the following leadership styles: authentic, spiritual, and transformational (p. 582). Scholars have proposed ethics is a component of each of the forms of positive leadership; however, the overlapping ethics component suggests that the ethical leadership construct is embedded in different styles and occurs on a continuum (Kacmar et al., 2013, p. 582). Thus, ethical leadership as a component, rather than a style of leadership, creates a contradiction in ethics research.

The Concepts of Unethical Leadership and Unethical Behavior

The antithesis of ethical leadership is a domain of leadership and ethics that is seldom studied. As the reciprocal form of ethical leadership, Brown and Mitchell (2010) define unethical leadership as "behaviors conducted, and decisions made by organizational leaders that are legal and...violate moral standards, and those that impose processes and structures that promote unethical conduct by followers" (p. 588). Discussing the outcomes of unethical leadership, Brown and Mitchell (2010) state that "unethical leader behavior costs U.S. corporations billions of dollars a year due to increased absenteeism, health care costs, lost productivity, and expended costs associated with actionable claims" (pp. 588-589). The adverse outcomes of unethical leadership underscore the urgent need for ethical leadership in the workforce. Employees will benefit from ethical leadership and ethical organizational culture; such constructs have been linked to increased job satisfaction and occupational well-being.

Ethical behavior is a form of behavior that is considered "right" as opposed to "wrong" (Kinicki & Williams, 2016, p. 78). Ethical behavior is often characterized by actions and decisions that are morally sound (e.g., honesty and integrity), whereas unethical behavior usually depicts actions and decisions that are deemed immoral (e.g., manipulation and theft). However, Umphress, Bingham, and Mitchell (2010) highlight a variance of unethical behavior called unethical pro-organizational behavior (UPB), which are unethical behaviors conducted by employees to potentially benefit the organization (p. 769). Unethical pro-organizational behavior is described as "acts that are either illegal or morally unacceptable to the larger community" (Umphress et al., 2010, p. 770). In-between ethical and unethical behavior are variances, suggesting that both behavioral constructs are multidimensional and exist on an ethical behavioral spectrum. Ralston, Egri, Furrer, Kuo, Li, and Wangenheim (2014) assert that "...behavior in organizations may be viewed as ranging from highly ethical to highly unethical, much of the organizational research has focused either on the ethical or the unethical ends of the continuum" (p. 284). To uncover gaps in ethics

literature, additional research is needed to create a typology of ethical and unethical behavior.

While ethical leadership and ethical behavior are associated with positive outcomes, unethical leadership and unethical behavior negatively influence employees' attitudes and psychological well-being (Brown & Mitchell, 2010, p. 598). As reported by Sanders, Wisse, Yperen, and Rus (2018), "...leaders' unethical behavior is associated with negative outcomes, such as employee workplace deviance, whereas leaders' ethical behavior is related to positive outcomes, such as increased employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment" (p. 631). Umphress et al. (2010) warn that when a culture is formed, leaders must encourage "...ethical behavior by ensuring that their own behavior corresponds to ethical standards and reward only ethical behavior for their employees" (p. 778). Given the apparent impact of leaders' behavior, understanding the conditions that shape follower behavior is essential to the promotion of ethical behavior in the workplace.

The questionable practices and violations committed by both Enron and WorldCom reflect poor, moral decision-making and unethical leadership. Corporate executives and leaders who exhibit a lack of ethical behavior violate both fiduciary and social responsibilities. The absence of oversight and a lack of ethical values are not conducive to prosperous societies, thriving businesses, and functional social institutions. While instrumental in minimizing unethical conduct, legislative action is not an end-all solution; corporate leaders must exude ethical leadership and foster an ethical culture with an ethics and compliance program, ultimately creating an "ethical organization" or "ethical climate." Ethical climate, the moral atmosphere of the work environment, is referred to as "...the institutionalized organizational practices and procedures that define what is considered right or wrong within the organization" (Parboteeah & Kapp, 2008, p. 517). Given the mounting scrutiny placed on the actions and conduct of leaders and managers, organizations can diminish the consequences of immorality and realize the value of ethical leadership and ethical

organizational culture, namely an elevation of well-being and satisfaction in the workplace.

Ethical leadership engenders employees to reciprocate fair and honest treatment by leaders and managers in the form of desired attitudes and behaviors (Moon & Jung, 2018, p. 269). Conversely, employees' perception of unethical behavior could elicit responses of negative attitudes and counterproductive work behaviors toward the managers and organization (Moon & Jung, 2018, p. 269). A leader who offers no ethical direction to employees can invite unethical behavior such as manipulation, dishonesty, and conflicts of interest (Ferrell et al., 2013, p. 31). Bedi et al. (2016) propose that ethical leadership is positively associated with follower psychological well-being because of the critical role leaders play in shaping the work experience of followers (p. 521). Therefore, a leader's behavior and an organization's culture both play a significant role in supporting ethical behavior (McShane & Von Glinow, 2013, p. 59). Given the ties between ethical leadership and culture to occupational well-being and job satisfaction, corporate leaders must recognize the value of promoting ethicality and positive ethical behavior in the workplace (Perez, 2018, p. 40).

Through adherence to ethical standards, leaders and managers can role-model the ethical conduct that employees are more likely to follow (McShane & Von Glinow, 2013, p. 54). Bedi et al. (2016) state that "Leaders as role models motivate ethical behavior by demonstrating the type of actions they want to promote and reward" (p. 519). Ethical leaders express their positive characteristics and influence their employees by actively managing and modeling ethical conduct in the workplace (Mayer et al., 2010, p. 8). According to Mayer et al. (2010), "Leaders set the ethical tone for an organization by enacting practices, policies, and procedures that help facilitate the display of ethical behavior and reduce the likelihood of misconduct" (p. 8). Employees are more likely to perceive an ethical organizational environment when ethical leaders signal to employees that doing the right thing is expected, encouraged, and valued (Mayer et al., 2010, p. 8). Through positive

role-modeling, interpersonal influence, and disseminating messages about ethical conduct, ethical leaders can develop of an ethical organizational culture, thereby creating an ethical climate that can facilitate the development of ethical employees (Toor & Ofori, 2009, p. 544).

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14. Leaderful Women

Introduction

By Dr. Kathy DesRoches

Joe Raelin's book, Creating Leaderful Organizations is the cornerstone text of the MS in Leadership Program at Granite State College. Leaderful is a term coined by Raelin. One faculty member in the Leadership program described Raelin as a servant leader. Servant leadership is a more widely known leadership style than Leaderful. Raelin's book aptly captures four elements of leaderful however when we look at the text in the contemporary sense one can't help but notice the lack of female examples. The purpose of this chapter is to provide examples of female leadership for Raelin's work.

One barrier to women in leadership is that "women's leadership is about redefinition, while men's leadership has been about maintaining the status quo," (Tarr-Whelan, 2009, p. 9). Women's approach to leadership is most often seen through the lens of the male leadership, as men are traditionally viewed as leader. Knowing that leadership is thought of as a male quality, the following information from Mendez & Busenbark is interesting. "Recent findings bring attention to the role of context in leadership gender inequalities. Whereas effective leaders are often characterized in masculine terms, women leaders appear to be appointed more often than men to leadership positions when in situations of crisis, a phenomenon that has been termed the glass cliff," (Mendez & Busenbark, 2015, p. 4). This is explained by the notion that women perform better under pressure and are more willing to "take one for the team" (Mendez & Busenbark, 2015, p. 4).

This chapter attempts to share examples of women in the role of leaders without comparison to men. "Research consistently shows that when women lead side by side with men...more skill sets are used, and more out-of-the-box thinking occurs from both genders"

(Tarr-Whelan, 2009, p. xiii). In this chapter we will demonstrate the leaderful approach that female leaders bring to the workplace.

Kathy L. DesRoches, Ed.D.

Status of women in leadership

By Kyle Somma

Women make up over 50 percent of the United States population (United States Census Bureau, 2018) however, it was not until 240 years after the signing of the Declaration of Independence that this country had the first female win a presidential party nomination (Collinson, 2016). This was 94 years after women won the right to vote in 1920 when the 19th Amendment was signed (Henderson, 2016). Hillary Clinton said of her campaign "This campaign is about making sure there are no ceilings, no limits on any of us and this is our moment to come together" (Henderson, 2016). However, years after her historic nomination, gender inequalities remain a barrier for women in leadership positions in the United States.

According to Catalyst, women make up 44.7 percent of the overall Standard & Poor's 500 labor force in the United States (2019). Within that labor force only 36.9 percent of women are first or mid-level officials and managers, 26.5 percent are executive- and senior-level officials and managers (Catalyst, 2019). Additionally, only 21.2 percent of board seats are held by women, and women make up only five percent of CEOs (Catalyst, 2019).

There are a great number of studies regarding gender inequality and the ways that women are employed. In a 2018 survey conducted by the Pew Research Center, 44 percent of men surveyed and 62 percent of women surveyed believed that "gender discrimination is a major reason why there aren't more women in top executive business positions" (Women and Leadership 2018, 2018, p. 3). Maybe

this is due to male leadership lens. In a 2013 study by the Women's Media Center, it was theorized that it will take until 2085 for women to reach equality with men in key leadership roles in the United States (Klos, 2013, p. 4).

It is clear that there are persistent gender disparities in leadership careers that rank among the greatest influencers in American society. Despite these disparities, Pew Research Center found that the majority of Americans want to see more women in positions of leadership (2018, p. 17). Most people surveyed believe that there should be equal numbers of women in leadership positions as men (Pew Research Center, 2018, p. 19). Yet in that same study, Americans are divided on whether there will ever be gender parity in corporate leadership positions (Pew Research Center, 2018, p. 27).

In the study by the Pew Research Center, a question was posed regarding the qualities and competencies required for effective leadership. Women scored higher than males in compassion, empathy, compromise, honesty, ethical as well as serving as a role model for children, maintaining a tone of civility and respect, and standing up for what their values (Pew Research Center, 2018, p. 12). These traits are key components in leaderful leadership practice. Leaderful leadership is a transformative approach to leadership that abolishes the conventional tenants of leadership and replaces them with leadership that is concurrent, collective, collaborative and compassionate (Raelin, 2003, p.14).

In a 1999 study of corruption and women in government, the researchers concluded, "higher rates of female participation in government are associated with lower levels of corruption" (Dollar, Fisman, & Gatti, 1999, p. 6). Globally women's economic participation and control over productive assets has shown to speed up development, assist in overcoming poverty, reduce inequalities and improve the health and education of children (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2010, p. 5). Additionally, women invest more of their earnings into their communities (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2010,

p. 5) then men. Increasing the participation of women in leadership positions will have a direct effect on policy as well as the economy.

According to Raelin "Leadership as we know it has to change if we are to prosper in our twenty-first –century organizations and communities" (2003, p. 241). Women are breaking through the glass ceiling and transforming the traditional idea of a leader. The historically masculine terms associated with a leader such as charismatic, selfish, strong-willed, and competitive are being replaced with the leaderful (feminine traits) qualities of empathy, honesty and compassion.

Kyle M. Somma Status of Women in Leadership, June 2019

Women in Concurrent Leadership

Emily Bolduc-Fabian

Concurrent leadership is the foundation to a 'leaderful practice.' Concurrent leadership suggests the idea of not one individual as a leader but all team members acting leaderful (Raelin, 2003). Concurrent leaders share their powers among each other, allowing one another to each act as a leader (Raelin, 2003). One may also think of this as a shared leadership model. Each member in the team has their own responsibility and is more proficient in their area of expertise then their teammate who handles a separate function (Raelin, 2003). This in return governs power situationally to individuals within their own job duties (Raelin, 2003). Given the diverse operations, there is not one leader who performs a variety of operations but multiple leaders who function separately and come together to foster a powerful concurrent team (Raelin, 2003).

Women leaders have come a long way, from the early 1900's when they could not vote, to the millennial generation that strives for diversity and equality in the workplace (O'Connor, 2010). Women

have had overcome multiple obstacles to be accepted within the workforce (O'Connor, 2010). As stated in a Forbes article on the topic of women supporting other women in the workforce, when women attempt to rise into leadership roles face cultural and systemic hurdles that make it harder for them to advance, sometimes due to unconscious bias (Zalis, 2019). This is particularly true given that the male model of leadership has been the default for centuries (or the lens of leadership). Once biases, stereotypes and preconceptions of women are put aside, others see that women have proven to bring positive contributes to any team. Women bring different skills and traits to those of men, which in return creates a more functional concurrent leadership than with men alone (O'Connor, 2010).

In concurrent leadership, nominal leaders struggle with the concept of sharing leadership within the team (Raelin, 2003). This model can be a threat to the leaders in that individual members may be seen to have stronger leadership qualities then the nominal leader (Raelin, 2003). This factor ties in with the development of women leaders, as not so long ago, the idea of women as equal leaders to men was not acceptable to much of the population. "Most women share critical values and visions that, on balance, diverged from those of me...they include a preference for collaboration" (Tarr-Whelan, 2009, p. 6) and as written earlier, women are asked to lead during difficult times. Though this concept was not easily accepted, women thrive in their leadership role as their qualities bring a differing success to leadership as the qualities we typically think of as male.

Although concurrent leadership can be described as, the sharing of power between all team members, while displaying leadership at the same time but in different roles (Raelin, 2003). The nominal leader needs to help develop the knowledge and skills of their team members (Raelin, 2003). This may take time and patience, concurrent leadership may describe the individual members as having the power of their positions but that does not take the load of the task away from the nominal leader (Raelin, 2003). The nominal leader will need to step in situations help or advice is required

(Raelin, 2003). Once individual members are confident on their own, the nominal leader will direct their expertise elsewhere to continue the growth of the team's concurrent leadership (Raelin, 2003).

Shared leadership depends on collaboration and teamwork, which could result in a female advantage, but this advantage is not realized (Mendez & Busenbark, 2015, p. 6). Generally speaking, women prefer to develop relationships with their followers in which their followers feel comfortable to be able to rely on their leader for advice, knowledge and direction when needed (Boundless, n.d.). Softer tactics foster a strong concurrent leadership in that women strive to ensure their team members are efficient within their positions before expecting them to act as leaders on their own (Boundless, n.d.). Utilizing softer tactics to form relationships with each team member is beneficial.

Brene Brown, a well-known author, storyteller, and research professor at the University of Houston, has spent the last two decades researching and teaching concepts surrounding leadership (Ramirez, 2016). Her research goals are to help growing professionals advance within their careers, by overcoming their fears related to: courage, vulnerability, shame, and empathy (Ramirez, 2016). Through her research and teachings, she has shown herself to be a leader who strives to help others work through challenging issues while providing motivation and encouragement (Raelin, 2003). Brown practices concurrent leadership and advises, leaders need to "have a shared understanding of all of the elements of a team so no single person is the connective tissue," (Brown, 2018, p. 54). Sharing the understanding of the team and the needs of members and goals is concurrent leadership in its purist form.

Once biases, stereotypes and preconceptions are set aside, women will be recognized as leaders but not in respect to the male model. When considering the strengths and qualities of women, we recognize their concurrent leadership style due to their softer tactics to develop relationships with their followers in which recognizes the expertise and contributions each individual offers (Sources of Power, n.d.). Given their unique attributes, women

facilitate leadership among all team members, in which allows all members to act as a leader in their roles.

