

# LEADER DEVELOPMENT

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**Key Words**— a changing world, new competencies, future leaders, future warfare, overtraining, military commitment, obedience, shared vision, shared values, military leadership, Leader Substitute Theory, management, personality, intelligence, empowerment, psychological contract, morality, ethics, courage, multicultural leadership, cultural intelligence, demographics, peacekeeping challenges, culture of trust, communication, information mapping, independent reasoning, reality in the military.

**Abstract**— The purpose of this review is to examine the research literature on leadership development and identifying the expectations and challenges facing leadership, specifically in a military context. It begins by looking at the fast changing world and its implications for future warfare. During the past decade, many of the “modern” cold war military structures literally became redundant overnight. The shift in power dynamics means a complex, uncertain and risky foreseeable future. Thus, the demands placed on leadership functions, such as command, control and coordination, will be enormous. In moving on to the concepts of Leader Substitute Theory, the shift away from leadership in the context of influence, group and goal is discussed. This is followed by an examination of the “multiple intelligences” a leader should possess, as well as the “substitutes” for leadership. Thus, while the leader may be less visible, effective outcomes are the result of the application of a variety of alternatives by subordinates as directed or orchestrated by the leader. The section on Independent Reasoning reviews the ability to, in a mindful way, evaluate information and make an argument for or against a course of action. Independent reasoning is examined as a logical thinking process consisting of four factors that determines the degree of independent reasoning skills at leader and subordinate levels. Finally this document addresses the pressing issue of Demographics and Sub-group Differences and how, according to data available from Statistics Canada, the increased rate of immigration from countries other than Europe, has a major impact on every aspect of Canadian society. Institutions with a high premium on homogenous values and norms, such as the Canadian Forces, will have to accommodate this diversity without necessarily compromising existing standards.

**Prepared For:**  
**Canadian Forces Leadership Institute**  
*March 31, 2003*

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## OVERVIEW

Lieutenant Colonel Sir William Butler once said, “*The nation that will insist upon drawing a broad line of demarcation between the fighting man and the thinking man will find its fighting done by fools and its thinking done by cowards*”. (Gal, 1987, p55) Sir William Butler’s thoughts still apply today – especially given the fast pace of change in the world that affects all aspects of modern society, politics and the strategic and technological realities of the future battlefield.

In the next decade, supervisors, managers, directors, administrators and executives (including the military) will have to be both excellent leaders as well as excellent managers. They will be faced with the challenges of new developments, new technology, faster turnaround times, and more intense competition than ever before. All organizations, whether in the public or private sector, will have to be more responsive to change in order to survive. In some cases, stimulating change to operate at higher levels of effectiveness and efficiency is necessary. The competition for a diminishing pool of resources will necessitate changes in all levels of organizations and across all sectors of society.

The quick pace of change makes it essential that leaders provide followers with more responsibility and autonomy. Followers today not only welcome this change, but they demand change – they want to be challenged, they want leaders who have a vision for the future and who can help them to develop the necessary skills to make that vision a reality.

Traditional management / leadership training programs have been successful in teaching leaders how to plan, direct and control activities of others. These programs provided a broad base for the development of basic management skills. Some of the current programs have helped leaders become more effective by demonstrating concern for followers and by sharing decision-making with them. However, attending a few leadership sessions or even doing courses does not create true leadership competencies – this is the result of a long-range development process. Leadership development must begin during the formative years of youth, becoming a life-long process that never ends.

## AIM AND SCOPE

The aim of this broad review of the current literature and research is to enhance the existing body of knowledge on leadership, with specific reference to:

- a. A Fast Changing World and Future Warfare
- b. Leader Substitute Theory
- c. Independent Reasoning
- d. Demographics & Sub-group Differences

## A FAST CHANGING WORLD AND FUTURE WARFARE

According to Cascio (2001), current and emerging trends in the world i.e. globalization, the information revolution, a shrinking workforce and the “creative destruction” of jobs are reshaping the world of work. Time has become the most precious commodity and the speed at which change occurs, is overwhelming. According to Cascio’s findings, on-line traffic doubles every 100 days. Business has evolved into commerce without borders – a 24-hours-a-day, seven days a week, ship anywhere, entity.

Conger & Benjamin (1999, p.239) predicted that leaders of the 21<sup>st</sup> century would need different competencies than those required today. According to their research, the differences can be categorized along two complementary dimensions: strategic capabilities and organizational capabilities. For example, the external world is likely to continue to be intensely competitive and will demand that future leaders possess a keen strategic sense and relentless desire to be nonstop learners. Simultaneously, major changes are taking place in the demographics of the workplace, which will pose internal and external challenges to future leaders. These challenges will either reshape or accentuate the need for specific leadership skills in the future. Table 1 summarizes the skills future leaders will need.

Table 1: New Competencies for Future Leaders

<b>Strategic Capabilities</b>	<b>Organizational Capabilities</b>
Strategic opportunists	Sensitive to issues of diversity
Globally adept	Interpersonally competent
Capable of leading across organizational boundaries with alliance partners	Skillful communicators and motivators
Keen data analysts	Community builders
Learning evangelists	Capable of building well-aligned organizational architectures
	Developers of leaders

Conger & Benjamin (1999, p.242 & p.250)

O'Tool and Bennis (in Derr, Roussillon, Bournois, 2002, p.227) writes that "giant corporations around the world are attempting to emulate small companies – experimenting with entrapreneuring, gain sharing, team approaches, spin-offs, product-line focusing, specializing, downsizing, dis-integrating, sub-contracting, and decentralizing – in effect, emulating what small companies do naturally." Academics and practitioners alike have documented the pervasiveness of several trends, which, taken together, some have termed a "new paradigm of business." Derr et al (2002), attempted to identify some of the terms that describe this new paradigm i.e. hybrid organizations, cluster organizations, network organizations, horizontal corporations, virtual corporations, strategic alliances and continuous downsizing. The terms mentioned converge around a number of commonalities:

- First, company size is decreasing, while the size of units within the company is also declining.
- Second, companies are becoming more decentralized. Headquarters are smaller and divisions enjoy greater autonomy.
- A third commonality is that companies are adopting more flexible structures – boundaries both within and between firms are more permeable as firms place more reliance on structures such as cross-functional teams and strategic alliances.
- Fourth, firms are turning more to shared values to facilitate cohesion and coordination than to the more traditional hierarchical governance.

Derr et al (2002, p.229) found several outcomes based on the above trends:

- Firms can outsource more efficiently while still controlling quality.

- Information technology replaced the work done by middle managers in many cases.
- Firms collaborate more effectively with alliance partners.
- Due to greater monitoring and measurement capability, firms are able to grant greater authority and autonomy to operating units.
- The most fundamental and overarching result of all is that the shift in management costs is breaking down the traditional dichotomy between markets and hierarchies as the fundamental alternatives for governing economic activity. Hierarchies are infused with more market-like mechanisms, such as pricing and audits.

The rapid changes in the world of work force leaders to rethink and reconfigure the organization in order to not only profit from change, but more importantly, to survive as a company. According to Drucker (1996, p.13), change technological development drives most change. Technology is central to change in that:

- It forces people to learn new ways of making things or communicating with one another;
- It makes it possible, and forces all organizations, to keep up with rapid modifications in products and services;
- Improved communication expands awareness of and responses to local change factors to the broader external environment almost instantaneously. What happens in one geographical area is potentially visible across the globe.

The impact of technology on change has three important implications for leadership, as identified by Drucker, (1996, p.271):

- First, the leader of the future must be more flexible, drawing upon a variety of broad work experiences. In the previous century, an individual could rise to the top in an organization with the experience of just a single functional discipline to. The global economy requires extensive cross-disciplinary experience, from a systems perspective, to respond adequately to the complexities of the emerging new world order.
- Second, effective future leaders will take their “ceremonial” or “spiritual” responsibilities as the organization’s head seriously, as a necessary and crucial function, rather than the “ivory tower seclusion” of the previous century. Subordinates will no longer be acceptable as the delegated persons to speak on behalf of a leader. Leaders, who fail to recognize or handle effectively the “visibility” or “accessibility” issues pertaining to culture, limit the openness of the culture and restrict their ability to lead through knowledge and personal influence.
- Third, attending to global business issues have become so complex that decision-making cannot be effectively centered at the top. The trend toward increasingly empowered organizations addresses the need to move decision-making to lower levels. It simultaneously creates the opportunities to develop future leaders and creates an experience base to draw on in times of crisis.

Change is not limited to business and the societies in which they operate. The impact of civilian change has a profound effect on the role and application of the military entity. Terms such as: “complex”, “uncertain”, and “risky” can best describe the demands and challenges the modern military is already facing. Throughout history, the very basic ingredient of wars and battles has not changed. Keegan (in Gal, 1987, p.54) writes: “What battles have in common is human: the behavior of men struggling to reconcile their instincts for self-preservation, their sense of honor and the achievement of some aim over which other men are ready to kill them.” But the nature of war did change in recent years. The wars in Afghanistan, Rwanda, Vietnam, Lebanon, Somalia

and even Algeria were significantly different from World Wars I and II and the early Arab-Israeli wars. Moskos (in Gal, 1987) states it was significantly different because they suffered from lack of public consensus regarding their goals, lack of civil support for the political and military decisions, and consequently, undermined the strength of belief shared by commanders and soldiers. The same principles apply in the current war with Iraq. The role of technology is paramount in generating support as well as opposition to the operations taking place. Indeed, the immediacy of the battlefield experience are vividly displayed in living rooms across the world, bringing about a surreal virtual reality that is even affecting the popularity of reality TV shows, if the popular printed media opinions are to be believed.

The contrasts are massive. Troops in the two World Wars did not question the legitimacy of war and rarely disobeyed their commander's orders. The first signs of change became visible during the Vietnam War, reflected in numerous anti-war demonstrations at home and hundreds of premeditated attempts by soldiers to assault their officers or NCOs at the battlefield. Peacekeeping operations across the globe alienated soldiers and society, allies and friends, because of the nature of the political decisions determining the scope of these operations in Somalia, Burundi/Rwanda, the former Yugoslavia and the Middle East. According to Gal (1987), our world and our reasons for war are becoming increasingly "unclear and less defined." The massive paradigm shift initiated with the demise of former Soviet Union, the dismantling of the Iron Curtain and regional conflicts resulting from this instability changed the characteristics of the future battlefield. Whether conventional or non-conventional, future wars will depend more on information technology, will be more intense, and their impact more lethal as weapon systems become more potent and target-specific. Thus, as the nature of conflict changes, a greater emphasis will be placed on individual performance and small-group operations. The disbandment of units, sub-units, and individuals that will result from massive attacks, along with communication disruptions and rapid fluctuations in the battle situation, will put a heavier weight on individual combatants rather than units; on small elements rather than large formations; and on junior leaders rather than generals (Gal, 1987). The demand on leadership functions, such as command and control, will be enormous. Junior leaders and individual soldiers will experience greater demands for full commitment and unceasing fidelity. In future wars, military leadership will be judged not by commanders' battlefield behavior and decisions, but by how they have prepared and trained their troops to function effectively with reduced leadership direction.

Leadership requirements in the armies of 2000 and beyond, stem from four developments:

- The combatants' need for stronger moral conviction regarding their impending missions;
- The involvement of armies in peacetime, "constabulary"-type missions;
- The fluid characteristics of the future battlefield;
- The greater emphasis on security and terrorism around the world

The transformation from large fighting armies to smaller, rapid deployable forces requires a critical shift in military thinking. Janowitz (in Gal, 1987) postulates that the mission of military forces in recent years created the "insoluble" problem of maintaining combat effectiveness, in a non-traditional role of the minimum use of military force in peacekeeping, but when peacekeeping fails, these forces are expected to immediately revert to the traditional role of engaging in and winning a war. In addition, such a role reversal could imply either conventional or non-conventional warfare.

