To Lead Is to Love:
An Exploration into the Role of Love in Leadership

A dissertation submitted

by

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Abstract

Historically, love is not been specifically mentioned within the context of the study of leadership, yet there seems to be some intersection between the two. They seem to have similar roots; strong relationships, trust, integrity, charisma, character, taking care of others, but where exactly is the intersection? Several leadership theories allude to a dimension of leadership and the leader follower relationship that is seemingly unexplainable or unquantifiable.

The purpose of this exploratory study was to tie together the psychology of love and leadership behavior to potentially change the way we approach the field of leadership, leadership assessment, and leader development. More specifically, it examined love as represented by intimacy, passion, and commitment, and leadership as represented by the common components of the theories contained in the neocharismatic leadership body of literature. These components include character, courage, integrity, selflessness, empathy, collaboration, and reflection. It is significant because up to this point there has not been any scholarly research published that ties together love and leadership.

The study was conducted by administering an online survey followed by quantitative research/analysis via multiple linear regressions. The results, $r(237) = .795, p < .01$, demonstrated that it can be determined that a significant positive correlation exists
between the follower’s perceived degree of love displayed (by their leader) and follower’s perceived leadership.

Keywords: Leadership, Love, Neocharismatic Leadership, Character-based Leadership, Transformational Leadership. Authentic Leadership, Servant Leadership
Dedication

To my Dad.
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Chapter 1: Introduction

Background
In 2010, I had the privilege to lead over 1,000 of the world’s greatest soldiers in combat. For over a year these young men and women performed one of the most dangerous jobs in Afghanistan—clearing the roads of improvised explosive devices (IEDs). During my initial introduction to them, I introduced myself and command philosophy—my framework on how I expect them to act, operate, make decisions, and lead. I told them although their mission, environment, job, and role may change, the stated principles would not. The key tenets we discussed were take care of one another, take action, be the best, and stand for something. I went on to describe these as:

• Take care of one another—Above all else take care of yourself, your soldiers, your peers, and your families. Observe, listen, support, correct—we work in an incredibly challenging and dynamic environment, one that requires engagement from the entire team.

• Take action—An ounce of action is worth a ton of theory. Analyze the situation, use sound judgment, and follow with action. Challenge the assumptions that surround you—Lead, Teach, Mentor, and Train.

• Be the best—In all that you do. We are the greatest military in the world—thousands sacrificed to make it that way—it is our job to make their efforts worthwhile—we will not let them down. It is all of our jobs to continue to raise
• the bar both personally and as an organization. Continue to improve, get a little better at something, every day.

• *Stand for something*—What we stand for or do not stand for defines us. Army Values, personal values, creeds, oaths, and religious beliefs exist for a reason and they will be challenged during the next year. Understand why you are here, what you are committed to, who you are—visit “it” regularly—because on those really bad days you will need to know where to find “it.”

After a lengthy and emotional presentation of the key principles I paused, looked around the tent, and told them they needed to “love one another.”

I had been giving this speech for over a year to thousands of soldiers, from 18-year-old privates to seasoned officers, in small intimate groups in conference rooms, to large formations of soldiers in full battle uniform, and this was the first time I put it all together. What I was asking everyone to do—whether leading himself or herself, a squad, or a 200-soldier company—was simply to love.

After I said it I got a few funny stares, I saw a few smirks, but after reinforcing the concept, I realized that they “got it”—they understood. So why did it feel so awkward? Why are love and leadership not discussed in the same breath when they are seemingly so intertwined?
Problem Statement

Historically, love has not been specifically mentioned as a significant contributor to the study of leadership, yet as postulated above, there seems to be some intersection between the two. They seem to have similar roots, strong relationships, trust, integrity, charisma, taking care of others, but where exactly is the intersection?

Several leadership theories allude to a dimension of leadership and the leader follower relationship that is seemingly unexplainable or unquantifiable. Neal, Lichtenstein, and Banner (1999) conducted a study where leaders described the cause of transformation in supporting organizations thru change as “grace,” “magic,” or “a miracle” (p. 179). Throughout this document, an argument will be made that the unexplainable part of leadership is love.

It is not known if and to what degree or extent love is related to leadership. This exploratory research will examine a random sample of adults and seek to find whether a relationship exists through quantitative methods. Examination of the association between love and leadership is important because it has the potential to identify additional aspects of leadership and potentially assist in new ways to approach leader development.

Purpose of the Study

Love is a familiar subject, as old as the study of human nature itself. Human nature has been dissected, analysed and studied in great detail, but love for the most part has escaped this intensive study. It has more easily inspired poetry and music than scientific investigation. The
result is that we have a wealth of beautiful poetry and music but not much understanding of love. (Fromme, 1992, p. 1)

This quotation from *The Ability to Love* by Allan Fromme, Ph.D., points out up front that there are obvious implications of attempting to tie together love with an equally difficult to define concept: leadership. A recent Google search of “love” yielded 1.62 billion results, while the same search on “leadership” yielded only 127 million results. With that said, this research dives deeper into two of the most studied (and least understood) areas of human behavior in order to answer the following question: *Does a relationship exist between love and leadership?* For the purpose of this study, *love* is defined as intimacy, passion, and commitment. Similarly, the word *leadership* is meant to represent the common components of the theories contained in the neocharismatic leadership body of literature. This commonality is associated with leadership research in recent years that highlight the influence of values as part of leader’s ability to achieve sustained effectiveness.

**Significance of the Study Advancing Scientific Knowledge**

Until now, no research exists that ties together the psychology of love and leadership behavior. These two schools of thought have been individually studied and published in separate bodies of research. Love is most commonly discussed in psychology journals and leadership published in management journals. Although the word “love” appears in a few instances, in leadership discussions it is generally in the context of being “related” to leadership. A gap exists in the literature that connects love and
leadership and this research is an initial exploration into whether such a connection exists. If this research shows that such a connection exists, it will justify the need for further in-depth research.

**Summary and Organization of the Remainder of the Study**

To tie these concepts together one must first discuss and define the concept of love. In this study, a review of the history of the study of love and prominent definitions of love are presented. Following this, several key characteristics of love and the instruments used to measure love are discussed. Next, several leadership models, their commonalities, and their relationship to the attributes associated with love are presented. Finally, quantitative research demonstrating the relationship between the degree of love perceived by those being led and their perception of their leader’s leadership is presented.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

Love

According to Fromme (1992):

It is far easier to tell stories about love, to savor love in one or another artistic form, to muse and dream about love than actually to answer the searching questions we all raise about love. What is love? (p. 1)

Love was a fertile topic for social psychological research during the mid-1970s, but then, both because political pressure deemed love “unscientific” and because empirical studies had to that point failed to capture the essence of love, interest in this field faded (Berscheid, 1988). In the mid-1980s love reemerged in a conceptually broader form as a productive area of inquiry. Much new theory and research examined interpersonal processes that affect the experience of love in human relationships—it is this research that this study is most interested in. Because the resurgence of love research is still new and theoretical statements have outpaced empirical findings, many of the most interesting propositions remain to be tested (Berscheid, 2010).

Studies that seek to establish the nature of love

Psychologist Zick Rubin conducted important research on the difference between liking and loving and is commonly credited with the first empirical measurement of love. In his book *Liking and Loving: An Invitation to Social Psychology*, he states:
Setting out to devise measurements of love is like setting out to prepare a gourmet dish with a thousand different recipes but no pots and pans. The recipes for love abound. Throughout history poets, essayists, novelists, philosophers, theologians, psychologists, sociologists, and other men and women of goodwill have written more about love than virtually any other topic… But whereas the nature of love has been a prime topic of discourse and debate, the number of behavioral scientists that have conducted empirical research on love can be counted on one’s fingers. (Rubin, 1973, p. 211)

His work challenged previous theories that romantic love and liking were simply different points along the same continuum (Berscheid, 2010). Rubin proposed that love is an attitude and that the conception of romantic love included three components: affiliative and dependent need, a predisposition to help, and an orientation of exclusiveness and absorption (Rubin, 1970). Simply stated, love consists of attachment (needing), caring, and intimacy (willingness to self-disclose) (Clark & Reis, 1988). Rubin’s research, conducted at the University of Michigan in 1968, built on earlier concepts of love from Freud, Harlow, Fromm, and Slater and consisted of a 13-item liking and loving scale that introduced and validated a preliminary social-psychological conception of romantic love (Rubin, 1970). This study went on to show that couples who score high on the love scale are predictive in the probability that they may someday marry. The research also showed that the difference between romantic partners and friends (in terms of degree of liking and loving) is greater on the love scale than the liking scale (Sternberg, 1987).
In contrast to the study of love as an attitude, Shaver, Hazan, Bradshaw, and O’Connor (1987) proposed that love is an emotion. They showed that the single-most word that people confidently described as an emotion was love (Shaver, Hazan, Bradshaw, & O’Connor, 1987). Shaver conducted additional research that attempted to identify prototypic conceptions of love. His research looked at written accounts of love and found that love was generally characterized in compassionate terms such as adoration, affection, and fondness. He also noted that a secondary, more passionate-oriented, characterization also existed. This was represented by concepts such as desire and lust (Clark & Reis, 1988). Attitude or emotion aside, his work continued to precipitate a core understanding of the foundation of what we call love.

Ellen Berscheid (2010) noted that as the research of love continued to advance, the structure and standards how love is classified also matured. She described how Kelly (1983) determined that any theories of love should include the following:

- Certain observable phenomenon theorized to be its characteristic manifestations
- The current causes responsible for the observable phenomena
- The historic antecedents of the current causes
- The future course of the phenomenon (p. 10)

In the same work, Kelly also illuminated the relationship between love and commitment. He showed that while love can exist without commitment, for the relationship to be positive and stable, both love and commitment must be present
(Kelly, 1983). This will prove an important concept in the discussion of what (if any) components of love influence effective leadership.

In research that analyzes recent studies on love, Clark and Reis (1988) presented two studies particularly relevant to this research. They show how Davis and Todd (1982) built on Shaver, Hazan, Bradshaw, and O'Connor's research and proposed that a cluster of affectionate-companionate traits characterizes love in general (e.g., in relationships with siblings, children, close friends, etc.) and that passionate arousal is added to this core to differentiate the special case of romantic relationships (Clark & Reis, 1988).

In the same research, Clark and Reis (1988) discussed Fehr's research on how central attributes are on love. Their research showed that lay attributes of love, such as trust, caring, honesty and friendship were more prevalent that the more “romantic” attributes such as passion and attraction (Fehr, 1987). Still, this data indicates that passionate arousal-lust is important secondary feature of romantic love in particular.