Emily Bolduc-Fabian, Women in concurrent leadership, June 8, 2019

Collective leadership

Joanna Bailey

In this section, I will discuss three aspects of collective leadership: stewardship, leader as learner, and meaning makers. These areas foster collective leadership and contribute to a leaderful practice.

Raelin (2003) describes stewardship as a community partnership. Stewardship relies on mutual goals, a mutual purpose, where everyone is responsible for their own work and can say no to any assignments, everyone is responsible for the community of work, and people are respectful and act with integrity towards other members of the group (Raelin, 2003, p117).

On June 15, 2019 Joe Raelin tweeted "Who would like to work with this #leaderful chief executive?" (Raelin J. , 2019). His tweet referred to Mary Alread, the former CEO of The Committee for Gippsland in Australia and her collective leadership style. "Aldred says leadership is changing as society demands more of organizations, and values among the workforce shift. Changing expectations mean empathy and understanding will better serve organizations and their staff," (Houego, 2019). She goes onto say, "the way I try to engage my team is very much more at a level where everybody, no matter their role, is encouraged to contribute ideas," (Houego, 2019).

Team sports are an example of effective stewardship: team members work collectively and, even though there are different positions within the team, if someone is able to score they do. The American women's soccer team has had significant success over the years and were the champions of the world cup in 1999. At the

time of this writing, they are competing in the world cup, which is being held in France this year (2019). The American team consists of 23 women, of which there are three co-captains. In their match against Thailand on June 11, 2019, five players scored 13 goals, which illustrates the collective philosophy of the team. While everyone has their assigned playing positions, the team plays as one cohesive and collective unit. The captains are the designated leaders but, as with any collective group, they will put aside their individual needs and title for the success of the entire team mission.

One view of collective leadership is to promote learning for the entire organization by the creation of a secure environment where openness and vulnerability are encouraged. There are many benefits of this leadership style, which include a team superseding their individual perspective, working collectively for the greater good of the team, and success. Raelin also talks about the leader as a learner in collective leadership (Raelin, 2003). There is a vulnerability to leaders who are willing to face their own lack of knowledge and the potential failing of their ideas (Raelin, 2003). However, the leader with all the answers can be detrimental to team success because of their inability to swallow their pride as they do not want to be seen as weak or uncertain. Sheryl Sandberg joined the now giant social media company, Facebook in 2008, when the company was in significant debt (Rosoff, 2016). As the business and concept was new, there wasn't a rule book, vision statement, or a template to follow so, as a newly appointed leader, Sandberg was "learner as a leader" during this innovative time. When asked what advice she would give to someone in a leadership position she responded "Ask for feedback – and take it well. Even when you're in positions of leadership, it's important to listen to feedback and use it to do better. People who do this will keep learning and growing. It also builds great trust within your teams," (Sahadi, 2018). Under Sandberg's leadership, Facebook has seen exponential growth with profits in the billions.

The final component of collective leadership is meaning maker. Raelin states that "To make meaning one has to merely help the

group make sense of what people do when they work together" (Raelin, 2003, p. 138). Michelle Obama is an example of a meaning maker in the way she put her individual needs to one side to support her husband during his presidency. With two young daughters in the White House, Michelle was able to become an important leader for mothers, giving extra meaning to the collective team. She was influential in her healthy eating for children project because she was a role model for families (Lewis, 2018).

While it may appear, that Mrs. Obama has put her career aside for her husband, it was a team decision, with collective leadership and there were significant benefits both during and after their tenure. Obama became a role model, continued with her professional career, and was inspired to write a bestselling book about her life. Her focus may have temporarily changed during their White House years, but she brought meaning to the team dynamic.

Collective leadership relies on openness irrespective of position. Across the board, team members must have a sense of security in being open and vulnerability, which includes the leader.

Joanna Bailey, Collective Leadership, June 8, 2019

Women as Collaborative Leaders
Jody Oliver

For decades, women have struggled to make their way into top leadership positions, but despite the barriers they face, they continue to attempt to level the playing field. One way to do this is by fostering a collaborative leadership style. "Collaborative leadership is characterized by shared vision and values, interdependence and shared responsibility, mutual respect, empathy and willingness to be vulnerable, ambiguity, effective communication, and synergy" (Lewis, 2018). By embracing these

fundamental qualities, women have an opportunity to offer the benefits of their diversity.

As an example, a 2014 Gallup study and a 2016 Catalyst study discovered that hiring diverse employee's increases revenue because of improvements made in solving problems and workforce achievement (Elias, 2018). Land O' Lakes CEO Beth Ford agrees and says "I think all diverse voices are critical. Leadership is a team sport. It's about enabling and empowering the team to succeed" (2018, p. 4). Ford is one of 33 women Fortune 500 CEO's (Connley, 2019).

Survey data collected from thousands of 360 evaluations revealed women leaders outranked men in the majority of leadership competencies including honesty and integrity, developing others, innovation, problem solving, and championing change (Zenger & Folkman, 2012). This information can be used by women to foster a collaborative environment and one's own personal development as well as emphasize their exemplary leadership qualities.

Raelin (2003) explains that collaborative leaders insure key stake-holders are involved in cultivating and implementing organizational changes. "Hence, they become intrinsically motivated to see the change not only implemented but implemented successfully" (Raelin, 2003, p. 156). This is an area where women can excel by facilitating collaborative involvement during times of transition when people are experiencing high levels of stress and anxiety.

Eileen Elias, M.Ed. used her forty years of leadership experience and research to collaborate with other acknowledge leaders and publish advice for emerging female leaders (2018). Their comprehensive list of recommendations includes building and sustaining a network of diverse colleagues, pursing a mentor who exemplifies the type of leader you want to be, and perhaps most importantly exude confidence in yourself (Elias, 2018).Her suggestions are meant to offer support and show us how "leaderful practice requires people to be engaged— to have the ability, motivation, and confidence to participate in leadership" (Raelin, 2003, p.74)

General Motors (GM) CEO Mary Barra makes it a point to offer her insights and expertise to young girls and women in an effort to inspire them achieve their personal and professional goals. Barra started her career with GM at the age of 18, where she was able to pursue higher education opportunities and eventually earned an MBA (Sahadi, 2018). Barra held several positions at GM before being named CEO in 2014, she became the first female to lead an automobile maker (Sahadi, 2018). Barra's accomplishments include her innovative ideas and collaborative leadership style that developed after a disastrous safety issue that caused multiple injuries and deaths. Barra recalls, "I never want to put this behind us. I want to put this painful experience permanently in our collective memories" (Feloni, 2018, p. 7). In learning from prior mistakes, Barra worked diligently to rebuild trust, change company culture, and move GM forward in a positive direction. Subsequently, she promoted open lines of communication, offered transparency, and provided clear expectations (Feloni, 2018; Sahadi 2018), empowering employees to become vital members of the GM team

In sum, as women seek to land top leadership and management positions, their collaborative leadership style will help them to succeed. Collaborative leadership offers cross functional intelligence, constructive conflict, and well-balanced goals and decisions. Many women welcome diversity and create a work environment that is inviting to people of all ages, races, ethnicities, and genders. As CEO Barra advises, "You need the right people, the right culture, and the right strategy. To be truly great, your team must have diversity of thought and be willing to collaborate constructively" (Sahadi, 2018, p. 4). Finally, they have the advantage of cultivating a diverse professional network for future career development and success!

Jody Oliver, Women as Collaborative Leaders, June 25, 2019

Compassionate Leaders

Vanessa Koch

This paper explores women as compassionate leaders and their contributions to corporate leadership in the United States. A compassionate leader weighs all variables that make each person unique which effects how a person makes their decisions. Compassionate leaders "recognize the potential contribution of each member of the community, no matter what his or her position or status" (Raelin, 2003, p. 206).

Compassionate leaders create a positive and caring workplace culture, psychologist Emma Seppala, a researcher at Yale and Stanford Universities and author of "The Happiness Track," said, "The result, research shows, is a workplace that is more productive, more creative, that has less turnover, and whose clients have better results. It leads to a better bottom line." (Jagannathan, 2018, para. 1)

When compassion is present it benefits all facets of the workplace. Each employee is unique, have different backgrounds, have vastly different experiences in life and bring an array of values to the table.

Oprah is perceived by her admirers as a caring individual and as someone whose concern and compassion for others animate every personal, professional, and career decision she makes. Oprah cares, and her demonstration of this fact leads them to care about both others and themselves. In her leadership, Oprah has undeniably made care and compassion an industry. (Gini & Ronald, 2013)

Oprah recognizes other's uniqueness which makes her strong leader because diversity among the employees is an asset to the organization. "With knowledge of each follower's unique characteristics and interests, leaders then assist followers in achieving their potential" (Van Dierendock & Patterson, 2015). Each employee's way of thinking and of problem solving bring different backgrounds to the organization.

The leader may recognize that there may be something deeper to the behavior and pursue methods to assist the employee. "Compassionate communities are characterized as endorsing a

diversity of views, even those that do not conform to existing mental models and practices. In this way, compassion extends beyond one's own culture or borders to those less privileged (Raelin, 2003, p. 208). Mary Barra, CEO of General Motors is a great example of recognizing this. Forbes ranks her at fourth of the most Powerful Women in 2018 (#4 Mary Barra, n.d.). Mary Barra recognizes the importance of treating the employees the same and has accomplished equal pay within General Motors. "True gender equality isn't just about pay and the representation of women on boards, it's a far more complex issue," van Maasdijk said. "That is why our research looks at 19 different factors including benefits such as shared parental leave. We want to see a level playing field for every employee, not just women." (Lareau, 2018, p. 14). "GM ranked No. 1 on the 2018 Global Report on Gender Equality. It was one of only two global businesses that have no gender pay gap" (Lareau, 2018, para. 14).

In the past few decades, women have made small advances in positions of leadership. As of May 16, 2019, 33 of the companies on the ranking of highest-grossing firms are led by female CEOs. To be sure, that sum represents a disproportionately small share of the group as a whole; just 6.6%. But it also marks a considerable jump from last year's total of 24, or 4.8% (Zillman, 2019). Zillman states, "The increase has come as institutional investors—citing research on the business benefits of diverse leadership—have pushed for new blood in boardrooms" (2019, para. 8).

Women bring a different set of traits to leadership, thus the growth in women in leadership roles. "Of relevance to the global mindset framework, the current literature shows that women demonstrate specific features that are particularly important to three subdimensions of the global mindset in terms of self-efficacy: intercultural empathy, diplomacy, and passion for diversity" (Javiden, Bullough, & Dibble, 2016, p. 59). Women bring an array of essential qualities to the workplace. Women are empathic listeners, who value collaboration and teamwork while also acting as experts at building relationships, encouraging others to achieve their

maximum potential. These qualities work well with the skills men bring to the workplace. (Elias, 2018, p. 176)

In closing, an organization that recognizes the importance of women in leadership and their strong traits will be better equipped and put their organization at an advantage point for success. Bringing the compassionate nature to organizations is helping woman to run more businesses than ever because it is a different approach to other styles.

Vanessa L. Koch, Compassionate Leaders, June 28, 2019

Conclusion

Dr. Kathy DesRoches

Female leaders become role models for others. Women are exposed to positive and negative role models every day (The power of role models, n.d.) and serve as a reference for whom we want to become (The power of role models, n.d.). Given that "relatable [female] role models will bring important future [female] scientists, mathematicians, technologists, engineers, innovators, and leaders into in the career pipeline" (Olsson & Sarah E Martiny, 2018) it is important to provide women in the Granite State College leadership program examples of successful female leaders using Raelin's framework of Leaderful Organization. We did this so that, as leaders, we are not only using the lens of male leadership but recognizing there is another lens

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15. Inclusive Leadership and Potential Barriers

Introduction

Despite advances in diversity that have occurred in the past, women continue to be excluded from top leadership positions in the corporate environment. Today's diverse and constantly changing environment requires more than masculinity as the norm and a command and control leadership approach. It needs a leadership style that will advocate for inclusivity of traditionally excluded voices in leadership. It needs a leadership style that will enhance the four critical processes that are mobilized by leadership (setting mission, actualize goals, sustain commitment, respond to change), (Raelin, 2003).

In this paper, I will explore the tenets of inclusive leadership style and, its distinct characteristics and will demonstrate its ability to have "all voices on deck" in top leadership. I will also explore potential barriers to effectively apply inclusive leadership.

As a millennial woman of color of the African New American community in the United States, the subject of inclusivity in leadership is deeply personal. It is an issue that I constantly struggle with and in helping others not to feel as if it's a "solo struggle". The reality is that African refugee woman in America is a rare commodity in higher management, given that women, in general, are already underrepresented.

Additionally, the representation of leaders is inherently gendered in the current leadership landscape. Leaders are judged based on stereotypes and expectations grounded in "masculinist perspectives about leadership," (Shea & Renn, 2017, p. 84). This reality shapes my leadership opportunities and how I would choose to participate. My hope is that the inclusive leadership style will expand the discussion beyond just the gendered idea of inclusion to include other

minorities, particularly the newest member of the U.S society, refugee/immigrant leaders.

What is Inclusive Leadership?

Inclusive leadership is about including everyone. This leadership style puts a particular focus on "having the courage to take conscious steps to break down barriers for people at risk of being excluded from society "(Bortini, Paci, Rise & Rojnik, 2016, p. 19). African refugee/immigrant women are among the groups that are at risk of exclusion in top leadership, groups that represent different backgrounds, experiences, and abilities. The inclusive leadership approach appreciates diversity and the contributions of everyone. Furthermore, this leadership approach encourages full engagement in all aspects of organizational functioning. The objective the authors added, is "to create, change and innovate whilst balancing everybody's needs" (p. 9). Essentially, inclusive leadership is centered around relationships and valuing differences.

Feelings of exclusion are common in my leadership journey and for many other women, people of color, immigrants, and refugees. I struggle to fit in and, when unsuccessful at that, I feel cut off from full involvement as a result. According to Bortini et al., "one of the primary needs of individuals at risk of exclusion is to be accepted as they are and not to be regarded as an equal, able to contribute with all of their abilities" (p. 14). Immigrants and refugees can face additional barriers to inclusion, including cultural (language, social life, religious) differences. Structural and socio-economic barriers are also contributing factors to exclusion practices. Feeling left out can be exacerbated by a hostile environment in leadership.

Inclusive leadership is necessary for all sectors of society and for all individuals, particularly those in top management. Inclusive leadership challenges and empowers people because it is based on everyone's inherent worth, on human rights, on awareness of interconnectedness, on the recognition that power influences inclusion efforts, and on shared responsibilities, (Bortini et al., 2016).

What Do Inclusive Leaders Do?

Dillon and Bourke (2016) identified six key characteristics that

distinguish inclusive leaders. The first characteristic is commitment.

Champions of inclusive leadership are motivated by their values, including a "deep-seated sense of fairness that, for some, is rooted in personal experience" (p. 3). Inclusive leaders hold themselves accountable to create a welcoming culture in their organizations. They devote time, energy, and resources to nurture an inclusive workforce.