To understand the expectations of future leadership, only the most obvious changes taking place in the world of work and military deployment have been highlighted. The emerging new world order and rapid technological change pose major challenges for leadership. Adaptation to these demands require more than simply identifying the requisite leadership competencies. Now, more than ever before, effective leaders require extensive formal leader- and leadership development programs. Research on leader development identified multiple areas for leader training. Three of these, viz., Leadership Substitutes Theory, Independent Reasoning and Sub-group Differences, are important contributions to attempt to deal with the challenges facing military leaders.

## LEADER SUBSTITUTE THEORY

### Leadership Theory and Research

Over many decades, researchers on leadership emphasized three main elements in their definitions: influence, group and goal. Briefly summarized:

- First, leaders are perceived as individuals who influence the behavior of others, often referred to as subordinates. Lack of influence would negatively affect production and motivation to work.
- Second, leaders are examined in relation to a group – usually, in the context of a work group or in organizations. The role of the leader is to direct the group so that the group works in a coordinated unit.
- Thirdly, leadership research tends to place considerable emphasis on a group goal that has to be accomplished. The goal is achieved when production quotas are reached or exceeded.

Thus, in the past leadership has typically been defined in terms of the process of social influence whereby a leader steers members of a group towards the achievement of a preset goal (Bryman, 1992). Table 2 highlights the major trends over time.

Table 2: Trends in leadership theory and research

Period	Approach	Core Theme
Up to the late 1940s	Trait approach	Leadership ability is innate
Late 1940s to late 1960s	Style approach	Leadership effectiveness comes from how the leader behaves
Late 1960s to early 1980s	Contingency approach	Effective leadership is affected by the situation
Since early 1980s	Various New Leadership approaches	Leaders need a vision

Bryman (1992, p.1)

New leadership approaches include research in areas such as charismatic, transformational, transactional, visionary, and primal leadership (Bryman, 1992, Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, Bass, 1998, and Nanus, 1992). More recent approaches focus on multiple intelligences and leadership and substitutes for leadership (Riggio *et al.*, 2002 & Bass, 1998).

## Substitutes for leadership

According to Bass, (1998), any substitutes for leadership can be categorized into three groups: replacements, neutralizers and enhancers. Howell, Dorfman, & Kerr (in Bass 1998, p.151) define the three categories as follows:

- **Replacements.** If an outcome such as the effective performance of a group is predicted by the members' ratings of the quality of leadership of the group and if that prediction can be increased in accuracy by partially or fully replacing the measurement of leadership with another measurement such as *training* of the members, then *training* becomes a *replacement* for the ratings of leadership.
- **Neutralizers.** If the prediction of the outcome can be increased in accuracy by partially or fully subtracting another measurement such as the *rate of absenteeism* of members, then the *rate of absenteeism* is a *neutralizer* of the ratings of the leadership.
- **Enhancers.** If the prediction of the outcome can be increased in accuracy by partially or fully adding another measurement such as the members' *years of relevant experience*, then *years of relevant experience* becomes an *enhancer* of the ratings of leadership.

The literature suggests that replacements, neutralizers and enhancers manifest on three levels: *subordinate characteristics*, *task characteristics* and *organizational characteristics*. Howell, Dorfman and Kerr (in Bass, 1998) suggested numerous *subordinate characteristics* (such as competence), *task characteristics* (such as unambiguity), and *organizational characteristics* (such as inflexibility), as possible substitutes, neutralizers, or enhancers that would moderate the effects of leadership. Supportive anecdotal and survey evidence originate from a variety of organizational settings: Navy pilots, universities, banks, computerized networks and police departments. However, when Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie and Williams (see Bass, 1998) searched for evidence in a large sample of non-professionals, they failed to moderate the impact of leadership on the outcomes. Despite the findings of the Podsakoff's team, Howell, Bowen, Dorfman, Kerr, and Podsakof suggest that the evidence of effective alternatives to the necessity of leadership to achieve effective outcomes, may still be established.

## Overtraining / Competence

The concept overtraining is derived from overlearning, which is a well-known concept in psychology and education. Overlearning is the repetitive training of that which the person already knows how to do, until it is totally "ingrained" or second nature. This is a well-established military training concept. Soldiers are conditioned to react like automatons in preparation for combat. The advantages are obvious: the tasks are easy to master, the number of goals is limited, errors are kept to the minimum, and the soldier acts almost without thinking. The disadvantage is the lack of flexibility and the dependence on orders from superiors before taking action outside of the learned response.

For the "old" military, overtraining served its purpose well. Due to changes in technology and its application in the modern military in reaction to a crisis, however, overtraining must be supplemented by competence so that individual subordinates can substitute for the direction provided by the leader. The higher the competency of subordinates, the easier it is to substitute for the need for strong leadership. This is especially the case where junior military personnel are technical experts functioning in modern high technological environments. Competence therefore refers to the universal expectation and proven record of accomplishment that leads to the assumption that a particular person will get the job done. Accordingly, competence is closely



linked to overtraining, in that training beyond the point of mere mastery brings a prediction of success in task execution.

To illustrate these two concepts from the experience in aviation psychology and flight safety in military flying of one of the authors (Gouws): military pilots possess the ability to execute complex manual skills, using finely honed cognitive skills and ingrained technical knowledge, when guiding an aircraft through a rapidly changing three-dimensional environment while exposed to massive gravitational force impairing performance and function. This high degree of competence is achieved by overlearned, extensive theoretical and practical applications to understand and respond to the flight environment, the manual dexterity and mastery developed through many hours training in the air and simulators, personal discipline, extensive experience of a variety of flight crisis situations, a focused and critical awareness of flight conditions, and perpetual practice for performance improvement. Just as a combat pilot can react without thinking in crises, overtraining and competence of followers substitute for the direction to be provided by the leader's direction.

Competence does not necessarily refer to the subordinate's technical abilities only. According to Kouzes & Posner (1987), expertise in leadership skills themselves is another dimension of competence. It entails the abilities to challenge, inspire, enable, model, and encourage team members. It seems that the higher the competency of followers, the easier it is to substitute for the need for strong leadership. Again, this is especially true in areas where military personnel are experts such as in high technological environments.

Bass (1998) reports findings of extensive adult education substituting for direction and supportive leadership in a publishing house, a bank, and a Midwestern university. High-ability, experienced workers appeared to require little direct supervision at Cummins Engine, General Motors, or Procter & Gamble (as reported by Howell, Bowen et al, & Howell & Dorfman in Bass, 1998, p.156). The adult learning theory suggests that novelty plays an important role in developing deeper, more complex conceptual skills. Principles and concepts illustrated through diverse experiences and across diverse contexts allow learners to form a deeper, more tacit understanding of complex relations. Novelty is an especially effective tool to the extent that learners are conscious of the novelty and recognize it as relevant and meaningful to the learning process and what they are trying to accomplish. The adult learning theory postulates that conceptual development requires drawing creative connections among various events. Strategic thinking capabilities in the military for example, require that officers be able to link seemingly unrelated, but actually similar events with one another in a variety of situations (Conger & Benjamin, 1999, p.254). If Bass' research findings are generalized to the adult learning theory, one could postulate that diverse experiences of soldiers across diverse military contexts could influence the direction and effectiveness of leadership. Thus, directed learning can act as enhancer or replacement for the transformational leader.

### **Commitment and Obedience**

Gal (1987) argued that older models of leadership (path-goal or situational leadership), did not address the need for soldier and officer commitment to the extent that the newer model of transformational leadership could meet it. Commitment, according to Gal, is a central concept in military motivation in contrast to the earlier emphasis on compliance through obedience. Hackett (in Bass, 1998) argues that the will to fight may still be lacking without commitment. Commitment to the point of death creates the "unlimited liability clause" of the members of the military. Gal (in Bass, 1998, p.20) explains commitment and obedience in the military as follows:

*“Commitment is the backbone of the military profession. For most military professionals, belonging to the armed forces is not merely a question of a place to work, a job, or an occupation. It is the way of life and frequently a lifetime commitment...”*

*Commitment can be a powerful motivation, more so than a paycheck, especially when military activities involve high risk, extreme demands, and severe stress. Obedience and compliance with orders and commands becomes the key to organizational functioning. Obedience and commitment can be considered as the two modes of military compliance...*

*Obedience is initiated by fear and punishment during the early phases of socialization into military life (highly transactional; coupled with increasing substitutions of rewards of recognition, badges, promotion, etc.). It is enhanced threat and sanction and instilled through endless drills and orders. Obedience is gradually replaced by internalized patterns of behavior that become autonomous...Even when the legitimacy of an organizational goal is questionable, if behavior is motivated by obedience, well-indoctrinated soldiers will continue to comply even though orders are debatable. Military obedience succeeds in shielding soldiers from conflicts emerging from concerns about the legitimacy of missions. Thus, fear and external power predominantly generate military discipline and its obedient behavior... obedience is essential for good performance, efficiency, and mission completion as well; without it, the whole military structure would collapse.”*

According to Bass (1998), commitment within the military has three facets: organization, career, and moral. Organizational commitment is to the organization's goals, purposes and norms. Career commitment is to one's own success, and moral commitment is to the basic moral codes one believes in. For the military professional to be in harmony with the organization, these three components have to be aligned with each other. Military commitment and obedience of subordinates can substitute for the direction the leader provides. In fact, a valid argument is that, the higher the military commitment and obedience of subordinates, the easier it will be to enhance or replace leadership.

### **Shared Vision, Values and Norms**

At the heart of the current thinking on leadership is a rediscovery of the need to define, shape, and use the commonly held core values of the organization. A shared vision must be commonly understood and be worthy of the commitment of everyone in the organization. The vision cannot be “handed down” from the top. Instead, it must emerge as part of each individual's personal vision of the future. According to Heil, Parker & Tate (1995, p.64), this does not mean that each person's view has to be identical for a shared vision to exist; only that everyone's personal vision must be similar to and consistent with the personal vision of others in the organization. People can be asked to commit, but cannot be made to commit – they must choose to do so. It must always be remembered that the leader-follower relationship is a voluntary relationship. Fairholm (1994) writes that the key to leadership is in an organizational context in which leader and follower share values and vision. Heil, Parker & Tate (1995, pp.66-69) elaborated further on this by offering the following characteristics of a shared vision:

- **A Shared Vision is Cumulative of Personal Visions.** In order to share a vision, each individual must have an own personal vision. Rarely, however, in the building of a shared vision are people encouraged to develop and discuss their personal visions. Instead, employees are asked to buy into top management's version of the vision. While there may

be compliance, commitment is absent. By encouraging people to develop and discuss their personal visions, a shared vision is created that ultimately fosters commitment.

- **Effective Visions are a Function of Information and Dialogue.** Access to information, and sufficient opportunity to discuss significance, is the foundation of building an effective shared vision. For this reason, many people find it difficult to buy into a vision. Most employees simply do not have the data they need to do so. Even if they have access to information, many do not have sufficient training to understand its implications. Some employees tend to be biased, because they feel the information is filtered through the lens of their department, division, or functional area.
- **Effective Visions describe a Unique Organization.** It is hard to commit to a cause that does not accommodate the need of employees to be part of something special. Being *one* of the best is not an exciting enough challenge for most people; they want to be the very best. They want to be proud of their organization and make a meaningful difference by their contribution.
- **Creating a Shared Vision is an Ongoing Process.** On an intellectual level, most employees understand that the development of a vision is just the beginning of the process. However, it is common practice to see top management go on a two-day retreat, create a vision statement, distribute it through the company, and then think that the process is over. When visions are created in this way, there is rarely any systematic measure of their effectiveness, no mechanism for challenging them or getting clarification on their meaning, and little structured dialogue about them.
- **Participation is Essential.** Although participation in the creation of a company's vision is encouraged, not everyone can participate. However, if people cannot challenge, or in some way effect the future direction of the company, broad-based commitment to a shared vision will be harder to achieve.
- **Ensure that the Structure is Consistent with the type of Organization being created.** Past practices have resulted in the type of organizations found in the world today. If a shared vision of a future different organization is to be created, leaders must ensure that present practices are in keeping with the new organization envisioned. Sometimes, employees are so used to organizational practices that they are no longer aware of their existence or the implicit messages many of these practices send.
- **Measure Progress and put the Issue on the Agenda for Periodic Review.** If progress is not tracked and evaluated on a regular basis, and if managers do not hold each other accountable for making this happen, creating a corporate vision will remain on the back-burner. The saying "You cannot manage what you do not measure" applies here. Without systematic feedback about progress, systematic learning with resultant consistent improvement is impossible.
- **Obsession.** Leaders and their teams have to be passionately involved in the effort to create a shared vision. Obsession is a contagious tool to transition from a dream to reality.

