Human Resources and Leadership Strategies for Libraries in Transition

Gisela von Dran

In the unfolding information age the oft repeated but sparingly enacted words that "people are an organization's most important resource" are finally given credence.

Information is, according to Margaret Wheatley, the lifeblood of organizations.[1] As a result, the people who acquire, organize, distribute, and interpret information have become critical assets that energize, enrich, nourish, and reward organizational functions and life. This article is based on core assumptions proposed in *Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership* by Bolman and Deal that organizations exist to serve human needs, that people and organizations need each other, and that a good fit between them benefits both.[2] It thus builds on the ever-valid thinking of the later human relations theorists Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, Chris Argyris, and Frederick Herzberg, who proposed the creation of organizations in which attention to human values and individual development are integral to organizational activities. Lastly, it grew out of a presentation titled "Human Resource and Leadership Strategies in Libraries in Transition" at the 2004 Libraries in the Digital Age Conference in Croatia and an annual course on "Leadership and Change" that I team-teach with Raymond von Dran, the dean of the School of Information Studies, at Syracuse University.

Some Basic Motivational and Human Resources Theories for Managers and Leaders

Our understanding of people and organizations has evolved from viewing people as instruments or objects to be used for the achievement of organizational goals to understanding them as active, complex, empowered participants, who constitute the essence of organizations and who create their own social reality. Research on organizational behavior has confirmed that human beings come together in organizations for far greater and more numerous purposes than those articulated in goal and mission statements. Organizations today are becoming the primary place where adults acquire and practice the skills needed to master themselves and their environments and experience major life challenges. To understand how these changes have come about and why they are important to libraries today, it is necessary to provide a historical context of management theory.

In the early 1960s, the later human relationists, comprised primarily of psychologists, shifted their focus from the organization itself to the individuals within it. Their studies emphasized the needs and personal development of these individuals. Maslow's theory of motivation, espoused in his famous hierarchy of psychological needs, provided the foundation for the Human Relations School.[3] He saw mentally healthy individuals as naturally oriented towards growth and autonomy and striving for the realization of freedom. He proposed that individuals had a right to self-actualization and implied that organizations had an obligation to promote it. Maslow saw individual growth moving up a hierarchy of five needs. As each becomes substantially satisfied, the next need becomes central to motivation. Although research has not validated Maslow's theory, it is widely known and accepted among managers and employees mainly because its conclusions appeal to their intuition and are easy to understand. In economically stable and developed countries, the lower order needs–physiological and safety needs–are substantially met for most employees, therefore managers need to pay attention to the three higher order needs by creating conditions that foster social, esteem, and self-actualization opportunities.

Douglas McGregor developed his two opposing styles of management, called Theory X and Theory Y, by translating Maslow's humanistic psychology directly into managerial beliefs and actions.[4] According to McGregor, a manager's assumptions about the nature of human beings influence his or her employees' behavior. Theory X managers believe that employees:

- are passive and lazy;
- must be coerced to achieve organizational goals;
- resist change; and
- dislike work and are primarily interested in security.

In contrast, Theory Y managers assume that employees:

- are basically self-directed;
- view work as natural;
- are motivated by their own psychological energy; and
- possess similar abilities to make innovative decisions as most managers.

Gisela von Dran (gmvondra@syr.edu) is Assistant Professor and Director, Library and Information Science Program, School of Information Studies, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York.

Either theory can become a self-fulfilling prophecy. If management, however, expects an empowered workforce, it needs to create environments where workers can increasingly determine for themselves how organizational goals are to be achieved because individual and organizational needs should become synonymous.

