

Relation of Empathy and Leadership Styles of Cadets at USMA

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Abstract

Are leaders born or made? Contemporary developmental science has evolved from a reductionist approach to a dynamic systems approach that recognizes the scientific value of integrating multiple perspectives about leadership development. Assessments of leadership style during a development period in a specific context can provide insight into how leaders are being developed. This research sought to study the relation between leadership and empathy in United States Military Academy cadets during their first two year at the Academy. Cadets completed three separate self-report surveys assessing: (1) their empathy level, using nine items adapted from the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI); and (2) their preferred style of leadership using the Charismatic, Ideological, and Pragmatic (CIP) leadership style measure. Analysis involved using empathy scale scores associated with cadets' first arrival at USMA and CIP scale mean scores for each subscale at three data collection points. Empathy and CIP leadership scores were examined through computing Pearson-product moment correlations, and hierarchical linear regression was used to examine if empathy predicted CIP leadership and if this relation varied by gender. Results showed that empathy accounted for the most variance in a charismatic leadership style. Variation in how gender and empathy interacted with the leadership was found at each time point. Expanding on this research will provide important information on how to best support leadership development of cadets at USMA.

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Relation of Empathy and Leadership Styles of Cadets at USMA

Are leaders born or made? The timeless question of the origin of leaders parallels a historical view of human development, the Cartesian-Split Mechanistic world view. Contemporary developmental science “has evolved from a field dominated by dichotomous either/or approaches (e.g., either psychogenic explanation or biogenic explanation) to an interdisciplinary approach to the life span that recognizes the scientific value of integrating multiple perspectives” (Overton & Molenaar, 2015, p.2). In contrast to the Cartesian worldview, the process-relational paradigm views a developmental system in which the “organism is seen as inherently active, self-creating (autopoietic), self-organizing, self-regulating (agentic), nonlinear and complex, and adaptive” (Lerner & Callina, 2014, p.325). Within the process-relational paradigm is the relational developmental systems (RDS) metatheory which empathizes the mutually influential relations between individuals and contexts or individuals and individuals (Overton 2013; Overton & Lerner, 2012). In studying the process of leader development RDS is the framework that appropriately accounts for the bidirectional relation of the individual with his or her context, and the other individuals he or she interacts with, as part of the development process.

Prior to the evaluation of leadership performance or outcome-based measures, there is value in the study of how an individual with limited leadership experiences and training, views his or her own way of leading others or leadership style, and how that style develops over time. Assessments of leadership style at the beginning and during a development period in a context that has both explicit

and implicit leadership and character training can provide insight into how leaders within that specific context and program are being developed. Once individual developmental pathways of leadership are identified in the specific context and time, it becomes possible to identify how attributes related to leadership, contribute to leadership style development. Emotional intelligence has received attention for its relation to leadership (e.g., Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Wolf, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002; Koh & O'Higgins, 2018), yet the separate components of emotional intelligence, specifically empathy, have not been adequately studied for their individual relation and predictive value. Leadership literature continually stresses the importance of leader-follower relationships and the ability of a leader to understand the feelings and needs of their followers, termed empathy (Bell & Hall, 1954). This study seeks to expand the existing knowledge of the development of leadership styles and how an individual's level of empathy relates to and is predictive of the different leadership styles.

Leadership Styles

Leadership style is not one size fits all, individual differences and context matter, and individuals may change the style of leadership that is used. In Max Weber's 1924 book *The Theory of Social and Economic Organizations* he outlines three types of management authority or leadership styles; traditional, rational, and charisma (Weber, 1924). This early work was the foundation for a more current model of leadership, the Charismatic, Ideological, and Pragmatic (CIP) model of leadership (Mumford, 2006). Although there is a current focus on the importance of visionary or transformative leadership (Brown & Moshavi,

2005), research has shown the importance of an expanded leadership model with multiple approaches to successful leadership (Hunter, Cushenbery, Thoroughgood, Johnson, & Ligon, 2011). As presented by Lovelace, Neely, Allen, and Hunter (2019), Mumford and colleagues explained each of the three types of leadership style: Charismatic leaders are “leaders who excel by tying their future-focused vision for the organization to emotionally salient change for subordinates and by emphasizing the activities necessary to achieve their desired ends”; Ideological leaders “also use a vision-based approach to leadership, but their vision is contingent upon a specific belief system that appeal to like-minded individuals”; Pragmatic leaders “utilize a problem-solving approach that aims to intellectually stimulate followers through effective communication steeped in logical appeals” (p.2-3). The CIP model fits well into the RDS perspective recognizing not only the leader but also the “significance of followers and context” (Lovelace et al., 2019, p.2). An individual is likely to draw on his or her strengths in order to best implement his or her leadership approach. The original model of CIP leadership was used by Mumford (2006) to evaluate the style of leadership used by high-profile leaders. Leaders at the top of the hierarchy were identified as using one dominate style of leadership. However, Lovelace et. al (2019) contended that “mid and lower level leaders will be more likely than leaders at higher levels of organizations to present mixed leader profiles” (p. 107). More senior leaders were discussed as having faced more crucible moments that resulted in a more unified and defined leadership style. The CIP leadership measure provides a sub-score for each of the three leadership styles and thus

allows for both a dominant leadership style profile or a mixed leader profile to emerge. Research has shown that specific character attributes are related to leadership, the model of emotional intelligence has shown to be of particular importance and is likely to be predictive of leadership styles.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

Over the last twenty years the emotional intelligence model (Salovey and Mayer, 1990) has been a growing focus of research on the relation of emotional intelligence and leadership (e.g. Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Brown, & Moshavi, 2005; Gardner, & Stough, 2002). Many researchers have focused on the connection of emotional intelligence and leadership (e.g. Barling et al, 2000; Brown & Moshavi, 2005). Though much of the current research focuses on transformational leadership, some common points are applicable outside the limited scope. “Bass (1985) defined the transformational leader as one who arouses the interest in the group or organization, increases the confidence of individuals or groups, and attempts to move the concerns of subordinates to achievement and growth rather than existence” (Gardner & Stough, p.68). Barling et al. (2000) highlights three reasons to support the connection between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership: management of personal emotions, understanding other’s emotions, and empathy which includes positive relationship management. They contend that these three factors contribute to a leader who can be trusted, is respected, is able to motivate others, and shows individual consideration for others. Brown and Moshavi (2005) also relate emotional intelligence with three areas of transformational leadership: “individualized

consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation” (p. 868).