## **Military Ethics**

Ethical behavior derives from a system (known as a code of conduct) of universally accepted moral duties and obligations, which indicate how one should behave. It implies having the ability

to distinguish good from evil, right from wrong, fair from unfair, and propriety from impropriety. An ethical issue arises when the actions of an individual, group of individuals or organization may harm or benefit one to the detriment of another.

Ethical leadership in the coming years will be a function of adapting to the new characteristics of organizations and matching those with the values of the leaders and their followers. This task will involve leaders and followers working together at the values level. The task for leaders is to ensure that the values that form the foundation of organizational business practice keeps pace with change. The Global Village challenge to military leadership is to construct a new code of ethics, founded on the past, responsive to the future, but sensitive to societal morals and ethics that differ by age, culture, education, ethnicity, gender, geographic location, religion, tradition, etc.

Ethics in military leadership is not just concerned with the immediate issues, but it has a sense of destiny that drives a strong sense of responsibility, which is inherent of the rank and office they hold. After all, the resources they expend in war are human lives, both those of their subordinates and the opposition.

Ethical behavior by military leaders can substitute for the direction that leadership provides to their subordinates. At its core lies the belief in *doing the right thing*, apart from just *doing things right*. Ethics serve to provide the framework to the soldier within which to perform all operational tasks, with or without the presence of the leader, free of fear of punishment. After all, entrenched ethical principles that guide behavior, serve to distinguish military operations from war crimes.

Bass (1998), argue that shared organization norms (and values) can substitute for leadership. Followers are committed to pursue certain paths because of their desire to conform to the organizational norms rather than because of leadership. Bass speculates that more substitution for leadership could take place if the military is professionalized with ideals of exemplary performance, patriotism, duty, and service to the country and to the profession itself. His view is supported by Sergiovanni (1990) & Sergiovanni (1991), who suggested that leadership can be replaced or enhanced by the professionalization of followers.

The ideals of the profession can provide the moral authority for action without the intervention of leadership. For instance, the military serving on peacekeeping missions abroad, has to act autonomously on a frequent basis because of physical distance from the headquarters, poor communications, or because of urgency in the situation. In cases like these, shared values, a common vision and shared norms by the commander and troops might mean the difference between life and death, or between success and failure.

## **Empowerment**

In theory, empowerment is about the redistribution of authority and accountability in the organization. Often it takes the form of granting greater decision-making power to front-line employees to enable them to improve the way work is done or to improve the process. In most implementations, however, companies attempting to empower employees still retain their traditional organizational structure, where power emanates from the top (Heil, Parker & Tate, 1995, p.224). This approach easily results in confusion: the front-line has supposedly been empowered, yet the old system dictates that power be held at higher levels and that managers be held accountable for the front-line's actions. For the front-liner, this semi-delegation of authority can be little more than an organizational frustration since true power remains with the manager and all that is actually redistributed is some of the manager's responsibility. Most often, empowered workers are not given the background and training necessary to successfully carry

out their new newly assigned responsibilities. According to Heil, Parker & Tate (1995), most instances of empowerment is an attempt to bring about new results while still working from an old set of assumptions. Empowering leadership means providing autonomy to one's followers. As much as possible, followers are allowed and encouraged to enable, direct, and control themselves in carrying out their responsibilities in alignment of their goals with the goals of their leader and the larger organization. Bass, (1998, p.139) provides the following example of empowerment in the military:

*“When General W.L. Creech assumed command of the U.S. Air Force Tactical Air Command (TAC), he began with intellectual simulation. He started by simply allowing himself to think a different way. Creech saw the policies of centralization and consolidation were dehumanizing and focused on TAC’s end-of-the-line product: TAC aircraft and the people responsible for them. He restructured the organization by moving authority and responsibility downward to meet clear and simple goals, to instill pride, enthusiasm, a sense of ownership, and psychological investment in their product by those responsible. Individualized consideration was emphasized in treating people’s needs and working conditions at all levels as important. Smaller squadron multifunctional repair teams replaced larger wings. Squadrons were assigned responsibility for specific aircraft. Squadron colors and crew chiefs’ names were painted on the aircraft along with the pilots’ names. Excellence became an obsession. Dramatic improvements occurred in sortie rates and aircraft mission capability. In providing a professional environment, personnel developed pride of ownership and took more responsibility through their motivation to do so. Management control became less managing-by-exception and more a matter of transformationally inspired and empowered worker motivation.”*

Shriberg et al (2002, p.122) offer the following methods on how leaders can empower their followers by:

- Rewarding and encouraging followers in visible ways, such as certificates, memberships, etc.
- Creating a positive work environment because confident and comfortable workers are willing to take on more challenges.
- Showing confidence in their subordinates’ abilities.
- Promoting initiative and increasing responsibility with appropriate rewards.
- Starting small and taking on larger changes one step at a time.
- Praising initiative, even when results fall short.

But empowerment is not for every organization. Organizations have a life cycle: small beginnings, growth, maturity, and decline. If the organization survives a renewal, the next stages are restructuring, dismantling the bureaucracy, employee involvement, continuous improvement, and cultural change. At each stage, leadership requirements may differ. But, sometimes there is a dark side to empowerment. Empowerment has negative consequences when the followers’ goals are out of alignment with the organizations goals. Empowerment may also be negative when followers’ goals oppose the organizations goals. Empowerment of followers may provide them with the opportunity to sabotage the organization. Empowerment may also generate inflexible norms that are detrimental to the organization’s and the individuals’ creativity (Bass, 1998). Visible encouragement / rewards in the military such as badges, certificates and symbols promote identification with a unit and / or with a special mission. All of these may substitute to some degree for the transformational identification with charismatic-inspired leadership. They are likely to serve as enhancers of the leaders efforts to inspire the unit about its mission.

Chris Argyris (in Heil, Parker & Tate, 1995, pp.237-238) summarized the empowerment “mismatch” as:

*“Companies that hope to reap rewards of a committed, empowered workforce have to learn to stop kidding themselves. External commitment, positive thinking at any price, employees protected from the consequences and even the knowledge of cause and effect – this mindset may produce superficial honesty and single-loop learning, but never yield the kind of learning that might actually help a company change. The reason is quite simply that, for companies to change, employees must take an active role not only in describing the faults of others, but also in drawing out the truth about their own behavior and motivation. In my experience, moreover, employees dig deeper and harder into the truth when the task of scrutinizing the organization includes taking a good look at their own roles, responsibilities, and potential contributions to corrective action”.*

### **Self-Awareness & Personality**

According to Robbins (1996), not many people know themselves. Robbins uses the following story to prove his point:

*“A famous cartoonist once attended a cocktail party with some friends. Someone asked him to draw a caricature of everyone present, which he proceeded to do with a few skilled strokes of his pencil. When the sketches were passed around for the guests to identify, everyone recognized the other persons, but hardly anyone recognized the caricature of himself” (Robbins, 1996, p.89).*

Many employees are like the people at the cocktail party – they simply do not know themselves. But their self-awareness can be expanded, and when this happens, they have a better understanding of their strengths and weaknesses, how they are perceived by others, and they gained insight into why others respond to them in the way they do. A major component in gaining self-understanding comes from ratings of personality characteristics. Personality refers to an individual’s unique constellation of consistent behavioral traits (Weiten, 1994, p.315). Personality traits are durable dispositions to behave in a particular way in a variety of situations. Adjectives such as “honest, dependable, moody, impulsive, anxious, domineering, friendly”, etc., describe dispositions that represent personality traits. One could argue that followers who have a high degree of self-knowledge, who are empowered and have accountability, should be able to set high goals for themselves which in turn will lead to higher performance. This assumption matches the goal-setting theory of motivation.

This theory, described in Weiten (1994), Robbins (1996), McCown et al (1996), postulates that when an individual sets specific and high goals for himself / herself, the end result will be higher performance. The goal-setting theory presupposes that an individual is committed to the goal, that is, determined not to lower or abandon the goal. This is most likely to occur when goals are made public, when an individual has an internal locus of control, and when the goals are self-set rather than assigned.

The concept “self-efficacy” quantifies how and when goals are set. Self-efficacy is the individual’s belief that he or she is capable of performing a task. The higher their self-efficacy, the more confidence persons exhibit in their ability to succeed in a task (Robbins, 1996). Bass (1998) speculates that ideologically committed followers, working within organizational cultures with transformational characteristics that give members a sense of empowerment and clearly defined goals, might act as substitutes or enhancement for leadership.

## The Psychological Contract

While many organizations provide employees with extensive written contracts, those written terms of agreement are void unless there is also a “psychological contract” involved. Studies on the psychological contract go back at least three decades, probably starting with Kotter (1973) who defined it as *“an implicit contract between an individual and an organization that specifies what each expects to give and receive from the other in their relationship.”* (Feldman, 1983, p.69). However, despite academic differences on the actual contents of the definition, in essence all authors agree that the psychological contract derives from the unwritten, unspoken, inferred agreement between two parties, resulting in a belief system regarding their mutual obligations. These inferred obligations originate from tangible (promises made as employment arrangements are started and sustained) and intangible factors (tone of voice, body language), starting from the initial contact with the company, through the hiring process and through day-to-day interactions between individual workers and employers. When the terms of the psychological contract are ill defined, incorrect inferences about the relationship and obligations occur.

The psychological contract is in stark contrast to the contents of written contracts defining employment relationships. Although most of the written contracts outline specific agreements and expectations between employer and employee, these contracts are often superseded by the terms of the psychological contract, which are unwritten. According to Beukes (1996a) & Beukes (2000), such “contracts” are often poorly explained and misunderstood and may give rise to unfulfilled expectations. This view is confirmed by Rousseau & Schalk (2000, p.1), who define psychological contracts as “the belief systems of individual workers and employees regarding their mutual obligations.” These obligations grow from the promises made as employment arrangements are started and sustained, from the initial contact with the company, through the hiring process and through day-to-day interactions. Kotter (in Beukes, 1996a) describe a psychological contract as the sum total of all written and unwritten, spoken or unspoken expectations of both parties.

Beukes (1996b) writes that an applicant may have a number of expectations and misconceptions when reacting to an advertisement or walking into a personnel office. Leaders have no control over these reactions. However, they can have a considerable influence on what a prospective employee believes the job entails and should work quickly to dispel any misconceptions that may already be present. A “mismatch” occurs when either the organization’s or the employee’s expectations are not met. For example, the new employee may expect an own office, while it is really only a shared space. Thus, office space may become an issue of perceived breach of the psychological contract. This, in turn requires that a “correcting cycle” be set in motion in which each party to the agreement has to adjust their initial expectations in order to maintain a sense of equilibrium. If these adjustments cannot be made, or if they occur too rapidly, one of the parties may reject the contract. Thus, a vicious cycle can easily develop where contract violations by one party result in offsetting actions by the other which, in turn, forces the first party to make further adjustments. Consequently, the working relationship becomes less and less acceptable and leads to more serious steps at rectification being taken by both parties. Beukes (1996) found that the same process is as applicable in the military, as in the private sector. Beukes (2000, p.53) found that subordinates may engage in the following actions in attempts to “equalize” the contract:

- **Complaints.** The soldier expresses dissatisfaction and complains about a variety of problems.