The study of love is incomplete without mentioning Ellen Berscheid—not only for her intellectual contributions to the field, but for the courage she had to pursue them. She was at the center of a political controversy in 1964 when an $84,000 Federal grant to study love was called a waste of taxpayer’s dollars by a Wisconsin senator. The ensuing attention that this brought on the study of love not only increased her
resolve for the research, but it also inspired many others to join in as well (Berscheid, 1988). She developed another prominent approach at explaining the complex phenomenon of love consists of attempts to define different types of love. Berscheid and Walster (1974) postulated that love and liking should be further differentiated. They proposed that following Schachter’s (1964) general theory of emotion that passionate love existed when individuals experienced both of the following:

- They are intensely aroused physiologically
- Situational cues indicate that “passionate love” is the appropriate label for their intimate feelings (p. 360)

Berscheid and Walster furthered our understanding of love throughout the 1970s by breaking love into two distinct categories: companionate love and passionate love. They referred to companionate love as a type of affection where two individuals were deeply intertwined and passionate love is characterized by intense emotions, sexual attraction, anxiety, and affection (Clark & Reis, 1988).

One of the most recognized studies and categorizations of love was conducted by Canadian sociologist John Allen Lee in 1973. He conducted research to distinguish the personal and social expressions of the various conceptions of love and styles of loving or as he simply described them—love styles (Lee, 1973). His research consisted of a card sort experiment where the subjects matched stories with their own
personal relationships. After collecting almost 100,000 items of data from 120 respondents Lee identified three primary "species" of love (Lee, 1973):

- Eros “love at first sight”
- Ludus “game playing”
- Storge “compassion/commitment” (p. 14)

Lee also identified three secondary “species” of love:

- Mania “jealous and possessive”
- Pragma “logical/practical”
- Agape “selfless” (p. 14)

This categorization is important in further discriminating the typology of love by proposing that love should be looked at from many different perspectives.

To thoroughly discuss love within the context of leadership one must at least briefly discuss attachment theory—in that within the most effective leader follower relationships some degree of attraction is present. For the purposes of this research I will define attachment theory as a biosocial—lifespan account of how close relationships form are maintained—and dissolve, and how relationships influence, sometimes permanently, the persons involved in them (Bowlby, 1979). Essentially, Bowlby proposed that all humans are predisposed to search for and have physical contact, look at, follow and track those who are their primary care givers (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). Harlow described this attachment as love (Harlow, 1958). Hazan and
Shaver (1987) proposed that adult relationships (romantic love) lead to the development of attachment bonds. Their study focused on three styles of attachment: secure, anxious, or ambivalent, and avoidant. They explained how certain forms of love develop and how the same dynamics can be shaped in life to produce different relationship styles. The research surrounding attachment theory is important in the context of this research in its inference that individuals have a predisposition to seek out “leaders.”

Another study that has significance to this research was conducted by Clark and Mills where they studied the difference in communal and exchange relationships. They defined exchange relationships as those where there is an expectation of reciprocation after giving of a “benefit” (Clark & Mills, 1979). When looked at from the joint perspective of love and leadership, the discussion of benefits and reciprocation draws many parallels.

The model of love that will be used for basis of this research is Sternberg’s Triangular Love Theory. This model was chosen because of its relationships to the research previously discussed and because its main components have ties to those traits commonly referred to in the study of leadership. Sternberg proposed that love has three primary components: intimacy, passion, and commitment (Sternberg, 1987). The intimacy component refers to those feelings in a relationship that promote closeness, bondedness, and connectedness such as affection, positive regard, self-
disclosure, and supportiveness (Sternberg, 1987). The actual term “intimacy” is derived from the Latin term *intimus*, meaning inner or innermost (Partridge, 1966). Other definitions of intimacy included Sullivan’s (1953) definition, which stated intimacy as “a type of situation involving two people which permits validation of all components of personal worth” (p. 246). Clark and Reis (1988) defined intimacy as “a process in which one person expresses important self-relevant feelings and information to another” (p. 628). The concept that intimacy was simply a one-way street was challenged by Reis and Patrick (1996) when they presented that intimacy also depends on the favorable and warm response by the other and the resulting positive feeling from the discloser. Perhaps the simplest definition is “intimacy is the degree of closeness two people achieve” (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1983, p. 23).

Passion consists of those motivational and other sources of arousal that lead to the experience of passion (Sternberg, 1987). Within the context of this research, references to passion will focus on the non-sexual factors that contribute to the experience of passion, more specifically, the need for self-esteem, succorance, nurturance, affiliation, dominance, submission, and self-actualization (Sternberg, 1987). Other concepts of passion include that from Hatfield and Walster (1978), who defined it as “a state of profound physiological arousal” (p. 9). In the context of love (and this research) it can be said that passion involves exceptionally strong positive feelings toward the other person (Baumeister & Bratslavsky, 1999).
The commitment component of love consists of two aspects: (1) the short-term decision where one loves another and (2) the long-term commitment to maintain that love. Interestingly, although a decision point is implied in these two subsets, it is not always present. One can be committed to loving without admitting that he or she loves or in love with that person. This phenomenon is the underlying basis for this research in that it is proposed that effective leaders unconsciously (or consciously) love those whom they lead. For the context of this research, short- and long-term commitment will refer to the leaders’ short-term resolve to maintain a close relationship to those whom they lead and the long-term dedication to that same person’s success and well-being.

Sternberg’s model also proposes that any combination of the three primary components lead to a type of “love” and breaks them out as follows:

- **Non-love**—Illustrated by the absence of all three components and represents the majority of casual interactions/relationships
- **Liking**—Illustrated by the presence of some level of intimacy and is most commonly referred to as friendship.
- **Infatuated Love**—Illustrated by the experience of passion without intimacy or commitment. This may also be represented by what most would call “love at first sight.”
- **Empty Love**—The presence of a commitment to love without intimacy or passion.
• **Romantic Love**—Derived from the presence of intimacy and passion and the type of love that is commonly portrayed on film and in literature.

• **Companionate Love**—Love that stems from intimacy and commitment and lack of passion. This type of love was introduced earlier as proposed by Berscheid.

• **Fatuous Love**—Exists when there is a high degree of passion and commitment without intimacy. This type of love was portrayed in the 2010 film *The Hangover* where the lead character met a beautiful woman in Las Vegas and ended up getting married in a quick ceremony at a small wedding chapel.

• **Consummate Love**—The type of love that most people strive for in a marriage and is represented by the presence of all three of Sternberg’s components of love.

Table 1 illustrates the relationship between the three primary components and the eight types of love.

**Table 1. Sternberg’s Eight Types Of Love**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intimacy</th>
<th>Passion</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-love</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liking</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infatuated Love</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empty Love</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romantic Love</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Companionate Love</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatuous Love</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consummate Love</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Instruments used to measure love**

Taking into account that many believe that something does not exist if it can’t be measured, a considerable amount of research has been performed to create instruments that measure love. Many of the instruments were created by the same researchers who had developed the theories (but not in all cases) and have been published in a variety of professional journals. Following is a chronological list of the more prevalent instruments created by Hatfield, Bensman, and Rapson and published in the *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships* in 2011.

**Attitudes Toward Romanticism Scale.** Llewellyn Gross (1944): Sociology. Designed to assess people’s tendency to possess a romantic versus a realistic view of love relationships (80 items).

**Romanticism Scale.** Dwight Dean (1961, 1964): Sociology. Designed to measure the extent to which people think romantic love is of primary importance in a relationship. Consists of a 16-item scale gauging attitudes toward romantic love, a six-item scale of emotions and feelings associated with love, and a 21-item scale assessing subjective experiences when in love.

**The Scale of Feelings and Behavior of Love.** J. W. Nelson, and D. Dunlap (1992): Psychology. Designed to identify the patterns of behavior and feelings people exhibit
and experience in their love relationships. Among the things assessed are the verbal, material, and physical expressions of love, shared values, outlooks, activities, and self-disclosure, considerateness, and a willingness to forgive flaws (383 items).

Hattis Love Scale. Ronald P. Hattis (1965): Medicine and public health. Designed to measure people’s feelings of love. It measures six components of love—pride in partner, warm feelings for a partner, erotic feelings for partner, a desire for love in return, feelings of closeness and intimacy, including even occasional feelings of hostility (24 items).

Pair Attraction Inventory and the Caring Relationships Inventory. Everett L. Shostrom (1966, 1970): Clinical and humanistic psychology. The Pair Attraction Inventory (PAI) is designed to measure men and women’s attitudes and feelings toward their partners and their relationship. The Caring Relationships Inventory (CRI) is designed to measure five elements of love—affection, friendship, eros, empathy, and self-love (83 items).

Romantic Love Scale. William M. Kephart (1967): Sociology. Designed to measure characteristics of romantic love—cultural status, mysticism, love at first sight, cardiac-respiratory love, complete involvement and exclusiveness, daydreaming, jealousy, centrality, and urgency.
Love and Liking Scales. Zick Rubin (1970): Psychology and law. Designed to measure romantic love and liking. The scale is designed to measure three components of romantic love: affiliative and dependent needs, a predisposition to help, and an orientation of exclusiveness and absorption (12 items).

Romantic Love Questionnaire. Karen K. Dion and Kenneth L. Dion (1973): Psychology. Designed to measure several parameters of romantic love: (1) people’s attitudes toward romantic love, (2) their subjective emotional experiences when in love, and (3) the frequency, duration, and intensity of their romantic experiences (consists of a 16-item scale gauging attitudes toward romantic love, a six-item scale of emotions and feelings associated with love, and a 21-item scale assessing respondents’ subjective experiences when in love).


Limerence Scale. Dorothy Tennov (1979): Psychology. Designed to assess limerence (passionate love.) Her “scale” consists entirely of material from books, poetry, plays, and readers’ letters to demonstrate that the many characteristics of limerence (or passionate love), such as idealization, shyness, swings from joy to despair, obsessive
thinking, and fear of rejection, are cultural universals. For a critique of this measure, see Reynolds (1983).

Passionate Love Scale. Elaine Hatfield and Susan Sprecher (1986): Psychology and sociology. Designed to assess the cognitive, physiological, and behavioral indicants of passionate love (the scale comes in two parallel versions—a 15-item and a 30-item scale).

Love Attitudes Scale and the Love Attitudes Scale: Short Form. Clyde Hendrick and Susan Hendrick (1986; Hendrick, Hendrick, & Dicke, 1998): Psychology. Designed to measure six types of love—eros, ludus, storge, pragma, mania, and agape. Two types of love (eros and mania) seem most closely related to passionate love (the eros and mania measures consist of four items each; the entire questionnaire consists of 24 items).

Romantic Beliefs Scale. Susan Sprecher and Sandra Metts (1989): Sociology and communication. Designed to assess an ideology of romanticism, this scale assesses four beliefs: Love Finds a Way, One and Only, Idealization, and Love at First Sight (15 items).

components—passion, intimacy, and decision/commitment to stay together—they possess. Passionate love (which he labels infatuation) involves intense passionate arousal but little intimacy or commitment (15 items of a 45-item scale) (Hatfield, Bensman, & Rapson, 2011).

**Love—instrument selection**

As demonstrated above, there has been a considerable amount of research and validation around the creation of instruments to measure love. When reading the descriptions of what these instruments were designed to measure, the relationship between the foundations of love and leadership are once again magnified. As interesting as it would be to use several different instruments in this study, the fact that Sternberg created his own scale to measure the Triangular Theory make it the best fitting instrument for this research.