Brown and Moshavi (2005) go on to propose that elements of emotional intelligence related to being aware of the emotional state of others may make an individual more likely to engage in effective leadership behaviors. These studies express a common theme of the importance of understanding the emotions of others. These studies present the case that emotional awareness of others may be a critical factor in effective leadership and call for further examination of individual levels of empathy related to leadership.

Empathy and Leadership

In 1954 Bell and Hall published a short manuscript testing and discussing the relation of leadership and empathy. They state that a leader is selected for his or her “ability to satisfy the needs of the group members” which is accomplished by the ability to “perceive the needs of others through becoming aware of the other’s phenomenological field” and go on to say that this awareness has been termed empathy (Bell and Hall, 1954, p. 156). The research conducted by Bell and Hall (1954) found a relation between empathy and leadership where empathy accounted for 20% of the variance in leadership scores. They note that more effective measures were needed and the need for further research to better understand the relation. In the time since this publication little published research has examined empathy and leadership. The articles that can be found focus on business practices and not on sufficient empirical research (e.g. Gentry, Weber & Sadri, 2007; Duff, 2017). Empathy is being identified as an important attribute

related to leadership but without the empirical support to help understand how the two are related.

Understanding the needs of others through empathy is in part an awareness that those needs do not remain constant and will vary from situation to situation. As such it is necessary to use a leadership model that allows for variation and not reliance on one style. The CIP leadership model accounts for three variations of leadership styles that are all considered capable of leading to exceptional leader performance based on the assessed situation and needs of group. The role of empathetic ability of a leader is better considered when related to a leadership model with multiple style variations.

Empathy, Leadership Style, and Gender

In keeping with the RDS metatheory and the specificity principle as described by Bornstein (2017) it is important consider specific demographics of a group of people to better understand the relation of variables being examined about those people. A salient demographic variable in both empathy and the CIP leadership model is gender.

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) reviewed extant literature on psychological sex differences and found that there were very few differences that had been demonstrated. Empathy was one attribute that was identified to show variance between men and women, although only in some measures. Eisenberg and Lennon (1983) further supported this finding by stating that gender differences for empathy existed mainly when the measure was used as part of a self-report survey.

In a review of the CIP model of leadership, Lovelace et al., (2019) noted that individual differences and contextual differences “are likely to cause variations in the emergence and performance of the three CIP leadership styles” (p.108). Eagly and Johnson (1990) found evidence for both the presence and absence of differences between genders for leadership styles. They found variation in differences depending on the type of study (e.g., organizational, laboratory, and assessment) and the aspect of leadership style being addressed (e.g., interpersonal or task oriented; and democratic versus autocratic). Differences between gender were found in assessment studies, which they defined as research about people not currently in leadership roles. Differences occurred in regard to gender-stereotypical expectation that women lead in an interpersonally oriented style and men in a task-oriented style.

In the context of the military, the view is often taken that all individuals must be treated identically in order to ensure equal treatment. Although specific circumstances may warrant this type of approach, the study of leadership development is not one of those cases. In contrast equitable treatment of male and female cadets may be best achieved through greater understanding of different ways they may develop. By identifying if and how a gender difference exists, gender-specific support can be designed to best promote leadership development.

The Present Study

Leadership in any organization but specifically in the United States military is a crucial area of study, with a goal of being able to further develop and

ideally optimize. The study of leadership styles and how character attributes moderate those styles, contributes to a greater understanding of how leadership occurs and develops. By understanding how empathy relates to different leadership styles on the CIP leadership model, leadership development will be better informed.

The primary question guiding this research is: Does the empathy level of a cadet, when they first arrive at USMA, covary with his or her leadership style when they first arrive at USMA, at the end of their first year, and end of their second year at the institution? The secondary question of this research is how the relation of empathy and leadership style is moderated by gender.

Method

This research is a secondary analysis of quantitative data that were derived from two sources: self-report surveys administered at USMA as part of Project Arete, and the Academy student database. Project Arete is a longitudinal, Five-year cohort sequential, mixed-method investigation, seeking to understand the individual character strengths of cadets, as well as how these strengths may be enhanced by the West Point context and experience (Callina, et al., 2017). Survey data came from the fall 2016 New Cadet Testing (NCT) data collection and the Cadet Character Development Program (CCDP) data collection in the spring of 2017 and 2018. The data from the Academy student personnel database were extracted by the Office of Institutional Research (G5) and linked with Project Arete survey data.

Participants

This study used data collected from Cadets in the 2020 graduation year cohort. Participation at each data collection timepoint varied, resulting in three separate but overlapping samples of cadets for each time point.

At Time 1, NCT data collection in the fall of 2016, 1,277 (76.5% male) cadets were surveyed. However, 65 cadets were dropped from the sample due to not responding. The race of the remaining sample, as reflected in the student personnel database, was approximately 64% Caucasian, 9% Hispanic, 13% Black, and 13% Asian, American Indian, Other, or Unknown.

At Time 2, CCDP data collection in the spring of 2017, 449 (73.7% male) cadets from the class of 2020 responded to the survey. Their race, as reflected in the student personnel database, was approximately 68% Caucasian, 9% Hispanic, 10% Black, and 13% Asian, American Indian, Other, or Unknown.

At Time 3, CCDP data collection in the spring of 2018, 448 (74.3% male) cadets from the class of 2020 responded to the survey. Their race, as reflected in the student personnel database, was approximately 64% Caucasian, 9% Hispanic, 10% Black, and 14% Asian, American Indian, Other, or Unknown.

Procedure

In the NCT data collection, newly enrolled cadets volunteered to complete the Project Arete Personal Values Survey. Cadets were read a statement explaining the voluntary and confidential nature of the study and were then given instructions for completing the survey. The Personal Values Survey is a 228-item instrument measuring the personal value and attitudes, behaviors, and emotions

related to character of the cadets. Cadets were given 50 minutes to complete the survey. For the CCDP data collection, cadets had the opportunity to complete the Project Arete Character and Leadership Survey during one of the modules of CCDP. Cadets assembled for their regularly-scheduled CCDP module. They watched a brief video from the USMA Superintendent introducing Project Arete and the survey. Then, the CCDP cadet facilitator read a statement about the voluntary and confidential nature of the survey.

Finally, cadets had the opportunity to leave CCDP and complete the survey on their own. The survey was administered online. Therefore, cadets were able to complete it anywhere they had a computer with internet access. Each cadet received an email with a unique link to the survey. The Character and Leadership Survey is a 251-item instrument measuring attitudes, behaviors, and emotions related to character. A “planned missingness” method was used for the survey. Data about Cadet demographics were linked to the survey data by anonymous ID.