- **Retaliation.** The military member may overtly block leadership, destroy military property or take unnecessary risks with military vehicles and other equipment.
- **Go slow or quitting on the job.** The soldier deliberately slows down in task performance and quality becomes sloppy. Increased absenteeism and decreased productivity are strong pointers of dissent.
- **Outside assistance.** The member feels that voluntary reconciliation is impossible and turns to outsiders, often a Member of Parliament, but also lawyers and other professionals for help.
- **Transfer or resignation.** Unsolved grievances lead to requests for a transfer or, if not accommodated, resignation.
- **Increased risk of injury.** In a high risk occupation such as the military, there is an increased probability of personal injury or major mishaps when military personnel are sloppy on the job and not focused on the task / mission due to distraction by factors pertaining to a breach of the psychological contract.

If the Canadian Forces (CF) as an employer perceives contract violations, possible actions may be:

- **Reprimands.** The platoon commander calls the offending soldier to task regarding job performance that is unacceptable.
- **Tightening of policies, orders & procedures.** Military leaders enforce and monitor standing operating procedures and policies to prohibit certain non-acceptable work behavior or actions.
- **Written warning.** The leader may warn the subordinate member in writing about certain unacceptable behavior, including the possibility of contract termination if the behavior does not improve.
- **Transfer or disciplinary layoff.** The soldier may send the home with or without pay in the hope that such an action may bring about a change in behavior or a transfer to another unit may be initiated.
- **Termination of contract.** The CF may feel so dissatisfied that the only recourse left is to terminate the soldier's contract, even though the contract is, in fact, inequitable. What matters in such cases is not whether the contract is equitable, but whether the employer perceives it as such.

If applied to the leadership substitute theory, one could argue that a "match" between the expectations of the individual soldiers and the expectations of their commander as representative of the organization, might substitute the need for strong leadership. If subordinates feel empowered, know that they have the skills and training to successfully complete a mission, have role clarity and know what is expected of them; they are likely to be more motivated and inspired. Inspiration would come from a sharing of mutually articulated goals, simplified wording in each other's language, and clarification of the mission by-and-for each other. Member competence and/or experience might replace or enhance leadership in achievement of goals and creative completion of tasks. A "mismatch" on the other hand means the sets of expectations of



individuals and the organization are far apart and strong direction by the leader would be necessary to complete a mission.

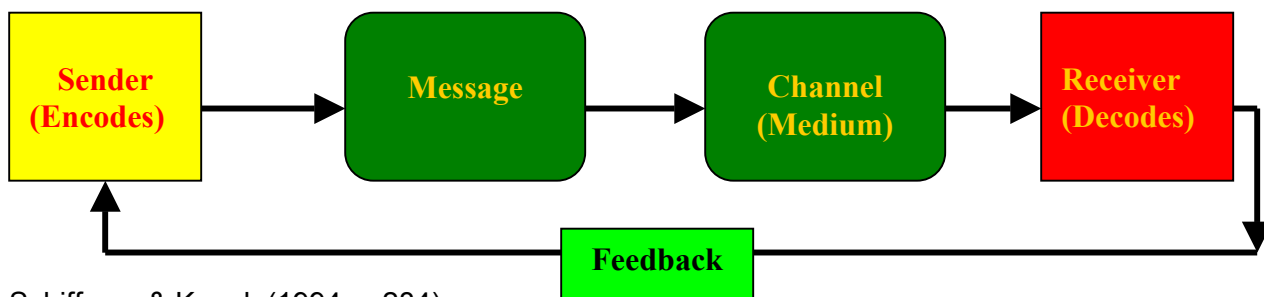
## Communication

Robbins (1996) writes that to be fully understood, communication must include both transference and the understanding of meaning. For example: a group where one member speaks French only and the others do not know French, the individual speaking French will not be fully understood. Thus, an idea, no matter how useful, is completely useless until it is transmitted and understood by others. In general, communication serves four major functions within a group or organization (Robbins, 1996, p.377):

1. *Communication acts to control member behavior.* Organizations have authority hierarchies and formal guidelines that employees are required to follow. In the military, for instance, subordinates are required to follow the chain of command. Failure to do so may result in confusion, role ambiguity, role conflict and the erosion of authority.
2. *Communication fosters motivation* by clarifying to members what is to be done, how well they are doing, and what can be done to improve performance. The formulation of specific goals, feedback on progress towards the goals, and reinforcement of desired behavior all stimulate motivation and require communication.
3. *Communication provides a release for emotional expression of feelings and for the fulfillment of social needs.* For many employees, their organization or work group is the primary source for social interaction. In the military, this is even more the case than in civilian organizations. Communication takes place within the group and is a fundamental mechanism by which members show their frustrations and feelings of satisfaction.
4. *Communication provides the information* that individuals and groups need to make decisions and to evaluate alternatives. This final function relates to its role in facilitating the decision-making process.

While there are many ways to define communication, most writers would agree that communication is the transmission of a **message** from a **sender** to a **receiver** via a **medium** of whatever nature (Robbins (1996), Schiffman & Kanuk (1994), Madonik (2001) and Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly (1994). Figure 1 illustrates the communication process.

Figure 1: Basic Communication Model



Schiffman & Kanuk (1994, p.284)

It is important to remember that the **sender**, as initiator of the communication, can be *formal or informal*. An example of a *formal source* is the squadron commander who issues an order. An *informal source* can be a friend who gives advice or support.

Likewise, the **receiver** of formal communication is likely to be a targeted individual or team, but there are also intermediary and unintended audiences that might get the message. For example, the Officer Commander gives an order to Section One of B Company, but all rank groups at the different levels learn about the content of the order as the message passes through the chain of command (intermediary). Unintended audiences include anyone who is exposed to the message, whether or not they are specified or intended recipients.

The **medium**, or communications channel, can be *interpersonal* such as an informal conversation (face-to-face, by telephone) between two friends or a formal conversation between the leader and his / her subordinates, or *impersonal* such as getting information through documentation, order groups, or published orders.

The **message**, as described above, can be *verbal or nonverbal*, or a *combination* of the two. A *verbal* message, whether spoken or written, can usually contain more specific information than a nonverbal message. Sometimes a *nonverbal* message takes the form of symbolic communication like parades, recognitions, hand signs, etc.

**Feedback** is an essential component of both interpersonal and impersonal communications. Prompt feedback permits the sender to reinforce, to change or to modify the message to ensure that it is understood in the intended way.

Effective communication in an organization may act as enhancer in terms of the leadership substitute theory. Bass (1998, p.158) argues that work rules, policies, and procedures may be replacements for or enhancers of transactional leadership. The military may introduce as part of their overall communication strategy, special procedures, symbols, codes, uniforms or Standard Operating Procedures (SOP's) to promote identification with a unit's mission. The hypothesis is that the clearer the communication process, the easier it is to moderate leadership or replace the direction to be provided by the leader. However, as technology becomes more advanced and intrusive into every area of life, a new approach to attempt to solve organization problems caused by poor communication is developing. This approach is discussed in the next section.

## **Information Mapping**

The world is now moving rapidly into the latest — and what business strategists, Evans and Wurster, term the most important — wave in the information revolution: the age of connectivity (Evans & Wurster, 1997).

The desktop computer initially transformed the workplace and it is now evolving into an entirely new entity — a virtual organization extending beyond the physical aspects of the traditional workplace, allowing people to communicate electronically, using universal, open standards. This brings new words to our vocabulary — collaborative work practices, electronic conferencing, cyber-teaming — that forces organizations to build flexibility and modularity into their communications strategies to keep pace with this ever-increasing rate of change. Organizations have to rethink virtually every aspect of their communication strategies — not just incrementally, but fundamentally. Organizations need to be able to both understand and address these challenges if they are to survive. Information Mapping Inc. (1998, p.2), suggests that modern organizations face four fundamental challenges in today's information-based economy:

- Recognizing that information is a corporate asset, and leveraging that asset for strategic advantage.
- Managing the *quality* of information—both internally and externally—so that the right message is communicated consistently and effectively.
- Managing the *flow* of information—preventing “information overload,” and
- Perhaps, most importantly, *empowering* employees to share and exchange information and knowledge.

**Information: The strategic advantage.** In this information-based economy an organization’s chief assets shift from natural resources and labor to knowledge and communication. Corporate knowledge and the ability to communicate that knowledge become the basic building blocks for growing the organization (Porter, 1996).

Well-designed, comprehensive, and accurate information is a clear strategic advantage to organizations that are able to readily capture, access, and use their information to make decisions. Organizations that cannot leverage their intellectual assets will be at a strategic disadvantage. As more organizations realize the importance of managing information as a corporate asset, they assume, mistakenly, that the key to maintaining strategic advantage is rooted in technology. (Information Mapping Inc., 1998)

**Information Quality.** Poor information quality is all too often the price paid in the fast-paced information environment. Clearly, the ripple effects of poor information quality can be felt across an organization, and more critically, can impact the corporate bottom line. Incomplete, inaccurate, or unclear information can have a significant destabilizing impact on every level of an organization. The following examples serve to illustrate this:

- Employees who cannot access, understand, or use information are more likely to make costly errors, require additional training, or incorrectly interpret and implement the goals of the organization.
- Authors who have no shared vocabulary or have an ineffective system for designing or analyzing information will create inconsistent messages or increase time to market due to lengthy development cycles.

How, then, can an organization provide employees with the tools they need to meet and exceed the challenges inherent in this new age? The answer should not only involve systems and technology, but should also address the *quality* of the information, enabling employees to access, interpret, and use the information in a consistent or standard manner.

**Standard manner.** To meet these challenges as mentioned above, organizations should adopt a standard methodology for creating and interpreting information. Standardization sets a baseline for information quality throughout an organization. Realizing that information is their most important asset, standardization provides a tool to maximize strategic advantage. To be successful, the standardized approach should provide for

- A standard method of analyzing information, so that information across the organization maintains a consistent level of quality;
- A framework for organizing information, so that information is clear, accurate, and organized in a way that is most effective for the users thereof;

- A common set of design specifications for presenting the information, to enable users to easily access key information necessary to make informed and timely decisions, and
- Standards are the key to the accuracy and usability of the information throughout the organization.

**Standardization enables information reusability.** By standardizing information across an organization, information “modules” can be created once and then reused or “repurposed” by multiple authors. Decreased manipulation of data on a corporate-wide scale will reduce an organization’s overall development and authoring costs.

Ultimately, it is the user of the information that must be able to access, interpret, and make decisions based on the information. If the information cannot be used it is worthless, and all the technology and speed of access in the world won’t make a user more effective on the job.

Information that is inconsistent and poorly organized poses another problem to users. Users are driven to access information by an immediate need to answer a question or solve a problem. Their chief goal is ease of accessibility—“How quickly can I find the information?” Anyone who has ever initiated a search on the World Wide Web or local area network knows that often retrieving information—even defining the parameters of your search—can be the most difficult challenge a user faces.

**Mapping the information.** A solution for analyzing, organizing and presenting complex information in its optimal form is to map the information. Through mapping the information one can analyze and re-engineer information to identify what the reader needs to do and needs to know. Furthermore, one can organize and present information in a way that maximizes usability and access, increase retention. This approach:

1. Focuses on the information needed by users to perform jobs correctly,
2. Provides an analytical approach to developing documentation and training based upon the needs of the users,
3. Ensures consistency in how information is communicated,
4. Provides a modular structure that makes information easy to access, and
5. Provides ease of updating and maintenance, which is important as new products or services are added that require additional documentation or training.