**Leadership**

After taking into account the referenced research on love it is no surprise that the command philosophy previously presented sounded a lot like love. The key principles—take care of one another, take action, be the best, and stand for something—seem to tie into Sternberg’s teachings, as shown in Table 2.
Table 2. Comparing Command Philosophy and Sternberg’s Theory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command Philosophy</th>
<th>Sternberg</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Take care of one another</td>
<td>Intimacy, Selflessness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take action</td>
<td>Passion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be the best</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stand for something</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

At first, these might seem like casual coincidences, but a deeper dive into several highly respected extant leadership theories will show the passion, intimacy, and commitment have commonalities with leadership.

**Prominent leadership theories**

In the following section, several of the most prominent leadership theories since the systematic social scientific study of leadership began in the 1930s are introduced: leader trait, leader behavior, contingency, and most recently, neocharismatic. Initial leadership research conducted 1930–1950 focused primarily on the characteristics that differentiated leaders from nonleaders. This research focused on a wide range of personal, physical, and psychological traits. A review of early trait literature revealed several studies of traits and leadership effectiveness that demonstrated high correlations. Unfortunately, these results were difficult to replicate and the measurement techniques and population selection which gave question to the studies validity. Trait theory re-emerged in the 1970s by Bem and Allen, Mischel, Schneider and House, and Shane and Herold (House & Ram, 1997). Three main points have emerged from trait theory research. First, several traits do exist that are prominent in
leaders. These traits include physical energy, intelligence, prosocial influence 
motivation, adjustment, self-confidence, achievement motivation, and motive.
Second, the effect of traits on leader behavior and effectiveness are influenced by the 
relevance of the traits to the situation (e.g., motivation and challenging tasks). Lastly, 
the influence of traits on leader behavior is greater when the situation allows the 
expression of individual dispositions (House & Ram, 1997).

The next body of research that emerged consisted primarily of studies of leader 
behaviors in laboratories or in field settings. The most influential investigators looked 
for associations with leader effectiveness and included such names as Bales, Stodgill, 
Coons, and Kahn, Katz, Likert, and Mann. This research became known as the 
behavioral school of leadership and identified two main categories of leader 
behaviors: task-oriented behavior and people-oriented behavior. Although this was 
the main focus of leadership research for nearly 30 years, the fact that the specific 
role demands of leaders, the context of their roles, and the personality of the leaders 
and followers were not addressed revealed the lack of a consistent significant link 
between patterns of leader behavior and subordinates satisfaction or leader 
effectiveness (House & Ram, 1997).

During the 1970s several theories emerged that built upon the leader behavior 
theories. These contingency theories, as they are called, are Fielder’s contingency 
theory of leadership, path-goal theory of leader effectiveness, life cycle theory,
cognitive resource theory, and the decision process theory. Essentially, contingency theory focuses on the link between leader style and the situation the leader faces. Fiedler’s contingency theory was the first that studied how situational variables interact with leader personality and behavior. Some of the predictions of these theories were supported in meta-analysis, but over time interest in them waned. They were primarily criticized because of inconsistent findings (the theories are complex) and variance in group performance. These theories led to a new body of theories that better predicted leadership phenomenon. Contingency theory led to cognitive resource theory of leadership, path goal theory led to theory of charismatic leadership and eventually to values based leadership theory (House & Ram, 1997).

For the purposes of this study, the focus will be primarily on a group of leadership theories that began to emerge in the mid-1970s that have less to do about traits, behaviors, or situations, but focus more on the “core” of the leader and the leader-follower relationship. They highlight the influence of values as part of the leader’s ability to achieve sustained effectiveness, which makes them particularly appropriate considering the initial context of leadership of an U.S. Army officer in combat. This genre of theories categorized as neocharismatic leadership theories, include transformational leadership, charismatic leadership and values based leadership (House & Ram, 1997). A few more recent theories, authentic leadership, servant leadership, and character-based leadership also fall in to this genre based on the characteristics of neocharismatic leadership presented in the following section.
Neocharismatic theories are categorized in three ways. First, they all attempt to explain how leaders are able to lead organizations to outstanding outcomes. Second, they attempt to explain how leaders achieve extraordinary levels of follower motivation, admiration, respect, trust, commitment, dedication, loyalty, and performance. Lastly, they stress symbolic and emotionally appealing leader behaviors such as visionary frame alignment, empowering, role modeling, image building, risk taking, and supportive behaviors. They also include cognitively oriented behavior such as adaptation, versatility, environmental sensitivity, and intellectual stimulation. The leader outcomes from these theories include follower self-esteem, motive arousal and emotions, identification with the leader’s vision, values, and the collective as well as the traditional outcomes of follower satisfaction and performance (House & Ram, 1997). These leadership theories are described in more detail in the following sections.

**Neocharismatic leadership**

Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership has dominated the study of leadership over the past thirty years (Bass & Riggio, Transformational leadership, 2006). Transformational leadership focuses on how a leader engages the minds and emotions of followers (Reave, 2005). It can be defined as a set of behaviors that motivates followers to exceed expectations in pursuit of the organization’s vision and to sacrifice their self-interests for the collective good (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Transformational leaders are
those who stimulate and inspire followers to both achieve extraordinary outcomes and in the process, develop their own leadership capacity. Transformational leaders help followers grow and develop into leaders by responding to individual followers’ needs by empowering them and by aligning the objectives and goals of the individual followers, the leader, the group, and the larger organization. Evidence shows that transformational leadership can move followers to exceed expected performance, as well as to lead to high levels of follower satisfaction and commitment to the group and organization (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Transformational leaders’ visionary messages include explicit references to values closely aligned with openness to change, altruism, and self-transcendence (Groves & LaRocca, 2012).

Bass (1997) identifies four components of transformational leadership:

- **Idealized Influence**—Also often referred to as charismatic leadership.
- **Inspirational Motivation**—These leaders embody the term "team spirit." They show enthusiasm and optimism, providing both meaning and challenge to the work at hand. They create an atmosphere of commitment to goals and a shared vision.
- **Intellectual Stimulation**—a transformational leader encourages creativity and fosters an atmosphere in which followers feel compelled to think about old problems in a new way. Public criticism is avoided (Kuhnert, 1994).
- **Individualized Consideration**—Refers to a leader’s response to the individual needs of followers through behaviors such as talking to followers as friends,
demonstrating patience with mistakes, including others in decisions and showing sensitivity to follower feelings (Shamir, Zajay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998).

Transformational leaders act in ways that make them role models. They are respected, admired, and trusted. Followers identify with them and describe them in terms that imply extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination. These leaders are willing to take risk. They can consistently be relied upon to do the right thing, displaying high moral and ethical standards. Examining transformational leadership, According to Kuhnert (1994) people that exhibit transformational leadership often have a strong set of internal values and ideals, and they are effective at motivating followers to act in ways that support the greater good rather than their own self-interests.

**Authentic leadership**

The concept of authentic leadership can be seen as the intersection of leadership, ethics, positive organizational behavior, and scholarship literature (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004):

Authentic leaders are ‘Those who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others’ values/moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and of high moral character. (p. 4)

It is a “root construct” or basis of many of the other forms of positive leadership (transformational and servant included) (Avolio & Garner, 2005).
Authentic leadership is approached primarily from three perspectives: intrapersonal, developmental, and interpersonal (Northhouse, 2010). Each perspective yields slightly different definitions and valuable perspectives on the subject. An intrapersonal definition focuses on the leader himself or herself. Shamir and Eliam (2005) suggest that authentic leaders exhibit genuine leadership, lead from conviction, are originals (not copies), and base their actions on values.

From a developmental perspective, authentic leadership can be viewed as something that progresses in people over a lifetime and may be triggered by a major life event (Northhouse, 2010). It can be seen as composed of four components: self-awareness, internalized moral perspective, balanced processing, and relational transparency (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). According to Avolio et al. (2004), by demonstrating deep personal values and convictions and encouraging feedback, authentic leaders win the respect and trust of their followers and lead in a manner that is described and perceived as authentic.

When viewing authentic leadership from the interpersonal lens, it is seen as centered on the relationship between leader and follower. This reciprocal process is one where leaders affect followers and vice versa. To be an effective authentic leader, a leader must get “buy in” to the point where followers adapt the beliefs and values of him or her (Northhouse, 2010).
It is important in the context of this research to reference prior work surrounding the relationship between (authentic) leaders and followers, primarily emotional contagion and positive social exchanges (Ilies, R., Morgeson, F. P., & Nahrgang, J. D., 2005). Regarding cognition, both Fredrickson (2003) and Kernis (2003) postulated that the positivity inherent to authentic leadership (through self-awareness and relational transparency) is contagious to the follower and the organization. Using the concept of positive social exchange, Ilies (2005) references the principles of reciprocity and value congruence to explain the strong relationship formed between leader and follower characterized by high levels of respect, positive affect, and trust. Over time, the follower begins to take on the high moral standing of the leader and reciprocate these values throughout the organization.

William George, author and former CEO of Medtronics is one of the most renowned practitioners of authentic leadership. George (2003) speaks of five qualities when describing authentic leaders: authentic leaders understand their purpose, practice solid values, lead with their hearts, establish connected relationships, and demonstrate self-discipline. Providing more context around these five qualities, he went on to say authentic leaders demonstrate a passion for their purpose, practice their values consistently, and lead with their hearts as well as their heads. Leaders establish long-term, meaningful relationships and have the self-discipline to get results. They know who they are (George, Sims, McLean, & Mayer, 2007).
Authentic leaders have the capacity to open themselves up and establish a connection with others. They are willing to share their own story with others and listen to others’ stories. Through mutual disclosure, leaders and subordinates develop a sense of trust and closeness. (George, 2003, p. 213)

Authentic leaders demonstrate that they have a genuine desire to understand themselves in order to better serve others (George, 2003).

For the purpose of comparison (illustrated later in this research) George’s five primary traits will be used, not because they standout in any particular way (from the others discussed), but more due to the fact that they are derived from his rich corporate experience, which ties well into the framework of this research.

Servant leadership
Over the past few years, the study of leadership has shifted from the more traditional leadership theories such as transformational leadership and focused instead on theories “a stronger emphasis on a shared relational and global perspective where especially the interaction between leader and follower are key elements” (Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1229). Despite the fact that servant leadership was first introduced in 1970 by Robert Greenleaf, researchers have struggled to come to a consensus on a common definition and model. Nevertheless, Greenleaf’s description (1977) of servant leadership is at the foundation of servant leadership theory.

The Servant-Leader is servant first. . . . It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. . . . The best test, and difficult to administer is this: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while
being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society? Will they benefit, or at the least not further be harmed? (p. 7)

With its strong focus on values, servant leadership distinguishes itself from other leadership theories in several ways. One of the most noticeable differences is Greenleaf’s (1977) concept of “primus inter pares” or “first among equals” (p. 14). By placing both leader and follower on the same plane, one must reexamine the concepts of power, persuasion, and motivation as they relate to leadership. Following Greenleaf’s examination, considerable research has been conducted on servant leadership. Some of the most recognized researchers in this field are L. C. Spears, J. A. Laub, R. F. Russell and A. J. Stone, and K. A. Patterson.