Chris Argyris saw the organizational requirements for rationalization and specialization as being, rather than reflections of a particular management style, the cause of conflict between individual development and organizational goals.[5] In order for healthy individuals to develop, he proposed that organizations needed to provide conditions for their employees that:

- decrease their feelings of dependence, submissiveness, subordination, and passivity towards management;
- decrease the probability that they are subjected to arbitrary unilateral action by people in power and increase opportunities for self-responsibility;
- make it possible for them to express pent-up feelings ranging from aggression and hostility to passive internalization of tensions that are caused by the formal organization and management control; and
- enable them to create their own informal world with its own culture and values in which they can find psychological support while adapting to the formal organization.[6]

Frederick Herzberg asked the question, "What do people want from their jobs?" and got professionals to describe in detail the situations that made them feel exceptionally good or bad about their jobs.[7] Herzberg found that the presence of certain characteristics (motivators) tended to lead to high job satisfaction, while others (hygiene factors) were taken for granted by employees when present, but led to high dissatisfaction when absent. One of Herzberg's important insights was that the factors leading to job satisfaction are qualitatively different from those that lead to dissatisfaction. Motivators tend to be intrinsic to and under the control of the individual professional, while hygiene factors are likely to be controlled by management and the organization. While Herzberg's research method has been criticized for a number of reasons, his theory stimulated organizations to redesign and expand jobs to provide employees with greater responsibility and control over their work. For libraries, as well as other knowledge organizations that rely on a highly educated and professional workforce, Herzberg's insights provide basic and timeless directions for creating motivating and satisfying positions (see figure 1).

Among the most widely used motivational theories in public and private organizations is the goal-setting theory proposed by Edwin Locke.[8] Locke demonstrated that specific hard-to-achieve goals will lead to higher performance than the generalized goal of "do your best." When manag-

ers and employees cooperatively articulate specific, difficult goals and define those objectives needed to accomplish agreed-on organizational tasks, the energy of employees will become focused towards their fulfillment, if enabled by periodic communication and feedback. Coming up with specific and measurable goals is more of a challenge in not-for-profit and public organizations and might take some effort and training. Yet because such organizations largely depend on funding sources that require high accountability, instituting a "Management by Objectives" planning-and-evaluation system puts them in a better position to generate more funds and defend their expenditures.

Successfully managing knowledge workers is a difficult and challenging undertaking. Thoughtful leaders and managers are constantly searching for effective motivational and human resource strategies or frameworks to help them create supportive organizations and develop the potential of each employee. Two avenues of research might provide some insight into puzzling questions managers encounter when dealing with highly intelligent employees and coworkers. Why do some highly intelligent people behave in emotionally immature ways, believing, for instance, that they are the center of the universe and dismissive of other people's points of view? Why do some highly educated people have anger management problems?

Daniel Goleman's book *Emotional Intelligence* suggests that having a high IQ is not a perfect predictor of success in life. Emotional intelligence is also needed.[9] Goleman's book is based on research by Salovey and Mayer, who define emotional intelligence as the awareness of self and others and the ability to deal with emotions and relationships.[10] More specifically, to be successful, managers and employees have to master four basic people skills:

- the ability to handle anger;
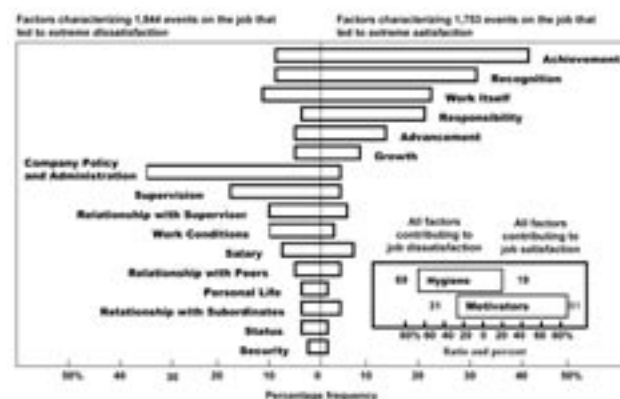- the ability to sooth themselves when anxious;

FIGURE 4-3 COMPARISON OF SATISFIERS AND DISSATISFIERS
Source: Frederick Herzberg, "One More Time, How Do You Motivate Employees?" *Harvard Business Review*, January–February 1968, p. 57. With permission. Copyright © 1968 by the President and Fellows of Harvard College; all rights reserved.

