Expanding Interdisciplinary Discourse

Leadership Development in Selected Leading Thai Companies
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Attitudes of Police Managers to Different Leadership Roles in Their Jobs:
An Empirical Study in Norway
Petter Gottschalk and Rune Glomseth

Impact of Nontechnical Leadership Practices on IT Project Success
Jason B. Kaminsky
FEATURE ARTICLES

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23 Attitudes of Police Managers to Different Leadership Roles in Their Jobs: An Empirical Study in Norway
PETTER GOTTSCHALK AND RUNE GLOMSETH
The background for this study is the increased complexity in policing that has become more knowledge-based and more professional in the past decade. The aim of this article is to present empirical results from a study of attitudes of police managers to different leadership roles in their jobs in two police districts in Norway. A questionnaire was developed and administered among police managers in two police districts in Norway. Participants in leadership programs were selected for this survey research. The Follo police district and Hedmark police district had a total of 130 participants in these programs, with 60 managers from Follo and 70 managers from Hedmark. The research was carried out in March and April 2010. The personnel leader role was found to be most important, followed by the resource allocator role. Responding police managers reported that they felt least competent in the liaison role.

30 Impact of Nontechnical Leadership Practices on IT Project Success
JASON B. KAMINSKY
This article examines the leadership practices utilized by information technology (IT) project managers that contribute to project success. Specifically, technical and nontechnical leadership practices are contrasted. The importance of nontechnical leadership practices in IT project management has been largely ignored in research until recently. The article identifies key nontechnical leadership practices that are important for the success of IT projects. The article is based on a qualitative study that gathered data from actual IT projects conducted at U.S. companies across several different industry segments. Study results are analyzed to determine the relevance and value of Heifetz's adaptive leadership framework to the area of IT project management. Study findings indicate that nontechnical leadership practices are important to the success of IT projects. Findings also indicate that Heifetz's adaptive leadership framework is consistent with the key nontechnical leadership practices that are important for the success of IT projects. A framework for the development of IT project managers is also proposed.
Transforming the International Learning Experience for Students: Moving Beyond the Principle of Accompaniment
ANTHONY C. ANDENORO AND CAITLIN G. BLETSCHER
Evidence exists that international learning experiences provide undergraduate and graduate students with opportunities to develop intercultural competence and global perspectives. This development is grounded in the idea of accompaniment that is prevalent in study abroad programs and international service experiences at the higher education level. Accompaniment is firmly planted in the idea of mutual relationships and sharing culture. However, it only creates a superficial understanding of the community and fails to address and implement systems of sustainable practice. This theoretical supposition challenges educators to go beyond the foundation of accompaniment and explore innovative practice that can benefit the development of intercultural competence in students and promote sustainability in the international contexts that these academic-based international service programs work with. The authors detail suggestions that educators can use as a framework for transforming international service experiences, their students, and the communities they serve.

The Intercultural Communication Cultural Immersion Experience: Preparing Leaders for a Global Future
JOHN S. CAPUTO AND HEATHER M. CRANDALL
The dynamics of globalization mean we face a reality wherein leaders are called upon to communicate effectively in cultural situations unfamiliar to them. This situation brings new challenges for communication and leadership educators. Our article describes a cultural immersion experience called The Cagli Project, where communication and leadership students learn effective intercultural communication skills for leadership formation while studying in Italy. The philosophical and experiential aspects of the program are described along with leadership outcomes. The article ends with a discussion of the transferability of this model to alternative programs.

Preparing Globally Competent Leaders Through Innovative Study Abroad Experiences
JOHN F. MONTGOMERY AND JILL ARENSDORF
No one could argue with the fact that our world is changing at an exponentially rapid pace. As leadership educators, it is our role to prepare students for change in the global workplace and communities. This article will focus on one university’s experiences taking leadership students abroad and using unique activities/discussions to study and build global leadership competencies.

Learning About Hardiness and Servant Leadership by Accompanying Refugees at a United Nations Resettlement Camp
ADRIAN B. POPA
The internationalization of curriculum has contributed to a number of models for study abroad programs, service learning, and global engagement. Some frameworks are intentionally grounded in program theories and objectives shared by multiple stakeholders and the mission of the sponsoring academic institution. This article describes an international program inspired by a partnership between a Jesuit University and the United Nations agency charged with the purpose of safeguarding the rights and well-being of refugees. The international program was grounded in the practice of accompaniment and theoretical frameworks of hardiness and servant leadership. These principles are described in the context of the curriculum, objectives, activities, and outcomes. The article concludes with lessons learned and future direction for design and delivery.
Developing a Global Leadership Perspective Through the Use of Student-Created Reusable Learning Objects
M’RANDA R. SANDLIN, SUMMER F. ODOM, JAMES R. LINDNER, AND KIM E. DOOLEY
Study abroad programs have been identified as one of the most effective methods of globalizing curricula and students. The purpose of this study was to examine the current framework of the Leading Change in Costa Rica Study Abroad Program and its ability to diffuse leadership theory to the participating students and to students who are not able to take part in a study abroad opportunity. This study abroad program used reusable learning objects (RLOs) as an assignment to develop global leadership competencies by applying the learned leadership theory in an international context. Students were impacted by the experience. They gained knowledge of the course content, developed and expanded their cultural competencies, and expanded their views of developing countries. The Leading Change in Costa Rica Study Abroad Program also made an effort to develop the intercultural competencies and global leadership abilities of students who are unable to study abroad. The student-created RLOs have been used in class presentations and made available to interested faculty to use in classrooms across disciplines.

MEDIA REVIEW
Evolutionary Leadership Theory
MATTHEW T. KENNEY
As we in the United States head into a presidential election year, in which leadership competence becomes the *sine non qua* of public and private debate, there exist trenchant shifts in the landscape of leadership that cannot be overlooked for their cultural and political ramifications. From our perspective, one of the most critical of these shifts is occurring in a space beyond partisan rhetoric and the shifting terrain of values and issues. Rather, what recent movements on either side of the political continuum—the most visible of which are the Tea Party and Occupy collectives—illustrate is a change in the perceived faith in and optimal structure of leadership at the highest levels. The underlying message extended by these groups—albeit frequently (but not exclusively) leveled at different sites of leadership—is one of a lack of faith in the concentration of power in a singular entity, a person, or agency with the executive authority over the lives and values of a larger populace. And, especially in both instances listed above, the response has been an example of collective leadership and governance, a shared sense of decision making and diffuse authority.

Despite the many critiques leadership scholars might level at either, or both, of these movements, we maintain that their similarities and their prominence at this historical juncture should not be overlooked. As an analytic and pragmatic construct, leadership inquiry must position itself in an almost prophetic voice, focusing on the zeitgeist of leadership as it unfolds in the cultural moment in order to rigorously attend to the spaces it might inhabit in the future. That is, if we are truly concerned with improving leadership outcomes, we must actively attempt to gauge the cultural milieu that reciprocally shapes and is shaped by its leadership. If the historical moment is one in which leadership is being actively reconceptualized as a communal, rather than an individual’s, role, then leadership scholars might inquire into the ways in which these perspectives influence and are influenced by organizations, social networks, technology, and other cultural phenomena. Such inquiry practices could potentially lend insight into robust, relational models of leadership.

And, within this new year, we also begin a new volume of the *Journal of Leadership Studies*. In this first issue, we find meditations on leadership practice that take up our call for interdisciplinary, international work in complex and exciting ways. Developing a case study on leadership in Thai companies, Busaya Virakul and Gary N. McLean explore the critical nature of the popular LDP model. Petter Gottschalk and Rune Glomseth take up the knowledge economy’s effect on police leadership in Norway, utilizing a survey design to ascertain the role performances that field’s leaders need to cultivate. Finally, Jason Kaminsky offers a toolkit for IT leadership that is wholly rooted in Heifetz’s adaptive understanding of organizational dynamics and needs. This issue’s symposium, guest edited by Anthony C. Andenoro, collects a variety of perspectives on the rising need for globally minded leadership education programs. These pieces are as diverse in context as they are evocative in their approaches to untethering leadership education from myopic ineffectiveness. Our media review this issue comes from Matthew T. Kenney, who takes up van Vugt and Ahuja’s recent text, *Naturally Selected: The Evolutionary Science of Leadership*, as both a noteworthy entry into the interdisciplinary approach to leadership inquiry and one that itself suggests additional paths.

We hope this issue finds our readers well.

The Editors
Jeremy Moreland, Jake Burdick, Mark Ludorf, and Tony Middlebrooks
This research examined leadership development (LD) and leadership development programs (LDPs) in three selected Thai businesses. The research purpose was to identify and explore the features, leaders' competencies, activities and programs, key elements, and critical issues of LDP in these organizations. A case-study approach was employed as the research method. The data were collected through company documents, questionnaires, and interviews of managers who were directly responsible for leadership development in their organization. Three levels of LDPs were commonly found among the studied companies: those organized for supervisors, managers, and executives. Leaders' competencies were derived from the companies' vision, mission, and values, business drivers, and top management judgment. Development activities included formal training, development activities, and self-initiative undertakings. Common key elements of LDPs were support from top management, adherence to human resource development (HRD) and business strategic plans, and emphasis on coaching and mentoring. The critical issues included top management trust in employees' abilities; competence and independence of local internal staff; evaluation of LDP effectiveness; level of engagement by potential company leaders; and costs of building, executing, and evaluating LDP.

Leadership development (LD), the generic process of developing leaders for an organization, has always been a critical management issue in business organizations. Numerous articles and research studies have stressed the need for organizations to give priority to developing the leadership abilities of their employees, supervisors, managers, and executives (Arneson, 2008a, 2008b; Boaden, 2006; Dubrin, 2007; Horwitz, 2010; Leskiw & Singh, 2007; Little, 2008; Lockwood, 2006; McCallum & O’Connell, 2009; Mennell, 2008; Prince, 2008;
Robinson & Harvey, 2008; Yukl, 2010). LD has been a multibillion-dollar business in the United States since the 1990s (Fulmer & Vicere, 1996a, 1996b), when U.S. corporations reportedly spent over $50 billion annually on LD activities (Bolden & Kirk, 2006; Lockwood, 2006). The costs of leadership development continue to increase (Peters, Baum, & Stephens, 2011), but LD in organizations seems to have moved past the question of the worth of investment in leadership development programs (LDPs) to asking what LDP approach brings the best results (Cohen, 2011). During the past decade, leading business organizations in Thailand have given significant attention to LD. Many local and international consulting firms have been hired to create LDPs in Thai business organizations. However, research on LD and LDPs in Thai business organizations has not been widely reported. Therefore, this study was conducted to report on such activities.

Research Purpose and Questions

This article reports on LDPs in three leading Thai companies in order to further knowledge on this subject. The following specific research questions were formulated for the study:

1. What are the features of these LDPs?
2. What do they identify as core competencies of leadership?
3. What activities are used in LD?
4. What are the key elements of these LDPs?
5. What are the critical issues in these LDPs?

Literature Review

DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

The Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM, 2010) defined leadership development as: “Formal and informal training and professional development programs designed for all management and executive-level employees to assist them in developing leadership skills and styles required to deal with a variety of situations” (p. 66). In a similar vein, Dubrin (2007) perceived leadership development to be involved with activities such as education and training, job experience, and coaching.

Dubrin identified self-help, consisting of self-awareness and self-discipline, as contributing to leadership development. In contrast, leadership development was defined by Lamoureux (2008) as “a process for systematically and strategically developing the skills, knowledge, and behaviors of leaders” (p. 12). Lamoureux also wrote that leadership development should be carried out with the support of and alignment with other talent management functions. There are many more definitions of leadership development, but all are slight modifications of what have already been presented (e.g., Berke, Kossler, & Wakefield, 2008; Olivares, 2008; Olivares, Peterson, & Hess, 2007).

Based on a review of relevant literature, this research has defined leadership development as a process integrated with talent management for systematically and strategically developing the skills, knowledge, and behaviors of organizational members to become effective leaders.
contextual grounding, creating vision, inspiring commitment, catalyzing teams, cultivating and retaining talent, leading change, and managing performance. The leadership assets indicated by Cangemi, Burga, Lazarus, Miller, and Fitzgerald (2008) were awareness, knowledge, vision, intuition, passion, growth and adaptation, integrity, and empathy.

Focusing on personality traits, Yukl (2010) suggested that effective managers or leaders usually possess (a) high energy level and stress tolerance, (b) self-confidence, (c) internal locus of control, (d) emotional stability and maturity, (e) personal integrity, (f) socialized power motivation, (g) moderately high achievement orientation, and (h) low need for affiliation.

Others who have written about leadership competencies include Arneson (2008b), Bapat et al. (2010), the Center for Creative Leadership (2007), Lombardo and Eichinger (2001), and the Treasury Board of Canada Secretariat (2007). Berke and colleagues (2008) stated that leadership competencies and leadership competency models are not static and should be formally reviewed every few years or whenever an organization experiences a significant change.

KEY ELEMENTS/PRACTICES OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Previous research has explored those characteristics of LDP that lead to successful programs. Popper and Lipshtitz (1993) suggested that a successful LDP consists of the proper application of these practices: identification of trainees’ abilities, identification of criteria of successful performance, identification of the factors that lead to success; identification of the inner sources of success, and designing situations with likelihood of success. Fulmer and Wagner (1999) proposed that, to have a successful LDP, organizations should:

- Align leadership development to business strategy.
- Develop HR and business partnerships.
- Use competency frameworks.
- Develop home grown talent.
- Forge strong links to succession planning.
- Encourage action learning.
- Ensure high-level support for development activities.
- Evaluate outcomes.

Similar points were also recommended by Leskiw and Singh (2007). Both authors suggested that LDPs should include (a) developing a thorough organization/leadership needs assessment, (b) selecting an appropriate target audience, (c) building supporting infrastructure that allows leaders’ potential to grow, (d) developing and implementing an entire learning system, (e) evaluating the effectiveness of the leadership development efforts, and (f) rewarding success and improving on deficiency. Key elements essential to the success of LDPs, as suggested by Yukl (2010), consist of five categories: (a) support from the boss; (b) leadership learning climate; (c) coordination of leadership training and development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Core Competencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentor</td>
<td>Understanding self and others, communicating effectively, developing employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>Building teams, using participative decision making, managing conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitor</td>
<td>Monitoring individual performance, managing collective performance and processes, analyzing information with critical thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinator</td>
<td>Managing projects, designing work, managing across functions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>Developing and communicating a vision, setting goals and objectives, designing and organizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producer</td>
<td>Working productively, fostering a productive work environment, managing time and stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broker</td>
<td>Building and maintaining a power base, negotiating agreement and commitment, presenting ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovator</td>
<td>Living with change, thinking creatively, managing change</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Core Competencies of Eight Managerial Leadership Roles (Quinn et al., 2003)
activities; (d) integration with other HR activities (e.g., career counseling, staffing, performance appraisal, succession planning); and (e) consistency with an organization’s strategic objectives.

Among others who identified characteristics of effective LDP programs are Bailey and Clarke (2008), Berke et al. (2008), Horwitz (2010), and Lamoureux (2008). There is considerable overlap among all of the authors, similar to those summarized earlier.

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES
Knowing how people learn best in the workplace is essential in creating effective LDPs. Akin (1987) described the following activities as appropriate for facilitating managerial learning: (a) emulation of a mentor, (b) role-taking, (c) learning through doing practical problem solving, (d) learning by validation (the action precedes the conceptualization), (e) anticipation (the conceptualization precedes the action), (f) personal growth, and (g) scientific learning through observation and conceptualization. Dubrin (2007) added this list by including education/training, self-help initiatives, job experience, and mentoring and coaching. Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy (2009) concurred by recommending education and training and experience as the two key means for supervisors/managers to develop their leadership. Horwitz (2010) and Thomas and Cheese (2005) offered similar suggestions for LD activities. Table 2 demonstrates activities, grouped into three important approaches, of leadership development as suggested by Yukl (2010).

Significance of the Problem
For decades, academic research has been conducted on leadership development. Such research has supported leadership practices that have, in turn, supported the progress, continuity, or existence of an organization. LD has gradually come to be recognized by many Thai CEOs as a critical task of top management, based, primarily, on knowledge gained from both local and international sources. Large Thai companies hire foreign consultants to help in their LDP activities. Indigenous LDP activities in Thai businesses are relatively unknown because they have not been adequately reported publicly. This article reports on LD and LDP in selected top Thai companies in order to (a) further research knowledge in leadership development and (b) share such knowledge with an international audience.

Problem Statement
Leadership development has been an important organizational issue for decades. It is widely referenced in organization management (Berke et al., 2008; Daft, 2008, 2011; Dubrin, 2007; Hughes et al., 2009; Yukl, 2010). Few research studies on LD and LDPs in Thai business organizations have been reported, especially those studies that are highly regarded. Such research will add important knowledge in the Thai context, both for Thailand and for countries with similar business environments.

Methods
We used a case-study approach as our investigation technique. Details of the research methods employed in this study follow.

COMPANY SELECTION
Three companies were selected: (1) Siam Cement Group (SCG), (2) Petroleum Authority of Thailand
(PTT), and (3) Somboon Advance Technology or Somboon Group (SBG). Their names are used by permission of the companies. They will be referred to as Company 1, 2, and 3, respectively. The criteria for selection were (a) being listed on the Thai Stock Exchange (SET); (b) mainly owned by Thais; (c) being in the top five in their respective business fields in terms of size, performance, and market share; and (d) receiving management awards from reputable business management institutes in Thailand. While many companies qualified for selection using these criteria, these three companies were selected due to their openness and readiness to provide the data/information related to the research questions.

PROFILES OF THE STUDIED COMPANIES
Company 1 (SCG) is a business group whose sphere of business activities includes chemicals, paper and packaging, and construction products. Companies 2 (PTT) and 3 (SBG) are top Thai companies in petroleum refining and automotive parts manufacturing, respectively. Table 3 shows the details of the studied companies based on information gathered through a questionnaire we developed. This table also verifies that the three companies met the established criteria.

INSTRUMENT
The questionnaire consisted of three main parts: (a) the company’s profile, (b) the interviewee’s profile, and (c) the research questions. The questions were open-ended, allowing the respondents to answer freely. Four HRD colleagues who acted as a research committee for the department verified the face validity of the questions.

DATA COLLECTION
Data were collected from company documents, questionnaires, and interviews. A questionnaire was sent to interviewees prior to the interviews. Interviewees were managers who were directly responsible for LD/LDPs in their companies. Interviews were conducted at the interviewees’ workplaces. Each interview lasted one to two hours. At least two rounds of interviews were conducted: the first to gather data, information, and documents required for answering the research questions; and the second to check on questions left unanswered in the first round. The interviewee at Companies 1 and 3 were interviewed three times whereas the interviewee at Company 2 was interviewed twice.

DATA ANALYSIS
Data obtained were analyzed and organized according to the five research questions. Data are presented in the forms of narrative clauses, tables, and excerpts in order to illustrate significant features of each company’s LDP. Similarities and differences found among the studied companies’ LDP features were identified. For any LDP feature to be classified as being similar, two or all three companies had to have that same feature.

Table 3. Profile of the Studied Companies (End of 2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Company 1</th>
<th>Company 2</th>
<th>Company 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. General business information</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main shareholders</td>
<td>Thais</td>
<td>Thais</td>
<td>Thai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Free float</td>
<td>67.86</td>
<td>48.47</td>
<td>37.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SET membership</td>
<td>SET 50</td>
<td>SET 50</td>
<td>SET 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in business</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size (employees)</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>2,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenues (USD, millions)</td>
<td>6,818.97</td>
<td>45,319.26</td>
<td>124.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profits (USD, millions)</td>
<td>695.6</td>
<td>1771.37</td>
<td>8.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assets (USD, millions)</td>
<td>9,028.34</td>
<td>31,531.14</td>
<td>176.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Some recent management awards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company 1</td>
<td>2009 Most Admired Company, 1 2009 Best Managed Company, 2 2009 Asia Best Company in CG and CSR 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company 2</td>
<td>2009 Most Admired Company, 1 2nd in 2009 Best Managed Company, 2 2009 Asia Best Company in CG (2nd) and CSR 3 (5th), 118th on Fortune 500, 2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: (a) Exchange rate: 1 dollar equals 35 baht. (b) Data were obtained from interviews, company Web sites, and documents (SCG, 2010a, 2010b; PTT PLC, 2010a, 2010b; Somboon Group, 2010), and SET Web sites (SET 2010a, SET 2010b, SET 2010c). (c) SET 50 are the top 50 companies on the Stock Exchange of Thailand; SET 100 are the top 100 companies.

1From Asian Wall Street Journal; 2From Asiamoney; 3From Finance Asia.
PROFILES OF THE INTERVIEWEES

All three interviewees performed HR functions. Two interviewees were heads of their units, and the other was second to the head. All were males in their 40s or 50s, with more than 20 years of work experience with their companies. The profiles of the three interviewees are shown in Table 4.

Findings

This section will report the findings according to the five research questions presented earlier.

Research Question 1: What are the features of leadership development programs in the studied companies?

LDPs in the three companies were part of their management development programs. That is, while employed by the company, employees received HR training to enhance their management skills, and those management training programs included training courses or activities that developed their leadership skills. All three companies have three levels of management: supervisors, managers, and executives. Leadership development programs are offered to employees/managers either at the same time while attending managerial development or separately, depending on appropriate times. Table 5 illustrates some key features of leadership development programs of the three studied companies.

Companies 2 and 3 included the word leadership in the title of the program. Also, LDP was aligned with overall strategic business plans and HR programs. HR units and HR managers were responsible for leadership development. The current LDPs had been in place for between 3 and 5 years. Company 1 utilized the existing skills of their HR staff to design HR and LD programs. Company 2 hired both local and international consultants to improve the company’s LDP. Company 3 hired local consultants to advise on its LDP. All three companies specified a budget for LDPs based on either total sales or employees’ salaries. For example, the total budget for Company 1’s HR programs in 2010, which included LDPs, was reported to be US$ 22.4 million (800 million baht). All three companies implemented their LDPs as planned. However, the outcomes or accomplishments of their LDP were still an issue. Companies 1 and 2 will evaluate their LDP in relation to the achievement of their business objectives in 2012 and 2015, as stated in their current vision/mission statement (see Table 6). Company 3 indicated that its LDP met about four fifths of their expectations.

Research Question 2: What do the studied companies identify as core competencies of leadership?

The three companies identified leadership competencies based on the company’s vision, values, and strategic plans. They also looked at the qualities or characteristics...
that the companies wanted their leaders to possess and the kind of manager they believed would be able to lead other employees through good and bad times. Table 6 details the visions and values of each company.

Company 1 divided leaders’ potential into 3 categories: personal characteristics, leadership characteristics, and managerial characteristics. There are 11 characteristics in total required for promotion to a leader position. Company 2 derived leaders’ competencies from business strategic intents, group values, the company’s vision, and business drivers. There are 6 business drivers to which 12 leadership competencies are related. Company 3 bases its leadership competencies on the company’s vision and mission. There are 3 groups of competencies based on the initials of the company SBG. Eight major competencies are attached to these 3 groups, and those major competencies contain at least 20 managerial competencies. There are 8 people in Company 3’s top management, including the CEO. Each executive is responsible for monitoring one competency. Tables 7, 8, and 9 show leadership/managerial competencies for Companies 1, 2, and 3, respectively, including sources of the competencies.

Research Question 3: What are the leadership development activities in the studied companies?

Activities for the three companies can be grouped into the following: (a) formal training; (b) development activities; and (c) self-development/learning. Companies 1 and 2 organized in-house training and hired foreign experts from world-renowned international businesses or leadership institutes. Also, both companies sent their top executives to leadership/management development courses in foreign countries, the United States in particular. These executives attended courses at Harvard Business School, Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), Michigan State University, Wharton Business School, and Kellogg School of Management. Companies 1 and 2 regularly sent their managers to international conferences or leadership training at world-renowned institutes. At the time this research was conducted, Company 3 did not do this regularly.