Courage is the second characteristic found in inclusive leaders. They demonstrate courage in challenging organizations to think beyond homogeneous attitudes and practices. Another way they show courage is by not being afraid to exhibit humility; courage and humility allow leaders to accept their limitations and seek guidance from others in overcoming them. They admit to not having all the answers, which for some leaders is a very difficult thing to do, (Dillon & Bourke, 2019).

The third characteristic that distinguishes inclusive leaders is cognizance of bias. Inclusive leaders understand that both personal and organizational biases can negatively impact diversity and inclusion. As a result, they implement policies, processes, and structures to prevent infiltration of such biases in the workplace or any organization. The fourth characteristic found in inclusive leaders is curiosity. This includes being open-minded and having a passion for learning and a desire for exposure to diverse perspectives. "Inclusive leaders' ability to engage in respectful questioning, actively listen to others and synthesize a range of ideas makes the people around them feel valued, respected, and represented" (Dillon & Bourke, 2016, p. 4.).

Cultural intelligence is the fifth characteristics identified in inclusive leaders. These leaders understand that knowledge of other cultures is fundamental in fostering inclusiveness. Cultural intelligence allows a leader to better respond to different cultural norms and behaviors and enables leaders to adjust their style accordingly. Additionally, they understand ways in which culture can shape world views and stereotypes. This is very important in

setting and communicating expectations in any organization. Lastly, inclusive leaders are collaborative, which is coupled with an ability to willingly share ideas. Key to successful collaboration is creating a psychologically safe environment in which "people feel empowered to express their opinions freely with the group" (p. 5). According to (Raelin, 2003, p. 131), "to create an environment that offers psychological safety is a high task", especially "when covering up has been the dominant reaction to contrary or contradictory information". Furthermore, leaders pay attention to team processes to allow a diversity of thinking to take place.

Potential Barriers to Inclusive Leadership

Although the benefits of inclusive leadership are clear, smarter teams, better decision making, effective problem solving, better financial gains, and customer satisfaction, to name a few, there are common barriers that can hinder an organization's ability/efforts to implement inclusive leadership practices. These barriers can influence companies away from becoming inclusive and prevent them from making the most of any diversity within their organization. According to Gully and Phillips (2012), some of the common obstacles are the "like me" bias, stereotypes, the perceived threat of loss, and ethnocentrism. Described below, these exist in many organizations and can get in the way of organizations' efforts to maximize their diversity. These barriers can arise from decision making, psychological factors and employees' lack of awareness, the authors noted. Therefore, it is important for organizations to understand and proactively address these barriers to minimize their impact and enhance inclusion.

Although it is human nature to associate with those like ourselves, the "like me" bias tendencies can negatively impact recruitment by focusing solely on people who look like the existing staff. This can contribute to the unwillingness to employ people of different backgrounds, creating a culture of ingroup and outgroup dynamics in an organizational setting. The result is a homogeneous work environment. This can be a disservice to efforts to increase diversity and inclusion.

According to Gully and Phillips(2012), stereotypes, "beliefs about individual or group based on the idea that everyone in that group will behave the same" (p. 52), have the power to diminish inclusion opportunities for minorities, women, individuals with disabilities, and older workers. Stereotypes are extremely harmful due to the judgemental tendencies implied and the lack of consideration of individual uniqueness. In some cases, the results can be subtle racism, sexism, prejudice, and discomfort. These beliefs can determine what makes good/poor employees, can control the distribution of employment opportunities, and can undermine diversity efforts.

Another common setback can come from those who perceive inclusive efforts as a threat to their career opportunities. The authors further noted that this perceived threat of loss can lead members of groups who are traditionally the predominant employees of a particular workforce or occupation to grow anxious or angry. The need to protect their own prospects can impede those of others, (Gully and Phillips, 2012). The authors also noted that the perceived threat of loss "influences employees' willingness to help mentor minority employees, recruit diverse candidates for positions and support diversity initiatives" (p. 52).

Ethnocentrism, a belief of one's language, native country and cultural rules/norms being superior to all others, is similarly impactful in a negative way to an inclusiveness attitude. Every organization is susceptible to these challenges, especially when advocating for inclusive leadership practices. However, the extent to which an organization will succeed in its inclusive efforts is due to consistent efforts to be vigilant about these challenges.

Conclusion

Inclusive leadership is a promising model for capitalizing on the existing diversity in the modern workforce. This model helps leaders to lead innovative teams and, at the same time, create an environment where people feel they can bring their whole selves to work. Acting inclusively is linked to employees' increased satisfaction, performance, commitment, motivation, creativity,

innovation, engagement, and well-being. These outcomes benefit both employees and organizations.

Additionally, inclusive leadership has the potential to positively contribute to efforts to engage groups that are traditionally excluded from senior leadership. When the organization recognizes the value of its senior leadership team reflecting the diversity in its workforce, principles of inclusivity need to be embedded and implemented throughout the employment environment. For employees of a more diverse workforce to follow and respect an organization's leadership, the inclusive leadership model is more likely to achieve that result.

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16. Vulnerability in Leadership

Introduction

Vulnerability research was popularized by Dr. Brené Brown through her years of research on shame. Utilizing vulnerability on a day-to-day basis can "demonstrate transparency and an openness to emotional exposure" (Lopez, 2018, ix) with others. This chapter aims to dive deeper into the measure of vulnerability as well as how it is closely related to trust, courage, self-awareness, and three leadership styles: authentic, ethical, and transformational.

Vulnerability: Definition and Myths

Definitions of vulnerability among researchers vary but include similar components of putting trust in another (Lapidot, Kark & Shamir, 2007), acknowledging failure (Ito & Bligh, 2017), and risking emotional exposure (Crouch, 2016 and Brown, 2012a). Gambetta (1988) describes vulnerable individuals as those who instill trust in others with the belief that no harm will come to them as a result (Lapidot, Kark & Shamir, 2007, p. 17). Displaying vulnerability can also be a chance to embrace changes and challenges while feeling safe enough to acknowledge failure (Ito & Bligh, 2017, p. 67). Vulnerability is emotional exposure (Brown, 2012a) that threatens the loss "of our own sense of self" (Crouch, 2016, p. 41). Cléro (2018) adds that "vulnerability should be differentiated from weakness or from the frailty that results from it" (p. 6). Brown goes on further to state that "we think about vulnerability as a dark emotion. We think of vulnerability at the core of fear and shame and grief and

disappointment, things that we do not want to feel" (Brown, 2012a). Yet facing the difficult "dark emotion" can lead to "every positive emotion that we need in our lives: love, belonging, joy, empathy" (Brown, 2012a).

For this paper, I will cite the definition of vulnerability as "the emotion we experience during times of uncertainty, risk, and emotional exposure" (Brown, 2018, p. 19).

"When a leader embraces failure and shares vulnerability with humility, followers are able to connect with the leader at an emotional level and are more likely to share feelings of vulnerability themselves" (Ito & Bligh, 2017, p.67). Some examples of actions that a vulnerable leader might take include reaching out to an employee with an ill child or family member, checking in with a coworker who experienced a recent loss, or taking responsibility for a mistake at work (Seppälä, 2014). "Collaboration, then, as a way to be morally accountable, requires a deep understanding of vulnerability: the generosity, humility, and patience needed to work through conflicts, misunderstandings, and miscommunications" (Pignatelli, 2011, p. 223).

In her book, *The Power of* Vulnerability, Dr. Brené Brown identifies four myths regarding vulnerability, and then adds two more in *Dare to Lead* for a total of six:

1. Vulnerability is a character defect and weakness (Brown, 2012a).
2. "I don't do vulnerability" (Brown, 2012a).
3. "That we can create a culture in our family, in our work, and our big culture that we live in even and that we can do this alone" (Brown, 2012a).
4. "You can trust without vulnerability. It's a very chicken/egg proposition" (Brown, 2012a).
5. "Trust comes before vulnerability" (Brown, 2018, p. 29).
6. "Vulnerability is disclosure" (Brown, 2018, p. 34).

Vulnerability and Trust

Vulnerability directly involves the issue of trust (Brown, 2012a). Leaders "must be truthful and consistent in their behavior and must not arbitrarily disregard employees' suggestions and opinions on a regular basis" (Thrash, 2012, p. 4). The best place to work "is one where employees trust the people they work with, have pride in the work they do, and enjoy the people they work with" (Bush & Lewis-Kulin, 2018).

One leadership theory that directly relates to vulnerability and trust is the leader-member exchange theory. This is the theory "that leaders form relationships with their subordinates that fall into two broad groups: an in-group characterized by strong exchange relationships, and an out-group that lacks solid leader connections" (Miller, 2013). Members of the in-group tend to be high-performing employees who take on more responsibility and make greater contributions to an organization (Lunenburg, 2010, p. 2). The leader takes more risks with members of the in-group, as higher risks correlate to a higher level of trust in the employee (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008, p. 102). Yet Scandura and Pellegrini (2008) found that a leader's trust is still vulnerable in relationships with in-group members (p. 101). It is possible the severity of the risk could be underestimated, leading to "a false expectation about the vulnerability of the leader" (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000, p. 241).

Vulnerability and Courage

"Vulnerability is our most accurate measure of courage. To be vulnerable, to let ourselves be seen is incredibly difficult" (Brown, 2012a). "You can embrace vulnerability and enact courage to promote equity through allowing yourself to be seen, believing that you are enough" (Bettez, 2017). "Courage is contagious. To scale daring leadership and build courage in teams and organizations,

we have to cultivate a culture in which brave work, tough conversations, and whole hearts are the expectation, and armor is not necessary or rewarded" (Brown, 2018, p. 12). Brown (2012a) notes that courage is part of one of the big paradoxes with vulnerability, "It's the first thing I look for in you but it's the last thing I want you to see in me. In you, it's courage, in me, it's inadequacy. In you, it's strength and lovability, in me, it's shame" (Brown, 2012a).

Vulnerability and Authenticity/Self-Awareness

"How much we know ourselves is extremely important, but how we treat ourselves is the most important" (Brown, 2012a). As we grow up, "we experience pain, and shame, and struggle with worthiness, we shut down parts of ourselves. And we shut down those things that make us vulnerable" (Brown, 2012a). "If I have never expected my closest family members to emotionally support or connect with me, then I am unfamiliar with the experience of being emotionally vulnerable; being encouraged to do so would likely feel prohibitive and foreign" (Chenfeng et al., 2016, p. 562). "When individuals feel less vulnerable or more secure in their relationships with others, they are more likely to let others see them for who they really are" (Oc et al., 2019, p. 4).

Sané Bell wrote: "when I lack self-awareness as a leader and when I'm not connected with the intentions driving my thoughts, feelings, and actions, I limit the perspective and insights that I can share with the people I lead" (Brown, 2018, p. 179). "Leaders need to be authentic for their displays of humility to be effective" (Oc et al., 2019, p. 19). "Authenticity draws attention to who a leader is—whether framed in terms of identity, character, personality, or any other construct of selfhood" (Tomkins & Nicholds, 2017, p. 6). Sedikides, Slabu, Lenton, & Thomaes (2017) define authenticity as the "sense or feeling that one is in alignment with one's true or genuine self" (Oc et al., 2019, p. 1).

Avolio and Gardner (2005) describe authentic leaders as "self-

aware and self-regulating individuals, whose beliefs and behaviors are anchored by a commitment to their 'true self'" (Tomkins & Nicholds, 2017, p. 6). "When leaders engage in reflective practices, their own goals and performance are likely to thrive" (Seefeld, 2016, p. 54). Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin (2006) explain that "successful leaders are authentic and behave with consistency, can read the emotions of others, and attend to the emotional aspects of the organization" (Seefeld, 2016, p. 36).

Wallace and Tice (2012) note that an individual's desire to be socially accepted can affect whether they act authentically (Oc et al., 2019, p. 3). Individuals often show an inauthentic version of themselves at work and may opt to do so because they feel vulnerable (Oc et al., 2019, p. 3). "At the same time, our capacity and need to take an action and demonstrate initiative speaks, equally, to our vulnerability and fragility, to the very real risk of inflicting both intended and unintended pain" (Pignatelli, 2011, p. 225).

Vulnerability and Gender/Identity

Fletcher (2004) reflects that traditional leadership characteristics tend to be masculine "such as individualism, control, assertiveness, and skills of advocacy and domination" while more modern characteristics are considered feminine "such as empathy, community, vulnerability, and skills of inquiry and collaboration" (p. 650). While people may instinctively think of the masculine traits when describing a leader, an effective leader needs to have an "androgynous combination of feminine and masculine traits," where men display slightly less assertiveness and women slightly more integrity (Hoyt, 2010, p. 486). Gardner (2011) finds "authenticity carries masculine connotations in connection with the Enlightenment's rational subject" while Tomkins and Simpson (2015) note "it can also be feminine, especially when the discourses of authentic and caring leadership are interwoven (Tomkins & Nicholds, 2017, p. 20).

When discussing the myth of vulnerability as a weakness and that people don't "do vulnerability," Brown (2012a) notes that statement is "normally followed up by a gender comment or a professional comment" such as "I don't do vulnerability, I'm a dude." "Encouraging leader humility in the workplace may not be an easy task given that many organizational leaders fear that expressing humility demonstrates a lack of competence to others" (Oc et al., 2019, p. 21).

"Despite being underrepresented, women are perceived to have more desirable leadership qualities than men" (Seefeld, 2016, p. 41). Bass (1990) notes that "women are more likely than men to adjust or 'modify' their leadership characteristics as they move up or down the hierarchical leadership ladder" (Seefeld, 2016, p. 100). Schreiber (2002) notes that "women continue to have perceptions about their position(s) in higher education, embracing a collaborative leadership style that can be misunderstood or disrespected, and at times, feeling out of sync with some male-dominated administrations" (Seefeld, 2016, p. 100). "We ask [men] to be vulnerable, we beg them to let us in, and we plead with them to tell us when they're afraid, but the truth is that most women can't stomach it. In those moments when real vulnerability happens in men, most of us recoil with fear and that fear manifests as everything from disappointment to disgust" (Brown, 2012b, p. 95).

Leadership Styles

While there are numerous leadership theories and styles, Copeland (2016) found values-based leadership styles to be most effective in her research, namely authentic, ethical, and transformational leadership styles (p. 79). These three styles of leadership all involve some level of risk and will be featured in the study.

Authentic Leadership

Authentic leadership has been described as "the process whereby leaders are aware of their thoughts and behaviors within the context in which they operate" (Maximo et al., 2019, p. 2). Walumbwa et al. (2008) outline the components of authentic leadership as self-awareness (a leader's understanding of themselves including strengths and weaknesses), balanced processing (a leader's ability to make objective decisions after weighing all the evidence), and relational transparency (a leader's strength in communicating honest and genuine information as well as opinions) (Maximo et al., 2019, p. 2).

Michie and Gooty (2005) noted that emotions directed toward others motivate authentic leaders "to behave in ways that reflect self-transcendent values" (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 318). For example, gratitude and appreciation (other-directed emotions) would be motivators for an authentic leader to model values of honesty and loyalty (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 318).