Measures

Empathy. In the NCT data collection, nine items adapted from the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1983) assessed empathy. For both CCDP data collections, six items adapted from the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (Davis, 1983) assessed empathy. The measure consists of the subscales of empathic concern (e.g., “When I see someone being taken advantage of, I want to help them.”), and perspective-taking (cognitive empathy, e.g., “When I am upset at someone, I try to understand how they feel.”). Scale scores were used for all data collection timepoints to account for differences in the specific items used.

Example items are: “I feel sorry for other people who don’t have what I have” and “When I see another person who is hurt or upset, I feel sorry for them.” Response options ranged from 1 = Not at all like me to 5 = Just like me. Cronbach’s $\alpha_{2016NCT} = .82$

CIP Leadership Scale. In order to assess leadership style, the NCT survey used the CIP Leadership scale (Mumford, 2006) consisting of 36 items, 12 items in each of three subscales: Charismatic (e.g., “In thinking about who I am as a leader I define myself as someone who focuses on a brighter future.”), Ideological (e.g., “In thinking about who I am as a leader I define myself as someone who protects key values.”), and Pragmatic (e.g., “In thinking about who I am as a leader I define myself as someone who provides solutions to problems.”). Both CCDP data collection surveys used a revised version of the CIP Leadership scale (Mumford, 2006). The revised scale consists of 24 items, eight items falling into each of the three subscales. The response scale ranged from 1 = minor part of my identity to 7 = completely defines my identity for nine of the items and 1 = how I would like things to be to 7 = the way the world must be for the remaining items. In prior research, reliability values in the CIP scales ranged from 0.79 to 0.90 (e.g., Lovelace, 2017; Lovelace, Neely, & Hunter, 2017). In the present sample, the alphas for the charismatic, Ideological and pragmatic scales in males ranged from 0.68 to 0.72. For females, the range was 0.63 to 0.75.

Results

Preliminary descriptive analyses were conducted. Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and range of the variables for the whole sample and

separated for the male and female cadets. Figure 1 shows the mean sample scores for each style of leadership at each time. Figures 2 through 4 show the mean scores for male and female cadets for charismatic, ideological, and pragmatic leadership, respectively. Table 2 presents the Pearson product-moment correlations among empathy at time one and charismatic leadership, ideological leadership, and pragmatic leadership at the three time points. The first column of correlations in Table 2 reflect the values of direct interest in this study. Due to the relatively large size of the sample at each time point even correlations as low as .11 were found to be significant at $p < .001$ level.

Question 1: Does the self-reported empathy level of cadets relate to their self-reported leadership style?

To investigate the hypothesis that the self-reported empathy level of cadets when they first arrive at USMA relates to their self-reported leadership style, the Pearson product-moment correlations between empathy scores and leadership style scores were appraised. As shown in Table 2, Time 1 empathy scores were significantly correlated to time one charismatic leadership, $r(1151) = .35, p < .001$, Time 1 ideological leadership $r(1151) = .11, p < .001$, Time 1 pragmatic leadership $r(1151) = .18, p < .001$, Time 2 charismatic leadership $r(442) = .19, p < .001$, Time 3 charismatic leadership $r(424) = .25, p < .001$, and Time 3 pragmatic leadership $r(424) = .13, p < .001$.

Question 2: Does the empathy level of a cadet, when they first arrive at USMA, predict his or her leadership style when they first arrive at USMA, at the end of their first year, and end of their second year at the institution when controlling for gender?

To investigate the hypothesis that cadets' self-reported empathy level, when they first arrive at USMA, predicts their leadership style when they first arrive at USMA, at the end of their first, and second year at the institution when controlling for gender, I used hierarchical linear regression. At each of the three time points and for each of the three leadership styles, step 1 of the regression analysis examined the variable gender, which was coded as 0 female and 1 male. Step 2 examined the additional predictor of Time 1 empathy and the interaction of gender and empathy.

Time Point 1: New Cadet Testing. At Time 1, Step 1 of the regression analysis, using gender as the predictor variable and the leadership style as an outcome variable, only the ideological leadership model was found to be significant, $F(1,1144) = 4.72, p < .05, R^2 = .004$. Gender accounted for 0.4% of the variance in ideological leadership scores. Step 1 was not significant for either the charismatic leadership model or the pragmatic leadership model at time one.

Step 2 of the regression analysis, using gender, empathy, and the interaction of gender and empathy as predictor variables, found significant results for all three leadership styles as the outcome variables. The results of the charismatic leadership model, $F(2,1147) = 82.82, p < .001$, showed an R^2 of .13. The results of the ideological leadership model $F(2,1142) = 8.88, p < .001$,

showed an R^2 of .015. The results of the pragmatic leadership model $F(2,1141) = 21.615, p < .001$, showed an R^2 of .036. Table 3 presents the variance, change in variance from Step 1 to Step 2 and the unstandardized coefficients for all models at Step 1 and Step 2 at Time 1.

Time Point 2: End of First Year. At Time 2, Step 1, using gender as the predictor variable and the leadership style as the outcome variable, was a significant predictor for ideological leadership $F(1,440) = 4.972, p < .05, R^2 = .011$ and pragmatic leadership $F(1,440) = 5.776, p < .05, R^2 = .013$. Step 2 of the analysis, using gender, empathy, and the interaction of gender and empathy as predictor variables and the leadership styles as the outcome variables, was only significant for the charismatic leadership model $F(2,438) = 8.092, p < .001, R^2 = .036$. Table 4 reports the variance, change in variance from Step 1 to Step 2 and the unstandardized coefficients for all models at Step 1 and Step 2 at Time 2.

Time Point 3: End of Second Year. At Time Three, Step 1, using gender as the predictor variable and the leadership style as the outcome variable, was only a significant predictor for ideological leadership $F(1,421) = 11.943, p < .05, R^2 = .03$. Step 2, using gender, empathy, and the interaction of gender and empathy as predictor variables and the leadership styles as the outcome variables, was significant for charismatic and pragmatic leadership styles. The results of the charismatic leadership model, $F(2,420) = 13.681, p < .001$, showed an R^2 of .061. The results of the pragmatic leadership model, $F(2,420) = 4.961, p < .05$, showed an R^2 of .023. Table 5 reports the variance, change in variance from Step 1 to Step

2 and the unstandardized coefficients for all models at Step 1 and Step 2 at Time 3.

Discussion

In order to better understand how an individual with limited leadership experience and training views his or her own leadership style, and to identify attributes that relate to specific styles of leadership, I investigated whether empathy predicted leadership style in USMA cadets. Using an RDS-based model of bidirectional relations between a cadet and the context of USMA, I investigated how each cadet reported his or her style of leadership when they first arrived at USMA, at the end of his or her first year, and at the end of his or her second year.