Table 5. Overview of LDP in the Studied Companies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Company 1</th>
<th>Company 2</th>
<th>Company 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LDP’s title</td>
<td>SCG Development Program</td>
<td>PTT Group Leadership Development Program</td>
<td>Somboon Group Leadership Voyage Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDP as part of management development program</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDP integrated with business strategy and HR development plans</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of current LDP</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsible unit</td>
<td>HR</td>
<td>HR</td>
<td>HR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDP Consultants</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Local, International</td>
<td>Local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget% (HR and LDPs)</td>
<td>0.3% of total sales</td>
<td>10% of the total employees' salaries</td>
<td>3% of the total employees' salaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of implementation%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of accomplishment%</td>
<td>By 2015</td>
<td>By 2012</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: (a) Data were obtained from interviews and companies’ Web sites and documents. (b) The figures are the total budget for both HR and leadership development programs. (c) Interviewee’s perception that LDP was carried out as planned. (d) Interviewee’s perception that LDP reached targeted objectives.
Table 10 displays the activities employed by the companies to develop the leadership of their potential leaders. All companies emphasized coaching and mentoring in leadership development. Assigning potential leaders to a challenging job (e.g., managing a new business) was considered effective in developing leadership. According to the interviewee from Company 1:

Giving young, talented employees/managers opportunities to do challenging tasks or assignments is a very good way to identify business leaders. When companies are acquired by or merged with our company, managers who are identified as potential leaders are assigned to lead and manage those new organizations. If he/she/they can turn the company around, improve company performance, and make profits, this is considered a clear indicator of their leadership skills. (Interviewee from Company 1, Personal interview on June 3, 2010)

Tables 11, 12, and 13 show some of the leadership development courses provided for leaders or managers of each company. Company 1 and 2 had the word leadership in the LDP course titles. The three companies have one thing in common: They have three levels of LDP—supervisor, manager, and executive.

Research Question 4: What are the key elements of leadership development programs in the companies studied?

The key elements of LDP of the three companies are summarized in Table 14. The common elements found in LDP are (a) CEO/top management support; (b) HR
Research Question 5: What are the critical issues of LDP found in the companies studied?

Especially for those who are not familiar with the Thai business community, we feel that it is important for readers to be able to read the direct words of the unit worked as LDP facilitator/organizer; (c) strong linkage of HR, LDP, and business strategy; (d) building a company’s own competency framework; (e) utilization of talent and knowledge management; and (f) using coaching and mentoring as key approaches to leadership development.

Table 8. Leadership/Managerial Competencies and Their Origins—Company 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Origins</th>
<th>Business Drivers</th>
<th>Competencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>1. Enter new domestic markets</td>
<td>Entrepreneurship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>2. Enter new global markets</td>
<td>Global acumen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic intents</td>
<td>3. Drive profitability</td>
<td>Business acumen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business drivers</td>
<td>4. Integrate new organization structures</td>
<td>Operational decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Create alignment and accountability</td>
<td>Change leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Build high performance culture</td>
<td>Establishing strategic direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Team development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Leadership/Managerial Competencies and Their Origins—Company 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Origins</th>
<th>SBG’s DNA</th>
<th>Leaders’ Competencies</th>
<th>Managerial Competencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>Smile at change</td>
<td>S1—Proactive change</td>
<td>Strategic management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td></td>
<td>S2—Innovation</td>
<td>Industry/Market conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission</td>
<td>Best quality</td>
<td>B1—Quality</td>
<td>Goals/Objectives setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B2—Continuous improvement</td>
<td>Forward thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B3—Management by fact</td>
<td>Creativity and innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth by team learning</td>
<td></td>
<td>G1—Creative learning</td>
<td>Problem solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G2—Communication and team work</td>
<td>Decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G3—Responsibility and speed</td>
<td>Analytical thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Systematic thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Team leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Performance management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Continuous improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Coaching skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Communication skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Drive for results and achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Language literacy (English)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Motivating others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10. Activities for Developing Leadership in the Studied Companies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Leadership Development Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Scholarships Overseas training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coaching Job assignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mentoring Job transfer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Working group Knowledge sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-learning Challenging work assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>On-the-job training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Job rotation, mentoring, coaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>job instruction training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Classroom training Lectures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>conferences/discussions, audiovisual materials, experimental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>techniques (case studies, business games, role plays, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Self learning Intranet/Internet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e-learning, computer-based training, paper-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>training/workbooks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mentoring Role model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coaching Job assignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Team learning Life experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11. Some Leadership Development Courses Provided in Company 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course title</th>
<th>LDP1 (Lead yourself)</th>
<th>LDP2 (Lead your team)</th>
<th>LDP3 (Lead organizational change)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>Officers</td>
<td>Supervisors</td>
<td>Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>SCG policy, emotional quotient, teamwork, communication, daily management, self-inspiration, corporate governance and sustainable development</td>
<td>SCG policy, personality types, leadership style, coaching, team development</td>
<td>SCG policy, business ethics, building trust, SCG people, communication, corporate social responsibility</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12. Some Leadership Development Courses Provided in Company 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course title</th>
<th>Leadership Greatness</th>
<th>PTT Group VP Leadership Development Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>SEVP, VP</td>
<td>SEVP, VP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Vision-making know-how, building new thinking frameworks, solving chronic leadership problems, leadership skills and tools, processes and plans to excellence</td>
<td>Group and interpersonal dynamics, cultivating networks and partnerships, coaching for high performance, developing organizational talent, selling the vision; entrepreneurship, establish strategic direction, operating with a global perspective</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SEVP, senior executive vice president; VP, vice president.

Interviewees from each company. Excerpts related to critical issues in LDP from each company are, therefore, included in Tables 15, 16, and 17.

Companies 1 and 2 are similar in stressing the competence and role of local/internal HR staff. Companies 2 and 3 are similar in one critical issue: the evaluation of LDP performance. While Company 3 assessed unseen leadership potential by using a Multidimension Intelligence Profile Assessment (MDIPA), the evaluation of LDP success is still a critical issue. Companies 1 and 3
this observation are (a) specific plans and budgets for leadership development, (b) LDPs had the main features recommended for effective LDP, and (c) LDPs were integrated and linked strongly to HRD and business strategic plans. As indicated in the literature review, effective leadership is a key factor in organizational success (Boaden, 2006; Dubrin, 2007; Horwitz, 2010; have one issue in common: the cost of implementing LDP. Critical issues specific to one company that were not indicated by interviewees of other companies are top management’s trust in employees’ abilities (Company 1), role of outside/foreign consultants (Company 2), and level of attendance and engagement by potential company leaders (Company 3).

**Discussion and Recommendations for Practice**

The findings show that LD and LDP are recognized as major management issues. Key findings that support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 13. Some Leadership Development Courses Provided in Company 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Course title</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participants</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Course title</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participants</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Course title</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participants</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 14. Key Elements of LDP in the Studied Companies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Company</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Leskiw & Singh, 2007; Little, 2008; Lockwood, 2006; McCallum & O’Connell, 2009; Mennell, 2008; Prince, 2008; Robinson & Harvey, 2008). An emphasis on creating and maintaining effective leadership should be a long-term priority of any competitive company. It was common to find that LDPs in these companies were a part of management development programs for three layers of leaders: supervisors, managers, and executives. Although this LD approach is practical and has served the companies’ needs well, the literature review shows that LDPs should be in addition to management skills development. From the interviews, all three companies indicated that they had been successful in managing succession plans. However, it is

### Table 15. Company 1: Critical Issues of LDP According to Excerpts From Interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Critical Issue</th>
<th>Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top management attitudes of trust and valuing employees’ abilities and efforts</td>
<td>“It’s critical that top management trust that a company has employees who are capable of creating and managing HR and leadership development programs. That trust will encourage local employees (HR unit) to show their ability by creating programs which expand the talents of all employees and enable them to contribute to the company’s strategic goals. We are proud of our HRD/LD programs which have all been created by our HR people; and which have successfully maintained the supply of leaders in our company.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competent local or internal staff on LDP management</td>
<td>“In order to create good LDP, the local staff at the HR unit must be competent in their work. Therefore, recruiting and hiring high-potential applicants, both for the HR unit and for other line functions, are crucial to the success of the company. High-potential and talented HR employees can create good and relevant LDPs for a company and high-potential and talented employees can be good leaders and fulfill the job responsibilities required by the company.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate resources for LDP management</td>
<td>“A company cannot achieve LDP if resources are inadequate. Those resources are: top management support, a pool of talented employees to be developed, and monetary support for implementing leadership development activities. . . . However, all of those high-cost leadership development activities eventually give a return because the company utilizes their new knowledge and skills fully after their training.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 16. Company 2: Critical Issues of LDP According to Excerpts from Interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Critical Issue</th>
<th>Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Roles of local/internal staff</td>
<td>“LDP should be carried out by internal staff. No consultant should be allowed to change any work or HR structure of the company. They can give suggestions but they should not be allowed to change any of our ongoing systems. This rule is vigorously applied in our company because we learned from experience that, if you allow consultants to impact on your work/organizational structure, the company will be dependent on outside persons. And that is not good for any company.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of LDP performance</td>
<td>“It’s crucial that we know how well our LDP contributes to building leadership and leaders in our organization. We must have some indicators to show the results concretely to both top management and employees in order to justify our expenses on LDP. One indicator may be the adequate supply of supervisors, managers, and executives to fill a company’s requirements. The second one is how well those leaders or managers perform their tasks. This is more difficult to measure than the first one. Even though this may not be entirely due to LDP, we can use the overall performance of supervisors/managers/leaders after completing LDP and being promoted to their new positions. This may be one of the indicators of our LDP’s success.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
recommends that, as part of management and/or HR development plans, LDP should be clearly emphasized, outlined, and promoted specifically for grooming potential leaders of a company to lead effectively. The companies’ current LDPs were launched around three years ago, and HR staff plan to evaluate the outcomes of the programs in a few years. The literature supports the continuing emphasis on leadership development that is integrated with HR and management development (Bailey & Clarke, 2008; Berke et al., 2008; Horwitz, 2010; Lamoureux, 2008). It also appears to be important for these companies to clarify that leadership development and management development are not synonymous concepts. While these companies have received many awards from management institutes in Thailand, those achievements and successes cannot be repeated unless effective leadership is maintained.

The studied companies appear to employ appropriate approaches for achieving the companies’ leadership competencies. The framework they use for deriving those competencies were vision, mission, values, strategic intents, business drivers, and top management support. Common key leader competencies listed by the three studied companies are among those suggested in the literature (Center for Creative Leadership, 2007; Harris & Kuhnert, 2008; Quinn et al., 2003; Yukl, 2010). They include knowledge, skills, and abilities to (a) build teamwork, (b) create vision and business strategies, (c) demonstrate business and market astuteness, (d) drive performance and efficiency, (e) be flexible and adaptable, (f) inspire and develop followers’ talent, (g) manage and lead changes, and (h) teach and coach others. However, most of the leader competencies in the findings were performance-based.

Not all companies listed competencies related directly to ethics and social responsibility. Only Company 1 explicitly stated business ethics as a characteristic of a leader. Yet the literature indicates that: (a) ethics is the foundation for helping leaders do the right thing (Arneson, 2008b; Lombardo & Eichinger, 2001); (b) strong ethical work cultures protect companies from disgrace and disaster due to wrongdoing; and (c) leaders with ethics are essential in creating a strong ethical culture in the workplace (Business Roundtable Institute for Corporate Ethics, 2010; Carroll & Buchholtz, 2006; Ethics Resource Center, 2009; Ferrell, Fraedrich, & Ferrell, 2008).

Leading organizations in the future will need leaders who can make decisions in complex situations. Many factors (e.g., demographic changes, information technology advancement, natural resources depletion) are changing dramatically. Hence, we recommend that business ethics be high on the list of desired leader competencies, especially for high-performing companies with high

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Table 17. Company 3: Critical Issues of LDP According to Excerpts from Interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Critical Issue</th>
<th>Excerpt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of LDP effectiveness</td>
<td>“Choosing the right key performance index (KPI) to represent LDP effectiveness is a very important issue. We (HR unit) can implement all the planned HRD and LD programs, but we still lack measurement and indicators to demonstrate the success of LDP.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of attendance and engagement by potential company leaders</td>
<td>“All management and leadership development programs are being implemented according to the company’s plan. But, due to our tight schedule and great demand for goods from our customers, attendance rates are not perfect and rescheduling is sometimes required. Only 70%–80% of the programs have been carried out as planned.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of leadership development</td>
<td>“In the field of automotive manufacturing, technological change happens all the time. Being up-to-date in relevant technology is crucial to our business competition. And we really need managers or leaders in our company who are visionary, technologically capable, and have leadership abilities. It is difficult for us to find an adequate supply of these kind of people who can perform at the level we need. It is also very costly to develop a pool of human resources to meet our requirements, both in terms of number and of job competency. Our LDP still does not fulfill our needs.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
stakeholder involvement. Moreover, this competency should be emphasized and communicated widely in organizations, both in writing and in practice.

All three companies chose development activities according to their business needs and plans, organizational image, financial status, and outside trainers’ reputations. There were LDP activities that could not be implemented due to the absence of one or more of the aforementioned factors. Role modeling, coaching, and mentoring were the preferred development activities in all three companies. They all trained their managers in developing their abilities to coach and mentor their subordinates.

Company 1 stated that assigning managers to lead a new organization was one of the most effective activities to develop and identify leaders in their organization. This coincides with suggestions made by Thomas and Cheese (2005) that real work and life experiences taught one more about leading than leadership development courses or MBA programs. According to Olivares (2008), experience provides a concrete and practical way for understanding how theory is translated into action. The leadership development activities recommended by leadership scholars (Dubrin, 2007; Yukl, 2010) are (a) formal education or classroom training, (b) non-classroom or development activities, and (c) self-initiative activities. While we suggest that these companies continue to use all three forms of development activities, consistent with the literature, the greatest emphasis for grooming leaders is experience.

Key LDP elements in common include top management support, adherence to HRD and business strategic plans, use of competency frameworks, and emphasis on coaching and mentoring. These key elements were all suggested as important for effective LDP (Bailey & Clarke, 2008; Berke et al., 2008; Fulmer & Wagner, 1999; Horwitz, 2010). We suggest that LDP managers and teams become familiar with those elements as they can be used in their LDPs.

The following five issues were reported by participants in this study as critical to the success of an LDP: (a) top management trust in employees’ abilities; (b) competence and independence of local internal HR staff; (c) evaluation of LDP effectiveness; (d) level of engagement by potential company leaders; and (e) costs of creating, executing, and evaluating LDP. Evaluation of LDP corresponds to Storey (2004) and Williams and Cothrel (1997), who reported that methods of measuring success in developing leaders are important. This finding leads us to make two suggestions: (a) an LDP should have a comprehensive outcome evaluation as a key element, and (b) more research should be carried out on evaluating LDP outcomes.

Figure 1 provides a framework for conducting LDP that is based on the literature review and research.

Figure 1. A Framework for Conducting LDP

- Identify ‘Leader Competencies’ required by organization
- Evaluate ‘Current Competencies’ possessed by existing employees
- Close the Competency Gap with LDP activities such as:
  - Formal Training
  - Developmental activities
  - Self-help activities
- Integrate LDP, HRD, strategic business plans and organizational goals
- Employ appropriate evaluation techniques throughout the entire LDP

LDP is Leadership Development Program
HRD is Human Resource Development
findings of this study. We recommend that a successful LDP should include:

- Top management support and involvement
- Alignment with HR, succession, and business strategic plans
- Relevant competency frameworks
- Talent and knowledge management
- Formal education, developmental activities, and self-initiative actions
- Constant and discreet LDP outcome measurement plans
- A positive and encouraging workplace environment for experiences in exercising leadership skills and knowledge derived from LDP

**Limitations**

The first recognition, though planned rather than a limitation, is that the findings are not easily generalized. The findings can only be used to illustrate leadership development in leading Thai companies.

The first limitation is that the data were derived from a questionnaire, company documents, and interviews with managers who were directly responsible for LDP implementation. There are no data from participants in the LDPs. Thus, including more interviewees especially those who participated in the LDPs, might have increased the validity of the findings.

Data on measuring LDP outcomes could not be obtained in this research because (a) LDPs in this research were not yet completed, and (b) it was not yet clear how LDP outcomes could be accurately measured.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

Some recommendations have been made earlier in this article. Perhaps the most significant recommendation is to include LDP participants in future research. Another recommendation is that companies that have implemented LDP evaluation should be included in future research. It is also recommended that research focus on a range of companies, not just leading companies, so as to provide comparative findings of LDPs. Conducting such research in other non-Western companies would also be useful. Exploring LDPs that are not offered in conjunction with management development programs might also reveal interesting findings.

**Conclusions**

Leadership development has been, and will continue to be, a key issue for companies. Organizations, whether large or small, always need more leaders, whether in management roles or in other roles. This is especially true when many surrounding factors (e.g., globalization, depleting natural resources, demographic changes, information technology advancement, global warming effects, political unrest and conflicts, and social and legislative pressures) are making the leadership of organizations a more complex task. Effective leaders can help their colleagues overcome the difficulties of doing business in such a rapidly changing environment. LDP is a critical component in an organization’s survival and prosperity. There is a pressing need for more research on LD and LDPs.

**Acknowledgments**

We would like to thank the following groups of people who helped make this research possible: (a) School of Human Resource Development (HRD), National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA); (b) Research Center of National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA); and (c) all participants in the research for providing the time and information necessary to complete this study.

**References**


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ATTITUDES OF POLICE MANAGERS TO DIFFERENT LEADERSHIP ROLES IN THEIR JOBS: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY IN NORWAY

PETTER GOTTSCHALK AND RUNE GLOMSETH

The background for this study is the increased complexity in policing that has become more knowledge-based and more professional in the past decade. The aim of this article is to present empirical results from a study of attitudes of police managers to different leadership roles in their jobs in two police districts in Norway. A questionnaire was developed and administered among police managers in two police districts in Norway. Participants in leadership programs were selected for this survey research. The Follo police district and Hedmark police district had a total of 130 participants in these programs, with 60 managers from Follo and 70 managers from Hedmark. The research was carried out in March and April 2010. The personnel leader role was found to be most important, followed by the resource allocator role. Responding police managers reported that they felt least competent in the liaison role.

Introduction
Policing has become more complex, more knowledge-based, and more professional in the past decade (Sewell, 2008). These challenges are felt across the world, a fact recognized by a growing national and international sharing of practice and personnel. Policing in the 21st century is a potpourri of sectors, levels, systems, and models that coexist in a dynamic spiral of continual interaction. Policing is a social process, and as such it spans both public and private sectors (Bratton & Malinowski, 2008; Dean & Gottschalk, 2007).
Thus, leadership of police departments, large and small, consists of several parallel leadership roles. Sewell (2008) found that some of the most important lessons learned in police management are that command hurts, change is difficult to implement and often not desired, politics are everywhere, and the police chief is a public figure.

Schafer (2008) argued that effective leadership in policing is the process of setting a proper example for other officers by showing how to police in a manner that is fair, service oriented, professional, and within the standards and expectations of the community. Thus, effective leadership involves a set of actions and initiatives to better the agency and the community it serves while also protecting the welfare, well-being, and interests of employees and the citizens they protect.

Mostovicz, Kakabadse, and Kakabadse (2009) argued for a definition of leadership as the ability to act authentically according to one’s worldview, either theta (\(\Theta\)) or lambda (\(\Lambda\)). Leadership characteristics of theta versus lambda worldviews include motivation, behavior, goal, and benefit. The typical theta personality seeks affiliation and control as an ultimate life purpose. Because of this, they long to fit in or contextualize themselves within a desired group and use socially derived understandings of product characteristics as a basis for their consumption. Lambdas, however, seek achievement and uniqueness as an ultimate end goal. As a result, they are more likely to interpret products based on their individual responses to the product, how it helps or prevents them from standing out, and how the product benchmarks against their regular consumptive patterns. Furthermore, a distinction is often made between transformational leadership and transactional leadership (Dion, 2008; Fitzgerald & Schutte, 2010; Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009; Michaelis, Stegmaier, & Sonntag, 2010).

The current study focuses on leadership roles, while many previous studies have focused on leadership styles. Leadership roles emphasize tasks to be carried out, while leadership styles emphasize behavioral modes and approaches in carrying out those tasks. In leadership style research, distinctions can be made among three different kinds of leadership styles (Joseph & Winston, 2005; Reinke, 2004; Russel & Stone, 2002; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2003; Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004;

In police departments, Murphy and Drodge (2004) found that the way police officers perceive their treatment by the leader and the organization affect both the quality of their performance and the service they provide to the community. Thus, in a transition from a semi-military to a knowledge-oriented organization in many countries all over the world, the role of the personnel leader might very well be applied with the servant leadership style to succeed.

Leadership Roles

Mintzberg’s (1994) role typology is frequently used in studies of managerial work. The advantage of the Mintzberg typology as opposed to other leadership instruments is its ability to be generally unbiased. There is not one role as such that is always better suited in leadership at the expense of other roles. Rather, the appropriate or preferred role depends on the situation. Hence, the contingent approach to management is applied by making role importance dependent on the situation.

In the context of police management, Glomseth, Gottschalk, and Karlsen (2007) applied six roles from Mintzberg’s role typology: personnel leader, resource allocator, spokesman, entrepreneur, liaison, and monitor. In this research, the same six roles are applied. The role terminology is commonly in use and is genderless. We will employ the following role descriptions for leadership roles:

1. **Personnel leader.** As a leader, the manager is responsible for supervising, hiring, training, organizing, coordinating, and motivating a cadre of personnel to achieve the goals of the organization. This role is mainly internal to the police unit.

2. **Resource allocator.** The manager must decide how to allocate human, financial, and information resources to the different tasks of police work. This role emphasizes planning, organizing, coordinating, and controlling tasks, and is mainly internal to the police investigation unit. Administrative tasks are included in this role.

3. **Spokesman.** As a spokesman, the manager extends organizational contacts to areas in the police force outside his or her own unit. This role emphasizes promoting acceptance of the unit and the unit’s work within the organization of which they are part. For the manager, it means contact with the rest of the organization. Frequently, he or she must move across traditional departmental boundaries and become involved in personnel, organizational, and financial matters.

4. **Entrepreneur.** The manager identifies police needs and develops solutions that change situations. A major responsibility of the manager is to ensure that rapidly evolving policing methods are understood, planned, implemented, and strategically exploited in the organization.

5. **Liaison.** In this role, the manager communicates with the external environment, and it includes exchanging information with government agencies, private businesses, media, and the public. This is an active, external role.

6. **Monitor.** This role emphasizes scanning of the external environment to keep up with relevant changes, such as politics and economics. The manager identifies new ideas from sources outside his or her organization. To accomplish this task, the manager uses many resources, including professional relationships, media, and the public. This is a passive, external role.

These six roles are illustrated in Figure 1. The personnel leader and resource allocator are roles internal to the unit for the unit manager. The spokesman and entrepreneur are roles directed toward the base police organization, while the liaison and monitor roles are external to both the unit and the base organization for the unit manager. The current research is concerned with police leaders’ own perceptions of relative leadership importance as an empirical study of what executives think themselves is the present situation as compared to an ideal situation.

Research Design

In Norway, there is only one police force. The organization of the Norwegian Police is largely based on the principle of an integrated police, where all functions of the police are collected in one organization. There are
27 local police districts, each under the command of a chief of police. In addition to the police districts, there are five central police institutions in Norway. About 13,000 persons work in the Norwegian Police force in some capacity. About 9,000 are trained police officers while almost 800 are trained lawyers, and about 3,200 are civilian employees.

The Norwegian Police and prosecuting authority follow a parallel track system, where responsibility for combating crime is shared between the Police Directorate and the Public Prosecution, both linked to the Department of Justice. The chief of police in each police district has full responsibility for all kinds of policing in the district. A police district has its own headquarters as well as several police stations. All police officers in Norway are trained to be generalists, able to fulfill every aspect of ordinary police work, including criminal investigations, maintaining public order, and community policing.

Two police districts were selected for this survey research: the Follo and Hedmark police districts in the southern part of Norway. Both of these districts include several towns and rural areas, and they have similar geography, demography, and crime statistics. In both police districts, executive training programs were carried out in 2008, 2009, and 2010. Participants in these programs were selected for this survey research. The Follo police district and Hedmark police district had a total of 130 participants in these programs, with 60 managers from Follo and 70 managers from Hedmark.

A questionnaire was developed to measure leadership roles. The questionnaire was first pilot-tested on 15 police managers at different leadership levels and from different police districts. Seven of them provided written comments, and some others made comments on the telephone. All comments from the pilot study were considered, and several changes were made to the questionnaire.

The survey research was carried out in March and April 2010. Ninety of 130 managers responded to the questionnaire, representing a 69% response rate. Most of the respondents had worked in the police force for more than 25 years. Forty-eight percent of the respondents were from Follo while 52% were from the Hedmark police district.
Among the respondents, 50% were first-line managers with patrol officers and investigators as their subordinates, 30% were middle managers with first-line managers as their subordinates, and 20% were top managers with middle managers as their subordinates. In terms of leadership position, 35% had 1 to 5 subordinates, 20% had 6 to 10 subordinates, 22% had 11 to 20 subordinates, and the remaining 23% had more than 21 subordinates.

**Results**

Table 1 lists results for leadership roles on a scale from 1 (not important) to 7 (very important), 1 (very little time) to 7 (very much time), and 1 (low competence) to 7 (high competence). Personnel leader is reported as the most important role, where managers spend the most time. Ideally, managers would like to spend even more time on this role. Respondents feel most competent in the role of resource allocator, followed by personnel leader and spokesman.