Figure 1. Herzberg's Motivating and Hygiene Factors

- the ability to read others' feelings from nonverbal cues; and
- the ability to delay gratification.

Goleman believes that emotional intelligence is even more important than IQ for managers, and that individuals with low emotional intelligence and a high IQ can be dangerous in the workplace.

A second source of information that can be helpful in predicting managerial potential is the Five Factor Model of Personality, developed by John Digman.[11] Unlike the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (one of the most widely used personality tests in private and public organizations), the Five Factor Model has been largely validated, and research has found important relationships between the five personality dimensions and job performance.[12] These factors are:

- *Extraversion*: defines people who enjoy others and seek them out. It describes someone who is sociable, talkative, and assertive.
- *Agreeableness*: defines people who get along well with others. It describes someone who is good-natured, cooperative, and trusting.
- *Conscientiousness*: defines people who are orderly, planners, and hard workers. It describes someone who is responsible, dependable, persistent, and achievement oriented.
- *Emotional stability* or *lack of neuroticism*: defines people who have the ability to control negative feelings. It describes someone who is calm, enthusiastic, and secure.
- *Openness to experience*: defines people who have a preference for novelty and creativity. It describes someone who is imaginative, artistic, sensitive, and intellectual.[13]

The Evolution of Leadership Theories

Leadership is the most studied subject in management, and there are as many definitions of the concept as there are people who study it. The importance of leadership is that it has organizational, political, and personal consequences. Most of us can cite examples of good leadership that enhanced our organizational and personal growth. And many of us bear the personal scars of bad leadership and can attest to the sometimes irreparable harm done to individuals, departments, divisions, and entire organizations or countries. Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan estimate that one-half to three-quarters of all American managers are incompetent, an incredible number considering that the United States invented management as a program of study and other countries emulate its management education.[14] Does this staggering statistic of incompetence mean that leadership is something that cannot be learned or taught? Of course not, we have accumulated a great deal of

knowledge about effective leadership over the last century, and the good news is that it can be learned and perfected. Leadership is difficult and those of us who aspire to be leaders in our profession need to understand that it is a service to our libraries and information organizations. Starting from that premise will make it easier to live with the inevitable disappointments, setbacks, failures, as well as the small, and hopefully, sustained, successes.

Traits of Leaders

When leadership first became the subject of conscious study, research focused on the personality, social, physical, and intellectual traits that differentiated leaders from others. This was a comparatively easy task, seventy or so years ago, because the great majority of leaders in this country happened to be male, taller than average, of European ancestry, and born into the upper social classes, which also provided them with access to higher education. In a highly diverse and dynamic society with increasing demands for leadership skills, it becomes impossible to identify leaders consistently based on a fixed set of personality traits. Nevertheless, studies do show that leaders who possess the following traits have a greater likelihood of success:

Ambition and energy. Wanting to be a leader requires motivation to excel and stand out from the crowd. This involves more effort and energy, which nonleaders choose to direct towards other goals and activities. The energy requirements for leadership are seldom talked about and yet anyone who has been in a leadership position will attest that they are substantial and consuming.

The desire to lead. Although many leaders come to the fore in times of crisis, most individuals in leadership positions have a desire to make a difference and to accomplish their vision through the efforts of others.

Honesty and integrity. While we all know many leaders who have fallen from grace because they lacked these traits, individuals who are successful and retain leadership positions over a long period of time have a reputation for honesty and integrity. They understand that if they betray the trust of those they lead, their subsequent decisions will be constantly questioned and trust will be difficult to recapture.

Self-confidence. It makes sense that if you want to lead, you have to project a sense of mission and purpose. Why would anyone want to follow someone who isn't convinced that a goal is achievable and will benefit followers?

Intelligence. Forrest Gump's success notwithstanding, leaders tend to have above-average intelligence. They are often not the smartest of a group in terms of IQ, but they must possess high intellectual and emotional intelligence to be able to connect to their followers and communicate to them desired outcomes and how to achieve them.