Cadet empathy level was measured at the cadet's arrival at USMA using a measure adapted from the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1983). Cadet leadership style was measured using the CIP leadership model developed by Mumford (2006). This model provides three scores for each cadet, for charismatic, ideological, and pragmatic leadership. These scores were computed at three time points. Based on existing research and literature of social intelligence and empathy (e.g., Bell and Hall, 1954; Brown & Moshavi, 2005), I hypothesized that a cadet's level of empathy was predictive of leadership style. The literature has also shown that variation of leadership styles in regard to the CIP leadership model, as well as empathy vary by gender (e.g., Lovelace et al., 2018; Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983). As such I assessed gender in relation to empathy. Analyses involved computing the Pearson product-moment correlation between leadership styles at each time point and empathy. Hierarchical linear

regression was used to determine if empathy and the interaction effect of gender and empathy were correlated to each leadership style at each time point.

The results of this research may enhance understanding of how a USMA cadet views his or her style of leadership during the first two years at USMA and begins to advance understanding of what attributes are related to that leadership. USMA's mission, to train and prepare cadets to be leaders of character in the United States Army, requires programs and strategies that take purposeful steps to support and develop positive leadership skills. By identifying both the style of leadership cadets use and the attributes that support leadership, programs can be based on, and designed, to support these attributes and leadership styles. Every member of the United States military deserves a leader who has been given the best opportunity to develop into a confident leader who is aware of his or her own strengths, style, and abilities.

As the CIP leadership model literature indicates, cadet's style of leadership does not group individuals as having only one leadership style (Mumford, Antes, Caughron, & Friedrich, 2008). Each of the three styles, charismatic, ideological, and pragmatic leadership, were found to have a mean score over four on a seven-point rating scale. This finding supports literature on the CIP leadership model that individuals with limited leadership experience may utilize multiple forms of leadership resulting in a mixed leadership style profile (e.g., Hunter et al., 2011), likely due to different contextual requirements or by choosing a leadership style that is best supported the person's specific strengths.

Not all correlations between empathy and leadership style were significant. However, for those relations that were significant a positive relation was found. This preliminary analysis confirmed the hypothesis that empathy was related to leadership styles of cadets at USMA.

In regard to the results of the hierarchical linear regressions, not all models were significant. However, for those that were an increase in empathy predicted an increase in the measure of the leadership style. As noted below, how empathy predicted a specific leadership style varied by time and gender

Charismatic Leadership

The models using empathy, gender, and the interaction of gender and empathy, to predict charismatic leadership were significant at all three time points. When cadets first arrive at USMA (Time 1) results indicated that, on average, female cadets with empathy scores above 4.50 scored higher in charismatic leadership than male cadets with the same empathy scores. Males, on average, with empathy scores below 4.50, scored higher in charismatic leadership than females with the same empathy scores. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) did a comprehensive review of the sex differences literature; they found that, on most psychological variables males and females did not differ but, when they did, the differences tended to be small or restricted to some instances of measurement; for instance, females show higher empathy than males. Consistent with this finding, Eisenberg and Lennon (1983), noted that when females exceed males in empathy, it is only on self-report measures, measures that can be affected by social stereotypes. Therefore, the difference between male and female cadets in empathy

and its relation to charismatic leadership may reflect responding biased by the social stereotype that women are more empathic than men. In that this study used self-report data it may be that, on entering USMA, women expect to be more empathic. It is likely that cadets who are aware of the gender norms regarding empathy may self-rate their scores on this variable that account for these relations (see too Eagly & Johnson, 1990). It is important to note that the regression model only accounted for 13% of the variance in charismatic leadership. It is likely that cadets who fit these traditional gender norms for empathy may also be more comfortable and confident in their own abilities and have other positive social attributes that support charismatic leadership.

In contrast to the linear regression model at Time 1, the model at Time 2 reflected a different relation of empathy and charismatic leadership for males and female. On average, when male cadets had an empathy score above 4.22 they had a higher score in charismatic leadership than female cadets; in turn when, female cadets had an empathy score below 4.22 they had higher scores in charismatic leadership. Findings support the idea that, between arrival and the end of the first-year, cadets go through a transition where views are challenged and changed. It is likely that contextual challenges are different than expected or change more rapidly than the cadet can adapt to and, perhaps, cadets may begin to question their traditional beliefs. The Charismatic Leadership Model at this time of testing only accounted for 3.6% of the variance in charismatic leadership. Interestingly only the overall model was significant; none of the three predictor variables in the

model were found to be significant. Although this finding may be due to random variation, it is an interesting point that warrants further investigation.

The Time 2 data collection occurred at the end of the cadets' first year at the Academy. Though only a very small percentage of the variance in charismatic leadership is accounted for by the model, results begin to paint a picture of the cadet's world being turned upside down. Scoring shows that cadets still see themselves as strong charismatic leaders but the relation to empathy and gender has been altered. It may be that cadets at this time are reconsidering what is needed to be charismatic leaders in the context of USMA.

By the end of the cadets' second year at USMA (Time 3), the data reflect results similar to what was seen at Time 1. On average, when female cadets had an empathy score higher than 3.82 they scored higher in charismatic leadership than male cadets with the same empathy scores, and when male cadets had an empathy score below 3.82 they scored higher in charismatic leadership than female cadets with the same empathy scores. The amount of variance accounted for by the model at Time 3 was 6%, and empathy was the only main effect found to be a significant predictor variable. These findings seem to show that, by the end of the cadets' second year, they reflected again traditional gender norms for empathy and charismatic leadership.

Ideological Leadership

The Ideological Leadership model was only found to be significant at Time 1 and accounted for 1.5% of the variance in ideological leadership. Empathy did not appear to play an important role in the use of ideological leadership by

cadets. As ideological leadership is used to promote a specific belief system, it makes sense that empathy or understanding of others would not play a significant role.

Pragmatic Leadership

The Pragmatic Leadership model was found to be significant at Time 1 and Time 3, though only 3.6% and 2.3% of the variance were accounted for, respectively. This relation may reflect an understanding that the best time to offer praise or correction involves consideration of the other persons' perspective and feelings.

Limitations

There were many limitations to this study that must be considered. First, USMA is a very special context that cannot be easily generalized to other higher education institutions. The priority on developing leaders of character in an academic institution is only found in other military academies. Findings in this study do not necessarily translate to other leadership development contexts.