How is leadership role importance dependent on management position? Results are listed in Table 2. Generally, higher ranked managers find most roles more important than lower ranked managers. Furthermore, leaders at all three levels agree that personnel leader is the most important. First-line managers find the role of liaison to be least important while both middle managers and top managers find the role of monitor to be least important.

From a statistical point of view, significant differences were calculated by means of analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Single factor between subjects was applied. Statistically significant differences were found for spokesman and liaison, where top managers find these two roles to be significantly more important than first-line manager. Both spokesman and liaison are outward-directed roles that are internal and external to the police district, respectively.

**Discussion**

There is an enormous literature on the topic of police leadership (e.g., Bratton & Malinowski, 2008; Dion, 2008; Eterno & Silverman, 2010). Schafer (2009) found that the importance of police supervisors (formal leaders) in shaping organizational contexts and outcomes in police organizations is generally accepted. Both police districts in the current study have been through turbulent times in terms of frequent organizational changes. This might have influenced managers to become more people oriented in the personnel leader role. Also, newly promoted leaders seem to have more focus on personnel management than their predecessors. As Norwegian Police develops from a semi-military organization to a knowledge organization, more attention is paid to leadership and knowledge management as well as police integrity and accountability (Cossette, 2004; Fijnaut & Huberts, 2002; Office of Police Integrity [OPI], 2007; Open Society Justice Initiatives [OSJI], 2005; UNODC, 2006).

It is interesting to note that respondents selected the personnel leader role as most important while they selected the resource allocator role as the top regarding their own competence. A possible explanation is that traditional police management has been concerned with decision making, where the police manager makes decisions about who should do what and when. This is very much

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**Table 1. Measurement of Leadership Roles**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Role</th>
<th>Role Importance</th>
<th>Role Time Actual</th>
<th>Role Time Ideal</th>
<th>Role Competence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel leader</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource allocator</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spokesman</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneur</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitor</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liaison</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2. Leadership Role Importance as a Function of Leadership Position**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Role</th>
<th>First-Line Managers</th>
<th>Middle Managers</th>
<th>Top Managers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel leader</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource allocator</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spokesman</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneur</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitor</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liaison</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
in line with the resource allocator role. More recently, police officers in Norway have experienced empowerment, causing police managers to shift their main focus away from resource allocation over to personnel leadership. This recent shift from resource allocation to personnel leadership is also in line with the more recent thinking of transformational leadership rather than transactional leadership in modern organizations.

Based on Table 2, it is interesting to note that first-line managers do not find the liaison role very important. This seems strange, as it is typically first-line police leaders who are front figures in the media in all kinds of crime cases. Furthermore, middle managers place little emphasis on developments in society as monitors, which is similar to top managers but different from first-line managers. While first-line managers put relatively more importance in the monitor role versus the liaison role (i.e., that input from the environment is more important than output to the environment), middle managers seem to have a slightly different focus.

There are several avenues for future research. First, the link between the research and specific study needs to be described in further detail. For instance, theta and lambda leadership needs to be further described. How do these leadership concepts specifically relate to the subject matter of the article and the specific study? There is a need to provide more than just a definition of each. Next, there is a need to develop a theory and hypotheses, and also use stronger statistical techniques rather than averages only. Relationships among variables involved need to be tested, using more advanced techniques. Future research should define dependent and independent variables and test the impact of the latter on the dependent variables. In analyzing and solving problems, research and practice look at cause–effect relations. Some causes of problems have significant impact on the outcome, whereas others do not. To solve problems we focus on the significant variables. Future research has to identify those significant variables.

Conclusion

Respondents in this survey research indicated that the personnel leader is the most important leadership role, and also the role where most time is spent, where most time should be spent, and where the manager feels most competent. At the other end we find the liaison role, where responding managers did report that they spend little time and have little competence.

The purpose of this article was to present results from a survey of police managers in Norway on leadership roles. A questionnaire was developed and administered among police managers in two police districts in Norway. Six leadership roles were defined and measured in terms of their role importance, actual role time, ideal role time, and managers’ role competence. Respondents emphasized the role of personnel leader, where the manager is responsible for supervising, hiring, training, organizing, coordinating, and motivating a cadre of personnel to achieve the goals of the organization.

An important implication for practice from this study is the necessary shift from resource allocation to personnel leadership. This shift needs to find its reality in the actual time spent on the role. Furthermore, police managers need to develop their competence in personnel leadership as transformational leadership becomes more important than transactional leadership in law enforcement organizations.

Both leadership scholars and practitioners may find some useful insights from this study. First, consistency is needed between relative leadership role importance and leadership competence. You need to be most competent in the most important leadership role. Next, there is a link between time spent in a role and role importance, although it is not necessarily true that most time should be spent in the most important role, as the role may require more quality rather than more quantity in terms of elapsed time. Finally, the contingent approach to management is important, where the dependent factor is whether the leadership position is at the first line, in the middle, or at the top of an organization.

References


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This article examines the leadership practices utilized by information technology (IT) project managers that contribute to project success. Specifically, technical and nontechnical leadership practices are contrasted. The importance of nontechnical leadership practices in IT project management has been largely ignored in research until recently. The article identifies key nontechnical leadership practices that are important for the success of IT projects. The article is based on a qualitative study that gathered data from actual IT projects conducted at U.S. companies across several different industry segments. Study results are analyzed to determine the relevance and value of Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework to the area of IT project management. Study findings indicate that nontechnical leadership practices are important to the success of IT projects. Findings also indicate that Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework is consistent with the key nontechnical leadership practices that are important for the success of IT projects. A framework for the development of IT project managers is also proposed.

Introduction

Over the past 25 years, information technology (IT) projects have continued to grow in importance and cost. Yet IT project success trends have been very disturbing. Kendra and Taplin (2004) observed that, in recent years, IT project success rates have continued to fall, with project costs continuing to rise. A recent report by a leading technology solutions consulting group confirms the trend. The Standish Group (2009) documented a continued decrease in project success rates, with only 32% of all projects delivered on time, on budget, and with required features and functions. As the recognized leaders of IT projects, IT project managers play a primary role in the success of these projects. At the same time that IT project success rates have fallen dramatically, focus on the professional development of project
guidance on the nontechnical leadership practices needed by IT project managers.

Perhaps the most influential guide to the development of project management skills is the international Project Management Institute (PMI) (Kendra & Taplin, 2004). PMI has developed and regularly updates an official guideline to leading projects. The Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) provides a technical framework for leading projects. The framework documents recommended best practice processes for key general management skills and project knowledge areas. The framework focuses on the nine key areas of project integration, scope, time, cost, quality, human resource, communication, risk, and procurement (Project Management Institute Standards Committee, 1996). Although the PMBOK was not developed specifically for IT project management, it represents the classical approach for IT project management as well as for non-IT project management. All elements of the PMBOK framework are applicable to IT projects.

Recent authors such as Bouley (2006) are beginning to stress the importance of having more than a technical leadership view of project management. Bouley writes that while technical leadership skills are important, other leadership skills are needed for project managers to be successful:

The hard skills are important, but they tend to be the same regardless of what you are doing. Planning and scheduling and controlling the work—those skills tend to be handled largely the same way from project to project. . . . If you are going to lead people, though, you need to have your interpersonal skills in order. Managing the human element is key to successful projects. (p. 21)

Smith (1999) proposed that projects often fail due to a lack of project leadership, not from a lack of project management. Smith argues that a successful project manager must go beyond managing the details of the project and add value through providing leadership. Smith further advocates that project managers must evolve into project leaders to ensure their long-term survival.

Other authors agree that the classical approach does not provide a sufficient focus on project leadership skills. Shore (2005) argued that a better understanding
of what works and what does not work with project leadership is needed. Shore observed that “although the literature in project management does identify leadership as a critical success factor, it is seldom explored in any depth” (2005, p. 1). Shore indicated that without appropriate leadership the risk of project failure will increase. Shore contends that leadership is the most significant cause of project failure.

Kendra and Taplin (2004) have also focused attention on the importance of the nontechnical leadership role of the project manager. They observe that recent studies in the field of information technology have found that project success is not guaranteed by the use of PM methodologies. They propose that project success instead relies on the ability of project managers to be agents of change. They identify competencies that are common to organization development practitioners and project managers and recommend six competencies for developing project managers as effective agents of change. One competency is leadership. Others include communication, teamwork, process management, training, and continuous learning.

HEIFETZ’S ADAPTIVE LEADERSHIP FRAMEWORK

In 1994, the adaptive leadership framework was advanced by Heifetz and his colleagues at Harvard’s Kennedy School of Government. At its core, the adaptive leadership framework focuses on two distinctions. The first distinction is between leadership and authority. The distinction draws attention to a person’s authority position in a situation (Heifetz & Laurie, 2003). It is important to distinguish between leadership and authority because people naturally look to authority figures to provide leadership. Heifetz (1995) argued that the tendency to look to authority figures obscures the fact that often people who are not in authority positions provide leadership. Heifetz further argued that people often fail to spot leadership when it is exercised by people who do not have any authority. The second distinction is between technical and adaptive work. The distinction “points to the differences between expert and learning challenges, and the different approaches and operating styles that each requires” (Heifetz & Linsky, 2003, p. 1). Heifetz argued that understanding these two distinctions is needed to prevent the classic mistake made by failed leaders. The classic mistake is treating adaptive challenges as if they were technical problems. Mistaking adaptive challenges for technical problems leads to the wrong kind of leadership. Technical problems can be resolved through the application of current technical know-how or routine behavior. Typically, the solution to these problems is best orchestrated by a person in an authority role (Heifetz & Linsky, 2003).

Adaptive challenges do not have a straightforward solution process. These are challenging situations where changes in attitudes, values, or behaviors are needed. To meet adaptive challenges, learning must occur. In these challenging situations, the authority person is not able to simply implement an effective solution. The solution requires giving the work back to the appropriate stakeholders. This process will facilitate the learning that needs to occur (Heifetz, 1994). Heifetz stated that not all challenges can be categorized as distinctly technical or adaptive. Frequently, challenges will contain both technical and adaptive elements.

Heifetz proposes a number of principles or practices that leaders should enact to facilitate meeting adaptive challenges. The adaptive leadership practices that the leader should employ are dependent on the needs of the specific situation. The leader must first determine whether a technical problem or an adaptive challenge needs to be addressed. If the issue is an adaptive challenge, the leader must then determine which adaptive leadership practices are needed to address the challenge. Thus, it can be seen that the adaptive leadership framework has roots in situational leadership theory. The situational leadership model proposes that the leader’s behavior should be adjusted to the maturity level of the followers. Depending on the follower’s maturity level, the leader should utilize different levels of supportive and directive behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1984). As with situational leadership, Heifetz proposes that the effective leader should adjust his actions to the situation and the needs of followers.

Heifetz first advanced the adaptive leadership framework in the mid-1980s through the courses he taught at Harvard’s Kennedy School of Government (Heifetz, 1994). Since that time, the framework has grown and continued to develop. Applications of this framework have been made to specific industries. Heifetz and other
relates to himself. The internally focused practices of “Holding Steady” and “Anchor Yourself” are included in the current research. These practices do not comprise all of the practices in the adaptive leadership framework, but instead represent the ones viewed by the researcher as most significant for IT project management. Descriptions of the adaptive leadership practices explored by the current research are listed as nontechnical practices in Appendix A.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

It is asserted that, traditionally, technical leadership skills have received the bulk of research and practitioner focus in the area of IT project management. Nontechnical leadership skills have been largely ignored until recently. The current study addresses the following two research questions with the corresponding propositions:

Research Question 1: What are the key nontechnical project leadership skills that are influential for the success of IT projects?

Proposition 1: Nontechnical project leadership skills are related to the success of IT projects.

Research Question 2: Is Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework consistent with nontechnical leadership skills that are important for the success of IT projects?

Proposition 2: Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework is consistent with nontechnical leadership skills needed for successful IT project management.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

Historically, there has not been a strong research focus on attempting to understand the link between nontechnical leadership skills and successful IT project management. The lack of research focus represents a void in the academic and practitioner literature that the current research aims to address. The current study utilizes an academic perspective to address the void by conducting qualitative research involving IT project managers. The current study contributes to the body of existing theoretical literature by helping to understand the linkage between critical nontechnical leadership skills and successful project management.

The current study also contributes to existing theory by providing a meaningful application of Heifetz’s
adaptive leadership framework. Heifetz (1994) described his scholarship on adaptive leadership as theory-building work (Snow & Thomas, 1994). Since the framework was first proposed, additional research has applied the framework or tested it in a limited number of settings. The author has not identified any prior application of the framework to the field of IT project management. The current study extends the evidence in support of the framework by demonstrating its applicability to the area of IT project management.

In addition to contributing to existing theory, the practitioner value of the current research would be to IT project managers. The research provides direction to IT project managers to guide their development. Understanding the nature of nontechnical leadership skills that are critical for achieving success will facilitate improved IT project manager development opportunities. The research highlights an often neglected area of skills and contributes to building these nontechnical leadership skills in IT project managers. The framework proposed by the current research can be utilized as a meaningful and significant development tool.

**Methodology**

**RESEARCH DESIGN OVERVIEW**

The current study utilized a qualitative research approach based on formal interviews of IT project managers. A qualitative design was selected because its inductive approach provided an excellent method for understanding the impact that leadership practices have on successful IT project management (Maxwell, 2005). Data for the study were collected from actual IT projects. Study participants were IT project managers. Data were collected on the leadership actions taken by study participants in connection with their past IT projects through the process of field interviews.

**COMPANY AND PARTICIPANT SELECTION**

Companies were selected to participate in the study through convenience sampling. Three companies from different industry segments were selected to participate. Convenience sampling was utilized due to the difficulty in gaining access to detailed industry project information. The three companies selected to participate in the study are all headquartered in a major Midwestern city. One company is a major health care provider. The second company is a major clothing retailer. The third company is a major pet care products provider.

Following company selection, the next task was selection of study participants. The current study focused on leadership practices of project managers for successful IT projects. The first challenge in selecting study participants was to define what is considered to be a successful IT project. Some typical industry measures of IT project success include on-schedule delivery, on-budget delivery, user satisfaction, and percentage of planned functionality being actually delivered and utilized. The utilization of these metrics and specific benchmarks will vary from organization to organization. For the current study, it was not considered practical to include projects across multiple organizations only if they satisfied some benchmark for all of these metrics. Instead, the perspective of the senior IT management of the companies participating in the study was used to define success. Senior IT managers responsible for overseeing a portfolio of IT projects were asked to identify their organization’s four most successful IT project managers while considering their organization’s own criteria for success. This is a meaningful and significant definition of success as the personal success of these managers is closely linked to their ability to deliver projects that are viewed as successful to the organization. The senior IT managers were asked to consider only project managers who had a minimum of four years’ experience in the role of project manager. This control was intended to support the selection of experienced project managers who truly deliver successful projects, as less successful project managers will tend to be weeded out of this role over time. No additional guidance was given to the senior managers concerning the selection of study participants.

A single senior IT executive at two of the participating companies nominated the four research participants and coordinated their participation. For the third company, a small group of senior IT executives individually recommended candidates to participate in the research. The four project managers who were most often identified by the senior IT managers were invited to participate in the study. All project managers who were invited to participate in the study agreed to participate in the
study. Study participants consisted of seven women and five men. The sampling technique utilized is consistent with purposive sampling techniques that are commonly utilized in qualitative studies (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Selected participants were asked to participate in an interview concerning projects they had led at their organization and consider to be highly successful. Reference projects were required to have at least five project team members and at least 2,000 project hours. Actual reference projects of the study participants had project team sizes that ranged from 6 to over 100 project team members. Reference project durations ranged from nine months to over five years.

INTERVIEW PROCEDURES
Selected participants were engaged in a semistructured interview. An interview script was developed and utilized to provide consistency across all interviews. The script was designed to elicit examples of core nontechnical leadership practices utilized by the study participants. The interview script (shown in Appendix B) consisted of general questions and scenario-based questions.

Realistic project scenarios were developed by taking challenges from Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework and applying them to IT project situations. The scenarios were designed to allow interviewees to communicate nontechnical leadership practices that were utilized to address the challenges presented in the scenarios. The interviewees were asked to identify a time when they faced a similar challenge and then respond with what they did to address the challenge. Other unscripted follow-up questions were asked to further explore ideas and themes expressed by the interviewees.

GROUNDED RESEARCH DESIGN
As the current study seeks to extend current understanding and theory, it is appropriate to identify the significant prior grounded studies that the current study draws on, and to review how the current study applies methodological lessons from this prior grounded research. The current study draws from the prior grounded qualitative research of Rose, Pedersen, Hosbond, and Kraemmergaard (2007). Rose and colleagues’ method involved reaching research conclusions by studying the interpretations of research subjects, which are located in texts and then analyzed. Rose contends that his research is grounded in accordance with exemplary guidelines as discussed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Like Glaser and Strauss, Rose’s approach relies extensively on qualitative data and constant comparison for theoretical discovery.

The methodological approach utilized by Rose et al. (2007) was applied to a large extent in the current study. As with the Rose study, the data collection strategy utilized in the current study involved semistructured interviews with project managers that were structured around an initial research model. This represents an insightful but rather untypical research approach. Rose noted that only one fifth of the research articles reviewed in connection with his study used a field study that put the researchers in contact with live project managers. Other similarities with the Rose approach include utilization of interview questions that were designed to investigate project situations, research participants’ actions, and how those actions were linked to successful project outcomes. As with Rose’s approach, interviews were transcribed, analyzed, and validated with the interviewees. Content analysis was utilized to identify and then code leadership practices. Also as with Rose’s approach, coded texts were then analyzed to identify patterns in the data. Related codes were grouped into major categories of leadership practices.

Rose’s data analysis process led to the development of a generalized preliminary theoretical model. This approach of generalization to theory is consistent with Vaughan’s (1992) work, which concurred that identified patterns of data can be treated as a model. Rose also observes that reliability and validity of the theoretical model are dependent on the careful observations of patterns in the data, rather than on sample size or number of occurrences. As with Rose’s approach, the current study data analysis process has led to the development of a proposed theoretical framework.

DATA ANALYSIS
A literature review conducted prior to the study resulted in the identification of both technical and nontechnical leadership practices. Technical leadership practices are based on the PMBOK framework. Technical leadership practices, as previously defined, are ones that are utilized to address well-defined problems with known answers and approaches. Technical leadership practices are distinguished from nontechnical leadership practices,
which are needed to address challenging situations with no well-defined solutions and where changes in attitudes, values, or behaviors are needed. The nontechnical leadership practices are based on Heifetz's adaptive leadership framework. Appendix A summarizes these core technical and nontechnical leadership practices. The appendix serves as a reference to provide a coding scheme for these practices and for later comparison of these practices to research results. For example, the code “IM” is used to represent the technical leadership practice integration management.

After the interviews were conducted, interview notes and transcripts were reviewed to identify specific behaviors and actions reported by the project managers during the course of their projects and considered to be important. Fifty-two unique project manager actions were identified. These unique project manager actions are summarized in Appendix C. Codes were developed to identify the patterns of leadership actions reported by the project managers. For example, the code Communicate Abundantly was used to represent the collection of project manager actions related to frequent and regular communication with project stakeholders. A target result was ascribed to each unique action through review and analysis of the interview transcripts. For example, the target result Facilitate Learning was ascribed to the action coded Conduct Training. The process of ascribing a target result was useful in determining what individual project manager actions could be grouped into a unique project manager action code.

Each of the 52 unique project manager actions were compared to the predefined list of core leadership practices previously documented in Appendix A. If a unique project manager action corresponded to one of the predefined core leadership practices, this was noted in Appendix C with a code of “Y.” Otherwise, a code of “N” was entered in Appendix C. Where applicable, the corresponding Appendix A code for the matching predefined core leadership practice was also noted in Appendix C. Multiple unique project manager actions may have been identified to correspond with one of the predefined core leadership practices. For example, the coded project manager actions of “take time away,” “engage in refreshing activity,” “focus on routine,” and “vent” were all identified to correspond with the coded core leadership practice of “AY.”

For any project manager action that did not match a predefined technical or nontechnical leadership practice, there existed three possible classifications for the action. First, the action could be determined to be a technical leadership action that was not previously documented. Second, the action could be determined to be a nontechnical leadership action that was not previously documented. Third, the specific action could be identified as a nonleadership action.

Results

ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT RESPONSES

Research participants were first asked to identify key actions they had taken as the project manager that they viewed as critical to the success of the project. All participants were able to identify at least five actions that were viewed as critical to the success of the project. Following general questions, research participants were asked 10 scenario-based questions. The research participants were asked to identify a time when they faced a challenge similar to the scenario and then respond with what they did to address the challenge. For these scenario-based questions, all of the participants were able to relay personal experiences for most of the specific questions.

An analysis of project manager actions summarized in Appendix C indicated that 43 of the 52 actions reported by research participants were aligned with technical or nontechnical leadership practices previously identified in Appendix A. These leadership practices are represented by either the PMBOK classical project management framework or Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework.

PROJECT MANAGER ACTIONS NOT ALIGNED WITH EITHER FRAMEWORK

Further analysis of research results indicated that some of the project manager actions were not aligned with either of the two discussed frameworks. Because these actions were not aligned with either framework, these actions provide key insights to improve our current understanding of effective IT project management. Many of the actions discussed in this section are outliers, not reported by the majority of research participants. As Malan and Kriger (1998) argued in their discussion of
managerial wisdom, observations of outlier actions that do not fit the established models provide great opportunities for benefit: “Instead of decisions based around the means of observations, managers benefit more from looking for the outliers, the unusual, or the extreme points of view” (p. 244). These additional project manager actions are summarized by the following two leadership practices not previously discussed.

Get Stakeholders to Embrace Change. A popular theme discussed by all research participants was the important need to get stakeholders to embrace the changes that are linked to the project. Most IT projects result in changes for stakeholders. Often, these changes are significant. These changes can be difficult for stakeholders, which frequently results in resistance to change. In order to successfully implement changes that are required for project success, project managers must get stakeholders to embrace the required changes. Research participants discussed many different actions related to the leadership practice of “Get Stakeholders to Embrace Change” including present the need for change in a convincing way, explain how change will benefit stakeholders, help stakeholders understand the changed end state, continually sell change, understand stakeholder concerns about change, learn and understand the change management process, and obtain leadership support for change.

Stakeholder Support for Project Directions. A popular theme discussed by many research participants was the importance of getting stakeholders to support the project directions. Although the theme shares some common ground with the previously discussed leadership practice of “Get Stakeholders to Embrace Change,” it is felt that the theme is distinct from the previous leadership practice. The previous practice is focused on getting stakeholders to embrace the changes connected with the project implementation. The area of stakeholder support is instead focused on gaining stakeholder support for the specific project directions and decisions, whether or not these specific decisions will result in change for the stakeholder. Research participants discussed several different actions related to the leadership practice of “Stakeholder Support for Project Directions” including: build trust relationships, manage stakeholder expectations, and check project directions.

Discussion and Conclusions

The findings from the current research highlight leadership practices viewed as critical to project success by the most successful project managers from IT organizations in a cross-section of industry segments. Analysis of the research findings clearly indicated that the classical approach to IT project management is still viewed as important by practitioners. Project manager actions summarized in Appendix C have been reviewed and linked to the previously identified core leadership practices summarized in Appendix A. The results of the review are shown in Table 1. Table 1 indicates that seven of the nine Appendix A leadership practices represented by the classical PMBOK framework were frequently viewed as important by study participants. These technical leadership practices are coded with a “T” in Table 1.

Analysis of the research findings also clearly indicated support for the importance of a new approach to project management based on critical leadership practices needed to successfully respond to adaptive challenges. Table 1 showed that eight of the nine Appendix A leadership practices represented by Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework were frequently viewed as important by study participants. These nontechnical leadership practices are coded with an “NT” in Table 1. Only the Appendix A adaptive leadership practice of “Going to the Balcony” was not identified as an important practice by study participants. “Going to the Balcony” is a core leadership practice in Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework. It is suggested that the practice may not have been identified by study participants because it represents a more abstract concept than many of the other leadership practices in the framework. The abstract nature of this practice made it difficult to design an interview script that was conducive to surfacing study participants’ actions related to this leadership practice. It is very possible that study participants had utilized actions related to this leadership practice but were unable to link their actions to the questions asked in the interview script.
Table 1. Project Manager Leadership Practice Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T/NT</th>
<th>Practice Name</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Communications Management</td>
<td>Communicate Abundantly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Conduct Kick-Off Meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Document Project Directions and Decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
<td>Conduct Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Staff Project Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Integration Management</td>
<td>Utilize Project Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Delegate Ownership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Risk Management</td>
<td>Escalate Concerns to Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Learn From Mistakes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Document Project Specifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Utilize Risk Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Scope Management</td>
<td>Flexible Project Directions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Utilize Scope Management and Change Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Understand the Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Quality Management</td>
<td>Conduct Testing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Utilize Deliverable Signoff Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Time Management</td>
<td>Prioritize Critical Issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Utilize Project Metrics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>Anchor Yourself</td>
<td>Take Time Away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Focus on Routine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Engage in Refreshing Activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>Cook Conflict and Regulate Distress</td>
<td>Listen to Team Member Concerns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Offer to Help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Brighten the Climate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clarify Team Work Priorities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Scare Support for Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Communicate Conflicts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Challenge Previous Decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Create Tension With the Old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Surface Hidden Conflicts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Utilize Humor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Allow for Failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Recognize and Celebrate Success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>Give Work Back to People</td>
<td>Facilitate Stakeholder Ownership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>Hold Steady</td>
<td>Hold Steady to Direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>Identify the Adaptive Challenge</td>
<td>Ask Questions of Stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Analyze Current Processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>Maintain Disciplined Attention</td>
<td>Discuss Status Regularly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Communicate About Concerns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Continued)
Taplin (2004) advocated that effective IT project managers must rely on change agent competencies. They contend that project success relies on the ability of project managers to be agents of change.