Job-related knowledge. This doesn't require that a leader is always the expert, but at some time, in some area,

leaders distinguished themselves on the job. That's how they gain and maintain attention.

Self-monitoring: Individuals who are flexible and adjust their behavior according to the situation are more likely to succeed as leaders. This doesn't mean that they are chameleons and have no convictions. It means they have the ability to relate to people at all levels of the organization, they know what language or dress is appropriate in particular situations, they can read nonverbal cues accurately and make necessary adjustments.[15]

The major implication of believing in the trait theory is that "leaders are born" with certain traits and that all we need in organizations is to identify the right person. Concentrating on the traits of leaders, however, is limiting in many ways. It discounts the needs of followers and the context in which leadership occurs. In addition, management researchers are critical of the trait theory because it doesn't tell us which of the traits are more important and it doesn't explain the cause and effect of these traits. For example, is a person a leader because he or she is self-confident or do leadership opportunities and successes bring about self-confidence? Lastly, in a democratic society with a highly diverse population, the notion that leaders are born is contrary to our fundamental values.

Behaviors of Leaders

Behavioral theories of leadership evolved not only to remedy some of the aforementioned deficiencies of the trait theory but also because we value human equality. They imply that we can train leaders, as needed, and teach successful leadership behaviors to those with the desire to lead. The acceptance of behavioral theories has become embedded in our formal and continuing educational systems. The MBA, as well as leadership training courses and programs, are examples of their unquestioned popularity in our society.

So what behaviors do leaders exhibit more than nonleaders? Studies at Ohio State and the University of Michigan found that leadership behavior, as identified by subordinates, centered around two dimensions (see table 1).

Dimension 1 characterizes behaviors that define and structure employee roles and activities in order to achieve goals and task completion. Dimension 2 behaviors emphasize aspects of interpersonal relationships to build trust, mutual respect, and regard for employees' feelings. The Ohio State studies found that leaders whose behaviors

Table 1. Behavioral Dimensions of Leadership

	Dimension 1	Dimension 2
Ohio State	Initiating structure	Consideration
University of Michigan	Production orientation	Employee orientation

rated high on both dimensions tended to achieve superior performance and higher satisfaction than those who scored low on either dimension. However, this was not always true, and high-initiating structure behavior also led to greater amounts of grievances, higher turnover, and absenteeism among employees.

The University of Michigan results showed that leaders who were oriented towards their employees were more successful in creating high productivity and job satisfaction.

Blake and Mouton developed a "managerial grid" based on the results of the Ohio and Michigan studies and found that managers performed best when their behaviors exhibited both high concern for production and high concern for people (see figure 2).[16]

For librarians who are interested in leadership positions, the research results of the behavioral theories are encouraging and for some self-evident. Librarianship is primarily a women's profession, and these theories validated the idea that a concern for employees is an effective way to manage, particularly if women work in less hierarchical organizations where teams rather than individuals solve the information problems of users. According to Blake and Mouton, however, a high concern for people and production and the use of team management, could not explain the causes of leadership behavior in all cases and circumstances. For example, no consistent relationship could be found between patterns of leadership behavior and group performances and so the search for better leadership theories continued.

Contingency Theories

Contingency theories propose that for leaders to be effective their leadership style or behaviors need to fit the degree of control and influence they have in a given situation. The following are situational criteria that have been identified by well-known management consultants and researchers:

- Leader-subordinate relations or the degree of confi-
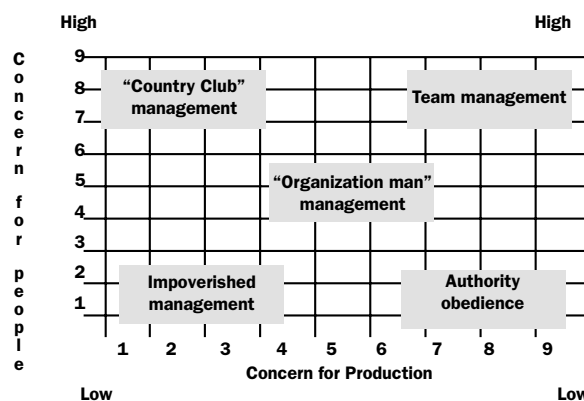
Source: Stephen P. Robbins Organizational Behavior. 8th. Edition. Copyright 1998 by Prentice-Hall, Inc., A Simon & Schuster Company, Englewood Cliffs. New Jersey 07632.