While these components/traits are essential for an authentic leader, authentic leaders also have a significant impact on their organization and their followers (Maximo et al., 2019, p. 3); thus, authentic leadership should focus on the relationship between the leader and the follower too (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 321). Authentic followers are likely to display the same behaviors and traits described above, paralleling those exhibited by their authentic leader (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 322). Followers may also show "increased levels of trust and a stronger willingness to cooperate" (Maximo et al., 2019, p. 3).

As with any relationship based on trust, both parties take a risk in being vulnerable (Maximo, et al., 2019, p. 3). Detert and Burris (2007) find that employees or followers may not take the risk "if they perceive these risks to result in negative consequences" or if they cause embarrassment (Maximo, et al., 2019, p. 3).

Ethical Leadership

Brown et al. (2005) define ethical leadership as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making" (p. 120). Kaptein (2016) adds that an ethical leader is not just a moral person and manager but also a "moral entrepreneur who creates new norms" (p. 1136). This entrepreneurship should lead to the "development of both society and the trust of stakeholders" (Kaptein, 2016, p. 1136). Brown and Treviño (2014) find that "leaders who have had ethical role models are more likely to become ethical leaders" (Kaptein, 2016, p. 1135).

A leader needs to be "perceived as attractive, credible, and legitimate" in order to be an effective and influential ethical leader (Brown et al., 2005, p. 120). Kalshoven et al. (2011) also find that ethical leaders tend to be agreeable and conscientious (Kaptein, 2016, p. 1135). Brown et al. (2005) studied how MBA students described a leader they perceived as ethical. The results included a leader who listens, keeps their followers' best interests in mind, is a role model when it comes to ethics, applies discipline when ethics are violated, makes fair decisions, and can be trusted (Kaptein, 2016, p. 1137).

Kaptein (2016) argues that ethical leadership is even an important part of transformational and authentic leadership "because ethics lies at the heart of leadership" (p. 1136).

Transformational Leadership

Bass and Riggio (2006) describe transformational leadership as motivating others through a common mission or challenge that empowers followers and encourages them to develop as leaders (p. 3). Transformational leaders tend to have more satisfied, committed followers with elevated work performances (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p.

4). This style of leadership addresses "the follower's sense of self-worth" (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 4). Carleton, Barling, and Trivisonno (2018) also found a strong connection between a leader's trait mindfulness and their positive actions as a transformational leader.

The components of transformational leadership include idealized influence (acting as a strong role model), inspirational motivation (motivating others through a shared vision or common goal), intellectual stimulation (encouraging followers to find creative and innovative solutions), and individualized consideration (paying attention to each follower's needs and adjusting mentoring strategies to fit those needs) (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 5-6). Individualized consideration is most important when it comes to vulnerability as it "involves leaders creating relationships with followers that demonstrate care and attention with follower's needs and emotions" (Simonis, 2015, p. 7). A leader who applies individualized consideration tends to build relationships with a greater level of trust (Simonis, 2015, p. 7).

A concern regarding transformational leadership is that a leader could lead their followers astray with "destructive" and "selfish" motivations, making a leader's authenticity vital in a successful relationship (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 4).

Industry: Higher Education

Developing a method of teaching vulnerability would help "to actualize the goals of a higher education" (Brantmeier, 2013). Brantmeier (2013) recommends an "approach to education that invites vulnerability and deepened learning through a process of self and mutual disclosure on the part of co-learners in the classroom." Amey (2006) "suggests that leaders in higher education should be developed not on a series of manuals or 'how-to' writings, but rather by understanding identities, roles, gender and race, critical thinking, and learning" (Seefeld, 2016, p. 36). Trivellas and Dargenidou (2009) found that leadership means "more than simply

being a manager, but also working for the good of the institution, in and amongst colleagues" (Seefeld, 2016, p. 38). Burns (1978) explains that "leaders must communicate their professional needs to colleagues in such a way that does not simply wield power, but that also addresses the wants, needs, and other motivations at play amongst his or her colleagues" (Seefeld, 2016, p. 56). "The purpose of such sharing is to go beyond understanding power, privilege, and oppression on individual levels and dive into the murky waters of institutional, cultural, societal, and structural levels of oppression, power, and privilege" (Brantmeier, 2013). Goldberg (2001) "states that one must 'believe that what you are doing will actually help people'" (Seefeld, 2016, p. 37).

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17. Transformational Leaders and Followers' Job Attitudes and Proactive Behavior

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While leading through goals is usually associated with a task-oriented leadership style, this work links goal setting to transformational leadership. An online survey with two time points was conducted with employees to investigate the influence of transformational leadership on followers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and proactive behavior via goal attributes. Findings indicate that transformational leaders influence the extent to which followers evaluate organizational goals as important and perceive them as attainable. Multiple mediation analysis revealed that these goal attributes transmit the effect of transformational leadership on followers' job attitudes and proactive behavior. However, goal importance and goal attainability seem to be of differential importance for the different outcomes.

Introduction

Although the setting of goals has been emphasized to be one of the most important tasks of leaders (e.g., Tett et al., 2000), goals and leadership have commonly been considered from two relatively independent research perspectives (cf. Berson et al., 2015). In the field of goal research many efforts centered on the setting of goals in organizational contexts. As a core finding, a multitude of studies (for an overview: Locke and Latham, 2002) revealed that setting specific and moderately difficult goals results in increases of an individual's performance as such goals direct one's attention, induce greater effort, enhance one's persistence, and elicit the use of task-related knowledge and strategies (Locke and Latham, 2002). Studies further showed that the strength of this association depends on certain goal attributes, an individual's self-efficacy beliefs, as well as feedback on and the complexity of the task. Apart from its impact on an individual's job performance and work motivation, goal setting is also an important determinant of one's self-regulation (Latham and Locke, 1991). Their self-regulative function results as specific and difficult goals point out a discrepancy between a current and a future state and clarify the acceptable level of performance (Latham and Locke, 1991). Goals, however, may not only be set by another person but also by an individual him-/herself. Personal goals and their pursuit have been another line of interest for goal researchers (e.g., Emmons, 1986; Brunstein, 1993). In the field of leadership research, goals have initially been assigned a dominant role in those conceptions, which highlight a leader's task orientation. Task-oriented leaders focus on getting their work done and completing assignments (Bass, 1990). Such leaders therefore emphasize goals, foster their achievement, and monitor followers' goal pursuit. In this regard, goals may be seen as a means to exert control in leader-follower interactions.

Instead of viewing the assignment of goals as a way to monitor followers, in the present study, we embed the goal setting of leaders

into the context of motivating and enabling subordinates. In so doing, we concentrate on the construct of transformational leadership, as transformational leaders (TLs) not only have high performance expectations (Bass, 1985), but rather inspire and empower their subordinates (Bass and Riggio, 2006). In motivating and enabling followers, goals have variously been assigned a central role in the theory of transformational leadership (e.g., Shamir et al., 1993; Conger and Kanungo, 1998). Therefore, a goal-perspective to transformational leadership is straightforward.

Given that setting goals is a common leadership task (Tett et al., 2000), it is indispensable to incorporate well-founded knowledge accumulated in the field of goal research into study efforts on effective leadership. Only if we consider both research domains jointly, we can get the best picture possible of how leaders influence followers and the way they pursue the goals these leaders set. Intertwining findings and theoretical assumptions on goal setting, self-regulative goal pursuit, and personal goals with empirical evidence and theorizing on transformational leadership, we assume TLs to foster followers' perception of organizational goals to be important and attainable, and by these means, to increase their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and proactive behavior. That way, the present study helps in bringing together the different streams of research and to generalize extant evidence on assigned and personal goals to the goal setting within leader-follower-interactions. In so doing, our study investigates fundamental assumptions on the inner workings of transformational leadership for which empirical evidence is yet scarce. As such, the present work also contributes to further substantiating theoretically derived mechanisms of transformational leadership and thus to our understanding of how these leaders exert their extraordinary influence on followers.

Motivating and Enabling Employees: The

Transformational Leadership Approach

TLs motivate followers to commit themselves to organizational objectives and to realize performance outcomes, which exceed beyond expectations. According to Bass (1985), leaders accomplish this process of motivating and transforming followers by (1) heightening their awareness of the importance and value of designated goals, (2) encouraging them to transcend self-interests for the good of the organization or team, and (3) activating their higher order needs as TLs articulate an inspiring vision and act as role models in attaining the vision. More specifically, TLs are able to ideally influence subordinates due to their exceptional charisma and prompt followers to personally identify with them (Bass, 1985). Based on this emotional attachment, TLs instill within followers the desire to emulate their leaders and thus become followers' role models. TLs envision an appealing future goal state for their team or the entire organization and express confidence in followers' abilities to attain this higher-order goal (Bass, 1985). By this means, they inspirationally motivate followers to achieve more than expected. As they tie the ideological vision to the collective's future, TLs foster the acceptance of group goals and enhance the cooperation within teams (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Besides, they intellectually stimulate followers to question their way of working and to take on new perspectives increasing subordinates' awareness of problems that way (Podsakoff et al., 1990). TLs clearly express the high performance demands they have and expect excellence and high quality work from followers (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Concurrently, they also attend to followers' needs, listen to their particular concerns, and are individually considerate toward them (Bass, 1985).

After the key behaviors used to transform and motivate followers had been identified, Conger and Kanungo (1998) claimed that more insights into the process of motivating and transforming followers were needed and called for a more processual perspective on transformational leadership. They developed a three-stage model,

which aimed at illustrating how TLs transform subordinates and move them from an existing present state toward some future state. According to this model, TLs first examine the current situation at work and its surrounding environment. In this initial stage, they actively search the status quo for existing or potential shortcomings. Based on the deficiencies they identify, goals are then derived, formulated, and conveyed in the second stage. By articulating a very discrepant and idealized goal, TLs provide a sense of challenge and a motivating force for change to their followers (Conger, 1999). In the final stage, they build trust in the goals they disseminate and demonstrate how these goals can be attained. The model thus highlights the communication and implementation of a vision or goal as a key mechanism of transformational leadership.

Goal Setting, Self-Regulation, and Personal Goals

In the work context, goals may help to predict, explicate, and affect an employee's job performance (Locke and Latham, 2002). By setting followers' goals, leaders create a discrepancy between a current situation and a future state and, with regard to work-related tasks, emphasize what constitutes an adequate level of performance. That way, they provide a sense of purpose, which coordinates and guides their followers' action (Latham and Locke, 1991).

After a goal is communicated or set, leaders often do not have direct control over their subordinates' goal pursuit anymore and followers have to plan and organize the goal striving process autonomously. In order to attain organizational goals, employees therefore have to be able to self-regulate at work. Traditionally, self-regulation is defined as processes that "enable an individual to guide his/her goal-directed activities over time and across changing circumstances (contexts), [... including the] modulation of thought, affect, behavior, or attention" (Karoly, 1993, p. 25). This definition points out that in the process of self-regulation, goals are an

essential component (Vancouver, 2000). Moreover, it describes self-regulation as a volitional process of translating the goals, which have been set into action. In a series of experiments, Oettingen et al. (2001) identified three self-regulatory thought processes, which are of relevance within an autonomous goal setting process: mentally contrasting the desired future with reality, dwelling on negative aspects of the current reality, and indulging in the desired future. The authors observed that as a function of these three self-regulatory thoughts, feelings of identification with the goal, expectations of success, and effortful goal striving result.

Self-regulated goal striving is also addressed in the field of *personal goal* research. Personal goals are set by an individual him-/herself and are therefore person-specific. Models of personal goal pursuit emphasize the personal significance and uniqueness of these goals and acknowledge the autonomy and self-determination during the goal striving process (e.g., Emmons, 1986; Brunstein, 1993). Knowledge gathered in the domain of personal goals may give valuable insights into the way TLs facilitate their followers' goal pursuit. As TLs intertwine the goals they set with followers' self-concepts (Shamir et al., 1993) and lead them to internalize these goals (Bono and Judge, 2003), subordinates perceive these goals to be highly self-consistent (Shamir et al., 1993) and feel goal-directed actions to be driven by personally held values (Bono and Judge, 2003). TLs hence seem to be able to turn organizational goals into followers' personal goals. According to the personal goal model of well-being (for an overview: Brunstein et al., 1999), which is well-established in the field of personal goal research, there are two decisive factors that determine one's success in pursuing personal goals as well as the subjective well-being of the goal striver: the valence followers attach to the goals and the degree to which they perceive the goals to be attainable. Whereas a goal's importance increases one's determination in pursuing the goals (Maier and Brunstein, 2001), the evaluation of a goal to be attainable first leads individuals to decide to pursue that goal (Heckhausen and Kuhl, 1985). Maier and Brunstein (2001) adapted this model to the work

domain and report evidence, which suggests that the two goal attributes account for changes in job satisfaction and organizational commitment. They conclude that "to achieve well-being and avoid distress, it is important for individuals to have both a strong sense of commitment to valued goals and a life situation that provides favorable conditions to materialize these goals" (Maier and Brunstein, 2001, p. 1035).

Combining self-regulation theory and the personal goal model, one can assume that the goal attributes highlighted in the personal goal model result from the self-regulatory processes Oettingen et al. (2001) found to be related to an autonomous goal striving. Goal importance and goal attainability may thus be considered indicators of an autonomous goal pursuit regardless of whether the goal had been set by a leader or by the follower him-/herself. If we transfer these considerations to the organizational goal setting process, we assume that in order to facilitate followers' goal pursuit, leaders have to enhance their followers' evaluation of the goal's importance and attainability.

Transformational Leaders as Facilitators of the Goal Pursuit of Employees

Although theoretically the effectiveness of transformational leadership has widely been ascribed to its impact on followers' perception of organizational goals, empirically this relation experienced far less attention. Those studies which indeed focused on goal attributes found transformational leadership to positively relate to followers' evaluation of the goal's specificity and difficulty (Whittington et al., 2004; Bronkhorst et al., 2015), as well as its clarity (Wright et al., 2012). Followers of TLs further rated organizational goals to be more consistent with their own values and interests (Bono and Judge, 2003) and showed a higher agreement with their leaders on strategic goals (Berson and Avolio,

2004). On the team level, transformational leadership was associated with higher levels of team goal commitment (Chi et al., 2011) and a higher congruence with regard to the importance team members attach to the goals (Colbert et al., 2008).

In line with our reasoning on the value of a goal's importance and attainability in an autonomous goal accomplishment, Latham and Locke (1991) stated that leaders can play a significant role in facilitating their followers' goal pursuit by convincing them that the goals are both important and attainable. In the present study, we therefore concentrate on these goal attributes and their relation to transformational leadership.

Empirically, transformational leadership has already been related to a goal's importance (Colbert et al., 2008). This study, though, focused on the degree of goal importance congruence among team members. Finer-grained analyses, however, suggested that rather than the degree of congruence it is an individual's goal importance perception as such which positively relates to transformational leadership and followers' job-related attitudes. To substantiate these initial findings and hence theoretical assumptions on the mechanisms of transformational leadership, followers' individual evaluations of a goal's importance have to be further examined in the context of these leadership behaviors. Goal clarity, specificity, or difficulty have also been studied with regard to transformational leadership (Wright et al., 2012; Bronkhorst et al., 2015). Besides, this leadership style has been shown to be closely associated with followers' broader feeling of having the ability to perform successfully (Kark et al., 2003). However, irrespective of the central role it has been assigned theoretically, evidence on the impact of transformational leadership on followers' perception of a specific goal's attainability is yet missing. Studies linking transformational leadership and followers' perception of a goal's importance and attainability may thus give further evidence-based insides into the process of how TLs transform followers and motivate them to achieve more than expected beyond existing research.