The second new practice, “Stakeholder Support for Project Directions,” has long been an important focus of project management. A key success factor for any IT project is having stakeholders support the project’s directions and objectives. While the leadership practice is not specifically referenced in the PMBOK framework, several of the practices in the framework support the leadership practice. The PMBOK practice of “Communications Management,” for example, includes the focus of keeping stakeholders informed of project directions and helping them to understand why the directions are being taken. In addition, the PMBOK practice of “Risk Management” is applicable to address the significant risk of project stakeholders failing to accept project directions (Project Management Institute Standards Committee, 1996). Antonioni (2009) further stressed that the art of stakeholder management is a significant and crucial skill for project managers. Antonioni discusses common mistakes project managers make in managing stakeholders including the failure to identify all stakeholders of the project. Antonioni argues that the failure of managing stakeholders effectively to reach agreement on project directions results in a variety of negative project outcomes.

In addition to the previously identified Appendix A leadership practices, two additional leadership practices have been identified through analysis of the research findings. The identification of these two additional nontechnical leadership practices provides new and significant insight into the understanding of IT project management success factors. These two additional practices, “Getting Stakeholders to Embrace Change” and “Stakeholder Support for Project Directions,” are also displayed in Table 1. Both practices are determined to be nontechnical in nature. There is no routine or scripted behavior that can be applied to achieve the goals of these practices. Instead, these practices involve dealing with change. The classification of these new practices as nontechnical is consistent with the definition of nontechnical leadership advanced in the current study.

An important question to consider is whether these two additional leadership practices are grounded in management theory. If not, what is the genesis for these practices? Are they a product of intuitive management? The first new practice, “Getting Stakeholders to Embrace Change,” can be linked to existing management theory. The essence of this leadership practice is a prime focus for the role of the “change agent.” One of the most complex and challenging roles of a change agent is getting stakeholders to embrace the change process and commit to making relevant changes. Kendra and Taplin (2004) advocated that effective IT project managers must rely on change agent competencies. They contend that project success relies on the ability of project managers to be agents of change.

The second new practice, “Stakeholder Support for Project Directions,” has long been an important focus of project management. A key success factor for any IT project is having stakeholders support the project’s directions and objectives. While the leadership practice is not specifically referenced in the PMBOK framework, several of the practices in the framework support the leadership practice. The PMBOK practice of “Communications Management,” for example, includes the focus of keeping stakeholders informed of project directions and helping them to understand why the directions are being taken. In addition, the PMBOK practice of “Risk Management” is applicable to address the significant risk of project stakeholders failing to accept project directions (Project Management Institute Standards Committee, 1996). Antonioni (2009) further stressed that the art of stakeholder management is a significant and crucial skill for project managers. Antonioni discusses common mistakes project managers make in managing stakeholders including the failure to identify all stakeholders of the project. Antonioni argues that the failure of managing stakeholders effectively to reach agreement on project directions results in a variety of negative project outcomes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T/NT</th>
<th>Practice Name</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>Protect Leadership Below</td>
<td>Defending Non-leadership Team Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>Take Responsibility</td>
<td>Take Personal Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>Getting Stakeholders to Embrace Change</td>
<td>Present Case for Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Obtain Leadership Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Understand Stakeholder Concerns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Continually Sell Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Communicate the End-State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Learn Change Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Utilize Neutral Mediator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>Stakeholder Support for Project Directions</td>
<td>Build Trust Relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Manage Stakeholder Expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Check Project Directions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These two additional leadership practices are therefore realized to be grounded in existing management theory. This realization, however, does not necessarily exclude the role that experience and intuition may play in leading project managers to focus attention on these practices as important to project success. Certainly not all project managers base their leadership actions on management theory. The identification of these two additional nontechnical leadership practices is within the scope of the research design. The research design provided for the identification of any critical leadership practice, not just verification of the previously identified practices from the classical and adaptive leadership frameworks. It is noted that no new technical leadership practices were identified through the analysis of research findings. The failure to identify any new technical leadership practices suggests that the classical PMBOK framework is robust and adequately represents all technical leadership practices viewed as important by practitioners.

Another important realization proceeding from the analysis of research findings is that the classical and adaptive leadership frameworks contain some areas of overlapping scope. Overlapping scope is most visibly witnessed in analysis of the project manager action “communicate about concerns.” Appendix C shows that the action has target results of both mitigating project risks and identifying where to focus attention. Although the action has been identified as linked to the nontechnical leadership practice of “Maintain Disciplined Attention,” it is also closely aligned with the technical leadership practice of “Risk Management.” Another area of overlapping scope between the two frameworks is visible in analysis of the project manager action “communicate abundantly.” The action is determined to be most closely linked to the technical leadership practice of “Communications Management,” yet there exist multiple target results for the action. However, many of the nontechnical leadership practices also rely heavily on communication. While the classical and adaptive leadership frameworks do represent different focuses, both frameworks present requirements for successful leadership. Additionally, no two frameworks should be expected to exist in a vacuum. Therefore, it is not surprising to find areas of overlapping scope between these two frameworks.

VALIDATION OF RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS
Two theoretically developed research propositions have been presented. The first research proposition was stated as follows:

Proposition 1: Nontechnical project leadership skills are related to the success of IT projects.

The research clearly provides strong support for the proposition. As summarized in Table 1, 10 nontechnical leadership practices were frequently viewed as important by study participants. In addition, every research participant was found to utilize and view multiple nontechnical leadership practices as important to the success of the project. This is reflected in Appendix C.

A second research proposition was also presented in the current research. The second proposition was stated as follows:

Proposition 2: Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework is consistent with nontechnical leadership skills needed for successful IT project management.

Research findings also provide strong support for the proposition. Research results found that eight of the nine adaptive leadership practices discussed in the current research were identified by most of the research participants as important nontechnical leadership practices linked to project success. The only adaptive leadership practice discussed in the research that was not identified as important by most research participants is “Going to the Balcony.” This is represented in Table 1.

In addition to these eight practices, two additional nontechnical practices that are not contained in Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework were identified as important by research participants. This finding does not imply that Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework is lacking in any respect. It is not suggested that the two additional nontechnical practices may be candidates to extend Heifetz’s adaptive leadership framework. It is only suggested that these two additional nontechnical practices, which have been shown to be grounded in existing management theory, are viewed as important to IT project management.
PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR INTEGRATING NONTECHNICAL LEADERSHIP INTO IT PROJECT MANAGER DEVELOPMENT

It has been shown that the research findings clearly support the research propositions. These findings are consistent with the need for project managers to evolve into project leaders. In support of the development opportunity for IT project managers, a new framework for IT project manager development is suggested, based on research findings. It recognizes that both the classical PMBOK and adaptive leadership frameworks represent critical practices needed for successful IT project management. The new framework serves to extend current understanding of these two existing frameworks by showing how they work together to explain what is important for successful IT project management. The new framework also extends current understanding by including leadership practices that are not part of either existing framework. It is not suggested that the two additional leadership practices are candidates to extend either existing framework. The new framework is presented in Figure 1.

The framework utilizes a “toolbox” metaphor to present the critical practices (or tools) needed by successful IT project managers. The toolbox framework contains the leadership practices summarized in Table 1. Leadership practices identified in both the classical PMBOK and adaptive leadership frameworks are included. The framework represents the tools as either technical (right side) or nontechnical (left side) in nature. Additionally, the framework also contains the additional nontechnical leadership practices identified through the current research that are not part of either leadership framework. It is proposed that the framework should be utilized as a guide to the training and development of IT project managers. The framework extends the current development framework for IT project managers, which is represented by the PMBOK framework and focuses on technical leadership practices.

The new framework displays the leadership practices that were most frequently referenced by study participants in the “top drawer” of the toolbox. Leadership practices that were utilized by all or nearly all of the study participants are depicted in the top drawer. The depiction corresponds to the metaphor of the most critical tools that are typically kept close at hand by craftsmen. Leadership practices that were utilized less frequently by study participants are depicted in the “bottom drawer” of the toolbox. For example, practice “SSPD” is shown in the top drawer and practice “PLB” is shown in the bottom drawer in Figure 1. It is not suggested that any of the leadership practices are more important than any other leadership practices. It is only suggested that some leadership practices are utilized more frequently than others.

Figure 1. Proposed Framework for IT Project Manager Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>Take responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMM</td>
<td>Communication management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM</td>
<td>Risk management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SM</td>
<td>Scope management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human resource management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QM</td>
<td>Quality management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TM</td>
<td>Time management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TR</td>
<td>Take responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GWBP</td>
<td>Give work back to people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLB</td>
<td>Protect leadership below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCRD</td>
<td>Cook conflict and regulate distress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSEC</td>
<td>Get stakeholders to embrace change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AY</td>
<td>Anchor yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDA</td>
<td>Maintain disciplined attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>Identity the adaptive challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS</td>
<td>Hold steady</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCRD</td>
<td>Cook conflict and regulate distress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDA</td>
<td>Maintain disciplined attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>Identity the adaptive challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS</td>
<td>Hold steady</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCRD</td>
<td>Cook conflict and regulate distress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSEC</td>
<td>Get stakeholders to embrace change</td>
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<tr>
<td>AY</td>
<td>Anchor yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDA</td>
<td>Maintain disciplined attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>Identity the adaptive challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS</td>
<td>Hold steady</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Although the proposed framework contains more nontechnical leadership practices than technical leadership practices, this does not suggest that practitioners utilize nontechnical leadership practices more frequently than technical leadership practices. Note that the top drawer of the toolbox contains a substantial number of both technical and nontechnical leadership practices. Likewise, it does not suggest that nontechnical leadership practices are more important to project success than technical leadership practices. Rather, it simply suggests that the set of critical technical leadership actions can be grouped into a more compact set of practices than the set of nontechnical leadership practices. Additionally, because the interview focused on eliciting participant responses to adaptive challenges, this may have resulted in a larger amount of discussion focusing on nontechnical leadership actions. This may have potentially impacted the frequency of participant responses concerning use of technical leadership actions.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
As with any research, the results presented here may have been impacted by factors associated with the sample. A limitation of the current research is that all participating companies were headquartered in the same major Midwestern city. The nondiverse geographic location of research participants could have had an impact on research findings and limits their generalizability beyond the specific geographic location.

In addition, the current research relied on participants’ recollections of past actions. In some cases, participants’ recollections were based on actions taken several years in the past. It is likely that distant past recollections would not be so accurate as recollections of very recent past actions. It can be inferred that the findings of the current research may not be so accurate or so complete as research conducted on recent past events.

Finally, the current research focused only on IT project management. Although research findings may have applicability to other non-IT industry applications of project management, the research findings should not be assumed to be applicable to other industries.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH
The current research has led to the development of a proposed framework for IT project manager development. The research expands current knowledge by presenting a significant new perspective that combines traditional and emerging literature.

The limitations of the research provide some clear avenues for future research. A limitation of the research is that all participating companies were headquartered in the same major Midwestern city. A suggestion for future research is to replicate the current study with participants located in diverse geographic regions. The proposed additional research could indicate whether the geographic limitations of the current research had an impact on research findings.

Another limitation of the current research is that it focused only on IT project management. It is quite possible that the proposed framework of IT project management would be applicable to other industry applications of project management. Additional research on the framework in other industry applications of project management would determine if the applicability of the framework is more widespread.

The proposed framework for IT project manager development was formulated through the application and analysis of qualitative research techniques. The methodological approach was appropriate for the current study as discussed earlier. However, now that a framework has been developed, it may be possible to test the proposed framework effectively utilizing quantitative research techniques. A future quantitative research evaluation of the proposed framework, if successful, would give additional credence to the validity of the framework.

The research conclusions and proposed framework suggested by the current research could possibly have widespread future impacts for the field of project management. Additional future research on the proposed framework will help determine how extensive the impact of the current research will be.

References


Jason B. Kaminsky earned the doctor of management degree from Webster University in St. Louis in 2010. Dr. Kaminsky is currently employed at Nestle Purina as manager of information technology. He can be reached at Jason.kaminsky@purina.nestle.com.
Appendix A: Core Leadership Practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Practice Name</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>Integration Management</td>
<td>Coordinate the various main elements of the project such as project plan development and execution and project change control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SM</td>
<td>Scope Management</td>
<td>Plan, define, verify, and control change of the scope of all required project work to be performed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TM</td>
<td>Time Management</td>
<td>Ensure timely completion of the project through activity definition and estimation, schedule development, and control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM</td>
<td>Cost Management</td>
<td>Ensure that the project is completed within the approved budget through cost estimation, budgeting, and control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QM</td>
<td>Quality Management</td>
<td>Ensure that the project will satisfy the need for which it was undertaken through quality planning, assurance, and control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
<td>Make the most effective use of the people involved with the project through organizational planning, staff acquisition, and team development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMM</td>
<td>Communications Management</td>
<td>Ensure timely and appropriate generation, collection, dissemination, storage, and ultimate disposition of project information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM</td>
<td>Risk Management</td>
<td>Mitigate project risk through identifying, analyzing, and responding to potential project risks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM</td>
<td>Procurement Management</td>
<td>Efficiently acquire goods and services from outside the performing organization through procurement planning, solicitation, and contract administration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GB</td>
<td>Going to the Balcony</td>
<td>The mental act of disengaging from the dance floor, the current swirl of activity, in order to observe and gain perspective on the larger system and yourself; to see patterns of actions and interactions that are not visible from the ground.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IAC</td>
<td>Identify the Adaptive Challenge</td>
<td>Diagnose the central challenge being faced and identify the key stakeholders affected by this challenge. Consider what changes are needed to meet this challenge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCRD</td>
<td>Cook the Conflict and Regulate Distress</td>
<td>Facilitate a productive level of stress, disequilibrium, and conflict which will lead stakeholders on a path to needed change. Regulate the environment to prevent stress from reaching nonproductive levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDA</td>
<td>Maintain Disciplined Attention</td>
<td>Keep attention focused on the central issues or challenges being faced. Ensure that the real significant issues are being faced and not hidden or avoided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GWBP</td>
<td>Give Work Back to the People</td>
<td>Go against the grain of expectations and resist the temptation to take the conflictual elements of the adaptive work off of people’s shoulders and come up with “solutions” yourself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLB</td>
<td>Protect Leadership Below</td>
<td>Encourage and support leadership from frontline people who are closest to specific issues. Do not discount ideas that are roughly communicated or that come from creative deviants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TR</td>
<td>Take Responsibility</td>
<td>Identify and accept responsibility for your contributions to the current situation as you try to move others to a different, better place. Acknowledge your piece of the mess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS</td>
<td>Hold Steady</td>
<td>Remain steadfast and tolerate the heat and pushback of people who resist dealing with the issue. Withhold your own perspective to wait for the right moment to act.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AY</td>
<td>Anchor Yourself</td>
<td>Find ways to steady and stabilize yourself. This can involve finding a place of sanctuary to reflect and recharge, establishing a relationship with a confidant to discuss thoughts and feelings, or distinguishing between personal self and your role.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B: Project Manager Interview Script

Opening Instructions: As you prepare to answer, consider a specific project that you have led at this organization and consider to have been highly successful. This project should be a minimum size of 2,000 project hours and have at least five project team members. Your responses to these questions should pertain to your actions in connection with this project.

1. Please give me a brief overview of the project you are considering.
2. Why do you consider this project to have been successful?
3. What are some of the actions or practices you performed as project leader that you believe were most closely linked to the success of the project?

Instructions for scenario questions: I’m going to read some project scenarios and give you a copy to read along with me. I want you to think about if you’ve encountered a situation similar to the described scenario. This could be from the specific project you just discussed or from another successful project you have led at this organization. If you have encountered a similar situation, describe what actions you took to resolve this situation. Also, assess how effective your actions were in resolving the situation.

1. Some projects have a significant challenge to their success that involves key project stakeholders needing to change their perceptions or their traditional ways of doing things. The need to change may not be readily visible, and the appropriate change may not be easy to identify. For example, this could involve a longtime business practice that is no longer appropriate. Describe a situation you encountered where you faced the challenge of getting stakeholders to realize that change was needed.
2. Often, project leaders steer away from situations that will involve conflict for the project team or stakeholders. However, project leaders can utilize conflict as a positive tool for moving a person or team to a point where they need to take action on a new path. Describe a situation where you intentionally promoted and utilized conflict.
3. Stress is a natural reaction to conflict and high-pressure situations. While stress can be a positive force, too much stress can be a detriment to achieving goals. Describe a situation where you took action to manage unproductive levels of stress for the project team or stakeholders.
4. Projects can generate frustration, stress, and anger for some stakeholders. Often, these situations can result in pressure for the project leader to alter project decisions or directions. This pressure can threaten to derail the direction that the project leader believes is best for the success of the project. Describe a situation where you faced pressure to alter project directions from what you felt was best for the project.
5. Most projects continually have multiple challenges facing them. Various project team members and stakeholders can be focused on different challenges at any point in time. This can result in important project challenges not receiving enough focus and attention. Describe a time when you felt an important project challenge was not receiving enough focus and attention.
6. Projects can often be a constant blur of multiple activities. It can be difficult for the project leader to effectively identify what is going on and determine where he/she needs to focus his/her attention. Describe a time when you faced multiple project activities and needed to determine where to focus your attention.
7. When projects face problems and challenges it is often easiest for the project leader to focus on external causes for the situation. It can be more difficult and potentially risky for the project leader to identify and accept personal responsibility for his/her share of the situation. Describe a situation where you took personal responsibility for a project problem or challenge.
8. There is often pressure on project leaders to take personal responsibility for solving problems and challenges. For complex challenges, the project leader often is not the best person to resolve these challenges as other stakeholders may have more complete insight and experience in the area. Describe a situation where you faced pressure...
to personally provide a solution but felt it would be best for another stakeholder to provide a solution.

9. Project team members who are not in formal leadership roles are often closest to certain issues and have unique understandings in these areas. If their ideas and views differ from prevailing group views, these views can sometimes be discounted or ignored. Describe a time when you took action to support differing ideas from someone who was not in a formal leadership role.

10. The pressures of being a project leader can make it a very stressful and taxing job. To deal with this, it can be helpful for a project leader to reflect, recharge, and refresh. Describe a time when you felt a need to reflect, recharge, and refresh from the pressures and stresses of your project leader role.

Note: Due to interview time constraints, scenario questions 6, 8, and 10 were not asked to 2 of the 12 interview participants. Scenario question 9 was not asked to 3 of the 12 interview participants.
### Appendix C: Project Manager Actions Linked to Project Success