Figure 2. Blake and Mouton's "Managerial Grid"

dence, trust, and respect subordinates have in their leader (Fiedler).

- Task structure, defined as the degree to which job assignments are procedurized (Fiedler).
- Position power or the degree of influence a leader has over power variables such as hiring, firing, discipline, promotions, and salary increases (Fiedler).
- The likelihood of a leader's behavior to produce immediate or future satisfaction among his/her employees (House).
- The high personal compatibility between a leader and his or her followers and its effect on employee performance and satisfaction (Jago).
- Follower readiness, which refers to the extent to which people have the ability and willingness to accomplish a given task (Hersey and Blanchard).[17]

The last criterion is part of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model, which has been used widely in the public and private sector. This model proposes that effective leaders need to be flexible in their leadership styles, depending on what influences followers' productivity and satisfaction.

It is the followers who require guidance to work towards organizational goals and those of us who have managed and lead intuitively understand that different people need different approaches in order to get the job done. Specifically, if an employee is unable, unwilling, or too new on the job to take responsibility for a task, the leader needs to use a "telling" behavior. This means the leader defines the task very carefully and tells the individual exactly what, how, when, and where to do the activity. In a library this is likely to occur with new employees, student workers who are not interested in the job per se, or with someone who has been hired without the necessary skills. Directive behavior and close supervision are necessary to monitor that the employee is actually understanding the task and executing it correctly. If not, corrective action can be taken quickly until the appropriate job skills are learned and the employee becomes more secure. At the other extreme are professionals who are both willing and able so a leader basically delegates the responsibility with little direction or emotional support. "Selling" behavior is necessary, according to Hersey and Blanchard, when employees or followers are willing and sometimes too eager to take on responsibilities, but don't have the necessary skills yet. They want to be promoted to a new position without understanding the complexities or intricate requirements of the job and need to be supported in their ambitions but also directed towards educational or training opportunities to prepare themselves better. In libraries in transition, many professionals will fall into the able, but unwilling or apprehensive, category. They might be skeptical about the new direction or question their own abilities to change. Sometimes they have established life priorities that do take precedence over their jobs, and so effective leaders must carefully include

them in planning and decision-making responsibilities to facilitate a buy in the future direction of the organization.

Charismatic and Transformational Leadership Styles

During times of crisis and change, organizations of all types look for leaders who can create an emotional and cognitive identification with employees to provide relief from anxieties and plans for a more stable future. Among the ten key characteristics of charismatic leaders identified by Conger and Kanungo, are self-confidence and a righteousness about their ideas and beliefs, with which they are able to create a powerful bond with employees.[18] They provide a positive vision of the future and are perceived as change agents. Unless they constantly create new crises, however, their leadership style will become a problem once employees' self-confidence increases. History provides numerous examples of charismatic leaders who emerged during economic or political crises, became addicted to their accumulated power, and therefore created new crises, often in the form of wars, to maintain their leadership hold.

In contrast, transformational leaders, according to Bass, while often charismatic, use change to empower and encourage the development of organizational participants.[19] They instill a "can do attitude" in their employees, reward risk taking, experimentation, and learning, while increasing self-awareness and consciousness. One central reason for this is that during crises and times of change, employees need emotional support. They are looking for hope, inspiration, and confidence in their leaders, who in turn need to communicate their faith in employees' abilities to weather the storm and forge ahead into new territories. This requires continuous encouragement to change as well as providing safe opportunities to share personal fears and feelings of insecurity.

Empowerment

Transformational leaders use empowerment to develop individuals so they can let go of their fears of failure and take on increased responsibilities. Empowerment is a long-term process that results from encouragement, motivation, the removal of barriers from job performance, trust, and most importantly, patience (see figure 3).