Spears (2010) is widely credited with precipitating the 10 characteristics of servant leadership from Greenleaf’s seminal research.

- **Listening**—Servant leaders are generally considered to be effective listeners. They make it a point to actively listen to those around them identify even the most subtle of cues. From these conversations they pull out the common message from the group and bring it to life. Servant leaders make time to reflect and listen to their inner voice.

- **Empathy**—Servant leaders seek to understand the uniqueness of others and empathize with them. “One assumes the good intentions of co-workers and colleagues and does not reject them as people, even when one may be forced to
refuse to accept certain behaviors or performance” (Spears, 2010, p. 3). Effective servant leaders have mastered the skill of empathetic listening.

- **Healing**—Similar to listening servant leader’s focus on healing. They are able to identify ailing relationships and intervene to mend them. Likewise, thorough reflection they are able to identify and heal their own inner wounds. Servant leaders understand that healing is a critical component to leadership effectiveness.

- **Awareness**—Also closely tied to listening, awareness allows the servant leader to better relate to the group norms, beliefs, and values.

- **Persuasion**—An important part of any leader’s effectiveness is their ability to persuade individuals and groups. What makes servant leaders unique is the way they persuade. Servant leaders do not rely on power or position; instead, they seek to convince by building consensus within the group. They persuade rather than coerce.

- **Conceptualization**—Servant leaders need to lead and provide vision. They must be able to get past the day-to-day tactical decisions and simultaneously develop and communicate a clear strategy to the organization. Although simple in concept, finding the right balance between the two is a skill that many leaders struggle perfect.

- **Foresight**—“Foresight is a characteristic that enables the servant leader to understand the lessons from the past, the realities of the present, and the likely consequence of a decision for the future” (Spears, 2010, p. 4).
• **Stewardship**—By definition, stewardship is inherently tied to servant leadership. Servant leaders are committed to the well-being and success of others. They value people as unique individuals and not spokes in a wheel. Servant leaders not only invest their personal time and energy coaching and mentoring others but they ensure adequate resources are available.

• **Building community**—As important as individual development is to servant leaders, they also place great value in the community. This sense of community is more than an attitude; it is a passion. This common platform provides an additional sense of connectedness to both the individual and the organization.

Variations to these 10 characteristics have been presented by Laub (1999) who proposed six clusters of servant leadership characteristics and Russell and Stone (2002) who distinguished nine functional characteristics and 11 additional characteristics of servant leadership (Dierendonck, 2011).

For the purposes of this discussion (illustrated later in this study) I will review Kathleen Patterson’s 2003 model of servant leadership, which is an extension of Greenleaf’s seminal research. She takes a virtuous approach at describing servant leadership. Patterson (2003) identifies seven constructs that comprise servant leadership:

• **Agapao Love**—Encourages humility and altruism. Agapao love is the Greek term for moral love, which means doing the right thing at the right time and for the
right reason. Agapao love can also be considered love in the social or moral sense (Winston, 2002).

- **Humility**—The ability to keep one’s accomplishments and talents in perspective (Sandage & Weins, 2001).

- **Altruism**—Helping others selflessly just for the sake of helping, which involves personal sacrifice, although there is no personal gain (Kaplan, 2000).

- **Vision**—A forward-looking picture of the future that produces passion (Blanchard, 2000).

- **Trust**—By definition, trust is “confidence in or reliance on another team member” in terms of their morality (e.g., honesty) and competence (Hauser & House, 2000, p. 230).

- **Service**—By definition, trust is at the heart of servant leadership. For leaders to be of service to others, they must have a sense of responsibility (Greenleaf, 1996).

- **Empowerment**—Entrusting power to others, and for the servant leader it involves effective listening, making people feel significant, putting an emphasis on teamwork, and valuing of love and equality (Russell & Stone, 2002).

A servant-leader sets goals, makes work meaningful, and builds on the strengths of followers.

Character-based leadership

This study of leadership concludes with an analysis of character-based leadership.

Character-based leadership can be defined as when character produces action and
when it is perceived by the observer as “character-based” (Hannah & Avolio, 2011). Although many aspects of ethics and morals have been discussed within the context of leadership, character-based leadership is a relatively new concept. It is significant within the context of this research because it transcends many of the other leadership bodies of research. Character-based leadership can be looked at as a leadership style that is “agnostic” (Hannah & Avolio, 2011). It is an approach that encompasses transformational, authentic, spiritual, or other leadership styles because character is at the core of any leader. Both leadership and character are hardly confined to one discipline. The foundations of these are found in volumes of research, including political science, psychology, sociology, organizational behavior, religion, military science, history, economics, and genetics (Conger & Hollenbech, 2010).

Leader behaviors (transmissions) are partially a result of a leader’s identity, which is a complex structure and each unique situation activates a distinct personality signature (Hannah, Woolfolk, & Lord, 2009). In other words, character-based leadership seeks to link character to a leader’s actions. According to Bass and Bass (2008), the “character of a leader involves his or her ethical and moral beliefs, intentions and behaviors” (p. 219). Hannah and Avolio go on to say that character is an indispensable component of sustainable leadership performance and “character is necessary but not sufficient for effective leadership” (2011, p. 979). By looking at character as it applies to leadership, Hannah and Avolio propose that it (character) is an antecedent to exemplary leadership transmission and reception (2011, p. 980).
Research varies on the components of character-based leadership. A few of them are presented next. Peterson and Seligman (2004) outlined 24 strengths of character taxonomy, broken down into six main categories:

*Wisdom and knowledge* (strengths that involve the acquisition and use of knowledge)

- creativity
- curiosity
- open-mindedness
- love of learning
- perspective and wisdom

*Courage* (strengths that allow one to accomplish goals in the face of opposition)

- bravery
- persistence
- integrity
- vitality

*Humanity* (strengths of tending and befriending others)

- love
- kindness
- social intelligence

*Justice* (strengths that build healthy community)

- active citizenship/social responsibility/loyalty/teamwork
• fairness
• leadership

Temperance (strengths that protect against excess)
• forgiveness and mercy
• humility and modesty
• prudence
• self-regulation and self-control

Transcendence (strengths that forge connections to the larger universe and provide meaning)
• appreciation of beauty and appreciation of excellence
• gratitude
• hope
• humor and playfulness
• spirituality, or a sense of purpose and coherence (p. 619)

Other research, such as that from Kaiser and Hogan (2010) focuses solely on the integrity of managers in leadership. Riggio, Zhu, Reina, and Maroosis (2010) discuss the ties between leadership ethics and virtues and Sosik and Cameron (2010) tie character to authentic leadership.
Based on the discussion above, Table 3 presents the relationships between neo-charismatic leadership theories.

**Table 3. Relationship Between Neo-Charismatic Leadership Theories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character-based Leadership (Kail)</th>
<th>Transformational Leadership</th>
<th>Authentic Leadership Characteristics</th>
<th>Servant Leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Courage</td>
<td>Inspirational Motivation (Bass &amp; Avolio)</td>
<td>Demonstrates self-discipline (George) Confident, resilient (Avolio et al.) Leads from conviction (Shamir &amp; Elam)</td>
<td>Agapao (Patterson)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selflessness</td>
<td>Individualized Consideration (Bass &amp; Avolio)</td>
<td>Positive social exchange (Ilies)</td>
<td>Service, Agapao (Patterson) Stewardship (Spears)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrity</td>
<td>Trust (Kuhnert)</td>
<td>Practices solid values (George) Respected and trusted (Avolio et al.)</td>
<td>Trust (Patterson)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Individualized Consideration (Bass &amp; Avolio)</td>
<td>Leads with their heart (George)</td>
<td>Humility, Altruism, Agapao (Patterson) Empathy (Spears)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Individualized Consideration (Bass &amp; Avolio)</td>
<td>Establishes connected relationships (George)</td>
<td>First among equals (Greenleaf) Persuasion (Spears) Building community (Spears)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Character-based Leadership (Kail) | Transformational Leadership | Authentic Leadership Characteristics | Servant Leadership
--- | --- | --- | ---
Reflection | Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation (Bass & Avolio) Self-transcendence (Groves & LaRocca) | Understands their purpose (George) Deeply aware (Avolio et al.) Internalized moral perspective (Avolio & Walumba)) | Vision, Empowerment (Patterson) Healing/reflection /awareness (Spears)

**Instruments used to measure leadership**
As with love, a tremendous amount of work has gone into developing tools for assessing leadership. Some of the instruments designed for the measurement of the four leadership theories previously discussed are now presented.

**Transformational leadership**
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), Bass and Avolio (2000) measures the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership. It provides a contrast between how the leader sees him versus how others see him. The perceptions of others form critical feedback to the leader and provide specific information to that leader to provide a basis for growth and change (45 questions).

**Authentic leadership**
Authentic Leadership Questionnaire Walumbwa et al. (2008) High order, four factor, theory-based instrument designed to measure ones level of authentic leadership (16 items).
Servant leadership
Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument, Robert Dennis, Mihai Bocarnea (2005)

Leadership instrument designed to measure the constructs of Patterson’s working theory identified as Agapao love, humanity, altruism, vision, trust, service, and empowerment (71 items).

The Cardinal Leadership Inventory (CLI)
CLI assesses leadership and goes beyond what leaders do to provide insight and feedback for developing the heart and soul of a leader. The CLI question instrument consists of more than 60 questions and measures six critical facets of leadership character essential to effective, life changing leadership. Currently used to assess and develop leaders of character at the United States Military Academy, the CLI provides each leader with detailed feedback and a framework for a personal leader development plan.

The CLI focuses on six critical facets of leadership character:

- Courage: your moral resilience and bravery under pressure
- Integrity: how well your life reflects your values
- Selflessness: placing the needs of the organization and your followers above your own
- Empathy: understanding others’ perspectives, leveraging diversity for high performing teams
- Collaboration: building peer networks and seeing the big picture
Leadership—instrument selection
As previously stated, the purpose of this research is to make a connection between love and leadership. To accomplish this, a deliberate approach was taken to find an instrument that was not too specific in what it measured, while still capturing a definition of leadership that was grounded in theory. Following the discussion of leadership theories in Chapter 2, the decision was made to focus on instruments that measured attributes of neocharismatic leadership, which was most appropriate given the original context of this research. Where most neocharismatic leadership instruments focus on a specific type of leadership (authentic, transformational, etc.), character-based leadership, as discussed earlier, takes a more universal or “agnostic” look at leadership and was used as a starting point for instrument selection. Earlier discussion (summarized in Table 3) illustrates how the enduring pillars of character-based leadership align with a number of attributes of prevalent neocharismatic theories.