Even within USMA, the sample of cadets examined in this study was limited. Only data from cadets in the class year of 2020 were used. I was unable to confirm if these findings would replicate across class years or beyond the second year at USMA.

In addition, the scope of the analysis I conducted assessed only one of the possible attributes that is likely to relate to leadership. Empathy is a small piece of the puzzle in leadership development. Other possible moderators of leadership include, honesty, intentional self-regulation, and Grit. Ideally, all available

attributes included in the Project Arete data set that are theoretically related to leadership would have been tested in the models. Such an analysis would give a much more in depth understanding of what factors contribute to styles of leadership. In addition, the possible demographic covariates that may be of relevance to leadership (e.g., ethnicity, age, or religion), only gender was used in this analysis. Including other demographic factors in predictive models, such as ethnicity, would have better identified relations for specific sub groups of cadets. However, such analyses were beyond the scope of this research.

When used in this study, the CIP Leadership Measure resulted in an alpha level lower than had been previously been reported for use of this measure (e.g., Lovelace, 2017; Lovelace, Neely, & Hunter, 2017). Although it is common to accept a Cronbach's alpha at a value of 0.7 to 0.8, Field (2013) outlines the justification for acceptance of measures when their values range from 0.5 to 0.7 (for example, Cronbach's alpha is a conservative estimate of internal consistency).

In the RDS metatheory it is important to be specific in understanding what specific individuals will be best supported by a specific program (Bornstein, 2017). Future research should expand to testing additional class years at USMA, include multiple predictor variables, and consider ethnicity. Better understanding of the different groups at USMA will allow better targeting of support and, eventually, can lead to improved leader development.

Next steps for this type of research would be using more inclusive predictive models to study changes in cadets across the 47-month experience at

USMA. Then, research connecting leadership style data with leadership performance measures at USMA and, as well, extend research to assess officers in the United States Army. Discovering what leadership styles are related to better leadership performance would provide information for improved programs of leadership development and ultimately better performing officers. Below are more specific possibilities for expanded directions of this research:

- Examine relation of empathy to leadership scores of cadet admissions packet;
- Examine change of empathy scores from Time 1 to Time 3;
- Investigate awareness of gender-bias in female cadets;
- Investigate presence of stereotype threat in relation to reports of empathy;
- Examine relation of periodic developmental review (PDR) empathy scores to survey empathy measure;
- Examine correlation of CIP leadership scores to factors found in Callina et al. (2018), such as Relational, Honor, and Machiavellian.
- Correlation of charismatic leadership scores to military performance scores at all four years at USMA;
- Determine cadets' transition between leadership styles and how these transitions relate to context; and
- Conduct growth mixture modeling to examine CIP leadership model.

Conclusions

Although this research is limited to cadets at USMA, it does not lessen the importance of discovering how leader development happens in this context. The findings of this study provide limited insight into early leader development of cadets at USMA. Results of this study have shown that cadets see themselves as using different styles of leadership. Empathy was shown to play an important role as a predictor of charismatic leadership and was also a marginally important predictor for pragmatic leadership. Gender was found to be an important variable that required consideration when examining leadership at USMA. As women are a vital part of our military forces and have at this writing, recently had all military job specialties made available to them, it is crucial to better understand how the developmental needs of males and females differ USMA, should be interested in identifying specific types of leadership that will best serve cadets as future Army leaders and officers. Accordingly, this research is a starting point to understanding what attributes can be reinforced to potentially support specific leadership styles. By teaching cadets to be more empathetic it is likely cadets' opinion of their use of charismatic leadership would increase, as would pragmatic leadership (but to a lesser degree).

The changes that occur for cadets, as reflected in the data collection at the end of the first year, may represent a transition period where cadets require increased support. Identification of a change in a cadet's traditional views even if only related to leadership and empathy, might also be a challenge to a cadet's views in other areas. The contextual challenges of USMA put stress on cadets,

challenges that they may not be able to adapt to fast enough during this time. Yet, by the end of the second year, it may be that cadets do find a way to adapt and return to their traditional views.

Most of the cadets who start at USMA become Army officers and lead other young men and women in the armed forces. The ability to understand the perspective and feelings of those around you is a small but important piece of being a leader. Understanding how each cadet, either male or female, can be best supported to develop as a leader is a no fail mission that this research hopefully contributes to in some small way.

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Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics of Empathy and CIP Leadership Styles for Cadets

	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Range	Min	Max
Time 1 Empathy	1212	3.90	.60	1-5	1.67	5.00
Male	941	3.85	.60	1-5	1.67	5.00
Female	271	4.06	.56	1-5	2.11	5.00
Time 1 Charismatic Leadership	1157	4.72	.91	1-7	1.00	7.00
Male	899	4.71	.89	1-7	1.00	7.00
Female	258	4.75	.95	1-7	1.25	7.00
Time 1 Ideological Leadership	1153	4.28	.90	1-7	1.00	7.00
Male	896	4.32	.91	1-7	1.00	7.00
Female	257	4.17	.87	1-7	2.25	7.00
Time 1 Pragmatic Leadership	1151	5.27	.78	1-7	2.00	7.00
Male	893	5.28	.81	1-7	2.00	7.00
Female	258	5.22	.76	1-7	3.00	7.00
Time 2 Charismatic Leadership	449	5.04	.95	1-7	1.00	7.00
Male	331	5.03	.96	1-7	1.00	7.00
Female	118	5.10	.92	1-7	2.00	7.00
Time 2 Ideological Leadership	449	4.13	.92	1-7	1.00	7.00
Male	331	4.19	.91	1-7	1.00	7.00
Female	118	3.96	.92	1-7	2.13	7.00
Time 2 Pragmatic Leadership	449	5.24	.89	1-7	1.00	7.00
Male	331	5.30	.89	1-7	1.00	7.00
Female	118	5.08	.89	1-7	2.50	7.00
Time 3 Charismatic Leadership	448	4.99	1.01	1-7	1.75	7.00
Male	333	4.94	1.02	1-7	1.75	7.00
Female	99	5.17	.95	1-7	1.75	6.50
(No Gender Identified)	16	4.94	1.16	1-7	2.50	7.00
Time 3 Ideological Leadership	447	4.25	1.07	1-7	1.50	7.00
Male	332	4.34	1.09	1-7	1.50	7.00
Female	99	3.91	.93	1-7	1.75	7.00
(No Gender Identified)	16	4.68	1.01	1-7	3.75	7.00
Time 3 Pragmatic Leadership	448	5.23	.91	1-7	2.00	7.00
Male	333	5.26	.93	1-7	2.00	7.00
Female	99	5.12	.81	1-7	2.50	7.00
(No Gender Identified)	16	5.34	1.02	1-7	4.00	7.00

Note: CIP = Charismatic, Ideological, and Pragmatic

Table 2.