Research studies have shown measurable changes in employee behaviors as they become empowered. They adopt more positive styles of interpreting events in life and organizations, envisioning positive futures for themselves; they let go of absolutistic and perfectionistic standards to evaluate themselves and others; and they attribute successes to their own competencies and use failures as learning opportunities.[20] The investment in long-term empowerment strategies in libraries pay off when individuals take personal responsibilities for work outcomes and help others to improve performance, thereby strengthen-

ing the organization as a whole. The process of empowerment, however, needs to be supported by meaningful work design, honest feedback concerning behavioral expectations, and appropriate performance strategies.

## Organizational Dimensions of Change

All change efforts in organizations are based on the premise that the status quo is in need of improvement, and that policies, processes, products, services, and outcomes can be perfected. Intellectually, we all agree with the words of wisdom that "to live is to change," that "to resist change is to atrophy and die," and yet nothing is more difficult and fraught with danger than to initiate and successfully implement major organizational changes. Machiavelli said it best five hundred years ago:

> It should be borne in mind that there is nothing more difficult to arrange, more doubtful of success, and more dangerous to carry through than initiating changes. The innovator makes enemies of all those who prospered under the old order and only lukewarm support is forthcoming from those who would prosper under the new. Their support is lukewarm partly from fear of their adversaries, who have the existing laws on their side, and partly because men are generally incredulous, never really trusting new things unless they have tested them by experience.[21]

The point is that managers and leaders are caught between the proverbial rock and a hard place. They generally have been hired with the mandate for change, and yet, even those employees who supported their hiring will, in the course of implementation, doubt a successful conclusion or fear the very consequences that are envisioned. Nevertheless, leaders and managers are paid high salaries primarily to bring about improvements, to create "buy in" from organizational members, and to deal with the disapproval and resistance of those who prefer the status quo. The art of managing is to identify a critical mass of people who can help to create a momentum that will carry the organizational forward.

Of course, favorable environmental conditions often exist or can be created to provide the justification and motivation for change. Some significant examples that have affected libraries are new technologies, the proliferation of computers and access to the Internet, changes in the nature of the workforce (as evidenced by an increased cultural diversity), increased competition or consolidations among vendors and publishers, and social and political trends resulting in heightened privacy and security concerns in the wake of September 11.

On the other hand, libraries, as other organizations, have built-in forces that resist change. First and foremost
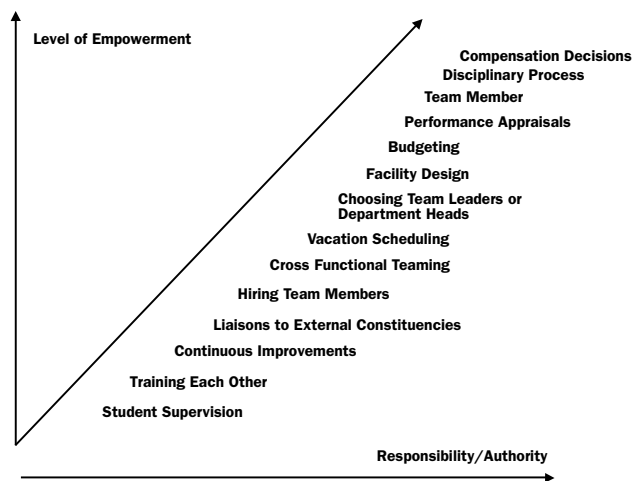
Adapted from: Wellins, R. S., W.C. Byham and J. M. Wilson. 1991. Empowered Teams. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1991. (24)

Figure 3. Empowerment continuum

is structural inertia. Organizational structures are the backbone, which provides permanence, predictability, and stability and thereby some level of comfort to employees. Their functionality is rarely questioned as long as agreed-on goals and objectives are not changed. Even then most employees try to preserve their proven routines by continuing to support unnecessary hierarchical structures or by performing unnecessary tasks. Well-designed pilot programs can be very helpful in overcoming employees' hesitancy to change, particularly when a positive outcome can be guaranteed and the change agent rewarded. There are several reasons for this resistance. Employees who are at a particular career or life stage might resist change because their energies are otherwise engaged. Some examples are employees with school-aged children, elderly parents—or both—and those who have reached career peaks or anticipate retirement. These employees might reinforce each other's unwillingness to learn new routines and skills, while simultaneously defending their accomplishments and position power. Creating win-win situations requires patience, resources, and creativity, as each group member's needs tend to be different and individual solutions are necessary.