Transformational Leadership and Goal Importance

Goal importance refers to the significance an individual assigns to a certain goal and its achievement relative to other work- or non-work-related goals (Hollenbeck and Williams, 1987). It indicates how closely one regulates this goal compared to other goals (Powers, 1978). Goal importance is a significant driver of an individual's goal commitment (Locke and Latham, 2002), and, as such, aligns one's feelings and actions to the accomplishment of the specific goal (Hollenbeck and Klein, 1987). As a result, people extend their effort and invest more time even if they face difficulties or obstacles during the goal pursuit. In sum, goal importance is a significant determinant of one's motivation to achieve certain goals (Bandura, 1997). For this reason, it is of major interest to figure out leadership techniques, which help to increase followers' perception of an organizational goal's importance.

In the very beginning, researchers argued that supervisors' legitimate authority to assign goals or their physical presence was sufficient to create commitment to and raise a goal's importance (Ronan et al., 1973). Later, Latham and Saari (1979) showed that a supportive leadership style increased the importance attached to goals and that providing a rationale for the goal also functioned as a facilitator ("tell and sell" style; Locke et al., 1988). Moreover, if leaders communicate an inspiring vision they may enhance the attractiveness of attaining a certain goal and accentuate its importance (Berson and Avolio, 2004). Vision articulation, rationales, and a supportive leadership style seem to foster followers' goal acceptance by making them more likely to see the consequences of goal attainment as rewarding or favorable (Locke and Latham, 2002). In addition, goals gain in importance if followers are involved in the goal setting process. Under this condition, they own the goals agreed upon (Locke and Latham, 2002). Sheldon et al. (2002) developed a goal intervention program, which aimed at increasing one's sense of ownership. They asked participants to reflect upon the meaningfulness of goals and to consider the core

values these goals express ("Own the goal" strategy). Besides, participants were motivated to reflect upon the longer-term goals their current goals serve ("Remember the big picture" strategy). These strategies as well as the leadership attributes, which have been found to strengthen followers' perception of a goal's importance, closely match the behaviors TLs use in leading. TLs articulate an ideological vision of an attractive future goal state and frame the work in terms of collectively approved values (Shamir et al., 1993). That way, they provide a meaningful and stimulating rationale for the work to be done but also transform followers' beliefs and values (Conger and Kanungo, 1998). By aligning followers' values to the higher-order mission they articulate, TLs create a purpose in work that exceeds beyond extrinsic outcomes (Arnold et al., 2007) and increase the meaningfulness of goal accomplishment (Shamir et al., 1993). Besides strengthening the importance of organizational goals via their alignment to an ideological vision, TLs also foster followers' sense of ownership by involving them in important organizational decisions. In so doing, TLs delegate responsibilities, are open to followers' ideas and reasoning, and consider their needs in leading (Avolio et al., 1991).

As TLs present work and especially organizational goals in terms of a higher-order vision and link them to subordinates' values but also grant subordinates responsibility during the goal pursuit, we assume followers to perceive the goals their TLs set to be more important.

Hypothesis 1: We suggest that the more transformational followers perceive their supervisors to lead, the higher the importance they attach to the organizational goals set by or agreed upon with these leaders.

Transformational Leadership and Goal Attainability

Goal setting theory states that for goals to be motivational, they have to be specific and challenging but yet attainable (Locke and

Latham, 1990, 2002). Goal attainability indicates how favorable or unfavorable goal strivers perceive external conditions with respect to their goal progress. If an individual perceives a goal to be attainable, he/she has various opportunities to strive toward the goal, has control over the goal striving process, and receives goal-related support from his/her social network (Brunstein, 1993). Accordingly, leaders have three levers to adjust in order to make goals more attainable: opportunities, control, and support.

Social support is an important resource in facilitating employees' work and enhancing their work attitudes (e.g., Hochwarter et al., 1999; Viswesvaran et al., 1999). In a meta-analysis, Ng and Sorensen (2008) showed that compared to colleagues or the organization as a whole, supervisors are the most valuable source of social support. This value of supervisory support is also acknowledged by the theory of transformational leadership. One of its key components, individualized consideration, includes behaviors such as encouraging followers, acting as their coaches or mentors, and being caring and nurturing (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Conger and Kanungo, 1998). Besides, TLs demonstrate how goals may be attained (Conger, 1999). By providing this kind of social and instrumental support, TLs are likely to positively affect followers' perception of being able to attain the goals set by their leaders. TLs foster each follower's personal and professional development (Bass and Avolio, 1994) and promote their growth, independence, and empowerment (Bass, 1985; Kark et al., 2003). To achieve these ends, they use empowering leadership behaviors such as delegating responsibilities and enabling employees to make important decisions, providing resources, and background information about organizational processes, as well as enhancing followers' capacity to think and question familiar ways of working ultimately raising followers' self-efficacy beliefs that way (Avolio et al., 1991; Menon, 2001; Dvir et al., 2002; Kark et al., 2003). Self-effective and empowered persons believe in their capability to perform successfully, have a sense of having choice in initiating and regulating actions, and are able to influence outcomes at work

([Spreitzer, 1995](#)). As such, these followers ought to feel a higher degree of control with regard to their goal striving. Along with the autonomy they grant, the resources they provide, and the error culture they propagate, the intellectual stimulation TLs practice leads followers to also see and explore new ways of approaching their jobs and completing their tasks ([Peng et al., 2016](#)). This motivation to rethink the way they pursue organizational goals likely makes followers aware of new and different opportunities they have in striving toward these goals.

Transformational leaders are hence able to positively impact all three levers leaders may adjust in order to increase followers' perception of being able to attain their organization's goals. Therefore, we assume a positive association between transformational leadership and followers' attainability evaluation of the goals, which had been set by or agreed upon with these leaders.

Hypothesis 2: We suggest that the more transformational followers perceive their supervisors to lead, the higher the attainability they ascribe to the organizational goals set by or agreed upon with these leaders.

Transformational Leadership, Goal Attributes, and Followers' Job Attitudes and Performance

We were not only interested in the question whether TLs are able to facilitate their followers' goal pursuit but also in showing that this process of motivating and enabling makes a particular contribution to an organization's functioning. An extant body of meta-analytic evidence shows that TLs substantially influence their subordinates' job attitudes, motivation, performance, and proactive behavior at work ([Fuller et al., 1996](#); [Lowe et al., 1996](#); [Judge and Piccolo, 2004](#); [Wang et al., 2011](#)). Out of the multitude of possible outcomes, we drew on indicators of successful organizational adaptation, as today's changing work environments and competitive market situation require organizations to easily and quickly adapt to new

challenges ([Gordon and Yukl, 2004](#)). Specifically, we examined followers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and proactive behavior for indicating an employee's willingness to accept new challenges in the future ([Bateman and Crant, 1993](#); [Cordery et al., 1993](#); [Yousef, 2000](#)).

Previous research also confirmed a clear link between the two goal attributes importance and attainability and followers' affective job attitudes as well as their performance (e.g., [Lee et al., 1991](#); [Maier and Brunstein, 2001](#); [Locke and Latham, 2002](#)). In line with these findings, we assume that TLs facilitate their followers' goal pursuit process and exert their positive influence on work attitudes and proactive behavior by increasing followers' perception of the importance and attainability of organizational goals.

Hypothesis 3: We suggest that followers' evaluations of the organizational goal attributes importance and attainability jointly mediate the relationship between their perception of their leaders' transformational leadership behavior and (a) their job satisfaction, (b) organizational commitment, and (c) proactive behavior

Materials and Methods

Procedures and Participants

In order to test our hypotheses, we collected data via an online questionnaire at two measurement occasions. At T1, participants were asked to evaluate their leader's leadership behavior and to list three organizational goals. For each of these goals, participants then indicated its importance and attainability. Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and proactive behavior were assessed at the second measurement occasion, which was scheduled 4 weeks after the first measures had been taken. We chose this time lag since influences of leadership behavior on employees' well-being

are more likely to be detected within a short than within a long period of time (van Dierendonck et al., 2004). Data sets were matched based on a pre-structured ten-digit code, which participants generated at T1 and T2.

At the beginning and at the end of the first part of the survey, we informed participants that the study consisted of two parts. After completing T1, participants indicated whether they agreed to also respond to the second questionnaire. Those who were inclined to do so were further requested to provide an email address to which the link to the second part was sent by the survey software. In order to ensure anonymity, the survey software had been programmed in a way so that it automatically sent without our assistance a prewritten invitation mail to the second part of the survey to the address participants stated at T1. In the instruction, this procedure was explained in detail. Before we matched the data across measurement occasions and started to analyze them, email addresses were removed from the data set.

Prior to collecting the data, we presented the study to our university's ethics committee. As it did not deviate from legal regulations or the ethical guidelines of the German Association of Psychology, the ethics committee authorized the study in its final form. Due to the online assessment, we did not personally interact with participants and therefore did not obtain their signed declarations of consent. Yet, we informed them about the study's content, duration, and aims, and we highlighted that, at any time, participants could abandon the online questionnaire by closing the browser or tab. Participants were assured that incomplete data sets would be deleted and would not be incorporated into our analyses. Moreover, quoting their individual ten-digit code they had developed during the survey, participants were granted the opportunity to still withdraw their data after completing the entire questionnaire.

Participants were recruited in (virtual) business networks and on social media platforms. In sum, 292 employees finished the first part of the questionnaire, but only 144 of them completed its second

part. Given the high drop-out rate (50.68%), we compared the responses of those finishing the entire survey with those of participants who did not answer its second part. Analyses did not reveal any systematic drop-out (all $p > 0.05$). Due to missing data across both measurement occasions, we had to exclude 16 participants from the analyses, so that the final sample consisted of 128 followers. Among them, 60.90% were females. The average age was 36.17 years ($SD = 11.50$ years). Participants were employed in a variety of industries (i.e., service companies, retail stores, public services, industrial companies) and had been working for their current organization an average of 8–9 years ($M = 8.57$, $SD = 8.99$). At the time they completed the survey, followers had been collaborating with their current leader for about three and a half years ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 3.36$).

Measures

Listing and Assessment of Organizational Goals

In accordance with prior research (e.g., Maier and Brunstein, 2001), we ideographically assessed organizational goals by asking participants to freely generate and notice up to three work-related goals. Goals were defined as objectives, projects, and plans related to one's job that were set by or agreed upon with one's leader. Given the future-orientation of the higher-order vision transformational leaders articulate (Bass, 1985), participants were instructed to focus on those goals they were encouraged to pursue during the following 12 months. After listing these goals, participants indicated the extent to which they perceived each of them to be important and attainable on a five-point response scale ranging from 1 = *not at all* to 5 = *very much*. We computed an overall measure of goal importance and goal attainability by averaging responses across the

three goals. A major precondition for aggregating within-person data to the between-person level is sufficient reliability of the aggregate. In order to determine the homogeneity [ICC(1)] and reliability [ICC(2)] of the goal ratings, we calculated intraclass correlation coefficients as suggested by Lüdtke and Trautwein (2007). ICC(1) coefficients were 0.38 for importance and 0.37 for attainability. The corresponding ICC(2) coefficients were 0.65 and 0.64, respectively. ICC(2) is a function of ICC(1) and the number of goals assessed and reliability increases the more goals that are being evaluated. As in the present study only three goals were assessed, intraclass correlation coefficients are within an acceptable range (Lüdtke and Trautwein, 2007).

Transformational Leadership

To determine followers' perceptions of their leaders' transformational leadership behavior, we used the Transformational Leadership Inventory by Podsakoff et al. (1990); German form: Heinitz and Rowold (2007). With its 22 items, the scale covers the transformational leadership behaviors articulating a vision ("My supervisor paints an interesting picture of the future for our group"), providing an appropriate model ("My supervisor provides a good model for me to follow"), fostering the acceptance of group goals ("My supervisor gets the group to work together for the same goal"), articulating high performance expectations ("My supervisor shows us that he/she expects a lot from us"), providing individualized support ("My supervisor behaves in a manner thoughtful of my personal needs"), and offering intellectual stimulation ("My supervisor challenges me to think about old problems in new ways"). On a response scale ranging from 1 = *never* to 5 = *almost always* followers stated how often their leaders use the behaviors illustrated. The internal consistency of the measure was α = 0.93.

Job Satisfaction

Participants' job satisfaction was measured using the short version of [Neuberger and Allerbeck's (1978)](#) Job Description Form. The unidimensional scale covers one's satisfaction with seven facets of work (working conditions, tasks, relationship with colleagues, relationship with the supervisor, promotion opportunities, organization and management, and salary). Items were rated on a seven-point Kunin-scale ranging from 1 = *completely dissatisfied* to 7 = *completely satisfied*. Reliability of the scale was 0.82.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was measured with the short version of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire ([Mowday et al., 1979](#); German form: [Maier and Woschée, 2002](#)). Participants were asked to indicate their agreement (ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*) to nine statements about their identification with and involvement in their organizations ("For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work"). Cronbach's alpha of the scale was 0.91.

Proactive Behavior

To assess participants' proactive behavior, we used the respective subscale of an organizational citizenship behavior questionnaire ([Staufenbiel and Hartz, 2000](#)). The scale comprises five items ("I bring in innovative ideas to improve the quality of my department") which assess an employee's voluntary behaviors directed at keeping oneself informed about one's organization, advancing its quality and performance, as well as improving one's own qualifications. Items

were to be answered on a scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree* and showed an internal consistency of 0.82.

Results

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the study variables. Hypotheses 1 and 2 assumed a positive association between transformational leadership and followers' evaluation of the organizational goals that were set by or agreed upon with their leaders. As Table 1 shows, followers' perception of their leaders' transformational leadership behavior was indeed positively related to the importance they attach to these goals ($r = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$) and to the attainability they ascribe to them ($r = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$). Hypotheses 1 and 2 are thus supported.

TABLE 1

TABLE 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations of the study variables.