Correlations Between Cadet Empathy Scores at NCT and CIP Leadership Style Scores at NCT, CCDP Year One and Year Two

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. T1 Empathy	-									
2. T1 Charismatic	.35**	-								
3. T1 Ideological	.11**	.34**	-							
4. T1 Pragmatic	.18**	.42**	.33**	-						
5. T2 Charismatic	.19**	.33**	.11*	.08	-					
6. T2 Ideological	-.01	.07	.35**	.02	.21**	-				
7. T2 Pragmatic	.01	.07	.02	.20**	.54**	.22**	-			
8. T3 Charismatic	.25**	.26**	.11*	.19**	.47**	.18**	.23**	-		
9. T3 Ideological	.04	.03	.28*	-.05	.07	.47**	.05	.35**	-	
10. T3 Pragmatic	.13**	.11*	.11*	.23**	.22**	.10	.40**	.61**	.39**	-

Note: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; NCT = New Cadet Testing; CIP = Charismatic, Ideological, and Pragmatic; CCDP = Cadet Character Development Program

Table 3.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression at Time 1 for Variables Predicting Charismatic, Ideological, and Pragmatic Leadership (n=1151)

	<i>Step 1</i>		<i>Step 2</i>	
	<i>R</i> ²	<i>β</i>	<i>ΔR</i> ²	<i>β</i>
Charismatic Leadership	0		.13**	
Gender		NS		.902*
Empathy				.701**
Gender and Empathy Interaction				-.206*
Ideological Leadership	.004*		.015**	
Gender		.138*		NS
Empathy				.211*
Gender and Empathy Interaction				NS
Pragmatic Leadership	.001%		.036**	
Gender		NS		NS
Empathy				.335**
Gender and Empathy Interaction				NS

*Note: * = p<.05; ** = p<.001; β is unstandardized*

Table 4.

Summary of Hierarchal Regression at Time 2 for Variables Predicting Charismatic, Ideological, and Pragmatic Leadership (n=442)

	<i>Step 1</i>		<i>Step 2</i>	
	<i>R</i> ²	<i>β</i>	<i>ΔR</i> ²	<i>β</i>
Charismatic Leadership	.001		.036**	
Gender		NS		NS
Empathy				NS
Gender and Empathy Interaction				NS
Ideological Leadership	.011*		.001	
Gender		.221*		NS
Empathy				NS
Gender and Empathy Interaction				NS
Pragmatic Leadership	.013*		.008	
Gender		.231*		NS
Empathy				NS
Gender and Empathy Interaction				NS

*Note: * = p<.05; ** = p<.001; β is unstandardized*

Table 5.

Summary of Hierarchal Regression at Time 3 for Variables Predicting Charismatic, Ideological, and Pragmatic Leadership (n=424)

	<i>Step 1</i>		<i>Step 2</i>	
	<i>R</i> ²	<i>β</i>	<i>ΔR</i> ²	<i>β</i>
Charismatic Leadership	.008		.061**	
Gender		NS		NS
Empathy				.714**
Gender and Empathy Interaction				NS
Ideological Leadership	.03*		.008	
Gender		.422*		NS
Empathy				NS
Gender and Empathy Interaction				NS
Pragmatic Leadership	.01		.023*	
Gender		NS		NS
Empathy				NS
Gender and Empathy Interaction				NS

*Note: * = p < .05, ** = p < .001; β is unstandardized*

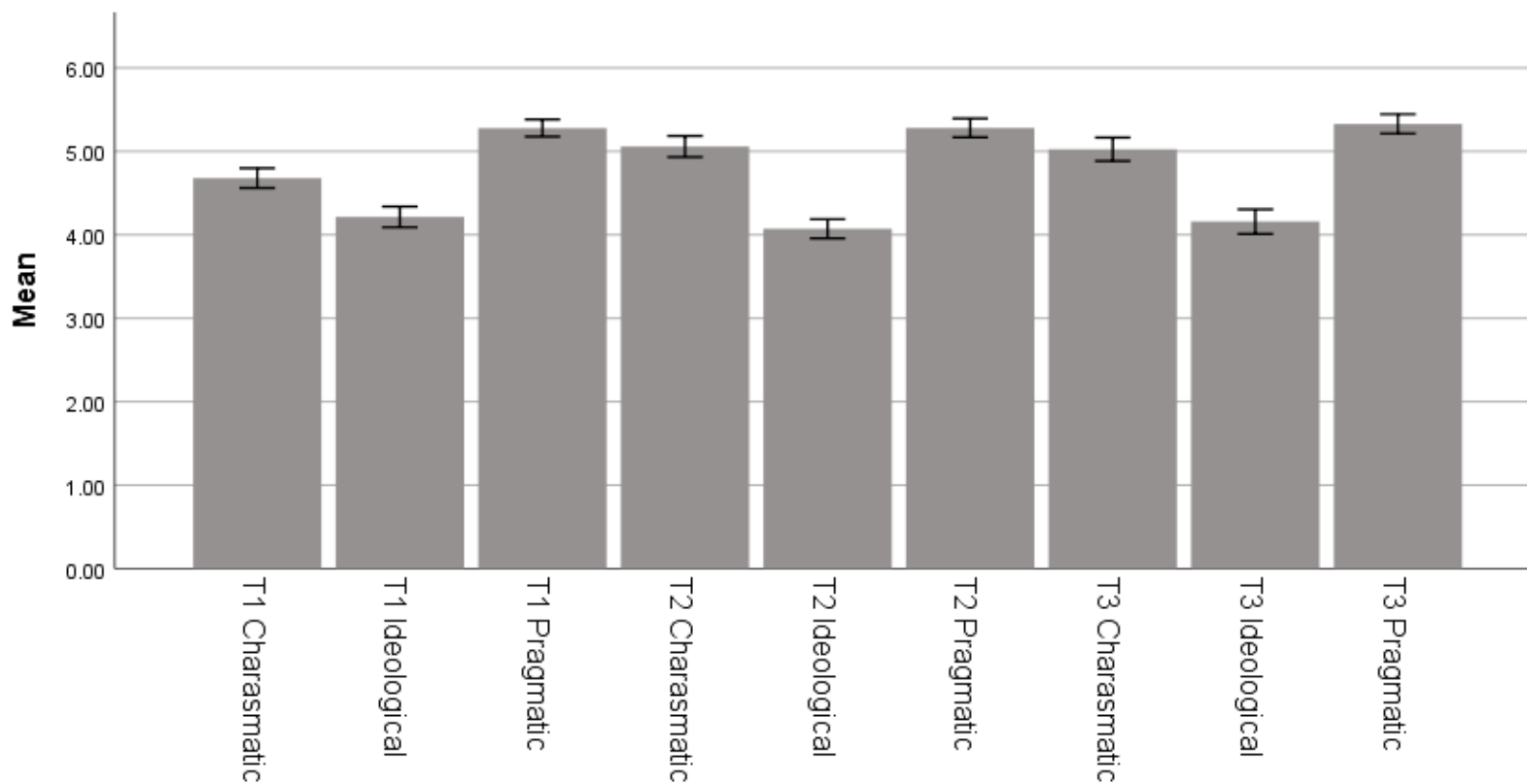


Figure 1. Mean leadership style scores at each time.