Threats to established power relationships and resource allocations are major obstacles to change. It stands to reason that change efforts are undertaken to use organizational resources, which are always in short supply, more effectively. That means conflict between those who stand to lose resources and those who are likely to gain. As Machiavelli warned, those who are about to lose will resist yielding the power they have accumulated over time under the "old order." They have built powerful connections and networks, and they will most likely rally their supporters to bring pressure against any changes unless they can be coopted into becoming change agents (see figure 4).

We often define change agents only as those who act as catalysts because they are displeased with the status

quo and have recruited others to buy into their reality. In other words, they are often perceived as troublemakers. While they are an important force in applying pressure for change, they often lose interest when the actual hard work of implementing change becomes obvious. In addition, catalysts are usually very good at describing the problem, but not as interested in unearthing the underlying reasons why the problem exists, which can be historical, systemic, resource dependent, or due to mismanagement. It is therefore extremely important early on to identify individuals at all organizational levels with different kinds of expertise, as well as those who have informal powerbases, and to enlist them to assist in the change process.

Process helpers are usually individuals who have excellent communication skills and possess referent power, meaning these employees can influence others because of their desirable personal traits and characteristics. They do not necessarily have position power, for example, titles and supervisory authority, but they are well liked throughout the organization.[22] They also need to have a sense of timing and if they believe that the catalyst has identified a genuine problem, they can gather additional support among formal and informal decision makers and elevate the problem for inclusion on an agenda. Because they are often articulate boundary spanners and are held in high regard, they can generate informal discussions and solicit input in diagnosing the underlying reasons for the problem to be remedied.

Once a problem has been defined correctly, change agents in the form of solution givers need to be enlisted. Here we are looking for employees who have connections within as well as outside the organization and who know peers who might have dealt with similar problems. Employees who like to research best practices, who attend professional meetings regularly, and who understand that it is advantageous to identify more than one solution, are ideal for this role. This underscores the importance of increasing funds for professional activities and meetings as part of changing organizations.

Most of us don't think of accountants and financial analysts as change agents, yet their ability to identify new and excess resources, money, personnel, and skills, and link them to new programs and processes, is important for change efforts to succeed. It is therefore critical that new leaders and managers, with an explicit change mandate, understand the budget and budgetary processes. Organizational mission statements, goals, and objectives are just words unless they are backed up by resources, and to really understand organizational priorities is to understand how and where the money is spend.

How can stabilizers be considered change agents? After major change initiatives, organizational boundaries need to be reinterpreted and activities made routine. This requires individuals who understand the big picture and can resolve conflicts over territory, allocation of resources, power, and influence. They have the ability to

Figure 4. Roles of Change Agents

smooth ruffled feathers and to focus aggrieved parties on the new priorities. They reestablish interdependencies and cohesiveness and often provide stable links to the outside environment.

Personal Survival Hints for Leaders and Managers of Change

Finally, it is important for leaders and managers to understand their own capacity for change and their resilience in coping with the inevitable stresses that result. According to Diane Coutu, leaders of change need to have the following characteristics:

- A capacity to accept and face reality, because doing so trains us how to survive in situations of crisis.
- An ability to find meaning in life, because it helps us build bridges from current hardships to a fuller, better constructed future.
- An ability to improvise, because it enables us to make do, muddle through, and image possibilities.[23]

In other words, leaders of change have to be mentally healthy, creative, flexible, and optimistic. They have to be the role models for and embody the values of the new organization. If their primary motivation is service to the organization and its constituencies and employees, then they will create environments that demonstrates all the qualities envisioned by the early human relationists—environments that enable employees to express themselves, grow as human beings, find ways to exercise their emotional as well as intellectual intelligence, and encourage them to serve the greater good.