Given this alignment and the overarching purpose of the research to tie together leadership and love, an instrument was developed from the foundations of Eric Kail’s Cardinal Leadership Inventory. It was designed to examine the enduring constructs evident throughout many theories of neocharismatic leadership: courage, integrity, selflessness, empathy, collaboration, and reflection. The newly created instrument is composed of 10 questions based on the exact definitions of provided by the Cardinal
Leadership Inventory. The aggregate score of the survey is used as a proxy for how leaders demonstrate various attributes of neocharismatic leadership in executing their role as a leader. It is also important to note that this newly created instrument is neither entirely comprehensive nor reflective of any one specific leadership theory.

**Additional Discussion: Love and Leadership**

In addition to the three leadership theories discussed above, love has many other ties to leadership. Love can be seen as a form of power (Boulding, 1989), as he points out that it (love) is the only form of power that is not abusive. “A leader that operates out of a power base of love avoids the abusive elements that so often pervade power” (Miller, 2006, p. 102). Much research has been done on the role of power as it applies to leadership—substituting love for power puts an interesting twist on it. By its nature love is a most commonly seen as a positive force and reinforces a positive environment. Consistent with the role of power in leadership, there are many studies on the benefits of positivity in leadership. Future research may explore a connection between love and positivity. Baumeister & Bratslavsky (1999) reference research conducted by Mettee and Aronson (1974) that concluded when receiving feedback, subjects were drawn closer to the persons who initially gave them negative feedback than those who consistently gave them positive feedback. This is an important concept as it helps to demonstrate the importance providing frequent and authentic or honest feedback (*increasing intimacy*) as it applies to leading others.
One final area worth mentioning is the tie in between Rempel and Burris’ (2005) definition of love as “a motivational state in which the goal is to preserve and promote the well-being of the valued object” (p. 299). The words “motivational state” inspire thoughts of a type of charisma and someone being very charismatic in this state. Additional analysis reveals the tie in between love/attraction/attractiveness and charismatic personalities/charismatic leaders—also an opportunity for further research.
Chapter 3: Research Methods

Introduction

As discussed earlier, love is not mentioned within the context of the study of leadership. They have similar roots; strong relationships, trust, integrity, charisma, taking care of others, and ultimately are focused on the well-being of others. This research examines the intersection between the two. More specifically, it determines if leaders who demonstrate the characteristics of love are perceived as having a higher degree of leadership. This chapter details the statement of the purpose, reviews the research questions, describes the population and sample, analyzes the research instruments, explains the procedures for data collection and analysis, and establishes validity and reliability of the proposed study that ultimately answers the following questions:

- Does a relationship exist between love and perceived leadership?
- What components of love are most important in this relationship?

Research Question

To demonstrate the relationship between love and leadership, this study examines several variables of love and leadership. Love (an independent variable) in this research, as defined by Sternberg, is a function of intimacy, passion, and commitment. Leadership (a dependent variable) as represented by the attributes found throughout the neocharismatic leadership theories presented in this research.
Love
Sternberg’s 45-question Triangular Love Scale was used to analyze an individual’s perceived level of a leader’s love. Respondents were asked to complete the survey with respect to their current supervisor or manager. The survey was slightly modified from its original version only to remove language or questions that are inappropriate for a leader/follower relationship, e.g., those questions that were sexual or physical in nature. Those questions were changed in such a manner to still measure the intended characteristic without the sexual connotation. The questionnaire is broken up into three 15-question sections, one for each of Sternberg’s main components of love. The first 15 items in the scale reflect intimacy, the second 15 measure passion, and the final 15 reflect commitment (see Appendix A). Scores were totaled and averaged to determine the degree to which the individual experiences each of these three components of love.

Love—instrumentation
The first set of Sternberg’s questions measure one’s perceived level of intimacy.

1. I am actively supportive of ____________’s well-being.

2. I have a warm relationship with ____________.

3. I am able to count on ____________ in times of need.

4. ____________ is able to count on me in times of need.

5. I am willing to share myself and my possessions with ____________.

6. I receive considerable emotional support from ____________.

7. I give considerable emotional support to ____________.
8. I communicate well with __________

9. I value __________ greatly in my life

10. I feel close to __________.

11. I have a comfortable relationship with __________.

12. I feel that I really understand __________.

13. I feel that __________ really understands me.

14. I feel that I can really trust __________.

15. I share deeply personal information about myself with __________.

The second set of Sternberg’s questions measure one’s perceived level of passion.

16. Just seeing __________ excites me.

17. I find myself thinking about __________ frequently during the day.

18. My relationship with __________ is very romantic.

19. I find __________ to be very personally attractive.

20. I idealize __________.

21. I cannot imagine another person making me as happy as __________ does.

22. I would rather be with __________ than with anyone else.

23. There is nothing more important to me than my relationship with __________.

24. I especially like physical contact with __________.

25. There is something almost “magical” about my relationship with __________.

26. I adore __________.

27. I cannot imagine life without __________.

28. My relationship with __________ is passionate.
29. When I see romantic movies and read romantic books, I think of ____________.
30. I fantasize about ____________.

The third set of Sternberg’s questions measure one’s level of perceived commitment.

31. I know that I care about ____________.
32. I am committed to maintaining my relationship with ____________.
33. Because of my commitment to ____________, I would not let other people come between us.
34. I have confidence in the stability of my relationship with ____________.
35. I could not let anything get in the way of my commitment to ____________.
36. I expect my love for ____________ to last for the rest of my life.
37. I will always feel a strong responsibility for ____________.
38. I view my commitment to ____________ as a solid one.
39. I cannot imagine ending my relationship with ____________.
40. I am certain of my love for ____________.
41. I view my relationship with ____________ as permanent.
42. I view my relationship with ____________ as a good decision.
43. I feel a sense of responsibility toward ____________.
44. I plan to continue my relationship with ____________.
45. Even when ____________ is hard to deal with, I remain committed to our relationship.
Every attempt was made to keep the survey as original as possible except in those cases that would be inappropriate (or in some cases illegal) in the workplace. With this in mind the following three modifications were made (see Appendix B):

1. Question 19 was modified from “I find my supervisor to be very personally attractive.” to “My supervisor is passionate about their job.”

2. Question 29 was modified from “When I see romantic movies or read romantic books I think of _______” to “When I read books or see movies about great leaders I think of my supervisor.”

3. Question 36 was modified from “I expect my love for my supervisor to last for the rest of my life.” to “I expect my relationship for my supervisor to last for the rest of my life.”

Answers to these questions were rated on a 9-point Likert scale with 1 being “not at all” and 9 being “extremely.”

**Leadership**

Given this is an exploratory study of leadership, a 10-question instrument measuring leadership was created. The leadership survey is based on attributes found throughout the neocharismatic theories inclusive of the concepts of character-based leadership, which according to Peterson and Seligman, serve as the source of a leader’s behavior (Hannah & Avolio, 2011). The instrument gauges several elements of leadership, including courage, integrity, selflessness, empathy, collaboration, and reflection. As mentioned in Chapter 2, character-based leadership can be seen as a leadership style that is “agnostic” (Hannah & Avolio, 2011). It is an approach that encompasses
transformational, authentic, spiritual, and other leadership styles because character is at the core of any leader. Other leadership teachings reference many of these attributes both directly and indirectly in their definitions, as illustrated in Table 3. For example, the concept of selflessness is referenced in servant leadership as service (Patterson, 2003), collaboration in authentic leadership as connected relationships (George, 2003) and empathy in transformational leadership as inspirational motivation (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Validation presented later in this research shows that these 10 questions are statistically reliable to assess the elements of neocharismatic leadership and based on the research presented serve as a sufficient proxy for leadership in the context of this study.

**Leadership—instrumentation**

The instrument created specifically for this research is based on an aggregate of the critical facets of leadership character that were originally presented in the Cardinal Leadership Instrument and prevalent in many of the neocharismatic leadership theories discussed in Table 3.

- **Courage:** Your moral resilience and bravery under pressure.
- **Integrity:** How well your life reflects your values.
- **Selflessness:** Placing the needs of the organization and your followers above your own.
- **Empathy:** Understanding others’ perspectives, leveraging diversity for high-performing teams.
- **Collaboration:** Building peer networks and seeing the big picture.
• Reflection: Translating performance into potential by learning from experience.

The questions were developed to proxy perceived levels of leadership represented from each of the six areas and were measured on a 9-point Likert scale with 1 being “not at all” and 9 being “extremely.” Definitions taken directly from cardinal leadership were presented before Question 1 (see Appendix C):

Courage - Moral/Physical Courage
This scale measures the degree to which one demonstrates resiliency when facing internal friction or uncertainty and assesses the degree to which one takes action by speaking up or standing up for what they believe to be right. Leaders with high scores are able to accept criticism and face adversity without feeling threatened or intimidated and take action immediately. Leaders with lower scores may worry more about negative consequences of their actions as leaders, especially in the face of competing demands and consider the situation and the impact of their actions on their own well-being.

My current supervisor____ is courageous (rate 1–9). (p. 96)

The entire questionnaire is presented in Appendix C: Leadership Survey. Permission from both Professor Sternberg and Professor Eric G. Kail (creator of the CLI) were received prior to administering the surveys.

**Research Design and Methodology**

The primary method of analysis was quantitative, Survey data was used to determine an individual’s perceived level of love practiced by their leader and the perceived level of leadership of the same leader. Creswell (2007) defined quantitative research as “a type of educational research in which the researcher decides what to study, asks specific, narrow questions, collects numeric data from participants, analyzes these
numbers using statistics, and conducts the inquiry in an unbiased, objective manner” (p. 388).

This was a correlational and predictive study using two variables of interest: Individuals perceived level of love practiced by their leaders and perceived level of leadership of the same leader. This is further broken down into one independent variable “love” (intimacy, passion and commitment) and the dependent variable “leadership.” Creswell (2007) noted that correlational designs are procedures in quantitative research in which investigators measure the degree of association (or relationship) between two or more variables using the statistical procedure of correlational analysis and is best method to ascertain relationships between variables using ordinal data. According to Creswell (2007), a correlational designed study is used when a need exists to study a problem requiring the identification of the direction and degree of association between two sets of scores. The two variables used in this study were perceived love and perceived leadership of the same leaders. The unit of analysis in this study was perceived leadership.

**Population and Sample Selection**
Fraenkel and Wallen (1996) defined population as the all-inclusive group to which the researcher hopes to generalize the findings of the research. They defined a target population as “a group of persons who possess certain characteristics” (p. 104).

Roberts (2006) gave recommendations for describing the sample:
1. The specific type of sampling should be used, such as probability sampling or non-probability sampling
2. The number of individuals included and where they are located
3. Why the selection was included
4. The criteria used for inclusion in the sample
5. A step-by-step account of how the researcher went about selecting the sample (p. 135)

The population used in this study was intentionally very broad and included essentially any individual who had access to a computer, the Internet, and who had a supervisor. The rational for using such a broad range of individuals was to not specifically target any one age group, industry, or geography.

The goal was to obtain over 200 complete surveys, enough data to test the null hypothesis for statistically significant relationships. For this study, 335 individuals participated in the online survey in September 2013. Two hundred thirty-seven surveys were completed in full. A complete survey was a survey where all 45 love questions and 10 leadership questions were answered.