Note: Error bars 95% confidence interval

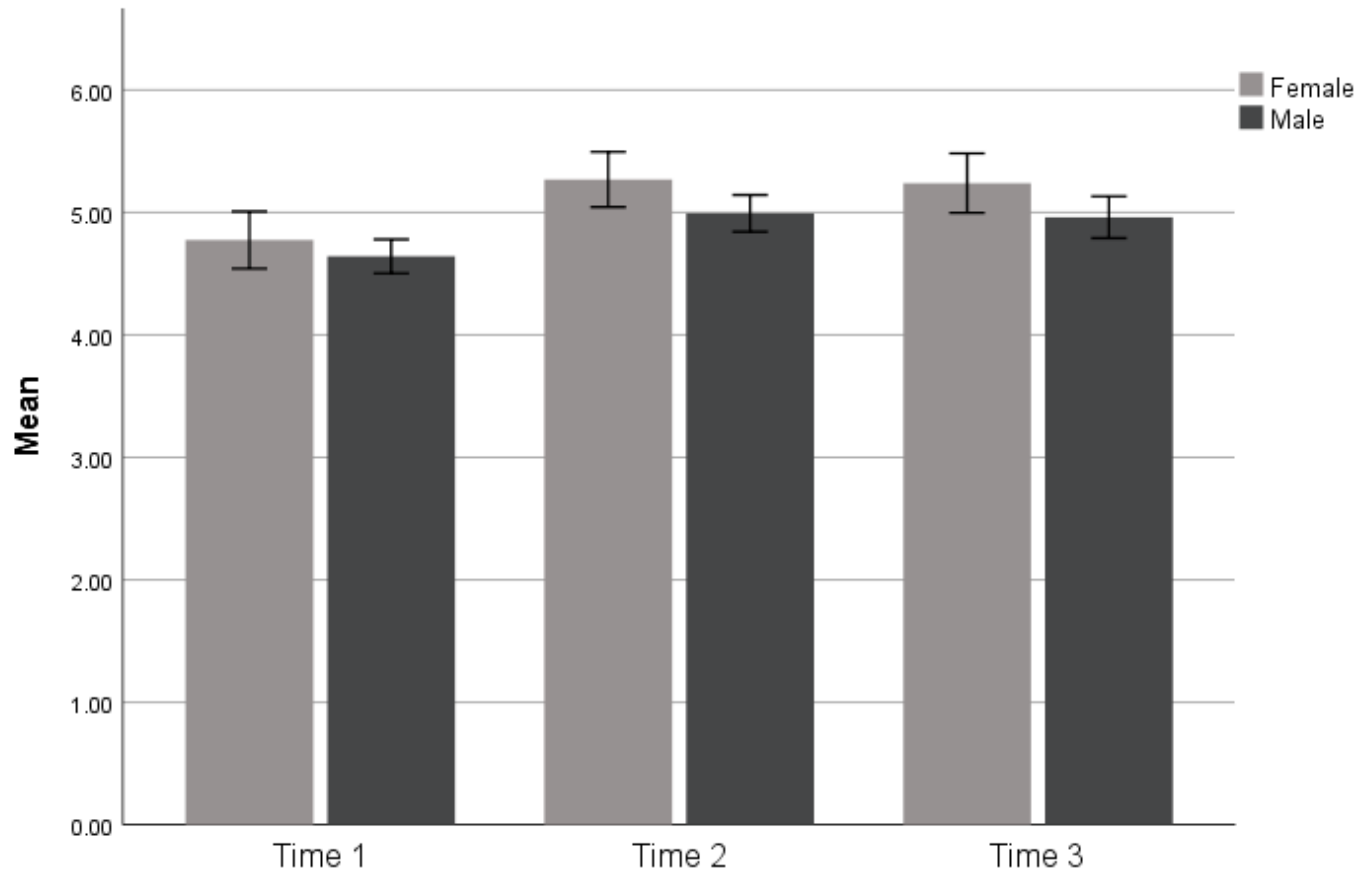


Figure 2. Mean score of charismatic leadership for male and female cadets at each time.

Note: Error bars = 95% confidence interval.