References

1. Margaret J. Wheatley, *Leadership and the New Science: Discovering Order in a Chaotic World Revised* (San Francisco: Berrett-Kochler Publ., 1999).
2. G. Lee Bolman and Terence E. Deal, *Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership,* 3rd ed. (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2003).

3. Abraham Maslow, *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper & Row, 1954).

4. Douglas McGregor, *The Human Side of Enterprise* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960).

5. Chris Argyris, *Personality and Organization* (New York: Harper & Row, 1957).

6. Ibid., 230.

7. Frederick Herzberg, "One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?" *Harvard Business Review* (Jan. 1968): 46–53, 62.

8. Edwin A. Locke, "Toward a Theory of Task Motivation and Incentives," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 3 (May 1968): 157–89.

9. Daniel Goleman, *Emotional Intelligence* (New York: Bantam Books, 1995).

10. P. Salovey and J. D. Mayer, "Emotional Intelligence," *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality* 9, no. 3: 185–211.

11. John M. Digman, "Personality Structure: Emergence of the Five-Factor Model," in *Annual Review of Psychology,* ed. by M. R. Rosenzweig and L. W. Porter (Palo Alto, Calif.: Annual Reviews, 1990).

12. Murray R. Barrick and M. K. Mount, "The Big Five Personality Dimensions and Job Performance: A Meta-Analysis," *Personnel Psychology* 44 (1991): 1–26.

13. Stephen P. Robbins, *Organizational Behavior: Concepts, Controversies, Applications* (Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1998), 55–56.

14. R. Hogan, G. J. Curphy, and J. Hogan, "What We Know about Leadership," in *Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership,* ed. by L. Bolman, G. and T. E. Deal (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2003).

15. Robbins, 37–39.

16. Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, *The Managerial Grid* (Houston, Texas: Gulf, 1964).

17. Fred E. Fiedler, *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1967); Robert House, "A Path-Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness," *Administrative Science Quarterly* 16 (Sept. 1971): 231–38; Arthur G. Jago, "Leadership: Perspectives in Theory and Research," *Management Science* 28 (Mar. 1982): 331; Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, "So You Want to Know Your Leadership Style?" *Training and Development Journal* (Feb. 1974): 1–15.

18. J. A. Conger and R. N. Kanungo, *Charismatic Leadership* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1988): 91.

19. B. M. Bass, "From Transactional to Transformational Leadership: Learning to Share the Vision," *Organizational Dynamics (*Winter 1990): 22.

20. R. Harrison, "Strategies for a New Age," *Human Resources Management* 22 (1983): 209–35; Albert Ellis, "An Overview of the Clinical Theory of Rational-Emotive Therapy," in *Rational Emotive Therapy,* ed. by R. Grieger and J. Boyd (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1980); Lyn Y. Abramson, Martin E. P. Seligman, and J. D. Teasdale, "Learned Helplessness in Humans: Critique and Reformulation," *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* 87 (1978): 19–74.

21. Niccolo Machiavelli, *The Prince* (Buffalo, N.Y.: Prometheus Books, 1986): 1,532.

22. John R. French and Bertram Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in *Studies of Social Power,* ed. by D. P. Cartwright (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, 1959).

23. Diane L Coutu, "How Resilience Works," in *Harvard Business Review on Building Personal and Organizational Resilience* (Boston: Harvard Business Review Publ., 2003).

24. Figure 3 from Richard S. Wellins, William C. Byham, and Jeanne M. Wilson, *Empowered Teams* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1991).

25. Figure 4 from Richard Havelock and S. Zlotolow, *The Change Agent's Guide,* 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Educational Technology Publ., 1995); S. Wellins, William C. Byham, and Jeanne M. Wilson, *Empowered Teams.*