Hypothesis 3 supposed the goal attributes to jointly transmit the effect of transformational leadership on followers' (a) job satisfaction, (b) organizational commitment, and (c) proactive behavior. To explore this assumption, we tested a multiple mediation model according to Preacher and Hayes (2008) using Hayes' (2013) PROCESS macro for SPSS. Their approach allows the testing of multiple mediators and multiple outcomes also in smaller samples and accounts for the fact that the sampling distribution of total and indirect effects is commonly not normally distributed (MacKinnon et al., 2004). In order to yield more precise estimates, total and specific indirect effects are bootstrapped and confidence limits for these effects are estimated. In our study, we drew on 95% bias-corrected and accelerated confidence intervals (BCa CI) based on 5,000 bootstrap samples. To test our hypothesis we modeled all

variables (transformational leadership as predictor, goal importance and goal attainability as mediators operating in parallel, as well as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and proactive behavior as outcomes) within a single multiple mediation model. In line with previous meta-analyses (Fuller et al., 1996; Lowe et al., 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Wang et al., 2011), we found significant total effects of follower-rated transformational leadership on their job satisfaction (b = 1.065, BCa CI [0.855, 1.275]), organizational commitment (b = 0.671, BCa CI [0.488, 0.853]), and proactive behavior (b = 0.282, BCa CI [0.084, 0.480]). For each outcome this effect decreased in size when the goal attributes were considered simultaneously (see the values of the direct effects of transformational leadership on the outcome variables displayed in Figure 1). Whereas the direct effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction and organizational commitment remained significant when controlling for goal attributes suggesting partial mediation, the one on proactive behavior turned out to be only marginally significant under this condition (Figure 1). Estimates of the total indirect effect show that, together, both goal attributes mediate the effect of perceived transformational leadership on followers' job satisfaction (b = 0.111, BCa CI [0.028, 0.241]), organizational commitment (b = 0.071, BCa CI [0.014, 0.169]), and proactive behavior (b = 0.086, BCa CI [0.020, 0.188]). Hypothesis 3 is thus supported. Given that we considered multiple mediators, we could not draw on Preacher and Kelley's (2011) κ^2 in determining the size of the indirect effect, but had to rely on the ratio of the indirect effect to the total effect (MacKinnon et al., 1995). One of the disadvantages of this effect size measure is that it may exceed 1 if the indirect effect is bigger than the total effect and may exhibit values below 0 if one of these effects is negative (Hayes, 2013). For job satisfaction, 10.4% of the total effect of transformational leadership was transmitted by the goal attributes, for organizational commitment 10.5% of the total effect resulted from mediation, and in proactive behavior this proportion amounted to 30.4%.
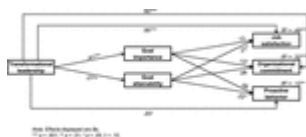FIGURE 1

FIGURE 1. Direct effects of transformational leadership on goal attributes and outcomes as well as of goal attributes on outcomes within the multiple mediation model.

Besides the total indirect effect, PROCESS also estimates the extent to which each mediator transmits the effect of the predictor on the outcome conditional on the presence of the other intervening variables operating in parallel (Preacher and Hayes, 2008). These specific indirect effects give evidence on the relative magnitude of each mediator included in the model. As indicated by the confidence intervals displayed in Table 2, the effect of perceived transformational leadership on job satisfaction and proactive behavior was solely transmitted by followers' evaluation of the goals' attainability. With regard to their organizational commitment, we found the effect to be solely mediated by followers' ratings of the goals' importance. For this indirect effect, the confidence interval did not include zero. Goal attributes thus seem to be differentially important for the different outcomes.

TABLE 2

TABLE 2. Specific indirect effects of transformational leadership on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and proactive behavior transmitted through the goal attributes goal importance and goal attainability.

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to examine the linkage between transformational leadership and followers' job attitudes as

well as their proactive behavior focusing on the goal setting process. We aimed at illustrating that TLs enable followers to autonomously organize their goal pursuit, which we assumed to find expression in higher follower perceptions of the importance and attainability of the goals these leaders set. In line with our assumptions, we indeed found positive relations between follower-rated transformational leadership and their assessment of both goal attributes. TLs articulate an ideological vision and lay emphasis on the meaning of tasks, but also grant followers responsibility and support. Together, these behaviors result in higher levels of identification with and commitment to the organizational goals these leaders set. By demonstrating confidence in their followers' capability, increasing opportunities for them to significantly affect their work, and providing instrumental and emotional support, TLs lead employees to further perceive these goals to be attainable. Enhancing the importance and attainability of the goals they disseminate, TLs are thus able to facilitate their followers' organizational goal striving.

In support of our third hypothesis, ratings of the goal attributes mediated the relation between followers' perceptions of transformational leadership and their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and proactive behavior. This result supplements earlier findings by Maier and Brunstein (2001) in the domain of personal goals based on which the authors concluded that a sense of commitment to valued goals and the perception of favorable conditions for goal attainment are important requirements for one's well-being. Our findings suggest that this conclusion also holds when goals are set by a leader instead of followers themselves. Also during the pursuit of assigned goals at work, a goal's importance and attainability are crucial for success and ultimately for one's job-related well-being and performance.

Analyses of the specific indirect effects corroborate that goal importance and goal attainability differentially mediated the effect of transformational leadership on the outcomes considered. Whereas transformational leadership and job satisfaction as well as proactive behavior were solely associated via the perception of a

goal's attainability, these leadership behaviors unfolded their impact on followers' organizational commitment via followers' perceptions of the goal's importance only. Concerning followers' organizational commitment, we think that this mediation can be explained by a spread-out effect in which the appreciation of and identification with a certain vision or goal serves as a proxy for the whole organization. As Mowday et al. (1982) stated, organizational commitment is characterized by "a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values" (p. 27). Therefore, perceiving organizational goals as important is a relevant mechanism in transmitting the effect of transformational leadership on followers' organizational commitment. Our finding that goal attainability does not significantly mediate this relation might be explained by the fact that employees expect their leaders to facilitate their work in any case (Ng and Sorensen, 2008). Meta-analytic evidence, though, shows followers' affective commitment to be most affected by perceptions of organizational support (Meyer et al., 2002). As favorable conditions for goal attainment seem to be taken for granted (Ng and Sorensen, 2008) and are thus not perceived as particular support, they probably do not specifically increase followers' attachment to the organization. With regard to followers' job satisfaction and proactive behavior, by contrast, goal attainability appeared to be a significant mediator conditional on the presence of goal importance as a second mediator. With regard to one's satisfaction, this finding is in line with research on personal goals: In this domain, goal attainability has been meta-analytically shown to be associated with an individual's subjective well-being (e.g., life satisfaction or positive affect); and personal work-related goals were found to more specifically relate to one's job satisfaction (Klug and Maier, 2015). Unfortunately, the association with a goal's importance has not been considered within this integrative work. Our findings suggest that in order to be satisfied with one's job, followers have to be convinced to be able to attain the organizational goals they have been assigned rather than considering these goals to be important. This finding deviates from

evidence on the significance of one's goal commitment within the goal setting theory (for an overview: Locke and Latham, 2002), as well as from evidence on the personal goal model of well-being corroborating that goals need to be both important and attainable in order to increase employees' job satisfaction (Maier and Brunstein, 2001). In addition, meta-analytic evidence in the field of work design highlights a task's significance, which is closely associated with an organizational goal's importance, to be a major correlate of one's satisfaction with work (Humphrey et al., 2007). As, based on this former research, we would have expected goal importance perceptions to equally mediate the effect of transformational leadership on followers' job satisfaction, we recommend to reinvestigate the value of followers' goal importance evaluations in relation to transformational leadership and subordinates satisfaction with work. Also with regard to followers' proactive behavior, only attainability perceptions mediated the effect of transformational leadership. If employees believe they may affect work outcomes, their willingness to take responsibilities and action is stimulated (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). Accordingly, followers who perceive favorable conditions for goal realization are likely to proactively develop these goals and ways to achieve the vision TLs articulate. In previous research, feelings of being able to successfully perform a task have rather been found to moderate the relation between transformational leadership and proactive behavior instead of mediating it (Den Hartog and Belschak, 2012). This earlier work, though, assessed followers' self-efficacy beliefs, whereas our study focused on the attributes of the goal. Whether TLs exert an identifiable independent influence on both followers' self-evaluation of their abilities as well as on their perception of the goals' attributes and – if so – whether these influences operate differently is an important question to answer in future research. Contradicting our assumption, goal importance did not mediate the impact of TLs on followers' proactive behavior. Maybe, a strong sense of goal importance or commitment may thwart followers' proactive behavior such that they solely focus on the goal on duty

and behaviors directed at attaining this specific goal. In this case, positive effects on followers' in-role performance are more likely to evolve than effects on their proactive behavior.

Theoretical Implications and Future Research

Integrating theorizing and research on self-regulated goal pursuit and personal goals with the goal setting of TLs, the present study broadens previous findings on the mechanisms of transformational leadership. Theoretically, it has widely been reasoned that TLs exert their influence on followers' performance by increasing the importance of organizational goals and boosting followers' feelings of being able to attain these goals, that way supporting followers' goal pursuit. Empirical evidence on these deliberations, though, is still scarce. Our results show that TLs facilitate their followers' goal striving by enhancing their perceptions of the importance and attainability of organizational goals.

The role of TLs within the goal setting process has first been analyzed by Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996). In a laboratory simulation, they found that leaders' visions affect followers' performance to the extent that they inspire the setting of specific goals. These researchers, however, investigated quality goals only and the way they assessed goals induced specific (number of errors) rather than vague as well as self-set instead of assigned goals. In the following, Bono and Judge (2003) studied the influence of transformational leadership on followers' goals among dyads of leaders and followers. They demonstrated that the more transformational supervisors lead, the more self-concordant (i.e., representative for personally held values) are the work goals followers set themselves. Like Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996), also Bono and Judge (2003) focused on followers' self-generated goals rather than examining the impact of TLs on the organizational goals they set. Other work considered strategic goals disseminated by top management which were

assessed and evaluated in qualitative research (Berson and Avolio, 2004), related to an organization's overall goal (Wright et al., 2012), or did not specifically focus on goals but rather on the way a job is to be done in general (Bronkhorst et al., 2015). The study by Colbert et al. (2008), which also examined a goal's importance, did not neither refer to goals, which decidedly have been assigned by leaders. They analyzed broader goals, which in a pre-survey have been identified by CEOs to be relevant to the specific industry the research was conducted in (e.g., "Improving customer service" or "Improving the efficiency of internal operations"). Those studies, which indeed investigated organizational goals set by a leader, either viewed goal attributes to moderate the relation between transformational leadership and outcomes (Whittington et al., 2004) or concentrated on the team level evaluation of these attributes (Chi et al., 2011). In our research, we overcome some of these shortcomings: (1) We focused on two decisive goal attributes which have widely been neglected in the study of transformational leadership so far; (2) we concentrated on goals that have been set by leaders – the traditional basis of goal setting theory and one of the main tasks leaders have to complete; and (3) we ideographically assessed organizational goals and followers' individual evaluations of these goals. Implementing these characteristics, we empirically emphasized goal attributes to be an important mechanism of transformational leadership.

Nevertheless, our findings are just the beginning of systematically bringing together evidence and theorizing on transformational leadership and goals. Future study efforts need to continue this integration. A first step to further intertwine these streams of research is to consider other goal attributes, which have been highlighted to affect the setting of goals (e.g., goal distance, goal orientation, feedback; Locke and Latham, 2002). With regard to followers' self-efficacy, an important moderator within the goal setting theory, an extensive body of evidence has already been accumulated showing TLs to boost followers' beliefs in their own (work-related) capabilities (e.g., Pillai and Williams, 2004; Liu et al.,

2010; Den Hartog and Belschak, 2012). In addition to considering further mediators and moderators of goal setting, the goal attributes importance and attainability need to be assessed in more detail (e.g., Brunstein, 1993) than we did here.

Moreover, considering the statement by Howell and Shamir (2005) that "leaders and followers both play an active role in shaping their mutual relationships, and therefore shaping organizational outcomes" (p. 108) we argue for a *leader-follower-fit* perspective in future research. The underlying notion of such a perspective is that leaders should tailor their behavior to suit their followers' needs. Regarding the regulation of one's goal striving, individuals have certain preferences how to pursue goals (assessment or locomotion regulatory mode) as well as preferences for a desired or undesired end state (promotion or prevention regulatory focus; Higgins, 2000, 2002). The link between transformational leadership and employees' regulatory *mode* has already been examined empirically (Benjamin and Flynn, 2006). Results demonstrate that followers with more of a locomotion regulatory mode (i.e., desire to move from one state to another) were more affected by TLs than followers with more of an assessment mode (i.e., desire to make comparisons and judgments before acting and appraising performance against standards). This seems to be the case as TLs tend to emphasize movement from state to state. Furthermore, there is evidence that the positive effects of articulating a vision are contingent on follower regulatory *focus*. In two experiments Stam et al. (2010) showed that visions focusing on preventing an undesirable situation lead to better performance than visions focusing on promoting a desirable situation for more prevention-focused followers (who want to avoid failures and fears), while the reverse was true for more promotion-focused followers (who want to reach success and ideals). The fit between followers' regulatory mode and focus should therefore be further investigated as possible moderator in the interplay of transformational leadership behaviors and followers' goal striving.

The congruence of leaders' and followers' goal appraisals should

also be examined. If leaders set their followers goals, an individual redefinition process starts by which followers convert external tasks into internal ones (Hackman, 1970; Hacker, 1982). Employees might be successful in striving for reinterpreted goals, which, in turn, may foster proactive behavior. The question, however, arises whether followers work on the task intended by the leader or whether the redefinition process leads them to work toward goals their leaders never wanted them to pursue. Therefore, research to come should not only assess followers' evaluation of the goals they have been assigned, but should also consider whether leaders and followers agree upon the content of the goals, which are to be attained.

Just like in everyday life (cf. Austin and Vancouver, 1996), also at work individuals have to simultaneously pursue multiple goals. While acting on the attainment of one goal, employees scan the environment for opportunities to act on the other goals. This may lead to deferrals and reprioritizations of goals of which leaders are unaware. In the field of close relationships, Brunstein et al. (1996) showed that being aware of one's partners' goals, significantly influences the association among goal-related support and judgments of marital satisfaction. Only if participants were aware of their partners' goals, the provision of goal-related support was significantly associated with their partners' satisfaction. Transferring these findings to the field of leader-follower-interactions, it seems fruitful to explore whether leaders have to know which particular goal their followers actually strive for and how they progress in order to provide the most effective support. As, however, followers and leaders commonly share a more task-oriented relationship than couples, followers might feel controlled instead of empowered under this condition.

Managerial Implications

Due to its well-established positive impact, transformational leadership has become a prevalent topic in leadership education within business schools throughout the world (Tourish et al., 2010). In small and medium-sized enterprises, however, leaders are rarely recruited from business schools, but rather are promoted into leadership positions based on their technical and professional expertise or the seniority principle. Such leaders often lack knowledge in managing and leading others as well as various skills necessary in successfully facilitating their followers' goal pursuit. Therefore, they have to be equipped with leadership skills, which are relevant in effectively managing the goal setting process. Previous research has shown that transformational leadership behaviors can be developed in courses or training programs (e.g., Kelloway et al., 2000; Dvir et al., 2002). Such interventions may be tailored to specifically target the dissemination and pursuit of organizational goals. Trainings may start with an examination of the implicit theories of effective leadership and goal setting these leaders have in mind. Via 270- or 360-degree appraisal, they may be given insights into their own leadership behaviors and the way they are perceived by supervisors, colleagues, followers, and – should the occasion arise – customers. These analyses may be used as a starting point to improve the leaders' behaviors as leaders may deduce a need for development by comparing their ideals and the way they are perceived.