**Data collection process**
Research was conducted through an Internet survey via Survey Monkey, a web-based survey company. Subjects were asked to complete an online questionnaire.

Respondents were not compensated and came from a variety of backgrounds,
including military and civilian occupations. The questionnaire consisted of four sections. In the first section, respondents were asked to complete a consensual release, included as Appendix D: Interview Consent Form. The second section consisted of the 45 questions from Sternberg’s Triangular Love Survey. The third section consisted of 10 questions that gauged common attributes found throughout prevalent neocharismatic theories. The fourth and final section consisted of eight questions centered on general demographic properties (see Appendix E)—areas of interest included age, sex, education, occupation, and military service.

Measures were taken within the survey to ensure compliance and completeness. Respondents were not allowed to begin the survey without completing the consent form and respondents were not allowed to skip any of the 55 questions concerning love or leadership. Respondents were allowed to skip any of the demographic questions in order to remove any perceptions they might have concerning privacy.

Data collection began on September 9, 2013 and concluded September 27, 2013. Links to the survey were sent out via Facebook, Linked-In, and emailed to friends, family, and co-workers. Within each invitation there was a section asking that the recipient forward to as many people in their networks as possible.

**Data Analysis Procedures**
A cross-sectional (non-experimental) analysis was conducted to show the relationship between Sternberg’s components of love and leadership. Analysis included
descriptive statistics on the participants of the survey, the effect of response bias, descriptive analysis of the data, factor analysis, reliability checks, and a thorough and rigorous presentation of the Microsoft Excel and SPSS output.

**Data analysis plan**
Microsoft Excel 2010 and SPSS were used for all statistical data analysis in this research. The alpha level (level of statistical significance) used in this study was identified as $p < .05$. Numerous statistical techniques were used for data analysis in this research. The approach of Pearson Correlation was applied to test the research hypothesis and multiple linear regression analysis was applied to test the hypothesis.

**Managing the data**
After removing “incomplete” surveys, each copy of the questionnaire was filtered into the Excel format. All response answers were edited in the Excel data file by different categories and variables. For example, the time in current job field was open text and some of the participants use words instead of numbers—these had to be converted.

**Descriptive statistics**
The frequency counts (such as, percentages) were applied to analyze the distribution of personal demographic factors (gender, age, military service, combat experience, years of in current position, and educational backgrounds).

**Linear regression analysis**
This approach was applied to explore the effects of three independent variables (three components of love: intimacy, passion, commitment) on perceived leadership. The
value of $R^2$ explained the proportion of variation in the dependent variable that is explained by the dependent variables. The value of $\beta$ explained the weight of effect of each independent variable on the dependent variable. An example of a regression equation of this research is follows:

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3$$

$Y$: Dependent variable (perceived leadership)

$a$: A constant

$b$: The regression coefficients (or $\beta$ coefficients)

$X_1$: Independent variable (Intimacy)

$X_2$: Independent variable (Passion)

$X_3$: Independent variable (Commitment)

**Limitations**

Internal and external limitations as described by Campbell and Stanley (1963) are discussed below. For internal validity, history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, statistical regression, biases, experimental mortality, and selection maturation were considered. The most concerning in this list is instrumentation (seeing as the this is not a longitudinal study, uses only one test environment, does not have a comparison group and is a random selection of respondents) and bias. Instrumentation was controlled by using a 9-point Likert scale for all questions and using clear definitions to terms respondents might not be familiar with. Bias might appear if it is presumed that those who completed the survey did so inaccurately and that their answers did not reflect their true beliefs. For this research it is assumed that those surveyed were
honest in their responses and not influenced by feelings that they should not rate their leaders truthfully because of loyalty or fear of possible repercussions.

For external validity the reactive or interaction effect of testing and reactive or interaction effect of selection bias, reactive effects of experimental arrangements and multiple treatment interference were considered. Of most concern here is selection bias, which was controlled to some degree by the sample size chosen $n > 200$. With that said, caution must be taken in the interpretation of the results across other cultures and extreme socio-economic tiers that are surely underrepresented in this research.

**Ethical Issues**
Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained before any data was collected. To ensure the rights of participants are protected, the following measures were taken: informed consent, privacy, confidentiality, and the ability to freely decline participation without any penalty. Data was reported in such a way that anonymity of the participants was maintained. Data from this study was stored on the researcher’s computer and deleted after the study was completed.

**Summary**
Chapter 3 described the methodology for this study. This quantitative study measured the correlation between perceived love shown by one’s leader and their perceived leadership. This chapter detailed the statement of the purpose, reviewed the research
questions, described the population and sample, analyzed the research instruments, explained the procedures for data collection and analysis, and established validity and reliability of the study. The following chapters present an analysis of the data gained from the study and the interpretation and recommendations based on the results.
Chapter 4: Presentation and Analysis of Data

Introduction

Research questions and hypotheses
This study examined the relationships between the dependent variable (follower’s perceived leadership of their leader) and independent variable (that follower’s perceived love from that same leader). The research question and corresponding hypothesis that guided this study are: to what degree is a follower’s perceived leadership of their leader (direct supervisor) related to the follower’s perceived love from that same leader?

Ha1: A leader’s perceived leadership is positively related to the degree of love the or she is perceived as displaying.

This research will dive further into relationship between Sternberg’s model of love and leadership by looking individually at the relationship between intimacy and leadership, passion and leadership, and commitment and leadership. This presents three additional hypotheses:

Ha2: A leader’s perceived leadership is positively related to the degree of intimacy he or she is perceived as displaying

Ha3: A leader’s perceived leadership is positively related to the degree of passion he or she is perceived as displaying
Ha4: A leader’s perceived leadership is positively related to the degree of commitment he or she is perceived as displaying

Data Gathering, Analysis, and Results

The data were collected via Survey Monkey and transferred into Excel format. Participant anonymity was ensured as the survey did not collect any personal identification data and IP addresses were deleted from the final data set. The data was screened for existence of outliers and missing data to ensure the data was ready for analysis. Descriptive statistics were generated for the study variables: frequencies and percentages were obtained for each demographic variable, and means and standard deviation were generated for each continuous variable. Exploratory data analysis followed to determine the normality of the distributions of the study variables.

The results of this study are organized as follows: (A) description of the sample, (B) preliminary data analysis addressing outliers, (C) descriptive statistics (normality checks), and D) inferential analyses examining the relationship between the independent variable (follower’s preferred love from that same leader) and dependent variable (follower’s perceived leadership of his or her leader). The chapter ends with a conclusion that summarizes the results in relation to the research questions.

Description of the sample

A total of 335 surveys were started with 237 meeting the criteria as satisfactorily completed (70%). Satisfactorily completed is defined as completing the disclosure and answering the first 55 questions. The final eight questions were deemed optional,
although they were completed 98% of the time. One hundred twenty-one (51%) of the respondents were male and 114 (49%) were female. Eighty-nine percent of the respondents were between 30 and 59 years young, with none of the respondents indicating they were younger than 18 or older than 69. The education level of the sample was higher than the average US population with 154 (57%) of the sample having at least a Master’s degree. Sixty-three percent of those surveyed indicated that they had the same supervisor for between one and five years, with the majority (46%) having served for the supervisor they rated for between one and three years. Sixty-five (28%) of the respondents had military experience, with 41 (63%) of them having served in combat. One respondent indicated combat experience with not having served in the military. Respondents indicated that 34 (14%) of their supervisors had served in the military while 25 (11%) did not know if their supervisors had military experience. One hundred thirty-two (56%) were very satisfied with their current job (scoring 8–9 on a 9-point Likert scale) while 82 (35%) were somewhat satisfied (scoring 3–7 on a 9-point Likert scale) and 21 (9%) indicated they were not satisfied with their current job (scoring 1–2 on a 9-point Likert scale). Table 4 shows a summary of demographic information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Value Label</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>&lt;18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;69</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blank</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 Yr Degree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 Yr degree</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blank</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders Tenure</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;1-3</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;3-5</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;5-8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;8-11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;11-14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blank</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military Service</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blank</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combat Experience*</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Value Label</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor has Military Experience</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unk</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*One respondent replied combat experience but not military*

---

Model—data analysis addressing outliers
The data set was screened for the existence of outliers as an indication of variability in measurement or experimental error. Outliers in the data set were defined as those data points that were >3 standard deviations from the mean (three sigma rule). This rule states that in a normally distributed sample 99.7% will lie within 3 standard deviations from the mean. Mathematically this is shown as $Pr(\mu - \sigma \leq x \leq \mu + \sigma + 3\sigma) \approx 0.9973$.

Based on the analysis only one data point was identified as being >3 standard deviations from the mean. Based on the fact that the z score was close to 3 (3.13) and the outlier only affected one variable, there was no statistical reason to exclude the data point from the sample and it was retained in the analysis.
**Model—statistical assumptions**

Another validity check on the regression model that was performed was the check of the residual plots. This check indicates how the data points are randomly distributed in the plots, which demonstrates adherence to all three statistical assumptions: (1) linearity, (2) normally distributed errors, and (3) homoscedasticity. To show that the observed error is consistent with stochastic error, the residuals should not be systematically high or low and they should be centered on zero across the range of values. When this happens our model: \( Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 \)

- \( Y \): Dependent variable (Perceived leadership)
- \( a \): A constant
- \( b \): The regression coefficients (or \( B \) coefficients)
- \( X_1 \): Independent variable (Intimacy)
- \( X_2 \): Independent variable (Passion)
- \( X_3 \): Independent variable (Commitment)

This model can be considered correct on average for all fitted values.

The residual plot show in Figure 1 shows the data is consistently distributed among the x axis demonstrating linearity, normally distributed errors and homoscedasticity.
Love—descriptive statistics (normality check)

Testing was conducted for the statistical assumptions associated with linear regression: (1) linearity, (2) normally distributed errors and (3) homoscedasticity. In order to check for normality kurtosis and skewness thresholds were examined.

According to Field (2013) the acceptable ranges for kurtosis and skewness are +/- 1.

Based on the calculations show in Table 5 it can be determined that the intimacy data
is considered normally distributed based on the kurtosis and skewness values of -.718 and -.347, respectively.

Table 5. Intimacy Normality Check

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intimacy Average</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>6.142053446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Error</td>
<td>0.112939829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>1.738686568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kurtosis</strong></td>
<td><strong>-0.71815133</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Skewness</strong></td>
<td><strong>-0.34719367</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the data shown in Table 6, it can be determined that the passion data is considered normally distributed given that the values of -.158 and .639, respectively for kurtosis and skewness both lie within the acceptable range of +/- 1.

Table 6. Passion Normality Check

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passion Average</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.473699015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Error</td>
<td>0.108890427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>1.67634682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kurtosis</strong></td>
<td><strong>-0.158357162</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Skewness</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.639294652</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the data in Table 7 showing values of -.618 and -.007, respectively for kurtosis and skewness, it can be determined that the commitment data is considered normally distributed as both lie within the acceptable range of +/- 1.