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Action Description</th>
<th>Target Result</th>
<th>PLs who Pre-Utilized</th>
<th>T/NT</th>
<th>Appdx. A Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communicate Abundantly</td>
<td>Communicate regularly and often with project stakeholders. Over-communicate. Hold lots of meetings. Communicate in different ways.</td>
<td>Multiple</td>
<td>B1, B2, B3, B4, K7, K8, N9, N10, N11, N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct Kick-Off Meetings</td>
<td>Conduct kick-off meetings with all stakeholders to communicate project vision.</td>
<td>Getting Stakeholders to Embrace Change</td>
<td>B2, K8</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Document Project Directions and Decisions</td>
<td>Document project directions and decisions so that stakeholders can understand why decisions were made.</td>
<td>Stakeholder Support for Project Directions</td>
<td>B3, K5</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct Training</td>
<td>Conduct training. Educate team members and users about what is needed from them.</td>
<td>Facilitate Learning</td>
<td>B4, K8, N10</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff Project Team</td>
<td>Staff project team with appropriate skills and expertise. Replace lost expertise when people leave the project.</td>
<td>Maintain Project Schedule &amp; Mitigate Project Risks</td>
<td>K6, K7, N11</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilize Project Plan</td>
<td>Utilize project plan to track all issues and monitor status. Plan when tasks need to be completed.</td>
<td>Identify Where to Focus Attention &amp; Maintain Project Schedule</td>
<td>B2, B3, B4, K5, K7, N9, N10, N11, N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegate Ownership</td>
<td>Delegate ownership of distinct project areas to team members.</td>
<td>Identify Where to Focus Attention &amp; Mitigate Project Risks</td>
<td>K6, K8, N10</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct Testing</td>
<td>Conduct thorough testing. Include user acceptance testing.</td>
<td>Mitigate Project Risks</td>
<td>B1, B4, K8</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilize Deliverable Signoff Process</td>
<td>Utilize a formal deliverable signoff process with business stakeholders.</td>
<td>Stakeholder Support for Project Directions</td>
<td>K8</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escalate Concerns to Leadership</td>
<td>Track status of concern issues and escalate these concerns to leadership. Utilize a scorecard tool for leadership team. Utilize project metric reporting to determine what issues are not progressing well. Also warn owners of late deliverables that status of their deliverables will be escalated to leadership.</td>
<td>Stimulate to Action on a New Path &amp; Mitigate Project Risks</td>
<td>B2, B3, B4, K5, K6, K7, N9, N11, N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn From Mistakes</td>
<td>Learn from previous problems or mistakes and make plans to avoid similar issues in the future.</td>
<td>Mitigate Project Risks</td>
<td>B2, B3, B4, N9</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Document Project Specifications</td>
<td>Document project specifications thoroughly and unambiguously so that people unfamiliar with your environment or culture can understand them.</td>
<td>Mitigate Project Risks</td>
<td>K8</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilize Risk Management</td>
<td>Utilize a risk management plan and process.</td>
<td>Mitigate Project Risks</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexible Project Directions</td>
<td>Be flexible to change project directions when warranted by stakeholder concerns.</td>
<td>Stakeholder Support for Project Directions &amp; Mitigate Project Risks</td>
<td>B3, B4, K5, K6, K8, N10, N11, N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the Work</td>
<td>Clearly understand what work is needed to be done. Understand the scope, objectives, purpose, and requirements.</td>
<td>Maintain Project Schedule</td>
<td>B4, N9, N11, N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilize Scope Management and Change Control</td>
<td>Utilize a scope management and change control process.</td>
<td>Mitigate Project Risks</td>
<td>K6, K8</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prioritize Critical Issues</td>
<td>Prioritize critical issues and perform Critical Path analysis.</td>
<td>Identify Where to Focus Attention &amp; Maintain Project Schedule</td>
<td>B1, B2, B3, K5, K7, N11</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilize Project Metrics</td>
<td>Utilize project metric reporting to determine what issues are not progressing on planned schedule.</td>
<td>Identify Where to Focus Attention &amp; Maintain Project Schedule</td>
<td>N10</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take Time Away</td>
<td>Deal with job stress by taking time away from work pressures. Take a day off, go out to lunch, cancel a meeting, go home early, refrain from checking messages, work from home.</td>
<td>Relieve Personal Stress</td>
<td>B1, B2, B3, K5, K6, K7, K8, N9, N10</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Continued)
### Appendix C: (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Action Description</th>
<th>Target Result</th>
<th>PLs who Pre-Defined</th>
<th>T/NT</th>
<th>Appdx. A Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engage in Refreshing Activity</td>
<td>Deal with job stress by engaging in a personally refreshing activity. Spend time with family and friends, go for a walk, go shopping, play golf, read a book, get a massage, enjoy weekend activities.</td>
<td>Relieve Personal Stress</td>
<td>B1, B3, K6, K7, K8, N9, N10</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT AY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on Routine</td>
<td>Deal with job stress by focusing on tasks that are routine and less stressful. Rotate to a low-stress project for a period of time.</td>
<td>Relieve Personal Stress</td>
<td>B2, K6</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT AY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vent</td>
<td>Deal with job stress by venting to a trusted coworker.</td>
<td>Relieve Personal Stress</td>
<td>K5, K6</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT AY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listen to Team Member Concerns</td>
<td>Listen to team members’ concerns and show understanding.</td>
<td>Relieve Team Stress</td>
<td>B1, B2, K5, K6, K7, N11</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offer to Help</td>
<td>Offer to help stakeholders with actions that will make their job easier or support getting tasks completed.</td>
<td>Relieve Team Stress &amp; Maintain Project Schedule</td>
<td>B2, K5, K6, K8, N10, N11</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brighten the Climate</td>
<td>Brighten the work climate by bringing in food, taking team to lunch, injecting fun or team-building activities.</td>
<td>Relieve Team Stress</td>
<td>B1, B4, K8, 2N9, N10</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarify Team Work Priorities</td>
<td>Help team members to understand work priorities. Clarify expectations concerning what work is needed to be done and when.</td>
<td>Relieve Team Stress</td>
<td>B2, B3, N10, N11, N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scare Support for Change</td>
<td>Scare stakeholders into support for change. Create an unsettling image of life without the change.</td>
<td>Getting Stakeholders to Embrace Change</td>
<td>K6</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicate Conflicts</td>
<td>Communicate conflicts with existing plans to get stakeholders to come to realization that alternate plans are needed.</td>
<td>Stimulate to Action on a New Path</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge Previous Decisions</td>
<td>Challenge previously approved decisions and directions that you view as questionable.</td>
<td>Stimulate to Action on a New Path</td>
<td>B3</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create Tension With the Old</td>
<td>Create tension with the old process by promising stakeholders desirable features in the new process.</td>
<td>Stimulate to Action on a New Path</td>
<td>K8</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface Hidden Conflicts</td>
<td>Surface hidden conflict issues in settings where conflict stakeholders and leadership are present.</td>
<td>Stimulate to Action on a New Path</td>
<td>N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilize Humor</td>
<td>Utilize humor.</td>
<td>Relieve Team Stress</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allow for Failure</td>
<td>Allow stakeholders to set unrealistic expectations for themselves, fail to achieve them, and then learn from them.</td>
<td>Facilitate Learning</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognize and Celebrate Success</td>
<td>Recognize team success and celebrate it. Share success stories, have parties.</td>
<td>Relieve Team Stress</td>
<td>B4</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT CCRD</td>
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<tr>
<td>Facilitate Stakeholder Ownership</td>
<td>Transfer responsibility for solving problems and owning decisions to the appropriate business stakeholders. Involve stakeholders in performing project tasks. Get stakeholders to “own” their work.</td>
<td>Getting Stakeholders to Embrace Change &amp; Stakeholder Support for Project Directions</td>
<td>B1, B2, B3, K5, K6, K7, K8, N9, N10, N11, N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT GWBP</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hold Steady to Direction</td>
<td>Hold steady to project directions when faced with pressure to change from stakeholders. Help stakeholders to understand why current direction is needed.</td>
<td>Stakeholder Support for Project Directions &amp; Maintain Project Schedule</td>
<td>B1, K6, K7, K8, N11, N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT HS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyze Current Processes</td>
<td>Learn the organization’s current business processes and identify which ones should be changed.</td>
<td>Identify Where to Focus Attention</td>
<td>B1, K5, K7, N9, N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT IAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask Questions of Stakeholders</td>
<td>Ask questions of team members and all levels of stakeholders.</td>
<td>Identify Where to Focus Attention &amp; Mitigate Project Risks</td>
<td>B3, N9</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT IAC</td>
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<tr>
<td>Task</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Key Notes</td>
<td>MDA/MPLB/SSPD</td>
<td>GSEC/TR</td>
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<tr>
<td>Discuss Status Regularly</td>
<td>Regularly discuss issue status and priorities collaboratively with all stakeholders. Seek out input about how tasks are progressing.</td>
<td>B3, B4, K6, 2N9, N11, N10</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicate About Concerns</td>
<td>Communicate concern issues to stakeholders openly, quickly, and repeatedly. Don't wait to surface concerns. Utilize different communication methods to focus attention on need for concern.</td>
<td>B2, 2B3, B4, K5, K7, K8, N9, N11, N12</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defend Non-Leadership Team Members</td>
<td>Defend ideas and directions of non-leadership team members when challenged.</td>
<td>B1, B2, B3, K5, K6, K8, N9, N10</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take Personal Responsibility</td>
<td>Take personal responsibility for problems or mistakes.</td>
<td>B1, B2, B3, B4, K5, K6, K7, K8, N9, N10, N11, N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Case for Change</td>
<td>Present the need for change to stakeholders' in a convincing way. Explain why change on their part is needed and how it will benefit them. Help them to understand the risks of not changing.</td>
<td>B1, B2, B3, B4, K6, K7, K8, N9, N11</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>NT</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Obtain Leadership Support</td>
<td>Obtain leadership support for change recommendations.</td>
<td>B1, B2, B4, K6, K8, N10, N12</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>NT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand Stakeholder Concerns</td>
<td>Listen to and understand stakeholders needs and concerns with proposed change. Be able to distinguish between valid business concerns and resistance to change.</td>
<td>K5, K7, K8, N10, N11, N12</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continually Sell Change</td>
<td>Continually focus on building support for change. Don’t assume that espoused support will be maintained without continued focus. Utilize repeated communications.</td>
<td>K5, K8, N9</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>NT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicate the End-State</td>
<td>Help stakeholders understand the changed end-state. Develop training material or pilot the new process. Conduct demonstrations of the new environment.</td>
<td>B4, K6, K7, N10</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>NT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn Change Management</td>
<td>Learn and understand the change management process including resistance to change.</td>
<td>B4</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>NT</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Utilize Neutral Mediator</td>
<td>Utilize a neutral mediator to facilitate through resistance to change.</td>
<td>K6</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>NT</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Check Project Directions</td>
<td>Check project directions with upper management in situations of conflict with stakeholders.</td>
<td>B1, B3, K6, K7, K8, N11</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>NT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build Trust Relationships</td>
<td>Build and maintain trust relationships with stakeholders.</td>
<td>B3, K5, K6, N10, N12</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>NT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manage Stakeholder Expectations</td>
<td>Manage expectations of stakeholders. Let them know in advance what to expect.</td>
<td>K6, N10</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>NT</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
INTRODUCTION

ANTHONY C. ANDENORO

This symposium addresses the challenge of educating global leaders through a collection of scholarly perspectives and practices that focus the development of global leadership and intercultural competency, specifically through immersive international contexts. Through this symposium, we addressed the cognitive, behavioral, and affective competencies that aspiring leaders need to be successful in global contexts. It focuses on the importance, issues, and methods of developing global competence as part of leadership education.

Although this symposium is timely, global and intercultural competence is not new. Scholars of 19th-century Europe shaped the original thoughts of global competence. Their focus was internationalization through colonial conquering, and the ultimate goal was to “learn from the West” (Baumgratz, 1995). This globalization piece did not gain much attention on an international scale. In fact, many managers in the 1960s and 1970s did not consider the international piece of business to be of much importance, often with very small specialized operational departments as the sole contributor to globalization within organizations (Morrison, 2000). However, a rapid shift of perspective occurred in the 1980s when the rise of Japanese businesses began to bring to focus the importance of global leadership.

The climate of this theoretical foundation has shifted again recently as leadership educators are faced with preparing students to meet the needs of a dynamic and complicated organizational landscape. Expanding these challenges globally comprises a new level of preparedness for aspiring leaders. Globalization, and the technology that increasingly bridges countries and cultures, requires fresh paradigms and new leadership competencies (Bueno & Tubbs, 2004). Global managers will be expected to master an ever-expanding range of knowledge and skills that will allow them to be successful in international contexts (DiStefano & Maznevski, 2003). Cultural competency development...
and a globalized curriculum are perhaps paramount to this charge as educators embark upon the challenging journey of providing the next generation of global leaders.

The following questions provide educators with opportunities for reflection and discussion as we attempt to develop global competencies in the students we serve.

1. What innovative experiences have the potential to develop intercultural competency in aspiring leaders?
2. What inhibits and facilitates the development of intercultural competency?
3. How can leadership education promote the development of global leaders in the face of ever-expanding organizational and cultural needs?
4. What leadership theories and/or practices best align and foster the development of intercultural competency?
5. What tensions exist in the field of leadership studies and/or the practice of leadership in developing intercultural competency?
6. What current frameworks are promoting the development of intercultural competencies and global leadership with maximum transferability?

References

Anthony C. Andenoro, Ph.D., is an Assistant Professor of Leadership Education and the coordinator of the undergraduate leadership minor at the University of Florida. He earned a Ph.D. in Leadership Studies from Texas A&M University. He is also the current Vice President for the Association of Leadership Educators.
TRANSFORMING THE INTERNATIONAL LEARNING EXPERIENCE FOR STUDENTS: MOVING BEYOND THE PRINCIPLE OF ACCOMPANIMENT

ANTHONY C. ANDENORO AND CAITLIN G. BLETSCHER

Evidence exists that international learning experiences provide undergraduate and graduate students with opportunities to develop intercultural competence and global perspectives. This development is grounded in the idea of accompaniment that is prevalent in study abroad programs and international service experiences at the higher education level. Accompaniment is firmly planted in the idea of mutual relationships and sharing culture. However, it only creates a superficial understanding of the community and fails to address and implement systems of sustainable practice. This theoretical supposition challenges educators to go beyond the foundation of accompaniment and explore innovative practice that can benefit the development of intercultural competence in students and promote sustainability in the international contexts that these academic-based international service programs work with. The authors detail suggestions that educators can use as a framework for transforming international service experiences, their students, and the communities they serve.

Introduction
Research in the field of leadership richly addresses the ever-increasing awareness of societal globalization. Due to this increase of globalization, booming informational technology, international trade and technology, rise in market competition (Goldsmith, Greenberg, Robertson, & Hu-Chan, 2003), and the increase of diversity within domestic business environments (Jokinen, 2005), it has become necessary to critically analyze our previous understandings of leadership. However, many successful business managers do not, for whatever reason, succeed in the global arena (Jokinen, 2005). Hence, leadership on an international scale must differ from the domestic. This creates a challenge that forces leadership educators to leap beyond the conventional wisdom and explore innovative means for preparing the next generation of globally competent leaders.
However, global competency development provides a complicated conundrum for leadership educators. When considering the varying obstacles facing leaders of the past versus the present context, we can conclude “while thinking globally may have been an option for the leaders of the past, it will be a requirement for the leaders of the future” (Goldsmith et al., 2003, p. 15). Throughout the examination of different models, characteristics, and theories of global leadership, it is important to remember its contextual component. Global leadership is different in varying countries because cultural norms, values, and beliefs vary as well (Morrison, 2000). Leadership models differ among countries, and generally these models are effective only when used among people within the same culture. This obviously poses an immediate problem for global leadership research, where cultural knowledge and context is essential. Jokinen (2005) suggested that although the need for global leadership has become quite obvious, the defining characteristics of those leaders have not.

To meet this challenge, many educators have turned to immersive experiences to develop global competence and intercultural perspectives in learners. And more specifically they have attempted to address this development through the idea of accompaniment, where both parties come together for mutual learning, understanding, and collaboration. Accompaniment implies “a commitment to walking with, rather than doing for” (Aaker, 1993, p. 70). Many researchers have concluded varying elements of success when working in acts of service and humanitarian aid with respect to the idea of accompaniment. Some would offer that accompaniment is not only effective, but also necessary. Darr suggested that “half of ‘giving back’ is ‘being there’” (Darr & Songer, 2010, p. 11).

However, when faced with the perspective of traveling to foreign soil and engaging in service work, students are often presented with a myriad of emotional and physical challenges that test their abilities to practice true accompaniment and, further, address and implement sustainable opportunities for the indigenous populations. This article explores that idea providing a framework for enhanced understanding of how to use accompaniment as a vehicle for the development of global competence and the precursor for fully engaging in the sustainable calling that our students and universities are asked to answer in developing countries.

**Theoretical & Conceptual Foundation**

**THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GLOBAL LEADER**

The development of the global leader involves the increase of global competence. Leaders should obtain a global mind-set (Moran & Riesenberger, 1994), where elements of equality, learning, understanding values and assumptions, appropriate motivation, and respect hold a large role. Included within these is the idea that global leadership is contextual, relational, ethical, and emotional. The contextual nature of global competence is critical (Baumgratz, 1995), as its definition is developed from the point of view of the opposing culture. Within immersive contexts, an understanding of the background of the individual, their age, gender, and education is essential to make ethical decisions (Morrison, 2001). Context is essential because it allows the individual to understand how to properly respond to and communicate with the individual (Puffer, 1990). Obtaining knowledge about the context can assist in more effective assessment of the context and the leadership opportunities within it. Jacobs, Harding, Mumford, and Zaccaro (2000) suggested that the most important factor of a global leader is knowledge—knowledge relating to business, the organization itself, its tasks, and the people it is impacting.

Black, Morrison, and Gregersen (1999) provided several global leadership characteristics, which include embracing duality by demonstrating effective knowledge of the other culture. The researchers interviewed over 130 business professionals within more than 50 international corporations, asking them to describe effective global leadership and how to attain it. The result was recognizing that the characteristics of the global leader are contextual, where seeking knowledge and asking questions are consistently needed.

Global leadership has also proved to be quite relational. Global competence is more than simply holding general knowledge of the culture, but is more centered on relational knowledge (Baumgratz, 1995). This type of knowledge involves the individual’s home
environment, their objective knowledge, and personal perception. A unique factor of Goldsmith and colleagues’ (2003) vision of a global leader includes empowering others. For these researchers, global leadership includes shifting that leadership role by guiding others in order to allow them to lead themselves. This creates an open environment where communication and information is shared, there is an overall increase of knowledge and innovative thinking, and an effective team foundation is established.

Morrison (2001) linked ethics with global leadership, where the foundational “bedrock” of global leadership is integrity. With integrity comes goodwill and trust in the individual and/or organization, which is essential for leadership in general. Unlike most leaders, Morrison (2001) suggested that global leaders face ethical dilemmas on a daily basis and in much more depth. Hence, the necessity for specific competencies in order to uphold personal and relational integrity becomes paramount. He maintains that the most difficult aspect is creating a balance between what is universally ethical and one’s personal understanding of what is relatively ethical.

Emotional intelligence has been defined as a core component in global leadership. Atkinson and Meldrum (1998) developed a classification of meta-abilities for the global leader, which include cognitive skills, emotional resilience, and personal drive. These dimensions allow the leader to best determine when and how these skills will be used in a given international immersion experience. Cognitive skills are those allowing the individual to see things from a variety of perspectives; emotional resilience allows the individual to maintain confidence and control while faced with difficult situations; and personal drive allows the individual to embrace determination and create innovative opportunities while taking personal risks.

Black and colleagues (1999) suggested that effective global leaders must emotionally connect with people while maintaining high standards for personal integrity. In their theory, an emotional connection includes creating and sustaining close personal relationships, along with concern for others, will to understand different viewpoints, advanced listening skills, and exchange of not just knowledge but feelings. Emotional connections allow you to understand your audience, uncover contextual clues, and ultimately create future leaders. Within the realm of global interactions, becoming self-aware of who you are and how you respond within these situations is of the utmost importance in leadership (Goldsmith et al., 2003).

THE PRINCIPLE OF ACCOMPANIMENT
Throughout the literature, it is evident that most researchers have shaped their understanding of accompaniment through personal intercultural experiences. Clinton (1991) developed his understanding of accompaniment through his personal experience within low-budget development projects on the outskirts of Lima, Peru. His partnership with the Lutheran World Relief’s Andean Regional Office allowed him to see how their efforts allowed for the funding of specific project proposals, joining the community without a supervising mentality. This support was especially effective instead of simply providing funds “with no strings attached” (Clinton, 1991, p. 63).

Further developing this idea, Kroeker (1996) coined his understanding of accompaniment with participant observation research, where research entitles its participants as individuals with meaning and knowledge. The researcher’s reality, in this case, is based off of the collaborative research of multiple realms of knowledge. His concept of participant observation research was formed through his seven-month experience in Nicaragua, sharing and living the agricultural, village life of the Nicaraguan people. Kroeker recognized the continuous process of accompaniment through his experience: “By living among them, I was able to become recognized as an insider, engage in numerous conversations, verify emerging hypotheses, and determine subtle feelings and meanings” (Kroeker, 1996, p. 125).

His approach of accompaniment took on a qualitative, relational, and observational research perspective contrary to the previously emphasized quantitative paradigm. The researcher gained knowledge through participation and observations in meetings, conversations, and formal/informal documents viewed. From there, Kroeker developed an interpretation of findings, linking information through interviews, literature reviews, experiences in other Nicaraguan villages, and discovering common themes within the community. Kroeker’s approach led to an entirely new field of participatory action research, which paved the way for a new combination of participation, observation, and action (1996).
Through his work with the Mennonite Central Committee (MCC) in Bolivia, Ausland (2005) developed his own understanding of accompaniment. Although there was not much clear direction in humanitarian aid, Ausland found himself multiple times simply conversing with different members of the community. This daily dialogue about transition, life, and family moved him to a new understanding—Ausland’s “title and position were being eroded; [he] was becoming real to them” (2005, p. 5). This was a dual process, where Ausland’s stereotypes and previous visions of poverty were stripped away as he adopted the persona of a neighbor.

As this friendship continued, Ausland began to learn about their culture, food, and how to better adapt, and ultimately was invited into their homes. His words reside true of his dialogue and maintaining relationships among members of the community: “over tea, we built trust and became vulnerable together” (Ausland, 2005, p. 6). Both members, through an exchange of information, became “mutually indebted, . . . operating at eye-level with the community, . . . [making] all the difference in the quality and impact of [their] time together” (Ausland, 2005, p. 6). For Ausland, it is necessary to assess the portrayal of the self in such situations. To be perceived or to perceive oneself as the “hero” will neither be effective nor hold many answers.

Taking the Next Step and Creating Sustainability

IMMERSION THROUGH ACCOMPANIMENT

In 2011, the researchers embarked on a six-month preparation process with a group of 12 undergraduate students who would eventually travel to Zambesi, Zambia, with the intention to deliver leadership, elementary, and computer education along with home-based-care nursing. The students attended weekly course lectures and discussions aimed at the development of global leadership competencies, cursory language (Luvalve/Lunda) skills, and a rudimentary understanding of the Zambian culture. The students were also provided with ample time to design curricula that they would administer while in Zambia.

The students arrived via single-propeller planes in May 2011 and were promptly greeted by the people of Zambia. The people were singing and immediately embraced the students, welcoming them to Zambesi with an excitement for what they would bring to their lives. Over the next month, the students lived in a small building on the property of a church compound. They spent each morning engaging the community in structured activities taught in their contextual specialty areas (e.g., the education majors would teach at the elementary school, the nursing students would administer home-based-care nursing, etc.). Each afternoon, the students would facilitate sports (e.g., soccer, volleyball, basketball) and recreational activities for the children of the community in the dirt fields behind the church.

The morning teaching and the afternoon activities provided the students with an opportunity to share in a cultural exchange and reciprocity of engagement with the people of Zambesi. However, each night the students would provide perspectives to each other through structured reflection activities facilitated by the faculty members that were laced with frustration and emotionally charged with their inability to process through the lack of structure in the immersive context. They would often reflect upon their lack of preparation for “what Zambia truly was.” Many of the students could not understand why the children of the community constantly asked them for material items or why people in the market would ask them for money. They would discuss the frustration of “having to play with the kids” each afternoon considering that they were tired from the morning activities. The students had prepared for the Zambians and their culture, but they had not prepared for the lack of structure that would ultimately result in the adjustment of their curricula. They had prepared for the food that they would eat and the supplies that they would need while there, but they had not developed a perspective of their own privilege, which allowed for their misperceptions and guided their interactions with the people of the community.

This was a critical flaw of the educational experience. Although the faculty members had constructed a well-articulated plan for implementation of the student projects and created structure that would ensure safe travel to and from Zambia, they had undermined the experience by providing unrealistic expectations of the immersive
context and had not developed the necessary self-awareness in the students, which would ultimately allow them to fully share their culture with the people of Zambia and fully engage in the process of accompaniment.

However, the community of Zambezi also did not fully embrace the mutually beneficial relationship of the students. During the time that the researchers spent in Zambia, unobtrusive site visits were conducted and informal qualitative data were collected to examine the impact of the student-led programs on the community of Zambezi. The researchers found that the students had a tremendous impact on the community of Zambezi. The respondents interviewed were incredibly complimentary regarding the work that had been done by the students. They also appreciated the long hours and valued that the group "would bring education to Zambia." However, each one of the respondents mentioned the financial benefit of the students and their university on their community numerous times. During the informal discussions with the respondents, it seemed as though the number of emergent themes grounded in the idea of sustainability were outnumbered significantly by those relating to the financial benefit of the students coming to Zambezi.

Upon returning, the faculty members conducted a reflection-based retreat and again offered students the opportunity to provide perspectives about the impact that they had on the community of Zambezi during the month that they were there. The students almost unanimously noted that they were intimately touched by the experience and that it had a transforming effect on them. However, they also noted that they were unsure of the impact that they had on the community of Zambezi. One student noted that they "went there, had an amazing month, but then left" and that he was unsure of the impact that they had on the people there. Another provided that "it was a life changing experience and [she] will never forget the people of Zambia, but [she] cannot help but wonder if they will remember her."

A FRAMEWORK FOR MOVING BEYOND THE CURRENT MODEL
The example provided is a snapshot of an experience where the preparation was well grounded in the idea of accompaniment and attempted to develop global competence and intercultural perspective in undergraduate students through the most altruistic and intentional of efforts. Nevertheless, although the resulting experience had a powerful impact on the students, the community that those students served was not provided with the depth and opportunities for sustainability that were expected for the immersion experience. This deficit creates an opportunity for learning and the refocusing of the facilitation, and more specifically the preparation stage of the immersive undergraduate experience.

It has become apparent that many challenges face global leaders, which require further research and analysis. Morrison (2000) noted that many individuals already have their own personal views on which leadership model has been effective for them; it causes pressure for further exploration in global leadership in its context. However, it is the authors’ contention that the idea of global competency development must begin with self-awareness. As noted by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004), it is critical for people to develop into emotionally intelligent individuals capable of accurately perceiving their emotions and using integrated, sophisticated approaches to regulate themselves as they proceed toward important goals. This is even more critical when the people are undergraduate students faced with the daunting task of creating opportunities for sustainability in developing countries. Thus, self-awareness is the foundation for all immersive experience training and preparation programs.

In addition, the concept of accompaniment has become an important piece to service. It has stretched cross-culturally among varying organizations, experiences, and locations, and recent literature has allowed the advancement of further understanding of effective utilization of accompaniment. However, accompaniment takes time. As Ausland (2005) noted, the development of mutual indebtedness and the development of trust and the ability to be vulnerable was the result of daily dialogue about transition, life, and family over time. To that end, educators need to be patient with this process and first establish a foundation of accompaniment before developing a future of sustainability. This is critical because although the faculty members guiding these excursions are most likely well intentioned, it would be “unethical” to obtain knowledge from such impoverished individuals in a “detached manner” (Kroeker, 1996, p. 136). Accompaniment forms the foundation for the immersive experience, but the tangible and sustainable impact on the community lies within the
opportunities that present themselves through the mutually beneficial relationships of the future.

Finally, for sustainability to be possible, it is critical that the people within the communities of the developing countries do not view the students and the university that they represent as wealthy donors coming to support the developing communities financially. Although their perceptions are grounded in historical contexts and are difficult to change, the impetus lies in the hands of the faculty members and universities that facilitate these student experiences to change these perspectives and ultimately the culture of sustainability in these developing countries. Dambisa Moyo (2009) wrote that the idea that aid can alleviate systemic poverty is false. Further, that aid has been and continues to be an unmitigated political, economic, and humanitarian disaster for most parts of the developing world.

Immersion opportunities for undergraduate students must be firmly rooted in an accompaniment first, sustainability second, type of perspective. Through increased attention to the development of self-awareness, innovative instructional efforts aimed at cultivating global competencies, and more realistic expectations about the communities that they are serving, undergraduate students will begin to develop a recipe for accompaniment and strengthen their resolve to create sustainable opportunities for those whom they serve through mutually beneficial relationships.

References

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THE INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION
CULTURAL IMMERSION EXPERIENCE:
PREPARING LEADERS FOR A GLOBAL FUTURE

JOHN S. CAPUTO AND HEATHER M. CRANDALL

The dynamics of globalization mean we face a reality wherein leaders are called upon to communicate effectively in cultural situations unfamiliar to them. This situation brings new challenges for communication and leadership educators. Our article describes a cultural immersion experience called The Cagli Project, where communication and leadership students learn effective intercultural communication skills for leadership formation while studying in Italy. The philosophical and experiential aspects of the program are described along with leadership outcomes. The article ends with a discussion of the transferability of this model to alternative programs.

Perhaps nothing has had a more profound effect on human communication and hence leadership in the past half century than the movement of people around the globe and the growing diversity of world society. Globalization is the mantra that seems to be driving much that is new in higher education today. It has its roots in the “global economy” and seems most relevant to the business disciplines, but there is a subtext to globalization that resonates throughout all our institutions, and that is diversity (Caputo, 2011).