As an important learning goal, leadership trainings need to convey that the manner in which goals are communicated impacts the degree of importance followers attach to these goals. Frese et al. (2003) developed and evaluated an action theory based training to teach participants the inspirational communication of a vision. The training consisted of two components. On the one hand, participants had to develop a vision for their own department and to deliver an enthusiastic and inspiring speech propagating it. Based

on feedback, the vision and the speech were constantly improved in further role-plays. On the other hand, participants were taught about the characteristics and the importance of visions. Relevant paralinguistic and content issues of charismatic visions were exemplified and situations in which the speech may be applied were discussed. As evaluation studies of this 1.5 days training module revealed good to excellent effect sizes (Frese et al., 2003), it should be incorporated into broader leadership training programs. Empirical evidence revealed that visions tight to charismatic or transformational leadership among others present an optimistic picture of the future, express confidence that the vision is attainable, or state the importance of followers' participation (Berson et al., 2001). Contingent reward leaders, by contrast, draw an instrumental vision tight to a specific time frame or linked to extrinsic benefits (Sosik and Dinger, 2007). Thus, in order to be most effective, the particular themes a vision addresses deserve careful consideration within these trainings. Visions contain far-reaching, timeless, and relatively abstract ideas (Berson et al., 2015), whereas goal setting theory found goals to work best if they are specific, challenging and timed (Locke and Latham, 1990). In leading, however, both kinds are important (Latham and Locke, 1991). Berson et al. (2015) reason that the motivational effect of visions vs. goals depends on the characteristics of the specific situation in which they are articulated or assigned: If leaders are socially and spatially proximate to their followers, greater effects result if more specific, time-constrained, and challenging goals are set. If, by contrast, leaders are socially and spatially distant, abstract, far-reaching, and timeless visions are a better means to stimulate followers' performance. Attributes of the situation and properties of the message a leader delivers, thus need to fit in order to best motivate followers (Berson et al., 2015). Accordingly, apart from learning to develop and articulate inspiring visions to increase the importance of organizational goals, training participants also need to learn about the goal setting theory and how goals need to be formulated and conveyed like it is already done in various transformational

leadership trainings (e.g., Barling et al., 1996; Kelloway et al., 2000). In this context, leaders need to learn in which situations best to use either kind of communication strategy.

The communication of more concrete, challenging, and timed goals also helps to increase followers' trust in being able to achieve the super-ordinate vision (Berson et al., 2015). As such, modules on goal setting also serve in teaching leaders how to increase followers' perception of an organizational goal's attainability. Further behaviors, which lead followers to evaluate a goal to be attainable, also need to be developed and practiced in leadership trainings. Accordingly, leaders need to support followers and foster their impression of having control over the goal striving process as well as having several opportunities in achieving a certain goal. In order to increase followers' perceptions of their control and opportunities, intellectual stimulation is an important leadership behavior. While training leaders, Barling et al. (1996) found this component of transformational leadership to be lowest among those participating in their intervention. To increase intellectually stimulating behaviors, participants were taught about the concept of transformational leadership, role-played these behaviors, and attained four monthly individual booster sessions with the researchers. In addition, leaders were encouraged to discuss new ideas with other training participants themselves in order to practice the behaviors they were meant to increase within their followers. Apart from intellectual stimulation, the information given, the role-plays, as well as the one-to-one coaching sessions also targeted the leaders' individualized consideration. This behavior is important in fostering followers' perception of supervisory support. As evidence on the effectiveness of this intervention, followers of those attending the training in sum rated their leaders higher on transformational leadership behaviors than those of a non-participating control group (Barling et al., 1996). Training participants may further be encouraged to see things from their followers' perspective and to anticipate potential obstacles followers might be confronted with during the goal pursuit. Based

on that, leaders may be better able to provide support instrumental in achieving the goals they assign. As, compared to eclectic leadership trainings, transformational leadership trainings resulted in higher ratings of followers' self-efficacy (Dvir et al., 2002), such trainings should be helpful in increasing followers' perception of being able to attain the goal their leaders set.

Several months after the initial training, a follow-up session could help to review the implementation of the behavior leaders learned during the training program, to exchange experiences with fellow trainees, and to revise leadership strategies aimed at increasing the importance and attainability of organizational goals. Fellow training participants could provide assistance and feedback on how to transfer the training content into daily work routines and how to deal with obstacles. Such booster sessions aim at maintaining the transfer of training for a longer period of time (Saks and Belcourt, 2006). In sum, transformational leadership trainings have led to modest improvements across the following 2 years (see Bass, 1999).

Limitations

Despite these contributions, the present study has several limitations. First, our research was solely based on self-report data increasing the possibility of common method and social desirability bias (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). However, we consciously adopted this approach (see Conway and Lance, 2010) since all of our variables dealt with respondents' personal cognition and affect. Obviously, respondents themselves are the most reliable and appropriate source of information in this particular case (cf. Chan, 2009). To avoid common method bias, leadership behaviors could have been analyzed as a self-report measure on the part of the leaders. In this study, though, we were interested in the perceptions of followers. Consistent with Walumbwa et al. (2007) we assert that leaders behave differently across situations and individuals or at least are

perceived as behaving differently by those affected by these behaviors. Consequently, we actually examined whether differences in the perception of leadership account for variations in followers' cognition and affect. Although it has been reasoned that the effects of common method variance are overstated (Spector, 2006) and empirical evidence suggests they are leveled out by measurement errors (Lance et al., 2010), we nevertheless collected data at two points in time and ensured participants' anonymity to reduce possible response biases. Temporal separation of the assessment of predictors and outcomes is one of the procedural remedies suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2012) in order to control for common method biases. By introducing a time lag between these measurements, biases resulting from followers' desire to appear consistent across responses as well as from demand characteristics related to the specific items may be attenuated (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

The study design with its two temporally separated measurement occasions, however, is associated with a second limitation of the present work: the poor participation of respondents at the second time point and hence the high drop-out rate (cf. Podsakoff et al., 2012). High attrition rates and the associated risk of biased sample selection are particularly common when participants are recruited online and data is collected through the internet at more than one measurement occasion (Kraut et al., 2004). The higher anonymity resulting from the web-based survey method might have caused a decrease in the response rate in our study. Participants did not feel as obliged to fill in the second part of the questionnaire, as they probably would have felt if the data had been collected in cooperation with a specific company. Moreover, we did not offer any kind of incentive, which might have increased the motivation to take part at T2. Nevertheless, we tested for systematic attrition and did not find any differences between respondents and non-respondents.

Although the two-wave study design helps in reducing potential biases resulting from common method variance, it is limited with

regard to the examination of mediation effects ([Cohen et al., 2003](#)): Based on such a design we may not readily draw rigorous causal inferences ([Cole and Maxwell, 2003](#)). Even if we had adopted a sequential design and had added a third time point to measure transformational leadership, the goal attributes, and outcome variables at a distinct time point each, longitudinal mediation would not have been assessed more accurately ([Mitchell and Maxwell, 2013](#)). Both designs fail to account for prior levels of the variables and thus for autoregressive effects, which indicate stable individual differences in a certain variable ([Preacher, 2015](#)). In order to clarify the causal order of effects, longitudinal designs are needed which assess predictor, mediator, and outcome variables simultaneously at each of various measurement occasions ([Cole and Maxwell, 2003](#)). Using such a design, we may rigorously examine the proposed mediating effects, contrast them with alternative causal models, and relate them to concurrent causal influences ([Cole and Maxwell, 2003](#)). Given this deficiency in our study design, we have to be careful when interpreting our findings as evidence on the mediation model we assumed, because we may not rule out alternative causal effects. Experimental and training research, however, demonstrated an impact of transformational leadership on followers' perception of related goal attributes (e.g., [Bono and Judge, 2003](#)) just as on the outcomes we considered (e.g., [Barling et al., 1996](#)). In the field of personal goals, [Maier and Brunstein (2001)](#) provided evidence based on longitudinal data that differences in the interplay between work-related goal commitment and goal attainability reliably predict changes in newcomers' job satisfaction and job commitment during the first 8 months after organizational entry. In addition, goal effectiveness trainings designed to enhance students' commitment to goals as well as their goal attainability perceptions improved the effectiveness of the students' goal striving process and ultimately led to increases in their satisfaction with their studies ([Brunstein et al., 2008](#)). Due to their respective designs, these studies allow for strong inferences on causality. The causal effects are in line with the mediation chain we proposed, and therefore reinforce our

assumption that transformational leadership affects followers' perceptions of goal attributes, which in turn exert an influence on their job-related attitudes and proactive behavior. Nonetheless, we recommend future research to further substantiate the impact of transformational leadership on followers' job satisfaction, commitment, and proactive behavior via goal attributes longitudinally by drawing on cross-lagged panel or latent growth curve models or other currently emerging strategies to model longitudinal mediation (cf. Preacher, 2015).

An additional limitation of our study is that the data was collected in one specific (Western) culture. It is therefore uncertain whether our findings are generalizable across cultures. Given that a cultural influence may especially be assumed with regard to the visionary content transformational leaders convey (House et al., 2004), particularly the impact of TLs on a goal's importance may vary dependent on the vision theme that is being communicated within a certain culture. In order to yet strengthen the generalizability of our findings, we included a diverse sample representing a broad range of organizations and a variety of industries.

Finally, we cannot rule out that general perceptions of control or support at work might have influenced followers' ratings of the goal attributes. Future research should consider constructs such as locus of control or decision latitude as well as a supportive organizational culture as influences on followers' goal attribute perceptions.

Conclusion

Our study integrates research and theorizing on self-regulatory processes, goal setting, and personal goals in the context of transformational leadership. Although these constructs share certain overlap, they have traditionally been considered from different perspectives. The study empirically supports theoretical

assumptions related to the effect of transformational leadership on followers' goal pursuit showing that TLs influence the extent to which individuals perceive organizational goals as important and attainable. This is remarkable as leading through goals has originally been associated with a task-oriented leadership style according to which leaders set a specific goal, monitor its progress, and allocate rewards. We have learned that TLs exert their impact on followers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and proactive behavior through the goal attributes importance and attainability. Findings suggest that these attributes are decisive in one's goal striving no matter if a goal is self-set or assigned. However, both goal attributes differentially mediate the effect of transformational leadership. In sum, the present work thus contributes to the fields of leadership as well as goal research and their integration.

Author Contributions

BS and HK conceptualized the study with careful advice by GM. BS designed the study materials and collected the data. BS and HK processed the data. All authors were concerned with their analysis and interpretation. BS and HK drafted the earlier versions of the manuscript. GM thoroughly commented on these versions inducing further intellectual content. Before submitting the present work, BS substantially revised the manuscript.

Funding

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

We gratefully acknowledge the assistance of Melanie Hoff in collecting the data.

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Orignal **https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/ fpsyg.2018.02338/full July 9, 2021**

18. Leadership Styles of Conductors

Leadership Styles of Music Ensemble Conductors

By Ty Gioacchini

The study of leadership is valuable, as it provides current and future leaders with tools they can use to hone their craft. Various leadership theories and models identify different styles of leadership and their strengths and weaknesses. This serves as a foundation for understanding the type of leadership different situations call for. Leaders are more prepared to think critically about how to approach challenges and help others in their efforts to achieve goals. It is critical, though, that students of leadership theories truly understand the concepts and models they are presented with.A

Frequently, the text and resources used to support leadership studies provide practical, real-world examples of concepts in action, such as case studies. These are often focused on leadership in two contexts: corporate organizations and governments. Some people might find this to be generally applicable, however, there can be value in exploring and presenting leadership theories as they occur in other practical contexts.

Having a background in the performing arts, I often found myself connecting the concepts presented during my graduate studies in leadership to experiences I have had as part of music ensembles. Doing this helped me to understand the concepts more thoroughly as I considered how certain behaviors and tactics affected the group.

This study will discuss how music ensemble conductors are leaders. It will present how some conductors execute certain qualities of leadership and highlight commonalities in their leadership habits. Adding this information to the existing literature

about conductor leadership will contribute additional practical explanations of leadership habits and serve as a starting point for more research into what we can learn about leadership from music ensembles.

Literature Review

Conductors as Leaders

When thinking about leaders and looking at music ensembles, it is easy to identify the conductor as a leader. They are in a role that positions them physically in front of the musicians, typically elevated on a podium. While the initial glance and untrained eye may see only swinging arms, this role is much more purposive. Conductors bring together groups of people to execute a task, sometimes with a timeline of only a few days. As leaders, they need to navigate the stages of group development while maintaining an environment where musicians can and want to perform at their highest capability (Kerres, 2012).

Katz (2014) provides three essential skills of leadership: technical skills, conceptual skills, and intrapersonal skills. For conductors, these are their music and organizational skills, artistic vision, and charisma, respectively (Zel & Onay, 2012). Each of these skills is influential in leadership, but the value of each as part of leadership in the music ensemble context can vary. Jansson, et al. (2019) surveyed conductors on the relative importance of musical-technical, situational-relational, and existential foundation competencies and found that conductors tend to consider their existential competencies more important. These are the competencies that relate more to commitment to the ensemble.

Conductors need to connect with the musicians. Zel and Onay (2012) found that conductors as leaders need to put that connection before their own interests. They need to leverage emotional intelligence and eschew egocentric behaviors. Furthermore, behavior that is authentic and honest is favorable. This is not only because of how it makes musicians feel but because it also boosts quality. Ensemble performance is enhanced by leadership behaviors that connect with the members, as has been found numerous times

(Kammerhoff, et al., 2019; Matthews & Kitsantas, 2013; Petricic, 2011; Rowold & Rohmann, 2009).

Leadership Behaviors

Characterizing leadership styles and behaviors simply as good or bad is subjective, but studies have found specific styles and behaviors that garner positive outcomes when used by conductors. Boerner, et al. (2004) proposed and found the value of a directive-charismatic leadership style. This combination is valuable in the context of a music ensemble because it synthesizes a leadership style for ensuring tasks are executed in a congruent way with a style that nurtures motivation among the musicians in the ensemble (Boerner, et al., 2004). Petricic (2011) also offered support for the directive-charismatic leadership style for its incorporation of the characteristics of authority (knowledge of musicology and performance standards) and an ability to make a connection with ensemble members. Other literature supports the value of the charismatic leader.

Followers are interested in leaders who are charismatic and enthusiastic (Armstrong & Armstrong, 1996). Their discussion of the importance of charisma in leadership behavior is within the context of a transformational leadership style. Others have also supported that charisma is a main component of the transformation leadership style (Boerner & Von Streit, 2005). Transformational leaders will be able to inspire with a vision that is meaningful and motivating to members because the vision will make use of the members' skills in a way that is cognizant of their capability and needs (Armstrong & Armstrong, 1996). Boerner and Gerbert (2012) also support this notion that transformational ensemble leaders will understand follower needs and capabilities and incorporate them into the vision and mission for the group. This follower-focused leadership is an important method for ensemble leaders to use.

Although professional orchestras and choirs whose musicians are paid exist around the world, many more exist that are made up of non-paid members. Without monetary compensation as a motivator, the leaders of these ensembles need to find alternative

means of motivation. Transformational-leader conductors form a vision that is meaningful for the musicians, motivating them and, in combination with other transformational leadership behaviors, increasing ensemble member satisfaction with their experience and performance (Kammerhoff, et al., 2019). Rowald and Rohmann (2009) found similarly that more transformational leadership behavior correlates with more positive emotions among ensemble members, and that transformational leadership yielded a higher rating of effectiveness than transactional leadership.ALiterature offers more connection to how conductors can be transformational leaders.