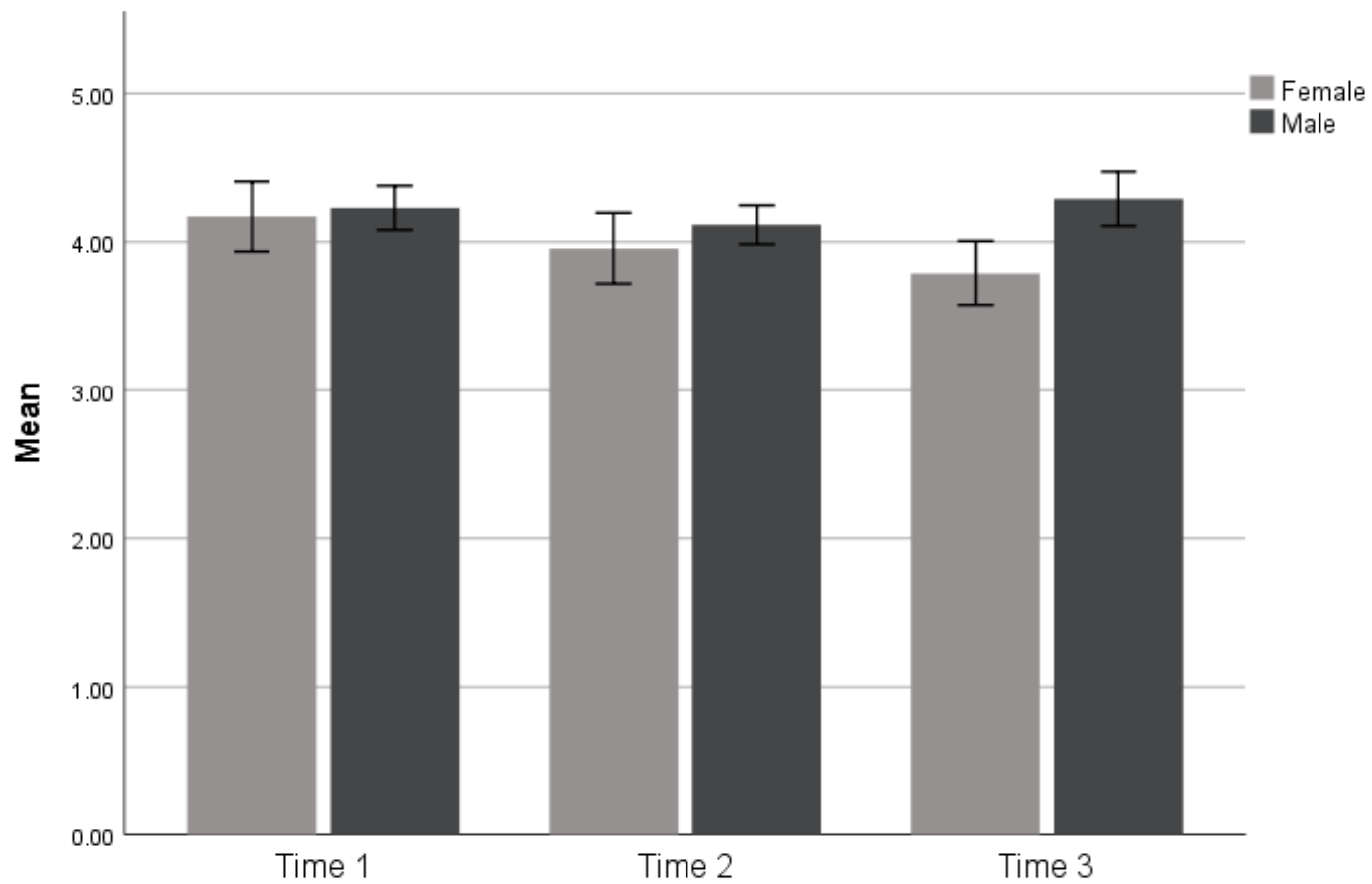


Figure 3. Mean score of ideological leadership for male and female cadets at each time.

Note: Error bars = 95% confidence interval.

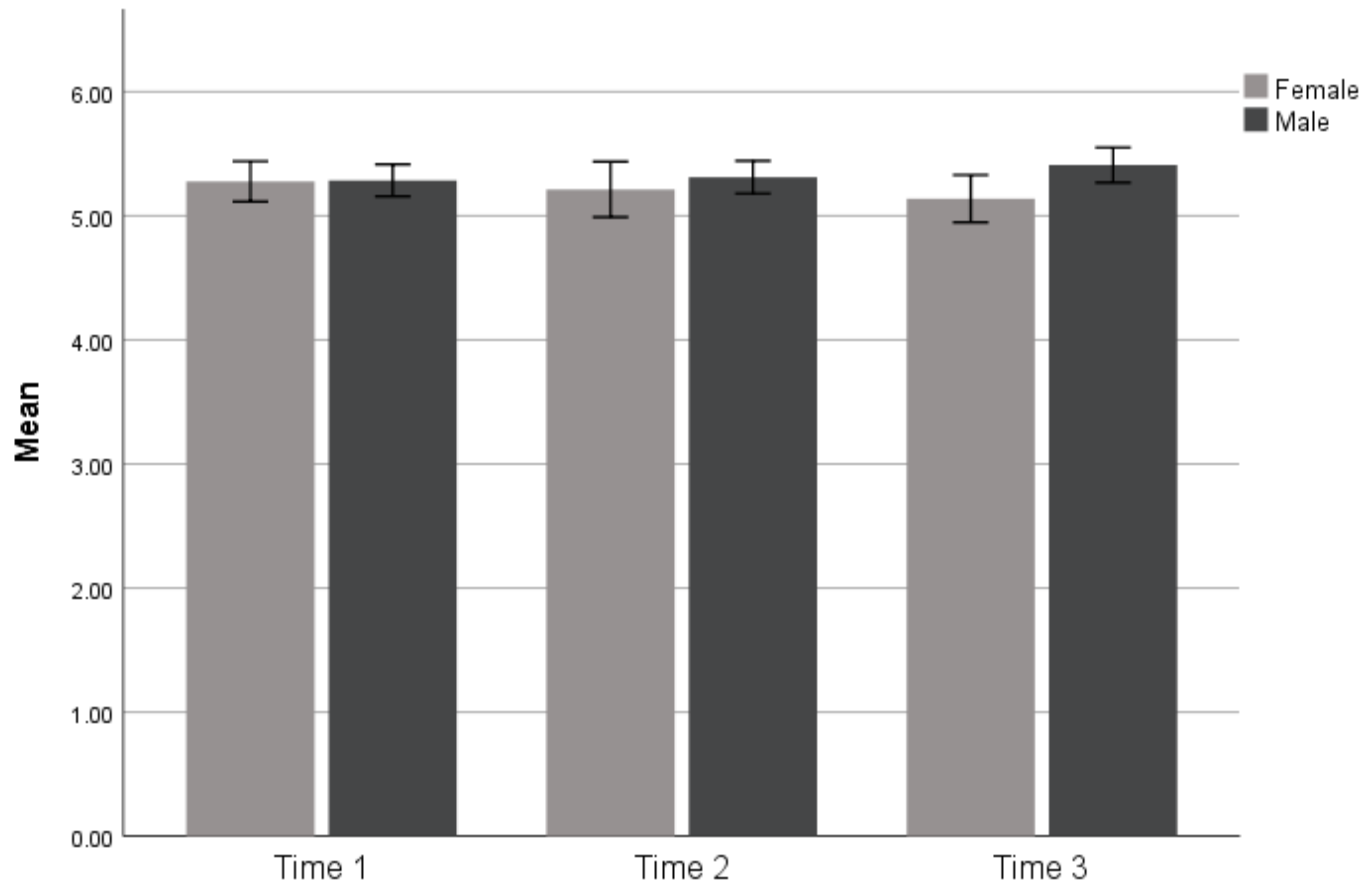


Figure 4. Mean score of pragmatic leadership for male and female cadets at each time.

Note: Error bars = 95% confidence interval.