Information Mapping Inc. (1998) & Porter (1996) suggest this approach could have benefits such as increased accuracy, reduced review and rewrite time, elimination of redundancies, easy publication in multiple media and to facilitate the transfer of documentation to online systems.

## **Multiple Intelligences and Leadership**

Questions about the relationship between intelligence and leadership have been around for centuries. In the modern world with its emphasis on measurement, multiple instruments have been developed to determine the characteristics that define the best and most successful military leaders. Yet three questions seem to come to fore again and again:

- Are the smartest officers most likely to obtain positions in the General Staff?
- Are bright leaders the most successful leaders?
- Is IQ a prerequisite to be a good leader?

It is interesting to note that many intellectuals neither obtain nor pursue positions of leadership. Moreover, some scholars and critics argue that there have been quite a number of prominent leaders who had just an average intelligence. Riggio et al (2002), point out that much of the early research suggested that intelligence indeed contributes to leadership success, i.e., leaders were found to be more intelligent than followers and intelligence was consistently correlated with perceptions of leadership. However, because of situational factors, one cannot assume that there is necessarily a causal relationship between intelligence and leadership. Modern theories of leadership emphasize the interaction of leader characteristics and the quality of the leadership situation. Constructs such as “emotional intelligence,” “social insight,” “tact,” and “social skills” play a growing role in leadership research. Bass (in Riggio *et al.*, 2002) writes that this approach makes sense, since many effective leaders “exhibit a special kind of savvy – a kind of ‘street-smart-approach’ that make them effective in their roles.”

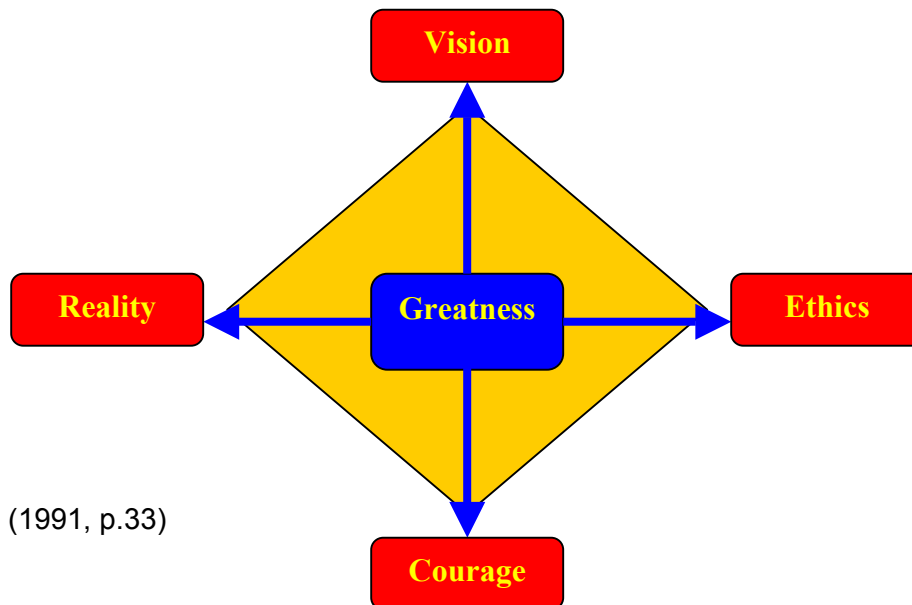
The explosion of interest in intelligence and leadership was fueled by the 1995 book of Daniel Goleman called “Emotional Intelligence-Why it can matter more than IQ” (Cranwell-Ward, Bacon & Mackie, 2002, p.73). Terms such as “EI” or “EQ” have become commonplace terms. However, it is important to remember that emotional intelligence is only one type of intelligence that plays an important part in leadership. According to Riggio et al (2002), the resurgence of interest in leadership and intelligence, particularly the role of multiple types of intelligence, appears to be a reawakening of the “trait approach” to leadership. Emotional intelligence, commonly referred to as a person’s “people skills” is defined by Higgs and Dulewics (in Cranwell-Ward, Bacon & Mackie, 2002, p.75), as follows:

*“Achieving one’s goals through the ability to manage one’s own feelings and emotions, to be sensitive to and influence other key people and to balance one’s motives and drives with conscientious and ethical behavior.”*

Emotional intelligence has become synonymous with social skill, intuitive savvy, and interpersonal acumen in the realm of leadership and management. Gole’s research (as discussed in Shriberg 2002, pp.159-160) shows that emotional intelligence has a much greater influence in determining leadership potential than does a person’s IQ test scores, or college performance. According to Shriberg et al (2002) emotional intelligence requires five vital characteristics that are integral to practicing leadership: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skill. It seems that leaders with high emotional intelligence are able to connect genuinely with others, conveying an authentic sense of concern, interest, and enthusiasm.

Koestenbaum (1991) in constructing his model on the “Leadership Diamond” postulates eight ways of being intelligent. To understand how the different types of intelligence relate to his model, it is necessary to highlight some aspects in the Leadership Diamond Model. It is illustrated in Figure 2 on the next page.

Figure 2: The Leadership Diamond Model



Koestenbaum (1991, p.33)

According to Koestenbaum, (1991) leadership means, first, **greatness**. It is the effective mindset for high-quality leadership decisions. For this reason, greatness is in the center of the diamond. The space it occupies results from the simultaneous activation and integration of four fundamentally different styles of thinking, or ways of greatness: *vision*, *reality*, *ethics* and *courage*. *Vision* refers to thinking big and new; *reality* is to have no illusions; *ethics* refers to providing service, and *courage* is to act with sustained initiative.

But, how does Koestenbaum relate the different types of intelligences to his Leadership Diamond Model? Aside from IQ and EQ, he identified six other intelligences, viz., logical intelligence, esthetic intelligence, somatic intelligence, marketing intelligence, team intelligence, and motivational intelligence. *Vision*, for example can be improved by promoting logical intelligence (abstract reasoning, visualization) and transcendental intelligence (consciousness as fact, exploration of inner space-time). *Reality* can be improved by practicing somatic intelligence (the language of sensuality, muscular dexterity and strength, kinetic orientation, physical and nutritional health) and marketing intelligence (survival, systems, flexibility, adaptability). *Ethics* can be strengthened by further developing the intelligence of wisdom (experience,, communication skills, philosophy of life) and team intelligence (identity through community, service, working through and with others). *Courage* is mostly motivational intelligence (the preeminence of action, self-energization, will, greatness). The ideal of **greatness** itself, underlying the full theory of the "Leadership Diamond", can be enriched through esthetic intelligence (verbal, musical, pictorial), for metaphors empowers whatever it touches (Koestenbaum, 1991, p300). Examples of military metaphors (available at: <http://www.peacemagazine.org/9707/language.htm>) that leaders sometimes use are:

- "Your claims are *undefensible*."
- "She *attacked* every point in my argument."
- "I have lots of *ammunition* in my *arsenal*."
- "His criticisms were right on *target*."
- "We *demolished* his argument."

- "If you use that *strategy*, she'll *wipe you out*."
- "You disagree? O.K. *Shoot*."
- "She *shot* down all my arguments."
- "To know the ropes"
- "There is a right way, a wrong way and the military way."

But, the intelligence-based approach to leadership has not been an immense success. On the one hand, intelligence as conventionally measured seems to have predictive value. On the other hand, its predictive value is not terribly high (Sternberg in Riggio *et al.*, 2002, p.9). The predictive value of intelligence for leadership also may vary across situations. Researchers such as Fiedler & Link (Riggio *et al.*, 2002) have suggested that intelligence predicts leadership success under conditions of low stress, but not under conditions of high stress, where experience becomes more important. The conventional conceptions of intelligence focus almost exclusively on the analytical aspect of intelligence, but to understand the relationship between leadership and intelligence better, four other aspects of intelligence need to be outlined.

- **Successful Intelligence.** Successful intelligence is the ability to achieve success by one's own standards, given one's socio-cultural context. For this definition, there's no single criterion for success that serves as the standard for all people. Rather people determine their own criteria of success. Important to remember is that success is always within a socio-cultural context. According to the theory of successful intelligence, people achieve success by recognizing and capitalizing on their strengths and by recognizing and compensating for their weaknesses. Thus, they find their own idiographic patterns of strengths and weaknesses, and develop patterns of capitalization, correction and compensation that enable them to achieve their goals or not (Riggio *et al.*, 2002, p.10).
- **Practical Intelligence.** Practical intelligence is that part of intelligence that is relevant to adapting, shaping, and selection in everyday life. One of the ways of measuring this phenomenon is described as *tacit knowledge* – what one needs to know to succeed in a given environment. This type of knowledge is not typically or explicitly taught and is often not even verbalized. According to Sternberg (in Riggio *et al.*, 2002), the tacit knowledge approach has been successful to some extent in predicting leadership success in the military.
- **Creative Intelligence.** The basic idea of this theory is that creative individuals are like good investors: they buy low and sell high, but this is happening in the world of ideas. Thus, they generate ideas that are analogous to stocks with low price-earnings ratios – initially such ideas are unpopular. Once the creative leaders convince other people of the value of their ideas, they are metaphorically boosting the value of their stock. Finally they move on to the next unpopular idea (Sternberg in Riggio *et al.*, 2002). For the military leader it means to think outside the box, to find creative ways to advance to the next objective or to motivate his / her troops.
- **Social Intelligence.** Leadership is inherently a social phenomenon. According to Zaccaro (in Riggio *et al.*, 2002, p.29) it resides in the actions of an individual or set of individuals to endeavor to move a collective along a goal path. The problems that are encountered along this path that must be resolved by leaders often emerge from the social dynamics occurring within the collective, and between the collective and its embedding environment. Organizational leadership typically requires leader role incumbents to generate solutions that (a) accommodate multiple social constituencies both within and outside of the organization, and (b) account for often conflicting social demands and requirements.

Effective leader problem solving requires that solution implementation be monitored through feedback from various social groups. The involvement of Canadian soldiers in peacekeeping missions abroad requires social intelligence and the accommodation of different points of view from conflicting parties in the area where they are deployed. In balancing the demands from warring factions, the frontline soldier often needs to negotiate, mediate and provide feedback to multiple social constituencies.

## INDEPENDENT REASONING

Independent reasoning is the ability to, in a mindful way, evaluate information and make an argument for or against a course of action. Independent reasoning is based on a logical thinking process. Four factors determine the realization of independent reasoning skills at leader and subordinate levels.

### Moral Development and Moral Commitment

Moral values / integrity are a special virtue. It means that a person is motivated by a rational, ethical rule, not by feelings of pleasure or pain, or emotions of happiness and fear. To be supportive in this leadership characteristic, the leader needs to be a fundamentally different kind of person, an unorthodox individual. The leader's life is governed by a rule that directs all actions, rather than feelings. Thus, reason, not emotions, dictates what the leader does. Justice, not happiness is the leader's guide. This ethical act rests on a deep and voluntary decision, which only the person can make, and for which the individual may never be rewarded except by the knowledge that of having become an authentic leader and that by exercising this choice one had helped to support and sustain civilization (Koestenbaum, 1991).

Mature moral development is required of the transformational leader. The immature, self-aggrandizing charismatic is pseudo-transformational. In order to understand how moral development takes place, it's necessary to explain Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development. Table 3 summarizes the theory.