Conductors should be working with a servant-leader mindset to orient their thinking and behavior to be aligned with transformational leadership. Wis (2002) explains that conductors should not be managing the musicians as they execute the conductor's vision to achieve their personal goal, as an individual. Instead, the leadership style and behavior of the conductor should account for the musicians as individuals so goals can be set based on their specific capabilities. Considering improvement, of individuals and the collective, rather than benchmarking against others can be very beneficial. Matthews and Kitsantas (2013) researched the impacts of mastery-focused conductors (i.e. improvement) versus performance-focused conductors (i.e. normative) and found ensemble members feel more capable of achieving goals as individuals and a collective when leadership focuses on improvement rather than meeting a benchmark. The servant-leader conductor will be asking above all else what is in the best interest of ensemble members so all of them can grow and make the most of their capabilities. The conductor should be using their leadership skills to help others make the best use of their music skills. The servant-leader is mindful of whom they lead to set a relevant course and establish a meaningful vision.

Servant and Transformational Conductors

Wis (2002) describes the servant-leader conductor. These individuals are motivated by a desire to serve others. They create

visions for growth that account for the unknown future of the ensemble. Their responsiveness to musician needs includes an attitude of self-reflection. Trusting that others can perform and achieve goals creates an environment where accountability can exist. Servant-leader conductors use persuasion to help musicians understand the purpose of their efforts rather than coercing them with authoritative power. They will also have a strong character that is genuine, authentic, and consistent to demonstrate their reliability.

Similarly, Armstrong and Armstrong (1996) characterized conductors as charismatic, enthusiastic, and affirming transformational leaders. The vision these conductors create is shared among the entire ensemble. They respect the value individuals bring to the group produce through the musicians' capabilities. Consistent behavior models how others should behave and shows musicians they are a leader who can be trusted. These conductors empower the musicians they lead and transform their experiences so the individuals and the collective can rise to their goals.

Reviewing these two characterizations, commonalities can be identified. The servant- and transformational-leader conductor will leverage positive modeling to demonstrate their character. Their vision will be meaningful to ensemble members. By empowering members and allowing them to be active contributors, conductors are trusting the musicians' ability to meaningfully contribute to achieving goals. Being persuasive shows the purposiveness of effort and values the work of ensemble members. Valuing the individual musician-level effort reinforces that normative quality is not the solitary goal, but instead supports individual improvement and its contribution to achieving collective goals.

Framework for Analysis

Based on the synthesis of the description of transformational leadership by Armstrong & Armstrong (1996) with the description of servant leadership presented by Wis (2002), a framework can be created for the servant- and transformational-leader conductor.

The key points of synthesis will focus on vision, character, empowerment, persuasive transformation, and service. Interview questions were created to gather information related to each of these topics.

Question 1: *How do you create a vision that is meaningful to current and prospective musicians, considering the reality of variability and unknowns?*

This question was asked to gain an understanding of the ways meaningful and engaging visions are created by conductors. It was based on a leader's role to balance forward-thinking and current realities.

Question 2: *How important is it that your musicians trust you?*

By understanding the importance of trust and the role it plays for conductors, this question can reveal how leaders gain trust through their character and leverage it as part of the group's work.

Question 3: *How do you empower musicians, as members of the group, to grow individually and contribute to the growth of the collective?*

Empowering members and allowing them to be active contributors demonstrates that conductors trust the capability of musicians to meaningfully contribute to the achievements of the group.

Question 4: *How do you orient and elevate the group toward common interests and goals?*

More oriented toward the transformative-leader behaviors of a conductor, this question was created to under whether persuasive techniques were used to showcase the purposiveness of efforts that contributed to achieving collective goals.

Question 5: *How do you serve all levels of musicians and value their contributions?*

Music ensembles can have a diverse spectrum of musician members, including their musical capability according to normative standards. Their contributions as part of the group are still valuable and this question is asked to understanding how conductors serve the needs of the variety of capabilities they work with.

The analysis will look for trends in responses. All participant responses will be compared for each question. Any commonalities will be presented, as well as significant divergence.A

Methods

This research will start to reveal what we can learn about leadership from music ensemble conductors by exploring how they are servant and transformational leaders. To accomplish this, a purposive sample of conductors was interviewed to gather feedback. Collecting feedback directly from individuals doing this work provided a first-hand narrative about how specific actions support their leadership.

The purposive sample consisted of conductors with whom I had personal connections (past work, academic studies, and church communities). A total of six conductors were interviewed. This research is qualitative, seeking to gather and interpret feedback, so the questions asked during the interviews were open-ended and intended to give respondents the freedom to articulate their thoughts without restrictions. Interviews were conducted one-on-one via synchronous audio/visual conferencing. Participants were asked the questions and their responses were written down for future analysis.

Results and Discussion

The participants' responses showed trends in ideas, perspectives, and behaviors.AFor the discussion of their responses, participants will be referred to as Respondent A, B, C, D, E, and F.

Question 1

All participants focused on how vision aligns with membership, and there was a trend toward flexibility in vision creation. Respondents A and F explained how they approach the ensembles with plans for the program term with diverse offerings so they can appeal to as broad an audience of musicians as possible. This also enables them to see what resonates most with the group so they can follow that path to make the experience fulfilling for the musicians.

Three others spoke about how they rely on the group members to contribute to vision creation. For Respondent B, this is achieved

through exercises like having youth ensemble members put their reason for participation into a box or having discussions with adult ensembles about what the group wants to be seen as by current and prospective members and its audiences. Respondent D shared how relationship building allows them to learn where the group wants to go and sets the vision from there. This is important as the membership of their ensembles is significantly driven by word of mouth from members to the larger communities they are part of. Since the experiences and visions of current members attract new members, it is vital to include them in vision creation for the group overall. Respondent E also supported the idea that the vision should not come solely from the leader, but should come from the group.

Another trend that emerged was the discussion of how vision attracts members who are aligned with the purpose of the group. Respondent C reported that their vision is at the forefront of their ensemble and is communicated in the invitation to participate. This informs people of what they are getting involved with and reduces the risk of misunderstanding when they arrive at the first rehearsal. Similarly, Respondent E spoke about attracting members that will help achieve the group goals. They have an emergent perspective of vision creation that is hopeful and looking ahead rather than reactive. For them, their work is transformative by ensuring the group's vision is attracting and serving its members.

Across participants, there was a clear awareness of the interplay between vision and members. These conductors were cognizant of how the vision for the group influences membership, and how membership should influence vision.

Question 2

Every participant reported that trust was important, with Respondent E having asserted that the musicians need to trust the work they are doing, not necessarily the conductor. Respondents A, B, and D spoke about how trust underpins musicians becoming comfortable, opening up, and participating fully.

Respondent C reflected on experiences when they had not trusted conductors and said it was because of their ego. This is

similar to Respondent E's sentiment, as they feel a conductor needing the trust of the musicians in the ensemble is self-centric and not about the vision. Respondent C said they put the goals and vision of the ensemble at the forefront so members of the ensemble can be aware of their alignment with it. This also demonstrates the conductor's commitment to the vision and can gain the trust of musicians as they work toward goals.

Two other specific behaviors for gaining trust and demonstrating character were shared by multiple respondents. First was being organized and providing clear instructions (Respondents A and F). They expressed how being consistent with these habits demonstrates how they are reliable. The other behavior mentioned by several respondents was modeling. Respondent A spoke about showing musicians how things work in the group and how certain things are done. Respondent B spoke about modeling continual learning. Respondent D spoke about modeling singing and other activities they ask musicians to do. Respondent E said they model behaviors like curiosity, vulnerability, ethics, professionalism, and others that serve the musicians in their work toward achieving the group vision.

Question 3

The participants offered an array of responses. Respondent A outlined supporting musicians based on their individual needs. They surround singers who need help with more experienced musicians and identify who might be overly reliant on stronger voices. This respondent also uses small breakout groups to create opportunities for musicians to self-assess how they are doing and what they can improve. When musicians become disengaged, they challenge them with new goals like memorization.

Respondent B considers the "human and musician" aspects of the ensemble members. They balance an awareness of life's baggage people are carry with an expectation that musicians show up and give their best effort to the group's work. If musicians do not show up, it changes the group and has an impact on the work it can do. Instilling a sense of importance and value when it comes to

attendance is essential. Along with this, an awareness of how people seem to be feeling when they walk into rehearsal can influence warm-up activities and other rehearsal decisions that can fulfill the needs of ensemble members.

Respondents C and D both spoke about the power they give directly to the musicians. While Respondent D involves musicians in decision-making to give them some direct ownership of the ensemble, Respondent C reminds musicians that they are the ones producing the product and gives them the power to practice, grow, and develop or not. As a conductor of a community ensemble without grades or money as an incentive, they cannot force musicians to practice. Instead, they lightheartedly nudge musicians with comments during downtimes that it could be beneficial to practice something specific.

Respondent E seeks the growing edges that all musicians have. They consider the common growth points the members have **in common and approach those items com**prehensively. This approach enables musicians to be reflective about their limitations and intentional about improvement.

For Respondent F, it is important to honor the individuals from the type of learner they are to the opportunities they need to grow. They incorporate various techniques (e.g. visual, auditory, movement) in their lessons to satisfy different learning styles. Surveying musicians provides feedback about repertoire, artistic, and social choices that is used for decision-making. Respondent D also gathers feedback from the ensemble members about choices related to repertoire and, in real-time, about artistic choices. Respondent F also offers opportunities for members to fill leadership roles on a volunteer basis to lead warm-up activities, sectional rehearsal, and ensemble social events. Reflecting on the previous academic year specifically, Respondent F spoke about the increase in technology used and how this created more opportunity to provide direct feedback to members as they were able to hear individual voices more easily and could tailor instruction to be more specific to what a specific member needed support with.

Although the responses were quite varied to this question, the respondents consistently articulated sentiments acknowledging that the contributions of individual members are what make the ensemble what it is. Having an orientation toward the value and influence of individual contribution, and being intentional about addressing it, supports an opportunity for growth of the individual musicians and thus the groups as a whole.

Question 4

The respondents all spoke about making the goals of the group the central, constant focus of the work. Respondent C clearly said that the goal of the group is music-making, and the whole activity needs to be focused on that. Everything the ensemble does needs to be to do the best they can with the music literature they are working on. Respondent B uses the core goal of the group when the group starts to slip or lose focus, reminding the ensemble of their intention. Respondent F puts this intention at the front of rehearsal by asking the ensemble what they think they need to work on and incorporating that as a goal.

Respondent A focuses on getting members excited about the goals. When goals are clear, such as performing a specific work, this can be a matter of sharing recordings and celebrating progress. If the piece of music has other important elements, like social messages, they will hear from people close to the cause and research the topic to learn about it more deeply. When the goal is less clear, this conductor will help the ensemble to visualize the final product by going to the performance venue and singing through the entire program to get a glimpse of how everything fits together.

Respondents D and E see the value of getting buy-in from members and value some concurrent leadership within the ensemble to support this. Respondent D has a hierarchy in their choirs in the form of choral councils and officers who are leaders among peers. These individuals help relay the goals to others, serving as agents of vision and progress. Respondent E also spoke of the leadership among peers. They see concentric circles of influence and leadership within the ensemble. Instead of roles as

sectional or warm-up leaders, people fill the role of connecting with others. When musicians see other people voluntarily giving their time and energy to the group, they buy into the work of the group even more. This grassroots-type relational leadership within and among the musicians and conductor creates a more collective focus than an authoritative hierarchy with the conductor on top. A culture is created rooted in belonging and caring.

Whether it is coming from the conductor directly or through agency within the ensemble, goals need to be shared and members need to buy into them. None of the respondents settle on a goal of performing a piece of music and assume it will work itself out. They all acknowledge the effort that needs to go into focusing on the goal and keeping musicians engaged with the goal.

Question 5

Respondent A thinks making everyone feel valued is the joy of leading an ensemble. They identify and celebrate the moments when everyone is participating and contributing to the ensemble's achievement. To achieve this, it is important to hold everyone to the same standards and expectations when it comes to participation, regardless of the normative quality of their contribution (a sentiment shared by Respondent D, also). Respondent E was clear about full participation and inclusion, saying they would never ask someone not to sing.

Respondent C expressed the importance of appreciating the process of the ensemble's work and valuing that. This conductor is process-focused rather than product-focused. For them the experience is about moving each musician's needle from point A to point B, making progress from where they started to where they are today.

Respondent B also expects people to contribute as best they can. Furthermore, they actively work to combat any barriers, real or perceived, to participation. For example, if someone feels like they cannot be part of an ensemble because they cannot read music, they are invited to a group where they can participate and learn at the same time. If someone thinks their child is too young, they explain

how that young child can benefit from being present in the space. Creating opportunities was common among other respondents, too.

Creating small-group and solo opportunities where members can showcase their own skills, develop more, or be challenged in different ways were ideas shared by respondents A, D, and F. Respondent A also offers more responsibility, such as section leadership, to members who are seeking and can benefit from growth in that way. Another method of opportunity creation is beyond the ensemble. For respondent E, this can mean suggesting auditioned ensembles in the area for musicians who want a music-making experience focused more on the quality of the final product.

Another way of serving the diversity of musicians in the ensemble is through the repertoire. Respondents A and D start with a repertoire selection that will be a middle ground for the ensemble, based on the general membership trends they expect. Then, they build around that with some music that will be comfortable for everyone and other music that will progressively challenge more members. Respondent F tries to dismantle perceived hierarchies of music literature by incorporating music from different backgrounds and traditions equally, which gives members opportunities to be challenged or feel comfortable in ways they may not generally experience elsewhere.

The respondents all conveyed a message focused on achieving ensemble goals through full participation. Each conductor appreciates the contributions of the ensemble musician and understands how development is a unique experience for every one of them. By thinking about how to enable and maintain participation and contribute to the ongoing improvement of the individuals, the conductor is leading the group toward its achievements.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Conductors are leaders of musicians. The position they are in necessitates the use of leaderful practices to facilitate performance and achieving the group goal. As leaders, conductors set the course and support musicians as they use their skills to contribute to the collective work. Exploring the relationship between music

conductors and ensembles reveals leadership behaviors in action that can augment the explanation of concepts and models presented to individuals studying leadership.

This study demonstrates that we can investigate how conductors incorporate leaderful practices in their work. Furthermore, it is possible to explore how specific models, theories, and concepts of leadership manifest in the music ensemble context. The synthesized qualities of servant and transformational leadership are supported by trends in behavior and mentality reported by the participating conductors in this study. We can look to music ensembles and conductors for ways to incorporate leadership behaviors for these two leader types, and they would likely offer us practicals examples of other leadership behaviors in action.

Limited by time, the scope of this project was qualitative and reflected a small sample of conductors. Future research should explore the outcomes of ensembles when conductors intentionally include and exclude specific leadership behaviors. Modeling was a behavior expressed by every conductor who participated and exploring the extent of the impact this has on ensemble members and performance could provide concrete support to incorporate this behavior in leadership.

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Ty Gioacchini, August 2021

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