Introduction
The connection between leadership, communication, and human experience has been well established. As Hackman and Johnson (2000) write, “One reason for the fascination with this subject [leadership] lies in the very nature of the human experience” (p. 2) and explain that “where society exists, leadership exists” (p. 5). In many ways, leadership and being human are linked.

As communication scholars, we believe that what makes us human is our ability to create and use symbols (Barnlund, 1962; Dance, 1982; Stewart, 2009), and our ability to use symbols is a cultural behavior. That is our language, our nonverbal behaviors, even our communication styles are culturally specific. Questions like how close or far to stand from another person, when to show modesty, when to talk and not talk about something,
how direct or circular in our talk one should be, when to smile and not, and how to show and save “face” are all culturally dependent. So while leadership exists in every society, symbolic leadership behaviors are culturally driven. For this reason, learning to lead interculturally, to become interculturally competent, can be a minefield when trying to master culturally specific knowledge for multicultural environments. It is a minefield we have to walk through, however, and we can do that through leadership education. We have to make a difference educating about leadership in the context of global relationships. As Nathan Harter (2010) asserts in the *Journal of Leadership Studies*, “[we have] problems crossing boundaries and involving people who regard one another as alien. If we have any hope of resolving or ameliorating these large scale problems together by means of leadership, we must at some point deal with our differences . . . together” (p. 68). Therefore, our vocation as communication and leadership educators requires that we figure out how to help leaders communicate effectively in these unfamiliar cultural situations. To this end, we have developed a model of cultural immersion based on John Dewey’s pragmatic educational philosophy of learning by doing.

Pragmatism and experiential learning has a long relationship with the fields of leadership and communication (Cantor, 1995; Dantley, 2005; Heifetz, 1994; Itin, 1999; Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001; Noddings, 2005; “Peter G. Peterson urges pragmatism,” 2011; “The leader as principled pragmatist,” 2008). A pragmatic theory of leadership focuses “on the problem and the need for solution rather than identity and personal meaning” (Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001, p. 282). It is about practical solutions to societal concerns. To this extent then, pragmatism and experientialism allows one to create learning about communication and leadership based upon real-life, *in situ*, problems. In this case, the problem outlined above—how can a leader learn to become more interculturally competent in the 21st century? How can he or she solve the problems inherent in global contexts with effective leadership practices?

**The Cagli Project**

The overarching educational task is to provide a project for students that help them to focus on questioning, critical thinking, and problem solving. Our intercultural leadership cultural immersion experience is titled The Cagli Project. It started as a “backpack journalism” experience to help improve overseas reporting in culturally different settings. The idea was that “the home office” has sent out a team of writers to tell complex stories of people in a distant location both culturally and linguistically, utilizing minimal multimedia resources and a translator. The problem presented to students was to find and tell an interesting story, and learn multimedia skills in teams, all the while working in a foreign language and foreign culture environment. There is a minimal of direct instruction, approximately three hours for each technical skill. The rest of the time students are engaged in “fieldwork” and processing intercultural theory and praxis. In its ninth year, the model has not changed much. We still bring students to a small Italian village in which little English is spoken. After a brief orientation to the community and their living spaces, students must immerse themselves in this town with the goal of finding a person whose story they can craft into a multimedia narrative. Their days begin with a class in Conversational Italian and Culture followed by International and Intercultural Communication. The next two classes are Photography and Profile Writing, then Webpage Design. All the classes are taught from an experiential framework, which is how we are educating leaders to communicate effectively interculturally. Many students begin this project with little or no multimedia skills, Italian language capability, or sustained intercultural experiences to speak of. It is here that they begin to encounter the problems they must solve with the help of our team of faculty and peers. The project begins with much student uncertainty, but does not end in uncertainty. The pattern of student growth is both observable and remarkable.

**HOW EXPERIENTIAL LEADERSHIP EDUCATION IS ACCOMPLISHED**

As Itin (1999) states, “Experiential education is, essentially, a philosophy of education that employs various teaching strategies designed to help students *learn how to learn* from their experiences” (p. 98, italics in original). Experience alone does not necessarily result in learning (Dewey, 1938), and we recognize this. Students transform experiences into knowledge through
the process of reflection, abstract conceptualization, and application (Itin, 1999; Kolb, 1984). Therefore, we intentionally have students reflect on their intercultural encounters through journaling, class discussion, and readings. Abstract conceptualization occurs as students prepare to interview a person (working with interpreters) from another culture, and even earlier as they work through intercultural theories. Application takes place in the finished product of a multimedia presentation made in the community and housed on the Web. Also, the Project clearly emphasizes student roles and responsibility as well as initiative and collaboration for his or her planning. In this way, students play an active role in their learning, which makes it an ideal way to improve leadership skills because in active learning students are at the center of their own knowledge structures.

Experiential learning is the process of learning from one’s experiences—something all of us do every day with varying degrees of success. Leaders are people who are very adept at experiential learning and have the ability to guide their own learning and the learning of others. They carefully observe events, people, or circumstances; make connections, interpretations, and abstractions to understand new information in the event’s context; and incorporate what they have learned into all that they do (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Heifetz, 1994). We believe experiential education is an effective way to prepare such leaders.

Active learning is a building block of experiential learning, and it occurs in a number of ways. We will discuss the two that we find valuable given our goals: The first is role-playing. Role-play simulations are a powerful strategy used by experiential educators because they transform textbook information into challenging, alive, and dynamic educational experiences where knowledge and application go hand in hand. These structured interactive educational settings (with rules, peer/expert review, and debriefing) create a real-world learning environment in which students experience political and social interactions as they might occur in life. Students have the opportunity to negotiate with one another, manage resources (such as time), build consensus, and make decisions (Krains & Lantis, 2006). As Krain and Lantis (2006) state, “[r]ole-playing simulations are found to develop student ability for perspective taking (empathy) and deep and enduring understanding, as well as lead to increased learning of abstract concepts” (as cited in Experiential Leadership Education, 2010).

In the Intercultural Module of the Cagli Project, students are introduced to theories and stages of cultural adaptation. Five groups are formed, and the members of each group are asked to role-play the stages of cultural adaptation using one of the theoretical models. These role-plays are acted out in front of the class. Later, students are asked to write a final paper wherein they reflect on their experience in the project and describe the stages in their personal cultural adaptation journey. Concepts that are often abstract in theoretical writings come to provide meaningful insights when applied to their personal experiences with intercultural living.

The second kind of active learning in experiential education is problem-based or project-based learning. Although project-based and problem-based learning are not identical, they share many characteristics that are purposefully included in the Cagli Project. Drawing on the research literature (Edens, 2000; Roberts, 2008; Strobel & van Barneveld, 2009; Thomas, 2000; Walker & Leary, 2009), both project-based and problem-based learning:

- Are initiated with a real-life focus question, a case study, or a problem that students care about.
- Relate to specific concepts to be learned.
- Involve students in defining the problem or project.
- Involve students in brainstorming, investigating, and building knowledge about a question/problem.
- Emphasize student roles and responsibility, initiative, and collaboration for planning and executing a project, under the guidance or coaching of a teacher and/or input from experts.
- Frequently require the use of technology for research, analysis, and collaboration.
- Culminate in some sort of presentation, event, or tangible product presented to an audience.

In the Cagli Project, we provide a task and a structure that require the student participants to develop strategies for completing their stories. Students are involved in all aspects of solving the problems they face, in collaboration with team members and with guidance...
from their instructors. The culmination of the project takes place in the development of a multimedia Web site, an intercultural blog, a photo essay book, and a closing exhibition on the main piazza to more than 1,000 citizens of Cagli.

In all cases, it is through experience that one learns to be a problem solver and a leader. And leaders working in corporations dealing with the rise of a global reality need more experience in the realm of adaptability and to learn to be “at ease in other cultures” (Margolis, 2010, p. 189, as cited in Miller, 2012), a skill not available through traditional classroom work. The Cagli Project is a deliberate attempt to build successful global intercultural experiences and intercultural competency for leadership situations via proven methods of experiential education.

THE CAGLI PROJECT AND INDIVIDUAL LEADERSHIP OUTCOMES

There is some evidence that students in the Cagli Project are changed in ways associated with effective traits of leadership. The traits perspective of leadership is considered a narrow way of conceptualizing leadership (Northouse, 2010). It consigns leadership qualities to the person and ignores contextual considerations. Yet, many agree that effective leaders share important traits. For example, in Katherine Miller’s (2012) organizational communication text and in Northouse’s (2010) leadership text, leadership traits are listed. They are intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. Another text from business authors asserts that leaders do well to exhibit “confidence, integrity, connection, resilience, and aspiration” (Jackson & Parry, 2008, p. 17). In our view, people can improve in these trait areas so vital to leadership processes through experience and reflection in an educational context. For example, intelligence increases when a person’s perspective widens. Perspective often widens through travel and intercultural experiences that “shake up” what a person believes to be true about the world and meaning. According to Northouse (2010), intelligence concerns “our ability to learn information and apply it to life tasks” (p. 23), and includes oral communication skills, reasoning abilities, and perception. In many cases, leaving one’s cultural comfort zone improves self-confidence and takes determination—one reason study abroad programs are a normal part of higher education. Our students have to take a social risk to connect as they “reach” across cultures and form a relationship in order to succeed in their projects. Confidence, sociability, intelligence, integrity, resilience, aspiration—all are part of our cultural immersion project. A few samples of evidence from students that illustrate how our model of intercultural immersion enhances these individual leadership traits are provided here.

STUDENT REFLECTIONS

One student writes,

After living in Cagli [Italy] for a couple of days, I realized I held a stereotype towards Italians that I was completely unaware of. As a small, tucked away, medieval town, I assumed everyone in Cagli would be Italian. I learned very quickly there were a number of other ethnicities, including Albanians, Russians and Chinese, living in Cagli. By assuming that someone was Italian, I sometimes failed in my ability to understand the person better. There is so much to be lost when we hold preconceptions and stereotypes. I learned that I did not want to miss out on the individuality of the people.

Another student writes,

One’s culture is one of the most defining factors of how one communicates within and outside of their native culture. Culture is part of who a person is, and it affects how that person grows in life. As we meet new people from different places and cultures, we learn that no one is just like us. Placing ourselves in another country, another air, exposes our soul to another part of the universe.

The intercultural immersion I experienced in Italy has brought an abundance of fulfillment to my life. I am ready to travel more and share similar experiences with my family and friends. Through this experience, I learned firsthand why it is so important to become a global citizen for personal and occupational endeavors.

Through student reflections, we can see that our model of cultural immersion reveals student growth and strengthens some vital leadership traits at an individual level.
Conclusion
This program is built on the educational philosophy of Dewey and theories of intercultural communication. The study and use of Dewey is not new, but the application to a rich multimedia, storytelling narrative cultural experience is. This, combined with the notion that leadership emerges from experience, reflection, and learning, positions this model as effective and transferable as we face a global citizenship. It is in a small community so that students can be deeply immersed in the language and customs of the culture. Teaching conversational Italian is one of the ways we linguistically guide students into the culture. Experiential learning structures are provided to guide student reflections and build their intercultural competence. From this experience and these challenges, leadership develops as students learn to overcome everyday problems in a collaborative environment.

Variations of this project are now in place in several countries. In addition, we have influenced several projects with goals quite different from our own, yet they see the value of using our components to shape intercultural learning and leadership. Although the project uses modern communication technologies like computers, video, and digital cameras, this equipment is relatively inexpensive and portable. We divide students into teams and give each a backpack of equipment to use for creating their story, hence the term 
backpack journalism.

But backpack journalism is not the end goal; the end goal is high-level intercultural competence in which students learn from their experience to be effective leaders. Our challenge is to help students become effective global citizens.

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PREPARING GLOBALLY COMPETENT LEADERS THROUGH INNOVATIVE STUDY ABROAD EXPERIENCES

JOHN F. MONTGOMERY AND JILL ARENSDORF

No one could argue with the fact that our world is changing at an exponentially rapid pace. As leadership educators, it is our role to prepare students for change in the global workplace and communities. This article will focus on one university’s experiences taking leadership students abroad and using unique activities/discussions to study and build global leadership competencies.

Introduction

In recent years cultural trends have rapidly increased the impact of globalization, forcing institutions of higher learning to build a generation of well-rounded, globally competent citizens (Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007). Traditional methodologies are no longer suitable to deliver such critical content. Educators must take a new approach to education, adopting models that change the scope of traditional learning environments. The world has become the classroom, and the success of our students hinges on their ability to experience it (Moore, Boyd, Rosser, & Elbert, 2009).

In our effort to align with our university’s mission to create global citizens, we recognize as educators that we must provide an outlet to experience the world. Many students view the world from a fractured lens, a society where borders are viewed as neighboring states rather than culturally diverse countries. Leadership-centered study abroad experiences provide students the opportunity to adjust their lens and focus on how vast the world truly is. In the past two years, a leadership studies program in the Midwest has led innovative leadership-focused study abroad experiences for twenty students through Italy, Greece, Germany, Poland, and the Czech Republic. The opportunity to bridge the gap between leadership course concepts and real-life scenarios increases the potential for students to experience transfer of leadership skills and abilities (Brungardt & Crawford, 1996; Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003; Rost & Barker, 2000).

The life application of various leadership concepts, which deal so closely with diversity and the development of relationships, emerges uncontested. Students and faculty participate in an experience that fosters the development of intercultural competencies that cannot be experienced in a traditional classroom setting. As a result, participants are immersed in a new culture, allowing mental blocks and stereotypes to subside, giving way to a heightened level of openness, discovery, and critical-thinking skills.
This article addresses the innovative framework utilized by a Midwest regional university to foster the aforementioned skills that are essential to developing culturally aware students.

**Theoretical Framework**

Educational programs, including leadership, have a responsibility to educate students to be globally competent citizens (Lorange, 2003). As culturally competent leaders, students will be required to effectively lead in organizations across the globe. Leadership can be taught (Bennis, 1994) and then transferred to any context; however, the context of the global arena is being impacted by multiple factors. These factors include accessibility to information, distance education opportunities, an expanding global economy, and technology’s radical impact on business and trade (Earnest, 2003; Jokinen, 2005; Marquardt & Berger, 2000). In order to prepare students to understand and function in our “smaller” world, educational opportunities such as study abroad can provide an experience in which students can begin to understand the inner complexities of organizational life in the world.

A call for leadership has been prominent in government, health care, corporations, education, and other contexts (Chrislip & Larson, 1994). This call becomes more complex and urgent as critical global leadership skills such as cultural sensitivity, communication, and teamwork are needed to be successful in the diverse workplace and society (Chhokar et al., 2008; Collins, 2001; Earnest, 2003; House, 1998; Salisbury, Umbach, Paulsen, & Pascarella, 2009). Cohen (2010) even goes so far as to state that successful employees must develop a “global mind-set,” which involves seeking

> to create a consistent global standard, but also deepen the understanding of local and cultural differences, crossing cultures and changing contexts . . . while combining an openness to and awareness of diversity across cultures and markets with a willingness and ability to synthesize across this diversity. (p. 5)

Global Leaders in the Workplace

J. W. Marriott, chairman and CEO of Marriott International, Inc., stated, “Our nation’s long term ability to succeed in exporting to the growing global marketplace hinges on the abilities of today’s students” (cited in Casner-Lotto & Barrington, 2006, p. 11). To remain competitive and build industry, employers have to rely on hiring globally prepared graduates. In a 2006 study conducted by Hart Research Associates, employers identified knowledge of human cultures and global issues and their implications on the future as key learning outcomes for college students (Hart Research Associates, 2006). Colleges and universities play a valuable role in preparing students for the competitive, global economy.

The 21st century calls for a new type of leader, one who is globally minded. Having this global mind-set can foster the need for and further development of global leadership competencies in students (Rhinesmith, 1993). The term global leader has been studied, but a lack of empirical evidence does not ensure a universal endorsement of global leadership competencies. In follow-up research, Rhinesmith (1996) suggested that managing complexity, managing adaptability, valuing teamwork and diversity, seeking change as opportunity, and lifelong learning as critical skills toward global competency. Marquardt and Berger (2000) defined new global leadership attributes as being servant-minded, a systems thinker, visionary, possessing a concern for ethics, and an innovative team builder.

In a study of human resource managers from global organizations, Goldsmith, Greenberg, Robertson, and Hu-Chan (2003) revealed that one of the top three attributes for a leader in business is one that uses global considerations for decision-making. Through a review of literature, Jokinen (2005) identified three fundamental global leadership competencies of self-awareness, engagement in personal transformation, and inquisitiveness as the driving forces for full development of global competence. In the comprehensive GLOBE study, Chhokar et al. (2008) found the following dimensions as being critical to global leadership: value based, team oriented, participative, and protecting self.
Semantics illustrate minor differences between recurrent skills identified as being critical to the development of global competency. However, unique differences among cultures and societies, as well as a lack of exhaustive research in multiple global contexts (community, organization, institutions, religious organizations) preclude a comprehensive shared list of global leadership competencies to be fully realized (Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, & Maznevski, 2008).

In a 2006 collaborative effort, the Conference Board, Corporate Voices for Working Families, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills, and the Society for Human Resource Management conducted an in-depth study of corporate employers on the workplace readiness of new employees (Casner-Lotto & Barrington, 2006). Over 400 employers across the United States were studied in an effort to understand what skills employees needed to be successful in the “global economic playing field” (Casner-Lotto & Barrington, 2006, p. 9). Applied skills were defined as those employability skills needed for successful entry-level job performance. Oral communications, teamwork/collaboration, professionalism/work ethic, written communications, and critical thinking/problem-solving were the top five applied skills desired in rank order according to employers surveyed.

Although a list of universally identified global leadership competencies have yet to be identified, the aforementioned global skills arguably fit into the category of leadership skills. Employers have shown that they want to hire employees who have these leadership skills and can apply them to multiple contexts (Casner-Lotto & Barrington, 2006; Hart Research Associates, 2006; Robinson & Garton, 2007; Zinser, 2003). Earnest argues in his 2003 article “that future leaders (in organizations) will need to be prepared to lead under diverse, fast changing environments . . . and be the glue that will tie organizations/communities together” (pp. 47–48). These “global readiness” leadership skills are sought after by businesses, firms, and industries across the world (Bakalis & Joiner, 2004; de Jong, Schnusenberg, & Goel, 2010; Earnest, 2003; Kedia & Daniel, 2003; Jokinen, 2005; Marquardt & Berger, 2000) and can be learned through progressive in and out of classroom leadership experiences. One of those experiences is intense leadership-focused study abroad.

Leadership Education and Study Abroad

Leadership development programs stress the importance of developing the skills and abilities that are needed in the contemporary workplace. Leadership curricula must be progressive and willing to meet the changing needs of the workforce and society, particularly in a global context (Mendenhall et al., 2008). A university setting gives the opportunity to combine theory and practice into a comprehensive leadership curriculum. This curriculum must provide students not only with the aforementioned global leadership competencies important for the workplace but also an opportunity to experience leadership through many diverse lenses (Brungardt & Crawford, 1996; Rost & Barker, 2000; Riggio et al., 2003).

In their 2007 multi-institutional study of leadership programs across the country, Dugan and Komives found that “engaging in conversations across difference was the single-strongest environmental predictor of leadership outcomes” (p. 17). One could argue that study abroad experiences encourage students to participate in these conversations through their immersion in new cultures. Many academic institutions are incorporating study abroad and other innovative learning opportunities into their curricular and cocurricular educational components (Moore et al., 2009). These experiences are creating opportunities for students to experience “differences” in culture, language, and even leadership styles.

During the 2009–10 academic year, 270,604 U.S. students participated in study abroad experiences for academic credit (Open Doors, 2011). The number of students participating increased almost 4.0% from the previous year. Of these students, 22.3% are studying in the social sciences, while 20.8% are pursuing business or management degrees. These study abroad experiences ranged from short-term (eight weeks or less) to long-term (academic year) studies. The overall numbers of students participating in study abroad experiences has trended upwardly for the past 20 years (de Jong et al., 2010; Open Doors, 2011). More opportunities to travel and study abroad are being incorporated in higher education programs across the country. These experiences are giving students the opportunity to not only understand global issues at a deeper level but build confidence and interpersonal and communication skills (Sachau, Brasher, & Fee, 2009; Salisbury et al., 2009).
Leadership education and study abroad are a powerful combination for learning. The study abroad options become a living laboratory for leadership students to delve into a unique, powerful cultural experience and share a deep learning about leadership through immersion and reflection.

**Conceptual Framework**

As leadership educators seek to assist students in developing global leadership competencies, one suggested framework is that of Chin, Gu, and Tubbs (2001). The framework consists of three development levels: cognitive, attitudinal and values, and behavioral. The cognitive level suggests that parties could start at an ignorance stage, not able to relate to people of different cultures. An awareness starts to emerge as learning about the other culture(s) occurs. This awareness consists of investing in opportunities to develop competence about different cultures. Next to develop is an understanding that “people are the way they are and why people do what they do” (Chin et al., 2001, p. 26). This understanding assists students in moving to the attitudinal level of the framework.

Appreciation then occurs, which consists of a tolerance for differences in culture and points of view. Upon completion of this stage, acceptance/internalization transpires during which people are comfortable interacting with others and recognizing commonalities and embracing differences. This final stage leads to the behavioral level of the framework, which includes transformation during which “globalization becomes a way of life” (Chin et al., 2001, p. 27). This framework served as a basic structure for the study abroad trips led by this university.

**Developing Global Leaders**

Each leadership-focused study abroad experience at this institution has been unique. While the faces on the trips have changed, it is the destination and subsequent content that shape the experience and opportunity for students to develop global leadership competencies. The breadth to which students can apply leadership theories and concepts, in a variety of landscapes, allows educators to choose from a wide range of destinations for study abroad experiences. Each destination has a built-in “theme” that accompanies it (i.e., power and influence through the Holocaust, culture, organizational life). It is the theme that dictates the different leadership lessons and connections generated for students.

An academic course is an essential component to making the study abroad experience educational. Without well-crafted course objectives, the trip can easily become a vacation for students. Each student who takes part in study abroad trips must enroll in a three-credit-hour course through Leadership Studies. While certain assignments and requirements remain consistent from trip to trip, it is important to note that the concepts and content are modified to fit the destination and theme of each individual trip. Examples of the core course objectives are listed here:

- **Cognitive:**
  - Network with other college students from various universities across the nation.
  - Immerse students in different cultures through pretrip and on-site activities.
  - Develop an understanding of global competencies and the impact of cultural diversity around the world.

- **Attitudinal:**
  - Build relationships between faculty members and students.
  - Encourage tolerance for cultural differences and points of view among faculty, students, and citizens.

- **Behavioral:**
  - Make connections between leadership theory/concepts and life application.
  - Share experiences with fellow students and faculty in an educational setting.

The study abroad leadership course is split into three phases: Pretrip, On-Site, and Posttrip.

**PRETRIP PHASE: COGNITIVE**

The pretrip phase aims to address the cognitive concerns of the travel group. The predominantly homogeneous groups of students that travel abroad on our trips tend to have a heightened level of ignorance as it pertains to culture, diversity, and travel. The ultimate goal of this phase of the trip is to create an increased level of awareness and preparation for the anticipated experiences (Chin et al., 2001). Students engage in a variety...
of activities, discussions, and research as they develop cognitively for the upcoming trip. Figure 1 illustrates the phases of the study abroad leadership course.

Prior to the start of this phase, during course creation, essential theoretical components and concepts are strategically connected to the various expected trip experiences. Past trips have led instructors to link various aspects of culture, power, influence, and ethics in their relation to the geographical area explored. To link course components to desired learning outcomes, trip-exclusive activities, discussions, and assignments are used to enhance the desired learning outcomes of the pretrip phase.

One unique assignment that students have been asked to complete is an expert-for-a-day assignment. This assignment urges student teams to become “experts” on a certain component of the trip and complete a research writing assignment and informal presentation focused on the specific topic. This research has proven to be a vital part of trip preparation. Students have been able to draw deeper connections to course components while on tour and in turn have been more prepared to lead group discussions. Research is not limited to reviewing relevant literature and historical documents. Viewing documentaries, movies, and other relevant forms of media assist in introducing students to a variety of global perspectives, which is instrumental in developing a new sense of cultural awareness.

Group cohesion building cannot be ignored during this phase of the trip. Building relationships is vital when group discussion is the main focus for the development of leadership competence. Throughout this phase of the trip, while discovering pertinent historical and demographic
information, students are introduced to a variety of activities and discussion formats that help foster significant levels of cohesion development.

The final aspect of the pretrip phase of the study abroad experience involves preparing students for international travel. Students' limited travel experience has led to underdeveloped travel competencies. Students initially fail to understand the differences between travel within the United States and travel outside of the United States. Through in-depth discussion featuring personal travel testimonials and checklists, students begin to recognize potential challenges to international travel.