Table 3: Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development

Level / Stage	Description
<p><b>Pre-conventional Level</b></p> <p><i>Stage 1:</i> Punishment-and-obedience orientation.</p> <p><i>Stage 2:</i> Naïve hedonistic orientation</p>	<p>Morality judged in terms of consequences.</p> <p>Morality judged in terms of what satisfies own needs or those of others.</p>
<p><b>Conventional Level</b></p> <p><i>Stage 3:</i> Good boy – good girl orientation</p> <p><i>Stage 4:</i> Social-order-maintaining orientation</p>	<p>Morality judged in terms of adherence to social rules or norms with respect to personal acquaintances.</p> <p>Morality judged in terms of social rules or laws applied universally, not just to acquaintances.</p>



<p><b>Post-conventional level</b></p> <p>Stage 5: Legalistic orientation</p> <p>Stage 6: Universal ethical principle orientation</p>	<p>Morality judged in terms of human rights, which may transcend laws.</p> <p>Morality judged in terms of self-chosen ethical principles.</p>
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Baron (1995, p.317)

Kohlberg's stages of moral understanding (in Baron, 1995, pp.313-17) are discussed with reference to the following scenario:

*A man's wife is ill with a special kind of cancer. Researchers have developed a cure, but it is very expensive. The researcher who discovered this medicine will sell it for \$2,000, but the man only has \$1,000. He asked the researcher to let him pay part of the cost now and the rest later, but the researcher refuses. Being desperate, the man steals the drug.*

At the **pre-conventional level**, individuals judge morality in terms of the effects produced by various actions. At *Stage 1*, known as the *punishment-and-obedience orientation*, individuals cannot grasp the existence of two points of view in a moral dilemma. As a result, they unquestioningly accept an authority's perspective as their own and view deferring to such authority as the basis for behaving morally. The relate to the example, a child or someone else at this stage might state, "The man should steal the drug, because if he lets his wife die, he'll regret it. He'll blame himself and others will blame him for not spending the money to help her." At *Stage 2*, known as the *naïve hedonistic orientation*, individuals are aware of the fact that people can have different points of view in a moral dilemma. During this stage, they judge morality in terms of what satisfies their own needs or what satisfies the needs of others. Someone at Stage 2 might say, "The man shouldn't have steal the drug unless he's so crazy about his wife that he can't live without her. He's running a big risk in stealing the drug."

As children's cognitive abilities increase, Kohlberg reasons, they enter a second level of moral development, the **conventional level**. Now they are aware of some of the complexities of the social order and judge morality in terms of what supports and preserves the laws and rules of society. In *Stage 3*, known as the *good boy – good girl orientation*, people judge morality in terms of adhering to social rules and norms, but only with respect to people they know personally. They want the approval of such persons and seek it by judging morality in terms of adherence to norms and rules accepted by these persons. A child at this stage might state, "It's OK to steal the drug, because no one will think you are bad if you do." In *Stage 4*, known as the *social-order-maintaining orientation*, people can extend judgments of morality to include the perspective of third persons, not just themselves and people they know. They feel that laws must be applied equally to all, not only to friends and relatives. In the drug-stealing example, someone who argues for stealing the drug might state, "The man should steal the drug, since he took a marriage vow to stand by his wife. It's wrong to steal, so he should expect to pay for this." Someone who argues against stealing the drug might say, "It's natural for the man to want to save his wife, but it is wrong to steal. Even if his wife is dying, that's no excuse for stealing and breaking the law."

In adolescence or early adulthood, many – though by no means all – individuals enter a third level known as the **post-conventional level** or principled level. At this stage people judge morality in terms of abstract principles and values, rather than in terms of existing laws or rules of society. At *Stage 5*, known as the *social contract / legalistic orientation*, individuals are aware of the fact that any single rule system is only one of many possibilities and can envision alternatives to the existing social order. Thus, they realize that laws can sometimes be inconsistent with the rights of individuals and the interests of the majority and that such laws should be changed. Individuals at this stage of moral development might reason as follows: “Although it is against the law to steal, stealing the drug is justified. By doing so he saves his wife’s life, and life is more important than property.” Finally, at *Stage 6*, the *universal ethical principle orientation*, individuals judge morality of actions in terms of self-chosen ethical principles. Persons who attain this highest level of moral development believe that certain obligations and values transcend the laws of society at any given point in time. The rules they follow are abstract and ethical, not concrete like, say, the Ten Commandments. They are based on inner conscience rather than external sources of authority. Individuals at *Stage 6* might argue for stealing the drug as follows: “If the man does not steal the drug, he is putting property above human life; this makes no sense. People could live together without private property, but respect for human life is essential.”

How the military leader handles ethical issues, may depend on his / her level of moral development. According to Baron (1995, p.317), evidence suggests that moral reasoning often increases in complexity with age, and that in many cultures, people do move through the stages as described by Kohlberg. This implies that years of service in the Armed Forces and seniority might be expected to have an influence on moral reasoning. Gal (in Bass, 1998, p.21) argues that moral commitment is derived from one’s own internalized sense of duty, responsibility and conviction. Orders do not come from a single external source, but reflect the interaction of beliefs, values, and conscience.

An important aspect of transformational leadership is developing, maintaining, and enhancing this alignment. Flowing from this are societal and organizational goals complementing the professional’s values and norms, making them willing to devote themselves, or even sacrifice themselves, to attain goals. Transformational leaders’ commitment additionally includes the feelings of responsibility for soldiers and mission where the responsibility derives from the leaders own conscience and internalized values. When organizational, career and moral commitment are out of alignment; the leader and the soldier may fall back on obedience, serve their most important commitment, or rationalize their actions as matters of obedience and professional loyalties. Commitment to the organization, to career, and to moral values will differ systematically if the leadership generating the commitment is socialized or personalized. Bass (1998) states that both trained obedience and educated commitment are needed in the military. Obedience is maintained through transactional corrective processes of managing-by-exception and more constructive contingent reward, whereas being led by sticks and carrots does little for one’s self-esteem or commitment.

## **Military Ethics**

Ethics, in philosophy, is the study and evaluation of human conduct in the light of moral principles. Moral principles may be viewed either as the standard of conduct that individuals have constructed for themselves or as the body of obligations and duties that a particular society requires of its members. Sims (in Fairholm, 1994) writes that the notion of ethics is imbedded in the ideas of culture, custom, and character. Ethical behavior is that behavior group members accept as right and good. In organizations, it is sometimes institutionalized in a document codifying the organization’s values and norms. It frequently reflects the institutional structures,

interpersonal relationships, and sanction systems. Normally an organization's ethical foundation is a function of the values implicitly revealed in its leadership cadre's actions, decisions and comments. A growing diverse workforce, and extension into international markets will place pressure on existing ethical systems. Ethical leadership in the coming years will be a function of adapting to the new characteristics of organizations and matching that with the values of the leader and his / her followers. This task will involve leaders and followers working together at the values level. The task for leaders is to ensure that the values foundation in the organization keeps pace with change. The leadership challenge is to build a new ethics that is founded in the past, and is responsive to the future (Fairholm, 1994).

Koestenbaum's view (1991, p.166) about ethics is:

*"Ultimately, ethics in leadership means having a sense of destiny – the desire for a legacy, interest in an immortality project. It is also important to take seriously the issue of deathlessness or immortality. This is where greatness comes in, for one of its definitions is to stand up to death and evil. To find the meaning of life, of which meaningful work is but a derivative, can also be to have an answer to the anxiety of death."*

On ethics, Shriberg *et al.*, (2002, p.132), quote from *Leading Marines (FMFM1-0)* as follows:

*"Military leaders must have a strong sense of responsibility of their office: the resources they expend in war are human lives"*

Fear of death, obedience, discipline, loyalty, courage, and ethics are but a few of the influences on military leadership. It is expected of the military leader to act according to ethical principles, but the mission of the military is different from most organizations' missions – the military's mission is the management of violence, to fight wars, to deliver violence and destruction on the enemy when security demands it. The military does not decide whom, what, and when to fight – that decision rests with parliament. Why be ethical in a war? Leader and subordinates feel more comfortable with each other when they are ethical. Koestenbaum (1991) writes that, to have integrity and principles, means to have made a choice to be civilized. The ethical behavior of military leaders can substitute for the direction of leadership to be provided to their followers since it exudes the value of doing the right thing instead of just doing things right. If ethical principles are embraced, all parties know what is expected of them. Ethics provide a framework of operations to the soldier. As Lt. Gen. Walter F. Ulmer Jr. (Ret) put it:

*"Military operations tend to highlight success or failure, confirm courage or hesitation, validate selflessness or ego, assess empathy or callousness, and take measure of the integration of the behavioral and management sciences"* (Shriberg *et al.*, 2002, p132).

Sims (in Fairholm, 1994) indicates the idea of ethics is imbedded in the ideas of culture, custom, and character. Ethical behavior is that behavior group members accept as right and good. In an organization, it may be institutionalized in a document codifying the organization's values and norms. Examples of these are: Codes of Conduct in the Armed Forces, Rules of Engagement, and Rules of Minimum Force during Peace Keeping operations. It is also reflected in the institutional structures, interpersonal relationships, and sanction systems. Most often, and most influential, an organization's ethical foundation is a function of the values implicitly revealed in its leadership cadre's actions, decisions, and comments.

Fairholm (1994) writes that a variety of cultural forces normally shapes a leader's ethical values, and these in turn are shaped by the leader's values. Among these forces are peer relations,

traditional organizational practices, financial policy, the general social morality of the surrounding community, and organizational policy. Koestenbaum (1991) writes that the deepest tactic of a dominant leadership strategy of ethics is principle, the integrity of our value system. Ethics in the military means that the organization is differentiated by its values. It is the soldier's serious commitment to these values that makes the organization strong. At the deepest level, ethics is integrity, morality and principle. Ethics in practice means equality, dignity, truthfulness, and liberty. It means a soldier can identify with the objectives of the unit's mission – whether it is peacekeeping, support during a disaster, or a war. To illustrate this point, Horn (2002, p.44) describes a German soldier with the name of Karl Fuchs who writes to his father the following: *"I've become such an integral part of my company that I couldn't leave it ever again."* Similarly, Hans Werner Woltersdorf asserted, *"my unit was my home, my family, which I had to protect."* (Horn, 2002, p.44)

## **Courage**

Shriberg *et al.*, (2002, p.136) defines courage as "the mental quality that recognizes fear of danger or criticism but enables an individual to proceed with calmness and firmness." Shriberg *et al.* writes that leaders of the future will have the courage to align with principles and go against the grain of old assumptions or paradigms. It takes tremendous courage and stamina to say, "I'm going to align my personal values system, my lifestyle, my direction, and my habits with timeless principles." Courage is the quality of every principle at its highest testing point. Every virtue is ultimately tested at the highest level. That is where courage comes into play. (Shriberg *et al.*, 2002)

To be courageous is to be prepared for the isolation of leadership. To have courage is to think for oneself. It is to reason independently when assaulted with conflicting opinions and options. It is to have firm and clear values, to be proud and to be persistent and calm under stress. Courage means to have faith in oneself, one's family, the organization, one's religion, one's country and one's friends. The military leader with courage is steadfast in turmoil, in chaos, under stress, in doubt, in anxiety, in depression and anger, in ambiguity and in uncertainty. Koestenbaum (1991) writes that visionary leadership intelligence overlaps with the strategy of courage. The visioning mind must be prepared for the loneliness of leadership, for holding on faithfully to a vision frequently derided by others and to help the leader to remember that persistence wins. Steadfastness is the courage strategy applied to vision. Koestenbaum urges leaders to be prepared for the loneliness of leadership. Many decisions are difficult and painful, often going unrecognized for their high ethics and noble courage. Although Presidents, Commanders of Military Forces or CEO's have many advisors, the ultimate decision to attack, withdraw, penetrate or launch a new campaign is a solitary one. The most difficult part of courage is its psychological dimension – anxiety. It is therefore critical to understand that anxiety is the key to courage, for courage is the decision to tolerate maximum amounts of anxiety. Character is developed by going through the existential crises, which means to allow anxiety to come full flowering. No significant decision, personal or corporate, professional or military, has been taken without its own existential crises, the leader choosing to wade through rapids of anxiety, uncertainty, and guilt. (Koestenbaum, 1991, pp.186-194)

## **The Reality of Serving in the Military**

All countries maintain their military forces on the premise that the military serves to uphold the constitution, to defend sovereignty, and to protect the nation. The military draws from society for society: it is a mirror of society. Therefore, the military can never allow itself to become isolated from its very core, the society from whence it draws its human resources. As such, the military is

always part of society from which it originates, and it shares the same values deemed necessary to maintain that society. However, while the military value system mirrors the values of society, it does so in what is espoused as an apolitical, traditionalist and self-contained sub-society. A different standard applies to the military, it is held to the highest professional standards at all times. This means that the military values as they pertain to life, freedom, way of life, individuality, justice, and human rights, have to be responsive, responsible and accountable to society.