**Table 7. Commitment Normality Check**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commitment Average</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.764838256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Error</td>
<td>0.115689736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>1.781020845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kurtosis</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.618298709</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Skewness</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.007074024</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>7.733333333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>8.733333333</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Love—instrument reliability and consistency**

Sternberg’s 45-question love survey was tested for consistency and reliability after the minor changes to the questions were introduced. Results showed high Cronbach’s Alpha (1 being the highest) for the intimacy, passion, and commitment questions as shown in Table 8.
Table 8. Love—Internal Consistency Check

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intimacy</td>
<td>.960</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion</td>
<td>.950</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>.952</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Leadership—descriptive statistics (normality check)
Further analysis of the dependent variables show the data can be considered normally distributed as all values of kurtosis and skewness lie within the acceptable range of +/- 1. Based on the data shown in Table 9, it can be determined that the total leadership data are also normally distributed based on the kurtosis and skewness values of .269 and .579.

Table 9. Leadership Normality Check

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>6.057383966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Error</td>
<td>0.116389182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>1.791788684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-0.269971272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>-0.579941003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Leadership—instrument reliability and consistency

Based on the fact this is a newly created instrument, a more rigorous approach to testing reliability was taken. The leadership survey was tested for internal reliability and consistency by calculating Cronbach’s alpha for each of the 10 questions. Cronbach’s alpha was calculated .934, which is considered excellent internal consistency (Kline, 2000). Exploratory factor analysis showed that a one factor solution (average of all 10 questions) was an appropriate design for this test. Eigenvalues are illustrated in Figure 2.

![Figure 2. Leadership Instrument Internal Validity Data](image-url)
Table 10 shows that over 60% of the variance is explained rolling all 10 questions into one leadership measure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.323</td>
<td>63.234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>8.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td>6.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td>4.915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>3.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.361</td>
<td>3.608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>3.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>2.791</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.214</td>
<td>2.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.205</td>
<td>2.047</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Inferential analyses**

**Aggregate love and leadership**

The correlation coefficient (r) is the common measure of the correlation (linear dependence) between two variables X and Y. The regression analysis focuses on the combined relationship between intimacy, passion and commitment and perceived leadership. The regression results, \( r(237) = .738 \), \( p <.01 \), shown in Table 11 indicate that
a statistically significant relationship exists between the dependent variable (follower’s perceived leadership of their leader) and independent variable (that follower’s perceived love from that same leader). While Sternberg does not overtly discuss an aggregate love measure (the average of the intimacy, passion, and commitment scores), it is worth examining in this discussion.

Table 11: Summary of Regression Analyses for Predicting Love’s Relationship to Leadership (N = 237)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intimacy</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>R2</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.738</td>
<td>0.544</td>
<td>5.71E-42**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .01.

Note: Love as measured here is the average of intimacy, passion, and commitment.

Intimacy and leadership
The correlation coefficient (r) is the common measure of the correlation (linear dependence) between two variables X and Y. The regression analysis focuses on the combined relationship between intimacy and perceived leadership. The regression results, r(237) = .788, p < .05, shown in Table 12 indicate that a statistically significant relationship exists between the dependent variable (follower’s perceived leadership of their leader) and independent variable (that follower’s perceived intimacy from that same leader).
From this data we confirm the hypothesis Ha2: A leader’s perceived leadership is positively related to the degree of intimacy they are perceived as displaying.

**Table 12: Summary of Regression Analyses for Predicting Intimacy’s Relationship to Leadership (N = 237)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intimacy</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$P$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.788</td>
<td>0.621</td>
<td>1.92231E-51*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .01.

**Passion and leadership**

The correlation coefficient ($r$) is the common measure of the correlation (linear dependence) between two variables $X$ and $Y$. The regression analysis focuses on the combined relationship between passion and perceived leadership. The regression results, $r_{(237)} = .592$, $p < .01$, shown in Table 13 indicate that a statistically significant relationship exists between the dependent variable (follower’s perceived leadership of their leader) and independent variable (that follower’s perceived intimacy from that same leader).

**Table 13: Summary of Regression Analyses for Predicting Passion’s Relationship to Leadership (N = 237)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passion</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$P$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.592</td>
<td>0.350</td>
<td>8.0478E-24*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .01.
From this data we can confirm the hypothesis Ha3: A leader’s perceived leadership is positively related to the degree of passion they are perceived as displaying.

Commitment and leadership
The correlation coefficient \((r)\) is the common measure of the correlation (linear dependence) between two variables \(X\) and \(Y\). The regression analysis focuses on the combined relationship between commitment and perceived leadership. The regression results, \(r(237) = .622, p < .01\), shown in Table 14 indicate that a statistically significant relationship exists between the dependent variable (follower’s perceived leadership of their leader) and independent variable (that follower’s perceived intimacy from that same leader).

From this data we confirm the hypothesis Ha4: A leader’s perceived leadership is positively related to the degree of commitment they are perceived as displaying.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>(r)</th>
<th>(R^2)</th>
<th>(P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td>0.387</td>
<td>8.36143E-27*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*\(p < .01\).

Intimacy, passion, commitment, and leadership
The correlation coefficient \((r)\) is the common measure of the correlation (linear dependence) between two variables \(X\) and \(Y\). The regression analysis focuses on the combined relationship between intimacy, passion and commitment and perceived
leadership. The regression results, $r_{(237)} = .795$, $p < .01$, shown in Table 15 indicate that a statistically significant relationship exists between the dependent variable (follower’s perceived leadership of their leader) and independent variable (that follower’s perceived love from that same leader when modeled with all three variables considered).

**Table 15: Summary of Regression Analyses for Variables Predicting Love’s Relationship to Leadership (N = 237)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>$SE$</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intimacy</td>
<td>.709</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>.709*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>.003**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>.142***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$r = .795$

$F = 133.277$

* $p < .01$. ** $p > .05$. *** $p < .05$.

Applying the results illustrated in Table 15 as they apply to the coefficients for intimacy, passion, and commitment, and remembering the size of the coefficient for each independent variable gives you the size of the effect that variable is having on your dependent variable, and the sign on the coefficient (positive or negative) gives you the direction of the effect. In regression with multiple independent variables, as in this study, the coefficient tells you how much the dependent variable is expected to increase when that independent variable increases by one, holding all the other
independent variables constant. In this study, intimacy explains the majority of the relationship between love and leadership ($\beta$ Intimacy = .709, $p < .01$). With $\beta$ of = .003, $p > .05$ passion (as defined in this study) does not have a statistically significant effect on one’s perceived leadership after intimacy is factored in. With $\beta$ of = .142, $p \approx .05$ commitment (as defined in this study) does not have a statistically significant effect on one’s perceived leadership after intimacy is factored in.

In other words, once accounting for intimacy-passion and commitment do not explain a significant amount of additional unique variance.

**Conclusion**

The research question and hypothesis posed in this study was: *to what degree is a follower’s perceived leadership of their leader (direct supervisor) related to the follower’s perceived love from that same leader?*  

$H_a$: *A leader’s perceived leadership is positively related to the degree of love they are perceived as displaying.*

From the results using an aggregate love score as the independent variable $r_{(237)}$ = .738, $p < .01$, the null hypotheses is confirmed and it is determined that a large positive correlation exists between the follower’s preferred degree of (aggregate) love displayed and follower’s perceived leadership of their leader. This conclusion also holds true when modeled as a multiple linear regression using Sternberg’s three pillars of love: intimacy, passion, and commitment $r_{(237)}$ = .795, $p < .01$. 
Chapter 5: Conclusions

Introduction
The purpose of this study was to tie together the psychology of love and leadership behavior to open the door for further research—research that someday may potentially change the way we approach the field of leadership, leadership assessment, and leader development. More specifically, it examined the relationship between love as represented by intimacy, passion, and commitment and leadership as represented by the common components of the theories contained in the neocharismatic leadership body of literature. The research is significant because up to this point no scholarly research existed that ties together love and leadership. The study was conducted by administering an online survey followed by quantitative research via multiple linear regressions.

A relationship does exist between love and leadership! More specifically, leaders who demonstrate the characteristics of love are perceived as having a higher degree of leadership than those who do not demonstrate the characteristics of love. Until now, love has not been overtly mentioned as a significant contributor to the study of leadership, yet as shown in the results of this research, there is an intersection between the two. The regression results indicate that a statistically significant relationship exists between love and leadership ($r_{237} = .795, p < .01$). The next section postulates how all three aspects of love have intersections with the leadership theories examined in this study.
Love and Leadership—Making the Connection

Transformational leadership and love
Examining the characteristics of transformational leadership as defined by Bass and Avolio (2000) ties can be made to the characteristics of love described earlier. Idealized influence (engendering trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect amongst followers through application of charismatic vision and behavior) and inspirational motivation (inspiring followers toward the new ideas or goals and higher purpose) have strong ties to passion (the need for self-esteem, succorance, nurturance, affiliation, dominance, submission, and self-actualization) (Sternberg, 1987).

Intellectual stimulation (raising awareness, encouraging creativity, heightening sensitivity, and empowerment) and individualized consideration (treating each follower as a “whole,” listening, recognizing and rewarding, and being fair) are closely related to intimacy (feelings that promote closeness, bondedness and connectedness such as affection, positive regard, self-disclosure, and supportiveness) (Sternberg, 1987).

Inspirational motivation (enthusiasm and optimism, providing both meaning and challenge to the work at hand, commitment to goals and expression of a shared vision) ties to Sternberg’s concept of commitment which for the purposes of this study refer to the leaders short term resolve to maintain a close relationship to those
that they lead and the long term dedication to that person’s success and well-being.

These relationships are proposed in Table 16.

Table 16. Transformational Leadership and Sternberg’s Components of Love

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transformational Leadership</th>
<th>Sternberg’s Components of Love</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence</td>
<td>Passion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational Motivation</td>
<td>Commitment/Passion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>Intimacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized Consideration</td>
<td>Intimacy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Authentic leadership and love**

Demonstrating self-discipline (George, 2003) ties to Sternberg’s concept of commitment, which for the purposes of this study, refers to the leaders short-term resolve to maintain a close relationship to those that they lead and the long-term dedication to that person’s success and well-being.

Establishing connected relationships and practicing solid values (George, 2003) are closely related to intimacy (feelings that promote closeness, bondedness and connectedness such as affection, positive regard, self-disclosure, and supportiveness) (Sternberg, 1987).

Leading with your heart and understanding your purpose (George, 2003) have strong ties to passion (the need for self-esteem, succorance, nurturance, affiliation,
dominance, submission, and self-actualization) (Sternberg, 1987). The concepts of
commitment, passion and intimacy resonate in any discussion of authentic leadership
and are proposed in Table 17.