ON-SITE PHASE: ATTITUDINAL
The level of awareness students reach in the pretrip phase is critical to the level of understanding they will reach during the on-site phase of the trip (Chin et al., 2001). The more students realize they don’t know, the more eager they are to discover while on tour, making the pretrip phase of the tour most important. As students begin to reconstruct their own opinions and ideas, new attitudes and values are formed, hence taking the first steps toward becoming a globally competent citizen.

The amount of cultural immersion the students experience plays a significant role in forming new attitudes and values while on tour. Specific sites, experiences, and interactions must be carefully planned to afford students the greatest opportunity to experience differences in culture. Due to the variance in individual perception, group discussion is an effective tool for students to make distinct connections between the theoretical components of leadership originally linked in the pretrip phase and the application of those leadership concepts in the on-site phase. Cultural sensitivity, teams and interpersonal relationships, power and influence, empathy, and ethics are just a few of the themes that have been generated through group discussion. During these powerful discussions participants take risks, share personal testimony, and directly connect their experience to leadership and life. According to students, requiring them to become experts on specific topics prior to the trip enriched their experience immensely and gave them ownership of learning that occurred while on tour. Journaling also serves as a palette for students to express their reactions and feelings toward specific experiences they have on tour.

POSTTRIP PHASE: BEHAVIORAL
By the end of the on-site experience, the students’ new understanding leads to a newfound appreciation consisting of tolerance for differences in culture and points of view (Chin et al., 2001). Journals and a guided reflection paper serve as outlets to link their recent experiences to a need for change in their behaviors as leaders. These two activities assist students in analyzing and interpreting the personal transformation necessary to move them to become globally competent leaders. In an effort to share experiences with the appropriate stakeholders, students are required to give a presentation covering the transformation they experienced while on tour. Figure 1 further illustrates each phase of the trip and its connection to the aforementioned conceptual framework.

The Impact and the Future
Anecdotal data show that students did learn to understand, empathize, and be open to other cultures and differences, as well as develop a greater appreciation for and competence of international travel. Through discussions on the trip, written journals, final reflection papers, and presentations, it is evident to the instructors that students did learn from their experience. Additional learning came when students had to navigate relationships with their peers and problem-solve as they worked through obstacles and decisions throughout the study abroad experience. Students learned the importance of utilizing leadership styles that fit the situation both through observation of the different cultures and their own interactions—all important global competencies. These findings come from instructor observations and the use of course rubrics to grade journals, final reflection papers, and the expert for a day assignment.

Because of the success of these programs, the department has made the commitment to offer a leadership-focused study abroad experience every other year. Plans are now being made for the third study trip to take place in Ireland in May 2012. A unique collaboration between the Department of Geosciences will provide students a unique leadership and geography research project centering around the elements of culture as they relate to community and society. In doing so, the culmination of cultural immersion, cross-departmental collaboration, and real-life application of
leadership theories will give students the opportunity to take major steps toward their development of global competence. To better understand and interpret student learning outcomes with regard to global leadership competence, a pre- and postassessment using content analysis of reflection papers will be facilitated as part of the Ireland experience and subsequent trips.

Conclusions

“As the world becomes increasingly interdependent, complex, uncertain, and dynamic, the challenge to understand and operate within that world will become ever more difficult. Therefore, global leadership training is essential” (Mendenhall et al., 2009, p. 174). As evidenced by the literature, global leadership competencies will determine much of the potential mobility for students as they branch out into various careers and life experiences. The leadership theory–focused study abroad experience offers students the chance to acquire global leadership competence and, subsequently, transform into global citizens.

By immersing oneself into divergent cultures, one cannot help but emerge more versed in global leadership competence. This development of cognitive knowledge will increase students’ overall sensitivity to the potential cultural implications their organizations will encounter as we become an increasingly global society, resulting in direct application of these skills.

The rapid globalization of the world around us has created a need for world-ready leaders (Marquardt & Berger, 2000). As leadership educators, we must realize that cultural immersion and understanding is essential to the development of our future leaders, more importantly globally competent leaders. It is the responsibility of leadership education programs to prepare students to thrive in what is to come rather than what currently is. A study abroad experience connected to leadership theories and concepts is one way to ensure that students are prepared to a globalized world as leaders.

References


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LEARNING ABOUT HARDINESS AND SERVANT LEADERSHIP BY ACCOMPANYING REFUGEES AT A UNITED NATIONS RESETTLEMENT CAMP

ADRIAN B. POPA

The internationalization of curriculum has contributed to a number of models for study abroad programs, service learning, and global engagement. Some frameworks are intentionally grounded in program theories and objectives shared by multiple stakeholders and the mission of the sponsoring academic institution. This article describes an international program inspired by a partnership between a Jesuit University and the United Nations agency charged with the purpose of safeguarding the rights and well-being of refugees. The international program was grounded in the practice of accompaniment and theoretical frameworks of hardiness and servant leadership. These principles are described in the context of the curriculum, objectives, activities, and outcomes. The article concludes with lessons learned and future direction for design and delivery.

Introduction

Service-learning curricula, models of global engagement, and study abroad programs are methods employed by academic institutions to carry out the mission of educating students as global citizens, becoming citizens who are leaders in serving local, regional, national, and international communities. Additionally, the internationalization of curriculum and study abroad experiences contribute to global engagement, an essential element that equips students in applying scholarship and scaffolding knowledge to global issues. The goal of impacting student formation inspired a partnership between a Jesuit academic institution in the Northwest and a United Nations Emergency Transit Center (ETC) in cocreating curriculum and delivering a study abroad course in Romania. ETC is a transition camp for resettlement created in response to a tripartite agreement between the Government of Romania, International Organization for Migration, and United Nations High Commissioner of Refugees (UNHCR)—the UN agency charged with the sole purpose of safeguarding the rights and well-being of refugees.

The partnership came to fruition as a result of a class project designed by a graduate student working as a resettlement officer for the United Nations refugee agency in Romania. The project, following numerous conversations about institutional mission, student formation, curriculum design, and outcome goals contributed to a sustainable partnership and an international program. This course provided opportunities for students to learn...
about human and organizational dynamics in the context of a complex humanitarian organization, required students to transfer and scaffold knowledge to global issues shifting and changing in response to global conflicts, and physically practice course competencies while interning and accompanying refugees at the transition camp. The overarching theoretical frameworks of the curriculum were grounded in shared principles of psychological hardiness (Maddi, 2004) and servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 2005). This article provides a synthesis of an international study abroad course that explored the role of psychological hardiness in the lives of refugees and the practice of servant leadership in accompanying refugees at a United Nations refugee camp. Class meetings, international experience, weekly blog reflections, and projects were designed to explicitly and implicitly engage principles of psychological hardiness and servant leadership. This article will end with a synthesis of outcomes and lessons learned in offering this course.

Timing of Course
The course took shape during the increasing conflicts in Northern Africa. This past year was marked by a number of anti-government protests in northern Africa, events that mass media have referred to as the “Arab Spring” (Hardy, 2011). The success of protests in Tunisia and the resignation of political leaders gave way to larger organized demonstrations in neighboring countries. The unrest in Tunisia was soon followed by antigovernment protests in Libya that progressively turned violent and resulted in massive outflow of people to nearby countries. United Nations High Commissioner of Refugees (UNHCR, 2011) reported that roughly 320,000 migrant workers from Egypt, Tunisia, Eritrea, and other nationalities fled from Libya during the unrest. Libya is home to more than one million foreign workers employed in various industries of its economy, ranging from oil, construction, agriculture, and other services industries.

UNHCR found that Eritrean refugees were most seriously exposed to human rights abuses from the torture experienced in Libyan prisons after having escaped forced military recruitment in their native Eritrea (Schonbauer, 2011). Given that repatriation was not an option for this group due to revictimization, Eritreans stuck on the Tunisian and Egyptian borders with Libya were flown out of this region for resettlement. The evacuation of Eritrean refugees from the Shousha Transit Camp to the Emergency Transit Center (ETC) in Timisoara, Romania, was orchestrated by the UN refugee agency, the International Organization for Migration (IOM), and the Romanian government. ETC is a temporary camp that meets the needs of vulnerable individuals and provides accommodations to those in need of evacuation pending onward resettlement to a country of permanent residency (UNHCR, 2009).

Why Accompany Refugees
The relevance and importance of a global organization that addresses human displacement is partially contingent upon how nations perceive and recognize displaced peoples. In his comprehensive review of refugee policy and policy mechanisms within and among governments, Helton (2002) identified that movement of people and resettlement of refugees in a receiving country has a deep impact on people and identity of communities within those states, oftentimes aggravated by stereotypes about refugees and the clarity of their role as newcomers. While there are no perfect answers, it is clear that prevention and cooperation are interrelated and require the institutionalization of preventative approaches and effective forms of international cooperation. In this fashion, from time to time we may be able to avoid or minimize the traumas associated with human displacement and refugee flight: among the terrible scourges of our time, and in a very tangible way, the price of indifference (Helton, 2002, p. 17).

The relevance of refugees and displaced peoples represents the core values of the academic institution that commissioned four graduate students to work with the UN refugee camp in safeguarding the rights and well-being of refugees. Jesuit Academic Institutions are committed to academics, ethics, and a faith that does justice and that produces competent leaders of conscience and character (Association of Jesuit Colleges and Universities [AJCU], 2011). To this goal, ethical concern and commitment to justice is of utmost importance, “a commitment that goes beyond service based on charity but to a concern for changing the structures that lead to injustice” (AJCU, 2011). The genesis of the project started with these shared principles in mind, as
well as identifying what the student will represent at the completion of the international program. The curriculum and pedagogy were designed with the end goal in mind and iteratively adapted throughout the delivery in order to most efficaciously contribute to the richness of student experience. Graduate students in this course had an opportunity to intimately learn about global dynamics that led to injustice and learn about strategies to restore justice through collaborative efforts among humanitarian and political stakeholders. Identifying shared values and goals contributed to cohesion and consistency of curriculum and overall efforts to develop an international study abroad experience contributing to academic excellence.

**Leadership and Hardiness Frameworks**

The guiding frameworks for accompanying refugees and working with United Nations Officers were grounded in the works of psychological hardiness (Maddi, 2002) and servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 2005). Ausland (2005) defined the construct of accompaniment as a process of accompanying a community in their endogenous process of development rather than generating plans and launching projects (p. 5). Accompaniment implies the use of dialogue and erosion of titles in order to build trust, vulnerability, and mutual indebtedness rather than a hero structure characterized by unequal power, unclear or diffused commitment (Ausland). This value is also embedded in the asset-based community development (ABCD) framework developed by Kretzmann and McKnight (1993) at the Institute for Policy Research (IPR) at Northwestern University. This framework was developed as an alternative to needs-based approaches exclusively focusing on needs surveys, problems, and identified solutions to meet needs assessments. Hyper fixations on needs perspectives focuses exclusively on the deficiency and severity of a given problem and turns community members to act like “clients” or consumers of services rather than producers and designers of solutions. The premise of ABCD rests “on the principle that recognition of strengths and assets is more likely to inspire positive action for change in a community than is an exclusive focus on needs and problems” (Mathie & Cunningham, 2003, p. 477). Mathie and Cunningham also found that ABCD and other asset-based approaches are increasingly permeating international development agency practices.

Students embraced an asset-based lens when accompanying refugees at the transit center by empowering and mobilizing existing strengths and adaptive coping mechanisms of refugees rather than diminishing refugees to nominal helpless consumers of available services at the resettlement camp. Additionally, students led activities and programs by progressively stepping back and fading in the backdrop of activities that were progressively owned, led, and initiated by refugees. It is within this framework that students practiced servant leadership and explored hardness principles of refugees at a United Nations resettlement camp in Romania.

**SERVANT LEADERSHIP**

Much has been written on servant leadership since Robert Greenleaf (1977) coined the concept over three decades ago. Since then, servant leadership continues to be conceptualized as a paradoxical concept of servant and leader, words usually thought of as being opposite (Spears, 2004), and still maintaining its original definition implying growth, health, freedom, and autonomy of those being served in hopes that they would reciprocate the experience for others. Additionally, the servant leadership definition implies social justice contributing to the betterment of marginalized individuals in society or at least not contributing to ongoing oppression and desolation (Greenleaf).

Spears (2004) distilled many of Greenleaf’s thoughts on servant leadership into concrete characteristics, some of which were developed, practiced, and refined by students at the UN refugee camp: listening, empathy, foresight, and commitment to the growth of people. While accompanying refugees, students had a deep commitment to listening intently to the stories of refugees. Students listened receptively to many personal narratives about oppression displacement, loss, and complex adversity, capturing much depth even to what was left unsaid. The role of intern required genuine and unbiased empathy, accepting and recognizing refugees for whom and what they represented. Empathetic listening without feeling the need to offer solutions or ideas is a characteristic and skill required of UNHCR officers and interns in order to learn about the
authentic and disinhibited stories of refugees. Interns observed, explored, and mobilized already preexisting strengths of refugees through activities, dialogue, classes, and community-building events. In working with refugees towards resettlement, students from the United States challenged and refined their own foresight to develop activities and programs that prepared refugees towards situations likely to be encountered following resettlement. Students had a personal preview of realities in the United States and probable consequences of a refugee arriving in a foreign country unprepared to various realities. Most importantly, as UN interns and servant leaders, students had the opportunity to practice a deep holistic commitment to the transition, support, and growth of refugees, and contribute to the health, wisdom, autonomy, and self-sufficiency of those accompanied.

HARDINESS

Whereas servant leadership represented the framework for student leadership practices at the UN Emergency Transit Center (ETC), hardiness represented the lens through which students viewed and accompanied refugees. The work of hardiness as a theoretical framework is grounded in existentialism (Frankl, 1963; Kierkegaard, 1954; Maddi, 1970) as the ongoing quest for life’s meaning and purpose expressed through a constant decision-making process that underlies everything we do. Hardiness research dates back to the late 1970s, during a tumultuous U.S. financial economy responding to decentralization of various industries. Maddi and Kobasa (1984) studied hardiness as a pathway to resilience in a 12-year longitudinal study at Illinois Bell Technology (IBT) and found that the orientation of hardiness differentiated the adaptive from the maladaptive employee during those adverse times.

Hardiness was progressively conceptualized as a combination of three attitudes (3Cs), commitment, control, and challenge, complimented by hardy action patterns of building social support, hardy problem solving, and effective self-care (Kobasa, 1979; Maddi & Kobasa, 1984). Individuals strong in commitment believe that it is important to stay involved with the events and people around them regardless of the tensions and stressors. The antithesis of commitment would be to isolate, flee, or alienate oneself from the situation or others around them. Individuals strong in control desire to continue their involvement and influence upon the outcomes or situations around them, regardless of difficulty or enormity of the situation. The contrast to a strong sense of control would be to slip into a sense of powerlessness and apathy. Individuals strong in challenge experience challenge as a normal part of life, eagerly seeking opportunities to learn, develop, and mature in wisdom and insight, rather than believing that comfort and security is a birthright (Maddi, 2006, p. 160).

The 3Cs are cognitive and emotional buffers that provide the courage and motivation to engage in the difficult work of transforming stressful circumstances from potential disasters into growth opportunities (Maddi, 2002).

The shared principles between servant leadership and hardiness were only recently explored by McClellan (2007), who found a statistically significant relationship between the two concepts. The survey research design with a sample of 152 participants indicated a significantly higher hardiness score among servant leaders compared to those of other leadership styles. Although the study does not provide a specific rationale for the significantly higher correlation, McClellan suggests that hardiness could prove to be an important quality of servant leadership that has not been adequately explored. This is due to the fact that much of the literature regarding servant leadership implies the ability of coping with difficult tasks (Spears, 2005). McClellan specifically suggests that hardy individuals may represent better servant leaders as they have the strength to successfully cope with adversity. Additionally, the underlying philosophies of both concepts are closely shared with hardiness requiring existential courage to proactively embrace the future with respect for self and others (Maddi, 2004) and servant leadership’s placing importance on leading out of a will to serve (Greenleaf, 1977). Additionally, Greenleaf’s thoughts on servant leaders having a sense for the unknowable and being able to foresee the unforeseeable intersects with the existential foundation of hardiness requiring existential courage to choose the future and opportunities that contribute to greatest growth rather than default to a state of ontological anxiety and further deterioration into ontological guilt from missed opportunities and painful sense of meaninglessness (Maddi, 2004). Finally, both
concepts promote a person-centered or relationship development approach to leadership. McClellan’s study spotlights an important nexus between these two concepts and his findings confirmed the rationale for embedding the basic assumptions of these two theories into this international course.

**Course Learning Objectives**

The international course was delivered across an eight-week session. The first four-class sessions took place on campus and introduced students to (a) theoretical frameworks of hardiness and leadership in the context of refugees, (b) the historical background of United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, (c) why refugees matter, (d) the state of the world’s refugees, (e) current dynamics of displacement, and (f) a final meeting that involved hosting a meal for a refugee family to learn about the process of relocating from Northern Africa to the United States. Finally, students also had the opportunity to hear from guest speakers working with refugees in the local community. The following class sessions took place at the United Nations Emergency Transit Center in Romania where students worked with UN staff, accompanied refugees, and met daily for debriefing sessions with the faculty member leading the course and UNHCR Officer mentoring students at the camp. Through field observations and experiential learning found in camp activities, press briefings, and inter- and intra-agency collaboration, students learned about the intricacies of psychological hardiness in refugees and servant leadership principles applied in accompanying refugees. These activities were delivered within a cognitive apprenticeship framework (Bandura, 1997; Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989), a constructivist approach that creates an opportunity to observe, enact, and practice theoretical principles with help from faculty and the United Nations resettlement officer. Additionally, this framework allows for teaching methods of modeling, coaching, scaffolding, articulation, reflection, and exploration (Collins, Brown, & Newman, 1987).

At the conclusion of the course, students were expected to:

**Pre-UNHCR Internship**

1. Understand the role and function of UNHCR as the refugee agency of the United Nations.

2. Describe the current displacement of refugees in Northern Africa.

3. Understand the role of local, regional, foreign, and geopolitics on displacement and resettlement and political implications.

**During and Post-UNHCR Internship**

4. Identify principles of hardiness and mobilize them in various camp activities.

5. Identify key servant leadership principles in accompanying refugees.

6. Plan, design, and implement projects at the refugee camp that implement hardiness principles.

7. Collaborate effectively with UN staff, international interns, and peer students.

8. Integrate lessons learned in the field to develop local (U.S.) refugee intervention.

**Course Assignments and Results**

Three course assignments were designed to address pre/post course objectives. Students were required to design a blog in order to systematically and creatively reflect upon preparatory work before and during the work with UNHCR, the process of accompanying refugees, cultural experience of living in Romania, personal growth and challenges, and return home after a one-month study abroad experience. The implicit pedagogical goal of this two-month-long assignment and weekly required blog posts was to initiate an opportunity for students to reflect and articulate what they are learning. Blogging reflections contributed to various explicit and implicit indicators meeting course objectives related to a general understanding of foreign policy and geopolitics and the role and function of UNHCR as a refugee agency. These reflections allowed students to look back on each day at the camp to examine their performance in respect to the objectives of the course and work of UN interns. Additionally, blogging required students to articulate not only their experience of the day, but also about formative learning moments of the day. Student blogs represented a class barometer for faculty as well as an indicator of how students are scaffolding knowledge from course content into practice with refugees and UN staff.
A secondary assignment to address course objectives was to implement ethnographic procedures of observation, field notes, and debriefings in order to explore authentic descriptions of the emic perspective—the refugee’s perspective of displacement—before the etic, the outsider’s perspective of this experience. The role of intern as ethnographer contributed to a rich understanding of hardiness principles in coping with the adversity of displacement. Additionally, the students practiced empathic listening, foresight, and commitment in developing activities and programs that contributed to the growth and empowerment of refugees. Ethnographic procedures and daily debriefing sessions also allowed faculty and resettlement officers to model behaviors, offer feedback, and continue to coach students through theoretical, simulation, or pragmatic practices.

The final assignment required students to transfer knowledge and experiences gained at the UN camp into a constructive project for a local refugee agency in the United States. This assignment required students to explore and operationalize their experience at the refugee camp into a deliverable project that contributed to hardiness and resilience of refugees resettled in their own respective U.S. communities. The students partnered with a local nonprofit refugee agency prior to the trip and reconnected with this organization upon return. The overarching goal of this assignment was to practice stewardship (Spears, 2004) in gratitude of opportunities granted in accompanying refugees and to continue observing the humanistic mission of the university. Students developed projects for a local refugee agency that focused on curriculum for using art and storytelling in sharing the experiences of resettlement; and curriculum and life-skills training related to electronic/online information gathering related to language acquisition, housing, jobs, education, computer skills, goods and services, agency fundraising, and communication practices.

Lessons Learned

The design and delivery of this international course contributed to a number of learning opportunities that needed to be recognized in order to inform future course alignment and adaptation of curriculum. The course contributed to three overarching lessons. First, future course objectives and curriculum design will be shared between lead faculty and international partners in order to develop a progressively more efficacious learning opportunity for students and to contribute to shared ownership of curriculum by both stakeholders. Second, future learning opportunities found in local culture, nongovernmental organizations, and academic institutions will be integrated in the curriculum. Third, future U.S. partnerships with refugee agencies will be established and integrated early in the curriculum for mutual participation and ongoing commitment.

Conclusion

Partnering with an international humanitarian organization to deliver a course on leadership and accompaniment contributed to a one of a kind, invaluable experience for students interested in humanitarian work, nonprofit leadership, international relations, and foreign policy. Given the intimate experience often found in naturalistic settings, students learned about the intricacies of hardiness in the lives of refugees who faced great adversity and learned about their own capacity to practice pragmatic principles of servant leadership within a complex organizational system requiring collaboration among multiple stakeholders. Although there are few substitutes for learning in a naturalistic setting, international programs need to formatively evaluate curriculum, pedagogy, and partnerships with local and international stakeholders in order to refine and mutually contribute to both student learning and participating organizations.

References


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DEVELOPING A GLOBAL LEADERSHIP PERSPECTIVE THROUGH THE USE OF STUDENT-CREATED REUSABLE LEARNING OBJECTS

M’RANDA R. SANDLIN, SUMMER F. ODOM, JAMES R. LINDNER, AND KIM E. DOOLEY

Study abroad programs have been identified as one of the most effective methods of globalizing curricula and students. The purpose of this study was to examine the current framework of the Leading Change in Costa Rica Study Abroad Program and its ability to diffuse leadership theory to the participating students and to students who are not able to take part in a study abroad opportunity. This study abroad program used reusable learning objects (RLOs) as an assignment to develop global leadership competencies by applying the learned leadership theory in an international context. Students were impacted by the experience. They gained knowledge of the course content, developed and expanded their cultural competencies, and expanded their views of developing countries. The Leading Change in Costa Rica Study Abroad Program also made an effort to develop the intercultural competencies and global leadership abilities of students who are unable to study abroad. The student-created RLOs have been used in class presentations and made available to interested faculty to use in classrooms across disciplines.

Introduction

Are leadership education programs meeting the needs of preparing students for a global society? According to Irani, Place, and Friedel (2006), many students lack competencies needed to effectively lead others in a global setting. What specific competencies do students need to lead in a global society? Boyd, Moore, Williams, and Elbert (2011) identified nine entry-level competencies needed for global leaders to be successful in global organizations: (a) international experience; (b) global perspectives/worldview; (c) knowledge of global politics and geography; (d) cultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes;
(e) communication; (f) technical knowledge; (g) interpersonal skills; (h) critical thinking; and (i) interpersonal skills. While some competencies needed for global leaders can be learned without an international context, the first five competencies listed require students to have exposure to an international setting.

Study abroad programs and other types of international experiences are a widely used model for gaining intercultural competencies and global leadership competencies. Not all students, however, have the opportunity to obtain international perspectives by leaving their home country. Students’ perceived barriers to participating in international experiences include financial obligations, time involved, program of study, the country, and language (Briers, Shinn, & Nguyen, 2010; Irani et al., 2006). Internationalizing the curricula, in light of these barriers, when many students are not able or not willing to leave the country, is a goal of many educators. The impacts of a study abroad experience organized around leadership content along with the incorporation of a learning tool, a reusable learning object (RLO), developed by participating students, are explored in this article. This learning tool has the potential to impact and benefit students not able to participate in study abroad programs.

BACKGROUND
On the Leading Change in Costa Rica Study Abroad Program, the course content centered on principles of technological change (the role of a leader in the change process, technology transfer, consequences, etc.); the students studied these leadership principles in the cultural and environmental context of Costa Rica. As one of the assignments for the study abroad course, students developed reusable learning objects (RLOs) to capture the international experiences that could be further used by students not going abroad to expose them to international contexts.