Thus, military leaders have to be well informed. They must have in depth knowledge of their organization, national and international factors, and social and economic realities, within which their organization functions. This requires of military leaders to continuously study trends and adapt their skills to ensure that their profession reflects its society. At the same time, however, the ability to exercise independent reasoning, provides the military leader with the tools to be a catalyst when the nation denies its values and norms and engages in unethical conduct.

Normally, a country's constitution requires its Defense Force to exercise its powers and performs its functions to uphold the constitution, to defend the sovereignty of the country and to ensure the protection of the inhabitants of the country. The state has a responsibility to ensure that others do not impose their will on the country through military action, nor take power by non-democratic means. Whilst the Canadian Forces are responsible for defending the State against outside aggression, the police is responsible for security within the state. Under certain conditions, it may call on the military for assistance, should the need arise. In a democratic society, soldiers uphold the Constitution, no matter what the political situation or who the ruling party is. A change in government will not change the constitution; all that might change are national endeavors and the manner in which the military will assist in achieving these endeavors. Political, economical, societal and technological changes will, of necessity, bring about changes in the structure of the military, but the basic military culture, values, traditions and customs will not change easily.

The military cannot isolate itself from what is happening in society. It is from society that it draws its raw material – human resources. It cannot stress values that are far removed from those of society, for to do so will result in society forcing changes upon the military with the military having little say in the matter. It is the general spirit of the country, which influences the opinions and standards of the military. The military is part of society, sharing values necessary to maintain the society. There is a close relationship between the military value system and the values of society. The main difference is that the military is an apolitical, traditionalist and self-contained society. The military authority and identity within society can only be maintained if the military exhibits the highest degree of professionalism at all times. The military values life, freedom, way of life, individuality, justice, human rights and is responsible and accountable to society.

Koestenbaum (1991) writes that leaders who are realistic, are well informed. They thoroughly understand the organization, the situation, the national and international factors, and the social and economic realities, which their organizations confront. Leaders with a highly developed sense of reality keep up with their professions, continuously updating their skills. In a fast changing world, where pockets of political instability are multiplying and where terrorism and the thread of ballistic missiles are on the increase, it is necessary that the military leader stays focused and realistic during the mission, facing reality as it is, not as it was or wished to be.

## DEMOGRAPHICS & SUB-GROUP DIFFERENCES

### Multicultural Leadership

Fairholm (1994) a decade ago indicated that the character of the work force is changing, becoming more diverse and less homogenous. The labor pool of workers includes people from many different nations with widely varying educations. Operationally, the world is getting smaller. Workers are more knowledgeable, more skilled, and more wanting than ever before and they are demanding the right to participate directly in decision making that affect their work and their immediate environment. On the surface, multiculturalism is attractive, but if not managed correctly, it can have a very negative effect as uncontrolled enthusiasm spins out of control. Trust and diversity for diversity's sake are not a viable formula, nor is the multicultural ignorant leader.

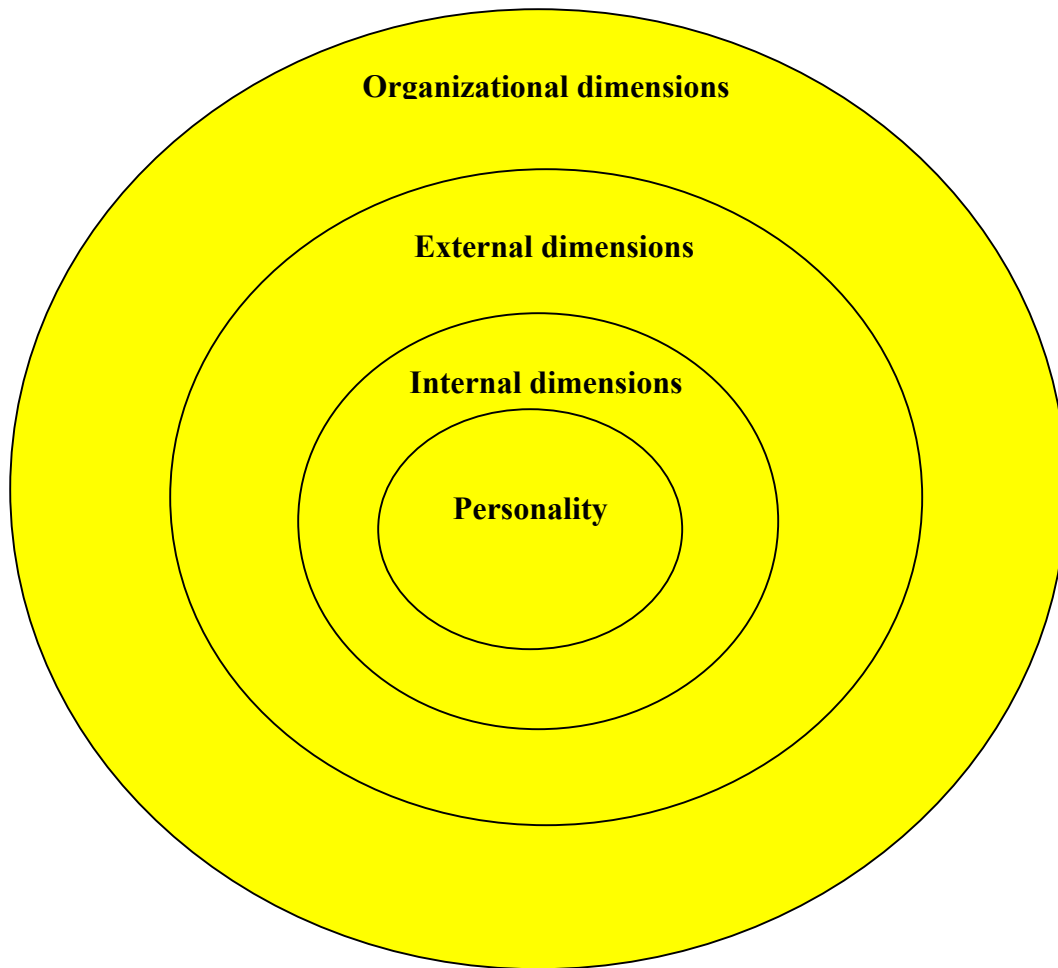
According to Shriberg *et al.*, (2002) multicultural leadership allows one to respond to diverse cultures by increasing insight into each population's needs and world-view, equipping the leader to best mobilize the entire group. Building multicultural insights and skills can place a heavy demand on the leader; yet, hardly any other competency will be as critical in the future. Not only are leaders faced with other cultures through an independent global economy, they are also faced with tremendous cultural differences within the diverse Canadian population.

Data from the 2001 Census (<http://www12.statcan.ca/english/census01/Products/Analytic/companion/etoimm/pdf/96F0030XIE2001008.pdf>) show that the proportion of Canada's population that were born outside the country reached its highest level in 70 years. As of May 15, 2001, 5.4 million people or about 18% of the population were born outside the country. This is the highest proportion since 1931. Only in Australia is the proportion of the population born outside the country higher than it is in Canada. Canadians reported more than 100 languages in completing the census question on mother tongue. The list includes languages long associated with immigration to Canada: German, Italian, Ukrainian, Dutch, Polish, and so on. However, between 1996 and 2001, language groups from Asia and the Middle East again recorded the largest gains.

In 2001, almost 5,335,000 individuals, about one out of every six people, were allophones, that is, they reported having a mother tongue other than English or French. This was an increase of 12.5% from 1996 and three times the growth rate of 4.0% for the population as a whole.

With this background, *multicultural* refers to a group that is comprised of individuals from more than one country or ethnic group. However, "culture" can also refer to other dimensions of social identity, including characteristics such as gender, religion, region of the country, or political affiliation. A leader aspiring to be effective in a multicultural environment must develop an awareness of the different dimensions of culture that may be most central to different constituencies of followers. Gardenswartz and Burke (in Shriberg *et al.*, p.156) provide an excellent tool for illustrating the multiples dimensions of diversity. It is illustrated in Figure 3 on the next page.

Figure 3: Dimensions of Diversity



Adapted from Shriberg *et al.* (2002, p.157)

The first circle represents personality – the internal aspects of character and temperament that uniquely defines the human being. The second circle on the kaleidoscope represents physical attributes, such as age, gender, race, and ethnicity, which are largely visible to others. The third circle represents our social characteristics such as marital status, economic status, religion, and geography. Finally, the outer circle represents organizational aspects – the person’s position in the organization, seniority, formal authority, and work group. Just as the turn of a kaleidoscope creates an entirely different pattern, so does each individual possess a complex, multicultural identity based on each of the four circles. The diversity kaleidoscope reminds the multicultural leader that even if his constituencies look physically similar, they may very well represent diverse cultures. Understanding how these diverse cultures may affect attitudes, behaviors, and motivations are critical to the military leader and could be a tremendous asset when deployed abroad or when trying to bridge a cultural divide. Wise multicultural leaders know to be aware of how their own cultures shape their view of the world, while nurturing a curious and open attitude toward cultural views (Shriberg *et al.*, 2002, p.156).

A study by Kouzes & Posner (1987) found that great leaders tend to emerge during times of extreme change and stress. Routine, uneventful periods in an organization’s history don’t offer

much opportunity for a leader to envision a new path or to confront tough challenges. Shriberg et al (2002) and Kouzes & Posner (1987) describes two major multicultural challenges for leaders in a globalized economy:

- **Building common ground while honoring differences.** While each setting may differ, leaders must find a way to mobilize others effectively to achieve a common goal. In multicultural leadership, leaders have to consider the real differences that may divide subcultures within a given population. Leaders face a difficult balancing act – figuring how to acknowledge and respect the distinct needs of each group while finding a common value that can motivate them to work collaboratively.
- **Supporting global teams.** Using the talents of an international workforce is one of the powerful skills a multicultural leader can have. To have a diverse workforce is only advantageous if the leader can adequately and creatively connects those resources and mobilize them collectively. Even when the challenges of a logistic operation abroad are overcome, the cultural and regional differences of team members may seriously challenge decision-making.

The deployment of Canadian troops across the world makes multicultural literacy for leaders and their followers alike, a necessity. This knowledge and these skills are not developed overnight, but may be difficult and slow in the beginning. Multicultural literacy is comprised of the skills, insights, and attitudes that allow one to continuously learn from exposure to diverse individuals and places. Shriberg *et al.*, (2002) indicate that the first step in becoming multiculturally literate is to recognize one's own cultural influences and biases. For military leaders, it will also be necessary to study cultural anthropology in order to understand culture, the nature / nurture debate, how behaviors are learned, and the assumptions, beliefs and values of sub-groups. Cultural anthropology is a major division of anthropology that deals with the study of culture in all of its aspects and that uses the methods, concepts, and data of archaeology, ethnography and ethnology, folklore, and linguistics in its descriptions and analyses of the diverse peoples of the world (<http://www.britannica.com/eb/article?eu=117536&tocid=0&query=cultural%20anthropology&ct=>).