Reusable learning objects are not new; they had their start in the computer science field as a means to conduct more accurate and efficient searches, have more uniform management, and efficiently share metadata (Sampson & Karampiperis, 2004). This concept has since taken hold in multiple disciplines as a means to share lessons, experiences, and research. RLOs were defined by the professors as short, self-contained lessons that include learning objectives, lesson content, media (pictures, audio, and/or video), and an assessment tool during the international experience reported in this article. The lesson content section could be in the form of traditional information delivery or a case study. The RLOs were to be in a digital form because they are intended to be easily transferable and easily used by any interested individual.

The purpose of this article was to (a) examine the effectiveness and impact of a study abroad experience to diffuse leadership theory and information to students in a unique context; (b) examine the creation process, use, and impact of reusable learning objects; and (c) determine potential leadership implications for parties interested in emulating this type of program.

Theoretical Framework
Students who participated in this study abroad program were guided through Kolb’s experiential learning model. Kolb’s (1984) model includes four stages: (a) abstract conceptualization, (b) active experimentation, (c) concrete experience, and (d) reflective observation. Purposefully designed study abroad experiences can guide students through this model by allowing them to take a class, observe and participate in the local culture, and then reflect on and apply their experiences in their lives when they return from a study abroad experience.

Jones and Bjelland (2004) expanded Kolb’s model to include a stage before abstract conceptualization, the stage of preflection. Preflection allows for the students to be “aware of the expectations associated with the learning experience” and “able to utilize the process of reflecting upon concrete learning experience in a great degree than will those students who receive no preflection facilitation” (Jones & Bjelland, 2004, p. 963). Students were engaged in an overall program preflection before their departure to bring awareness to the experiences they would have on the study abroad. This was followed by a reflective interview upon their return to the United States to measure the impact of the Leading Change in Costa Rica Study Abroad Program on their course and cultural knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes. Students were also made aware of the RLO creation requirement as part of the course assignments and were, therefore, more engaged on each excursion as they gathered information and media for their RLO content.
Reusable learning objects serve a twofold purpose in this situation: first, as an assessment method for the students participating in the Leading Change in Costa Rica Study Abroad Program. This type of assessment allowed the instructors to measure the students’ understanding and application of the course materials. Second, the RLOs are opportunities for nonparticipating students to gain cultural knowledge, vicarious international experiences, and relevant course information from a peer-created perspective in an international setting.

Goldschmid and Goldschmid (1976) describe the sociopsychological, pedagogical, economic, and political aspect of peer teaching. Within these four aspects, peer teaching is described as a method that not only influences the social decisions of peers but is an inexpensive teaching method that increases the knowledge of both the tutor and tutee. Peer teaching has also been found to cause “an increase in motivation, and an increase in self-confidence and self-esteem” (p. 12) for both the peer teacher and the peer student (Goldschmid & Goldschmid).

**Methodology**

This study was conducted in the phenomenological, qualitative paradigm. According to Merriam (2009), phenomenology is “a focus on the experience itself and how experiencing something is transformed into consciousness” (p. 24); phenomenology is the depiction of “the essence or basic structure of experience” (p. 25). Participants were purposively selected. Purposive sampling is the selection of participants based on an identified criterion (Merriam). Participants of this study were selected based on their participation in the Leading Change in Costa Rica Study Abroad Program. Students were asked to respond to a series of open-ended questions about their knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes on the destination country of Costa Rica. They were also asked to indicate their perceived level of knowledge on the course topic that was to be taught while in the country. The questions were then reworded to elicit reflective responses and were given to the students upon their return to the United States. The students were randomly coded (S1-S20) to provide confidentiality for the students (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993).

The data were analyzed using the constant comparative method, as described by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The researchers discovered emergent themes in the data, unitized and categorized the data, and reported the impacts of the study abroad program in three areas: (a) knowledge of course content; (b) the students’ knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes of Costa Rica; and (c) the students’ perceptions of developing countries. The pre- and postreflective data were compared to determine if there were any changes in the emergent themes.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe the criteria for establishing qualitative rigor through trustworthiness. Trustworthiness is created through the use of transferability, credibility, dependability, and confirmability. Purposive sampling was used to establish transferability (Erlandson et al., 1993); credibility was established through the use of persistent observation, triangulation with multiple investigators (Lincoln & Guba); dependability and confirmability were established through the creation of an audit trail and the use of a reflective journal (Lincoln & Guba).

**Impact on Students**

Engaging in information collection while abroad encouraged students to reflect on their experience, their gained knowledge, and project to the practical applications that the experience could have for their future. Students were asked to prereflect, before departure, and reflect, upon return, on three areas: (a) the course content (the role of a leader in the change process, technology transfer, consequences, etc.); (b) knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes about Costa Rica; and (c) personal perceptions about developing/underdeveloped countries. Changes were identified in each area.

**KNOWLEDGE OF COURSE CONTENT**

When prereflecting on the course content, students expressed that they had more questions than answers. “I would like to know what we can learn from them. Could what works for them work for us?” (S7). “What makes the acceptance of some innovations take off and others fall by the wayside?” (S6). Others expressed curiosity and desire to gain understanding. “I want a better understanding on how to develop [people] and help people work more efficiently and effectively with what they have” (S12). “I am hoping to gain knowledge of the methods they [Costa Ricans] are using to increase their productivity and how those methods of change can be applied to discover new methods in the U.S.” (S20).
In reflecting on the course content, students gained “a new understanding on what technology is considered to various people and how communication is key to diffusion of change” (S16): “I now recognize the importance of the people and how change isn’t just about the innovation” (S8). Others indicated that they learned more than just class content: “I learned about international social systems, innovation, diffusion, and invention. I will apply the knowledge that I learned in this class for the rest of my life” (S7).

KNOWLEDGE, BELIEFS, AND ATTITUDES
Preflection on the knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes of Costa Rica indicated that much of the students’ information came from “travel guides and Web sites” (S2) and what they had been told by the professors, friends, and family.

Student responses indicated a great change in their knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes. A majority of the responses reflected informational gains, such as learning more about the language, culture, religion, education system, conservation, government, and economy (S1, S2, S4–S18, S20). However, some students indicated their gains were life-applicable: “I now have much more sympathy for people in America who cannot speak English . . . it is important to be patient with these people” (S18). “I was blown away by how happy everyone was there; so many had so little but were genuinely happy with their lives. It was a great reality slap” (S14).

DEVELOPING COUNTRY PERCEPTIONS
Initially, students held generally negative perceptions about developing countries. Students indicated that developing countries are “lazy, drug-infested” (S8), “very corrupt” (S7), and have “extreme poverty and poor living conditions” (S11).

After the study abroad experience, students held a much more positive, realistic view of developing countries: “After seeing people that live in these countries, they do things a certain way because it works” (S10). They also responded that “we can learn just as much from them as they can from us” (S14). “They do not need a foreign developer to come in and tell them what to do, but rather a foreign developer to include them in the discussion that is taking place” (S17).

Description of the RLO
As part of the study abroad student assessment approach, students were required to create reusable learning objects (RLOs). The RLOs created by the students were based on content and theory from the leadership-based class that was being taught. The students acquired content for their RLOs while on excursions in Costa Rica and assembled them to present as an end-of-class project. Undergraduate students worked in small groups of three or four people and the graduate students were individually responsible for the creation of one RLO. Some examples of RLO topics that were developed include eco-tourism and its effect on the surrounding communities, cultural practices, and consequences of human/plant/animal interaction and resulting social responsibilities.

Upon return from the Leading Change in Costa Rica Study Abroad Program, the RLOs have been presented by the students to other students at the university to communicate their experiences and spark interest in study abroad programs. The RLOs have also been made available to be used by interested faculty of different disciplines in their classrooms at the home campus to aid in the globalization of the curricula for students who are unable to participate in an international experience.

Discussion and Conclusions
Through participation in an international experience, students developed competencies needed for global leaders (Boyd et al., 2011). Students in this study abroad gained global perspectives/worldview, knowledge of global politics and geography, and cultural competencies through the study abroad experience as evidenced by their reflections of the study abroad. However, while students may perceive the importance of studying abroad, barriers still exist for students to leave their home country (Briers et al., 2010; Irani et al., 2006). Through the use of RLOs students on this study abroad program were able to apply their experience in another country while also creating a mechanism through which other students can develop global competencies. Students not able to leave their home country for an international experience may still be able to gain global perspectives/worldview, knowledge of global politics and geography, and cultural knowledge, skills and attitudes (Boyd et al., 2011) by utilizing
the RLO of a student who did participate in a study abroad.

RLOs were created by students while studying abroad and included content about leadership topics/problems. These RLOs could be used by leadership educators to infuse and integrate international contexts into their courses. RLOs allow for maximum transferability of gained information and competencies due to digital form and ease of use. The use of this assessment tool is a win/win for all involved. Students complete an assignment as part of their course grade while instructors get to use this assignment as content for their future courses. While studying abroad is an ideal method for students to gain global leadership competencies, leadership educators searching for ways to internationalize the content in their leadership courses should examine the use of RLOs and how they might be effective in their own contexts.

Implications and Recommendations

The combination of study abroad programs and reusable learning objects has implications for the development of global leadership competencies in students who participate in a study abroad program and in students who are unable to participate in a study abroad program. The students who participated in the Leading Change in Costa Rica Study Abroad Program were guided through Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning model, in combination with the added prefection category of Jones and Bjelland (2004). The findings of this study indicate that this type of learning experience increases students’ awareness of their experiences and increases their ability to make course content and real-life connections. The findings of this study also suggest that leadership theory taught in an international setting is not only learned, but applied by students to their everyday lives and to their global perspective and understanding. The findings of this study are also aligned with the findings of Goldschmidt and Goldschmidt (1976). As the participating students created contextually and content rich RLOs, they deepened their own understanding of the subject matter while increasing their self-confidence and self-esteem of the peer-learners, as well.

This study was limited to the participants on the Leading Change in Costa Rica Study Abroad Program. It is the recommendation of the researchers that further studies be conducted to understand the impact of the peer-created reusable learning objects on the students who were not able to participate. It is also recommended that similar international experiences be examined to confirm the findings of this individual study.

References


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Mark van Vugt and Anjana Ahuja’s new book, Naturally Selected: The Evolutionary Science of Leadership (2011), is at once both provocative and problematic. That is, like most examples of path-breaking scholarship, it raises more questions than it answers. In their formulation of evolutionary leadership theory (ELT), they believe they have uncovered a theory of leadership that is empirical, simple, and robust. Such a theory is sorely needed in the field of leadership studies where, they argue, anecdotal and particularistic or testimonial theories of the self-help (and perhaps self-promotional) variety are all too common. While such approaches and accounts of leadership may prove inspirational (as indicated by how far up they move on bestseller lists), they do little to ground and advance our understanding of leadership as a rigorous academic discipline. Naturally Selected is meant to address this purported shortcoming. In this review article, I will attempt to assess the extent to which the authors succeed in their mission.

In seven compact and generally well-constructed chapters, van Vugt and Ahuja lay out the contours of ELT, from our prehuman primate origins more than two million years ago through the end of the first decade of the present century. Along the way, numerous examples of leadership and followership are provided, drawn from both Weberian ideal types and individuals known or constructed from historical and anthropological records.

In Chapter 1 (“The Nature of Leadership”), we read that ELT is an “intellectual stopper” in that it asks the “why” question about leadership, as opposed to limiting itself to “how” questions that characterize most treatments of the subject. The authors are concerned not merely with why leadership is necessary (it is), but why it evolved in Homo sapiens and other species in the first place. This point represents a crucial assumption and hypothesis of ELT: namely, that leadership is, to borrow from Charles Darwin (1859), an adaptive behavior that has been selected for by nature because it confers demonstrable reproductive benefits to individuals and the species to which they belong. Van Vugt and Ahuja are certainly right to focus our attention on “why” questions, even if we disagree with their answers. Without plausible and convincing answers to “why” questions, our “how” questions and answers are without foundation and can, if we are not careful, sink to the level of preference and opinion, a shifting and formless morass where rigorous theory cannot be built.

Van Vugt and Ahuja contend that human evolution unfolded overwhelmingly on the savannah and that the leadership and followership traits found in the human species evolved in response to conditions and demands in that specific environment. These psychological traits and their genetic basis, we are told, have evolved little, if at all, over the past 13,000 years or so since the agricultural revolution that so drastically altered how human beings live and how, for the purposes of Naturally Selected, they lead and follow to this very day. In other words, much of recorded history down to the present represents a colossal mismatch between why and how we evolved as leaders and followers on the savannah and...
the leadership and followership challenges and realities we face in the modern world. Lest we despair, the authors believe insights from ELT can put us back on a course that is true to our received human nature without requiring us to return to conditions, real and imagined, that prevailed on the savannah.

The following passage succinctly captures the authors' theoretical approach:

In order to survive on the savannah, our ancestors needed to stick together. This survival strategy—group living—has been drummed into our skulls through evolution. We theorise that leadership and followership evolved to help our ancestors solve problems of social coordination that group living presented, such as foraging for enough food to eat and finding somewhere safe to sleep. And from this simple premise, much becomes explicable. All the leader types we are familiar with—the showy ones, the shady ones, the greedy ones, the magnanimous ones—have a walk-on part in the script of evolutionary leadership theory. (p. 21)

As far as theory building goes, this approach has the virtue of parsimony, its basic premise being that nature selected those individuals and groups who displayed the cognitive capacity to cooperate and seek safety in numbers. The authors also make a convincing case for the explanatory power of ELT. However, the very explanatory power of ELT at times seems to point to a central weakness the theory. As we discover in the ensuing pages, virtually every type of leader and follower can be explained by ELT. This should come as no surprise since leadership and followership traits are part of our ingrained human nature. As such, manifestations of these traits, even when they produce unintended consequences or are mismatches in particular environmental and social contexts, can and must be traced back to our genetic makeup and the evolutionary path our species has followed. So, for example, Chapter 1 ends with a useful overview of ten leading theories of leadership (i.e., Great Man theory, trait theory, psychoanalytic theory, charismatic leadership theory, behavioral theory, situational theory, contingency theory, transactional versus transformational leadership, distributed leadership, and servant leadership), arguing that ELT does a better job of explaining why these leadership types emerged than do the theories themselves.

In short, while “much becomes explicable” in ELT, very little becomes predictable. If nearly every outcome can be accounted for \textit{ex post facto} by ELT, its explanatory power is largely unassailable. However, its ability to explain variation (that is, its ability to predict) is relatively weak and, it should be noted, this feature of the theory receives scant attention in the book. This predictive weakness is common in theories that explain social behaviors by recourse to human nature. Think, for example, of the highly influential international relations theorist, Kenneth Waltz (1959), whose theories of war and interstate conflict rest ultimately on a pessimistic view of our inherently conflictual, self-interested, and competitive human nature. Like van Vugt and Ahuja, Waltz achieves parsimony and explanatory power at the expense of predictive accuracy. This, in turn, makes his prescriptions less credible, a problem that also besets the authors of \textit{Naturally Selected}.

This is not to claim that these limitations of ELT cannot be overcome, and it bears repeating that the authors are exploring territory that leadership studies have generally not focused on. It would be unfair to expect them to overcome all such limitations in this preliminary presentation of ELT. Still, the authors’ theoretical arguments could be strengthened through greater conceptual clarity. So, for example, is leadership conceptualized as a dependent, independent, or intervening variable? Different conceptualizations can be justified depending on the research model. It is important for the reader to know how leadership is viewed, especially in a theory that purports to be scientific. Another area, I believe, where ELT could be greatly strengthened is through potential support from the field of anthropology, especially recent work on the emergence and functions of leadership in different human groupings and societies. The authors are not unaware of this rich source of scholarship, but they do not make adequate use of it in \textit{Naturally Selected}. One hopes that further work on ELT will draw more on the many contributions being made by anthropologists, such as those detailed in the comprehensive overview by Johnson and Earle (2000).

In Chapter 2 (“It’s All Just a Game”), van Vugt and Ahuja offer a persuasive case for the emergence of leadership in the animal kingdom in those “situations where coordination is a good idea” for the species (p. 46). They
also give a brief overview of Darwin’s theory of natural selection and how it has defined our understanding of biological evolution. This overview will be useful to students and others who may be less than familiar with Darwin’s theory. As already noted, Darwinian insights are at the core of van Vugt and Ahuja’s approach, and they observe that “evolutionary theory is no longer treated as a hypothetical possibility but as an explanation of a law of nature” (pp. 51–52). The link to leadership and followership is made, in logical fashion, via evolutionary psychology:

And so it is the overwhelming belief of psychologists that the hulking biomass we call the human brain—together with the mind it houses—has been through the mill of natural selection, just as our bodies have (p. 52).

Much of Chapter 2 is concerned with game theory, a subset of rational choice theory that is widely used in the social sciences, especially in economics and political science, and which views human beings as atomized utility maximizers who use rationality to devise strategies to satisfy their personal preferences and desires. Such a conclusion is somewhat puzzling, though not in itself improbable, in that the authors are at pains to emphasize humans’ social and cooperative nature. Rational choice theory can be seen to justify cooperation as an artificial (and by some accounts, necessary) social construct that is made to further individual self-interest. If true, it is not unreasonable to challenge the claim that there exists a leadership trait or set of traits selected for by nature over the course of evolution. Put another way, is it not just as likely or more so that human reason and our related ability to learn are better explanations of our tendency to cooperate and defect? Indeed, while cooperation can and does occur in numerous ways, our reluctance and refusal to cooperate are also impressive and frequent, and seem to constitute part of our basic human nature.

Chapter 3 (“Born to Follow”) is in many ways the most coherent chapter in the book. Followership, the authors state, could be called “the default setting of the human psyche” (p. 65). Followership, which is far less studied than leadership, can be more convincingly accounted for by ELT, and van Vugt and Ahuja do justice to this contention. Unfortunately, from this reviewer’s perspective, is how they end the chapter. After reviewing other theories of followership, most noticeably Barbara Kellerman’s (2008) fivefold taxonomy of followership commitment, they propose their own taxonomy. In a chapter of 29 pages, little more than a page is devoted to their five categories. The reader is left wanting to know much more about their categories and how they fit into the overall theoretical framework of ELT. This is clearly an important area upon which the authors can expand in subsequent treatments of ELT.

A variation on the rational choice approach introduced in Chapter 2 is continued in Chapter 4 (“Status-Seeking on the Savannah: The Democratic Ape”). Van Vugt and Ahuja posit that the genus Homo, by the time humans came down from the trees, had distinguished themselves, in evolutionary terms, from their more despotic primate cousins. Homo sapiens, in particular, since their emergence some 200,000 years ago, had a far more democratic disposition, and human groups were highly egalitarian until the subsequent discovery of agriculture 13,000 years ago. There are fascinating discussions of potlatches, competitive altruism, reciprocal altruism, inequity aversion, dominance hierarchies, and coalition building (among chimpanzees and humans). All of these behaviors and practices, as discussed, can be traced to individuals’ self-serving tendencies and urges. Although much is made of coalition building in human politics and societies, never do the authors acknowledge the obvious point that coalitions are inherently unstable because of the competing and opposing interests they seek to unite. If coalitions equal cooperation, it is a cooperation of convenience and one that is temporary and opportunistic by definition.

In Chapter 5 (“The Birth of Corruption”), van Vugt and Ahuja attempt to explain the numerous cases of despotism, misrule, and corruption that are familiar to any student of history and, regrettably, to the untold millions who presently live under such conditions. Their explanation and that of ELT is “that our primal tendency to dominate and exploit others, shared with chimpanzees and gorillas, was unleashed by the agricultural revolution 13,000 years ago” (p. 124). In other words, if we are to accept their argument, the human
discovery and subsequent development of agriculture, a social construct, unleashed a set of consequences, both intended and unintended, that triggered in human beings dormant despotic tendencies that trumped our inherent egalitarian and democratic dispositions. Agriculture led to larger populations, increased wealth, social stratification, division of labor, population increase, more sedentary societies, warfare on a larger and more destructive scale, the accumulation and centralization of power, despotism, and corruption. Moreover, we learn, there is “a substantial positive correlation between despotism and reproductive success” (p. 129). One potentially troubling interpretation of this correlation, assuming it is correct, is that in evolutionary terms nature selects for despotic traits in leaders by rewarding them with offspring.

While there are well-known examples of corruption and despotism today, the authors argue that a more recent revolution, the Industrial Revolution that began about 250 years ago, takes us to “the final period that shaped the leadership landscape” (p. 132). This teleological argument is reminiscent of Francis Fukuyama’s (1992) end-of-history thesis that the conclusion of the Cold War signals the final triumph of liberal democracy and capitalism over communism and other ideologies as a way to organize and order human societies on the basis of individual freedom. Van Vugt and Ahuja contend that the Industrial Revolution has unleashed its own set of consequences, from an extreme division of labor based on merit as opposed to familial and personal ties to greater opportunities for defection by citizens and workers who view their leaders as illegitimate and/or corrupt. The liberty produced by the Industrial Revolution has “shifted the power away from leaders, striking a blow for democracy” (p. 133). Put otherwise, the Industrial Revolution has allowed our more authentic human nature to reassert itself after some 13,000 years of enslavement, serfdom, and other undemocratic social arrangements that resulted from the corrupt and despotic rule unleashed by the agricultural revolution.

This teleological and linear argument, which also shares much in common with Karl Marx’s theory of historical stages on the path to eventual communism, can be debated on several levels (Cohen, 1978). In the context of ELT, however, it appears somewhat self-serving from the perspective of those of us in the West who have most benefited from the Industrial Revolution and the social transformations it has given rise to, to claim that nature has selected for this particular configuration. This, of course, is not to say it is inconceivable. However, there are other contending explanations. One that is alluded to by van Vugt and Ahuja earlier in the book, even if it is not the “intellectual stopper” that ELT purports to be, deserves further consideration. One of the most remarkable features about human beings is our ability to learn—and to learn a lot. As the authors note, as a biological adaptation, “it pays to learn” (p. 71). The evolutionary payoffs of our ability to learn are especially great “for species such as our own, which inhabits a world that is changing and unpredictable, surrounded by such varied terrain as forests, tundra and savannah” (p. 71). Viewed this way, has human beings’ unmatched ability to learn made the identification and development of leadership and followership traits less dependent on natural selection than is the case with other species in the animal kingdom? That is, can we accept, as seems altogether reasonable, that the human brain grew in size and complexity because of the biological advantages it conferred without having to accept that the evolutionary mechanism of natural selection must be invoked to explain all subsequent psychological traits and tendencies that human beings have developed with this brain? I think the answer is yes (at least at this early phase in the development of ELT) and that the human capacity to learn, adapt, and remember (and forget, either genuinely or selectively) does a more compelling job than ELT of explaining the myriad and contradictory outcomes we repeatedly find in studies of leadership and followership. As suggested earlier, further insights and findings from anthropology could provide much theoretical clarity and direction in interpreting and assessing the important claims van Vugt and Ahuja make in their defense of ELT.

The last two chapters of Naturally Selected (Chapter 6, “The Mismatch Hypothesis,” and Chapter 7, “From Savannah to Boardroom: Lessons in Natural Leadership”) assume the reader accepts the basic contention that human beings are, by their nature, more rather than less egalitarian and democratic. As noted previously, the mismatch hypothesis holds that leadership and followership
traits were acquired over many tens of thousands of years on the savannah in response to specific environmental conditions that, with very few exceptions, no longer prevail. Under those earlier conditions, we preferred leaders who were tall, strong, male, members of our in-group, and charismatic. Prevailing conditions in the contemporary world, and even for much of the period since the agricultural revolution, are very different from those on the savannah and require, if our goal is effective and “authentic” leadership, different traits and abilities in leaders.

And yet, van Vugt and Ahuja argue, human beings seem to cling to the savannah traits (which they refer to as the savannah hypothesis) when seeking and evaluating leaders. They cite various studies and experiments to support the savannah hypothesis. However, they do not convincingly demonstrate that this is due to natural selection rather than social conditioning and learning.

The final chapter is prescriptive and consists of 10 recommendations that flow from ELT. For the most part, they take the form of recapturing the more salient and salutary features of leadership and followership on the savannah. However, van Vugt and Ahuja are anything but atavistic, and argue that lessons from this remote period in human evolution can and need to be applied to contemporary social realities. They focus in particular, as the chapter title indicates, on the workplace and boardroom. In essence, their position is that ELT now provides us with the intellectual framework to overcome the leadership mismatches that have led us astray for the last 13,000 years and to move ever closer to a final phase of natural and authentic leadership that is meritocratic, egalitarian, and democratic. As formulated and presented in Naturally Selected, van Vugt and Ahuja’s evolutionary leadership theory does not yet provide that intellectual framework. However, their analysis and interpretations are highly innovative, skillfully argued, and they raise a host of new and important questions that go a long way in making the study of leadership and followership worthy of the title discipline in the best sense of the word.

References

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