## **Cultural Intelligence**

Hofstede (in Riggio *et al.*, 2002, p188) argues that if culture is considered the collective mental programming that distinguishes members of one human group from another, then cultural intelligence is the ability to successfully function in environments where individuals have experienced different programming. This is a type of "intelligence in context", where the "right answers" are dependent on the situation and people involved. In many diverse situations, there may be no single appropriate response, and successful responses by one leader may not be successful when tried by another. Offerman and Phan (in Riggio *et al.*, 2002), view cultural intelligence as a life skill in today's pluralistic societies. Though cultural intelligence is adaptive and desirable for all who function in multicultural environments, leaders and followers alike, the responsibility for capitalizing on the value of a diverse workforce falls on those who choose to lead. Leaders are viewed as the champions of diversity, the models of skillful cross-cultural behavior, and the mediators of cross-cultural conflict. More and more as organizations globalize, successful leadership will become synonymous with culturally intelligent leadership. Offerman and Phan (in Riggio *et al.*, 2002, pp.202-206) offer the following best practices as part of culturally intelligent leadership:



- *Managing diversity is a business imperative.* Organizational culture is important for an effective diversity program. Managing diversity must be a business priority if the organization is to convey the message that actions are being taken in the best interests of the organization.
- *Learn from other organizations, but import with care.* Leaders have to remember that there is no one single recipe for managing diversity – each organization is unique in terms of demands, resources and composition of people.
- *Leaders must champion the implementation of diversity initiatives.* Top organizational leaders play an important role in diversity initiatives through their support and guidance. They can influence the implementation of new policies, facilitate information flow and provide financial support.
- *Set high expectations for all staff.* Research indicates that average workers rise to the expectations if they are supported in the right way. Challenging goals promote superior performance. Organizations that do not expect as much from culturally dissimilar staff are likely to get less, hence perpetuating a self-fulfilling prophecy.
- *Provide training as an ongoing education process.* A well-designed training program that promotes life-long learning complements the recruitment of a representative work force. Aim at behavior change in support of chosen company values rather than attempt to change personal beliefs, and find ways to encourage cooperation despite differences.
- *Listen and watch - patiently.* Many Westernized people are not known to be patient. Leadership positions in particular are highly action-oriented and expect prompt – even immediate – responses from staff. Meetings are to begin on time, and if someone does not make a point quickly enough, someone else is likely to finish the sentence for him or her. However, some other cultures are more reflective and are put off by especially the American focus on speed and time.
- *Mentor and share the informal rules.* People working in a foreign culture need assistance to help them learn the new cultural norms and expectations. Mentoring is a key intervention that culturally intelligent leaders can develop and nurture their staff toward effective performance.
- *Emphasize the importance of trust.* Open dialogue among members of a diverse workforce must be a process of learning rather than a product of conflict settlements. When people with different values, beliefs, and traditions come together in dialogues, they rely on each other to help them struggle through their biases and assumptions.
- *Watch out for a backlash.* If culture awareness is a topic for training – beware of the implications! If some groups are left out, it may have a backlash. Thus, diversity programs need to be carefully evaluated, with those that exacerbate cultural tensions discarded in favor of those increasing tolerance and curiosity about other views.

It is clear that leaders (including the military) in a global economy will increasingly need to extend their skills in developing mature leader-follower relationships with culturally diverse followers. Changing laws and expectations is the easier part of moving to diversity -; the hard part is to earn followers' trust. The next section will briefly highlight this issue.

## **Leadership of the Trust Culture**

Fairholm (1994, p.141) writes that leadership is a task of culture creation – of creating a culture of shared vision, values, and trust where people know what to expect and participate because they want to. Leadership is impossible in a culture where people constantly distrust each other, doubt other's motives or sincere intent, and pursue agendas. Pluralistic cultures are divisive – they mitigate trust and leadership. The leader's task is to leave no doubt in the mind of followers and stakeholders regarding the organization's tasks and priorities. Fairholm indicates two obligations for leaders in this role. First, to create a common culture where all members can trust each other to do their part in order to attain the agreed-upon results. Second, to ensure that the trust culture created allows individual members to grow toward their personal self-development goals. If these obligations are satisfied, then a culture will have been created that is characterized by common values, customs, beliefs, and traditions that celebrate the individual as part of a mutually beneficial symbiotic relationship.

The key to leader success is the values set established as the basis of cultural interaction. Leadership is founded on shared values – it involves creating and maintaining the values basis that supports the organizational culture. Today, many organizations are realigning and changing direction as values such as freedom, liberty, justice, unity and satisfaction are being emphasized by the work force. These are the values upon which leaders are building current organizational cultures. These values guide leaders in their relationships with followers and provide the basis for interpersonal trust. Leaders need to articulate a group's collective dreams, as well as their own. People are attracted to a leader's vision not because they may have helped develop it, but because the vision is an extension of their dreams. Participating in culture setting, or vision setting within a culture is not as important as tapping the psychological needs of group members. This requires a match in different value sets – followers must come to care and trust a leader's vision – diverse values will jeopardize the group and the success of any action plan (Fairholm, 1994).

## **Peacekeeping Challenges**

The Government of Canada (<http://www.media-awareness.ca/eng/med/class/teamedia/peace/part1/p15.htm>) has clearly stated in the past that peacekeeping is a very important component of Canada's contribution to the multilateral system. It is not just a question of continuing a tradition for which Canadians have a well-deserved international reputation; it is a question of making a solid contribution to international peace and security. Since 1947, Canadian military and civilian personnel have participated not only in peacekeeping and enforcement operations mounted by the United Nations, but in truce, supervisory and observer missions conducted outside the UN framework. Not including the Korean War, 102 Canadians have died while assigned to peacekeeping and related operations. The UN supported peacekeeping began in the Middle East when, in 1948, a United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO) was established to observe and report upon any violations of the armistice between Israel and its Arab neighbors. Canada later participated by sending its forces too. (<http://www.media-awareness.ca/eng/med/class/teamedia/peace/part1/p15.htm>)

Canada's involvement in UNTSO started in 1954, when four officers were seconded to the organization. A Canadian Major-General was named as UNTSO's Chief of Staff in the same year. The word 'peacekeeping' proper entered the UN's vocabulary with the Suez Crisis of 1956. When fighting began in late October 1956, the UN, both the Security Council and the General Assembly, was unable to cope immediately with the crisis. The United Nations experimented with various applications of military observers immediately after the end of the Second World War and

deployed a substantive mission in Kashmir and Palestine in the late 1940s. However, the term peacekeeping did not enter the popular lexicon until 1956, when Lester B. Pearson, then Canadian Secretary of State for External Affairs, proposed the deployment to the Suez of international forces under the UN flag. For this visionary accomplishment, Mr. Pearson was awarded the 1957 Nobel Peace Prize (<http://www.media-awareness.ca/eng/med/class/teamedia/peace/part1/p15.htm>). Since that time there have been over 50 United Nations peacekeeping missions. Each mission has faced a variety of challenges and, over time, as a result of these different experiences, the concept of peacekeeping has evolved. (<http://www.dfait-maeci.gc.ca/peacekeeping/menu-en.asp>)

Peacekeeping today is an important aspect of Canada's national heritage and a reflection of Canadians' fundamental beliefs. It is a dynamic concept that responds to changes in the international environment in order to continue to develop security for people affected by war. Canada builds on its established peacekeeping tradition to make strong and imaginative contributions to international peace and security. Peacekeeping is also a significant component of Canada's foreign policy and the country's contribution to the multilateral security system. Close to fifty years of experience in peacekeeping and participation in an overwhelming majority of peacekeeping missions mandated by the United Nations Security Council, has established an international reputation for Canada.

Peacekeeping has traditionally been a primarily military activity but Canadian involvement in international peace support operations has expanded in response to the complex emergencies that the world now faces. Canadian peace support efforts include such diverse groups as the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) and their provincial and municipal partners, Elections Canada and Corrections Services Canada, and takes place not just through the United Nations but also through regional forums such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), and the Organization of African Unity (OAU). (<http://www.dfait-maeci.gc.ca/peacekeeping/menu-en.asp>)

The complexity of peace support operations has increased dramatically since the end of the Cold War. (<http://www.dfait-maeci.gc.ca/peacekeeping/menu-en.asp>) The characteristics of "new" peacekeeping operations are:

- **More missions:** The end of the Cold War signaled a new chapter of international cooperation at the United Nations. Between 1991 and the end of 1996, 24 new peacekeeping missions were set up - six more than the total established during the preceding 43 years. At the peak of UN activity in the mid-1990s, there were nearly 80,000 UN peacekeepers deployed around the globe.
- **More intra-state conflicts:** Traditional peacekeeping took place between states in order to monitor a peace treaty upon which all parties had agreed. Often peacekeepers patrolled contested borders. Since the end of the Cold War conflicts have increasingly been internal. This means that parties are often non-governmental actors: an important part of any peace process is identifying who should be involved in negotiations. Also, there is no clear area of conflict, and fighting is often spread through a country's entire territory. Increasingly, the result of such conflicts is that the international community is asked to create the elementary structures of peace and security and take on responsibilities that used to be the internal affairs of the states involved.
- **More stakeholders:** Conflict resolution is no longer the exclusive domain of the United Nations. Regional organizations such as NATO, the Organization for Security and

Cooperation in Europe, and the Organization for African Unity are also involved. In addition, a wide range of other civil and NGO organizations, play key roles in PSO's.

- **More diverse skills:** In order to respond to the more complex crises, which the peacekeeper now faces, Canada has begun to deploy personnel with more varied skills. Military personnel now work with police and other experts to develop security in conflict-affected societies. These experts may include regional and municipal administrators; judges and prosecutors to develop judiciaries and run courts; media, health, tax and social policy advisors; child protection experts; facilitators and mediators; and even people to manage basic infrastructure, such as sewage treatment plants or railways. (<http://www.dfait-maeci.gc.ca/peacekeeping/menu-en.asp>)

## CONCLUSION

This paper reviewed the most current literature to identify prevalent and emerging trends in the world i.e., globalization, the information revolution, a shrinking workforce and the “creative destruction” of jobs that are reshaping the world of work. Various researchers predict that leaders of the 21<sup>st</sup> century would need different competencies than those today. It seems the external world is likely to continue to be intensely competitive and will demand that future leaders possess a keen strategic sense and relentless desire to be nonstop learners. Simultaneously, major changes are taking place in the demographics of the workplace that will pose internal and external challenges to future leaders.

The changes as discussed, have a number of important implications for leadership. Leader of the future have to be more flexible, with a broad variety of experiences. Leaders of the future will view their “ceremonial” or “spiritual” responsibilities not as trivial issues that must be endured or delegated to a subordinate. Future leaders attending to global business issues will recognize that decision-making cannot be effectively centered at the top.

In the military, the transformation from large fighting armies to smaller, rapid deployable forces requires a critical shift in military thinking. Emerging problems according to military experts are “insoluble” problems of maintaining the combat effectiveness of forces when they are committed to the use of minimum military force, with the intention that, when peacekeeping fails, these forces immediately revert back to the goal of winning a war, whether conventional or non-conventional. The changes in the world of work and future warfare, pose new challenges for leadership. It is not sufficient to simply identify the requisite leadership competencies, but these have to translate into formal leader development programs.

The leadership substitute theory offers a possible explanation for future leadership development. The theory can be categorized into replacements, neutralizers and enhancers to leadership. Replacements, neutralizers and enhancers as discussed in the paper manifest on three levels: *subordinate characteristics*, *task characteristics* and *organizational characteristics*. Numerous *subordinate characteristics* such as competence; *task characteristics*, such as unambiguity; and *organizational characteristics*, such as inflexibility, were suggested as possible substitutes, neutralizers, or enhancers that would moderate the effects of military leadership in the field.

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