Table 17. Authentic Leadership and Sternberg's Components of Love

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authentic Leadership Characteristics (George)</th>
<th>Sternberg’s Components of Love</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrating self-discipline</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishing connected relationships</td>
<td>Intimacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practicing solid values</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leading with the heart</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding your purpose</td>
<td>Passion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Servant leadership and love

Within Patterson’s framework agapao (doing the right thing at the right time and for
the right reason, encouraging humility, and altruism), humility (the ability to keep
one’s accomplishments and talents in perspective) and altruism (helping others
selflessly just for the sake of helping, which involves personal sacrifice, although
there is no personal gain) tie nicely to Sternberg’s concept of commitment. For the
purposes of this study, Sternberg’s concepts refer to the leaders’ short-term resolve to
maintain a close relationship to those that they lead and the long-term dedication to
that person’s success and well-being.
Trust (confidence in or reliance on another team member in terms of their morality (e.g. honesty) and competence) (Hauser & House, 2000), service (sense of responsibility to others) (Greenleaf, 1996), and empowerment (entrusting power to others, effective listening, making people feel significant, putting an emphasis on teamwork, and valuing of love and equality) (Russell & Stone, 2002) are all closely related to intimacy (feelings that promote closeness, bondedness and connectedness such as affection, positive regard, self-disclosure, and supportiveness) (Sternberg, 1987).

Vision (a picture of the future that produces passion) (Blanchard, 2000) by way of Blanchard’s definition, relates directly to passion (the need for self-esteem, succorance, nurturance, affiliation, dominance, submission, and self-actualization) (Sternberg, 1987). These relationships are proposed in Table 18.

### Table 18. Servant Leadership and Sternberg's Components of Love

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Servant Leadership (Patterson)</th>
<th>Sternberg’s Components of Love</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agapao, Humility, Altruism, Service</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust, Empowerment</td>
<td>Intimacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>Passion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additional research has been conducted that draws similar ties to servant leadership and love. Frey’s (2005) transcendence, spirituality and connectedness key
components of servant leadership can also be stated as intimacy, passion, and commitment—key characteristics of love. Through establishing a culture based on altruistic love, followers feel understood and appreciated. The resulting organizational culture gives employees a sense of calling; they feel part of a community (Frey & Slocum, 2008).

Similarly, spiritual facilitation at work emphasizes a sense of meaning at work and focuses on organizational values that allow for a feeling of transcendence and a feeling of connectedness to others (Pawar, 2008). Spiritual leadership starts with creating a vision through which a sense of calling can be experienced and establishing a culture that helps to intrinsically motivate both oneself as leader and the people within one’s team or organization and helps followers find a sense of meaning (Frey & Slocum, 2008).

**Character-based leadership and love**
Research on character and character-based leadership has many ties to the concepts of love as presented in this document. Some are presented in discussions of personality as in the work of Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhart (2002). Other ties can be made through the many studies on virtue and ethics as they apply both to leadership and intimacy passion and commitment. For the purposes of this research, the following relationship matrix is presented in Table 19.
Table 19. Character-based Leadership and Sternberg's Components of Love

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character-based Leadership (Kail)</th>
<th>Sternberg’s Components of Love</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Courage, Selflessness</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrity, Empathy, Collaboration</td>
<td>Intimacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>Passion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary—leadership and love
A summary of the proposed relationship between love and leadership is illustrated in Table 20.

Table 20. Summary of Leadership and Love

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sternberg’s Components of Love</th>
<th>Transformational Leadership (Bass &amp; Avolio)</th>
<th>Authentic Leadership Characteristics (George)</th>
<th>Servant Leadership (Patterson)</th>
<th>Character-based Leadership (Kail)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Inspirational Motivation</td>
<td>Demonstrates self-discipline</td>
<td>Agapao Humility Altruism Service</td>
<td>Courage Selflessness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimacy</td>
<td>Individualized Consideration</td>
<td>Establishes connected relationships</td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Integrity Empathy Collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Practices solid values</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sternberg’s Components of Love

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sternberg’s Components of Love</th>
<th>Transformational Leadership (Bass &amp; Avolio)</th>
<th>Authentic Leadership Characteristics (George)</th>
<th>Servant Leadership (Patterson)</th>
<th>Character-based Leadership (Kail)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Passion</td>
<td>Idealized Influence</td>
<td>Leads with their heart</td>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>Reflection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inspirational Motivation</td>
<td>Understands their purpose</td>
<td></td>
<td>Empowerment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Limitations**

As with any research there are limitations to this research. The main limitation in this study is the strength of which the leadership questions represent “leadership.” In spite of how much credibility one gives to the leadership instrument used it has been shown throughout this document to be founded on theory and is proven to be statistically solid. Furthermore, the research is intended to be exploratory in nature and pave the way for further research tying together the two academic bodies.

Another potential limitation might be Sternberg’s questionnaire. It is immediately obvious that his questions were not intended to be used in the workplace. This limitation, however, is one that I believe in future research will prove to strengthen the relationship between love and leadership. As further research develops what love in the workplace looks like, I believe the tie between love and leadership will strengthen.
Finally, the sample population was intentionally very diverse with the only true commonality being access to the Internet. This limitation should be considered in applying the findings to any specific industry, demographic, or ethnicity.

**Conclusion**

If one simply looks at leadership as the outcome of the interaction between two or more individuals, it is logical that the relationship between leader and follower(s) should be significant. This concept is presented in many of the leadership theories discussed earlier in the research. This study dove deeper into that relationship and showed that intimacy as it is presented in this research was the most significant contributor to perceived leadership.

Passion (in spite of the significant Pearson correlation) had a low beta value in the multiple regression using Sternberg’s three pillars of love ($^p$ Passion = 0.003). With the significant research that has conducted on charismatic leadership (and the fact that one might relate passion with charisma and charismatic leadership) it is surprising passion was not as large of a contributor to perceived leadership as intimacy.

The same holds true for commitment. Commitment might be associated with loyalty and trust, which have often been presented as foundations of leadership in other models. One might postulate that commitment would be a larger contributor to the strength of the relationship between love and leadership, but it also has a low beta value.
An explanation one must consider is that the passion and commitment questions were written within the framework of intrapersonal relationships (psychology of love) and not align within the managerial contexts of leadership. The concept of intimacy, on the other hand, may be universal and intersect both schools of literature.
Chapter 6: Implications and Recommendations

Theoretical Implications

There are many implications in tying the concept of love to leadership. Most importantly, it creates a link between two major schools of thought, psychology and management. Earlier in this research, it was proposed that there was an “unknown” aspect of leadership that could potentially be “love.” This statement is better supported when changed to the “unknown” aspect of leadership that could potentially be “character.” Bettleheim (1983) describes a similar unknown as Geisteswissenschaften, which translates to “science of the spirit.” The French have a saying for this called la science de l’humanite and Simon (1999) refers to “the sciences of the artificial” (Quick & Wright, 2011). These works, as along with Hannah and Avolio’s (2011) work make a compelling argument that character is the “unknown” commonality in any leader.

To what degree character plays in leadership is debatable; however, nearly all agree it is a component and several link it to leader effectiveness (Reave, 2005). If further research continues to demonstrate the relationship between love and leadership, it is logical to make the connection between love and leadership effectiveness.

Considerable research has gone into attempting to answer the question can character be developed? Peterson and Seligman (2004) say that character is “somewhat malleable” where more recent research suggests it can be developed (Arvey, Zhang,
Avolio, & Keuger, 2007) (Avolio, Rotundo, & Walumbwa, 2009). These discussions lead to complex processes, some of which span a lifetime. The results of the research presented in this document potentially quantify and simplify the concept of developing character. In fact, this research proposes that simply by focusing on intimacy, passion, and commitment, a leader’s perceived character improves. The main driver to perceived increases in a leader’s character is intimacy followed by commitment and then passion. Barring future research that might weight passion and commitment higher it is worth investigating the relationship between intimacy and character.

**Practical Implications**

If one stays only with Sternberg’s definition of love, it opens up the potential to create categories of leaders based on the levels of intimacy, passion and commitment as Sternberg did with love. Imagine a table that describes eight types of loving leaders, as shown in Table 21.

**Table 21. Eight Types of Loving Leaders**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intimacy</th>
<th>Passion</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-leader</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendly Leader</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charismatic Leader</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empty Leader</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selfish Leader</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Companionate Leader</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Knowing a person’s predisposition for falling into one of these categories (based on the degree of intimacy, passion, and commitment they demonstrate) might allow organizations to hire and match jobs to different individuals.

With new categories of leaders defined, leadership development can reach into the vast amounts of research and methodologies that currently exist and are practiced by psychologists to improve one’s levels of intimacy, passion and commitment to potentially improve their leadership effectiveness. If we expand our scope outside of Sternberg’s components of love the opportunity to examine new ways to develop leadership increases exponentially.

If intimacy does play as large of a role in leadership, as this study suggests, we may be face new challenges in the workplace. Highly measured productivity goals and larger teams may limit the time a leader spends engaging in “getting to know” their teams. Urban sprawl, long commutes, and other constraints on our time limit “off hours” time that would otherwise lead to building the relationships with one’s team. Physical setup of offices (cubes), telecommuting, and remote offices are other potential constraints on a leader’s ability to build intimacy. Leaders need to find new
ways to create intimacy with their teams, teams that they may only see once or twice a year.

To overcome the physical limitations (some might refer to this as proximity), more travel may be required to build intimacy. Other concepts that should be considered are intensive, in-depth onboarding programs designed to build trust and strong relationships sooner. Leaders may have to be more focused on the individual during the times they have to engage in person.

Additionally, speaking terms of intimaecy, passion, and commitment within the workplace presents some challenges in today’s litigious society. These words have been most commonly associated with “personal” relationships between couples—not co-workers. Because of the connotation associated with this language, leaders may fear legal repercussions of sexual harassment in building intimacy. Because of these concerns, any future integration of promoting love in the workplace must be clearly defined and a focused communication and training plan.

**Recommendations**

**Recommendations for future research**
This research opens the door for a plethora of new research. The first research opportunity is in duplicating the research with a new instrument to measure love based on Sternberg’s model but more suited towards a business environment. Every attempt was made in this research to preserve the integrity of Sternberg’s survey,
which created some awkward interpretations especially in the passion section. This is important in the context of the results as it is hypothesized that with questions more geared towards the business world, the impact of passion (on perceived leadership) is greater.

Within the realm of this research also presents the opportunity to examine the correlation between intimacy, passion, and commitment in the generational, educational, and professional strata that also is hypothesized to be different. This insight also would allow more focused and individualized leadership coaching based on the specific demographic segment one is identified by.

Expanding outside the general framework of neocharismatic leadership, opportunities exist for similar studies as they apply to different leadership theories. This study presented a framework that implied a relationship to one leadership theory. A more rigorous approach to this research can seek out the correlation between love and individual leadership theories (transformational, servant, etc.). This insight would be valuable in matching individual’s strengths.

Finally, with the link made between love and leadership, further research on love and leadership effectiveness becomes an obvious area for research. Research exists examining the ties between the leadership theories presented and
leadership/organizational effectiveness. Additional research examining the role of love and leadership effectiveness may prove to be a valuable body of work.

**Summary**

Love alone will not guarantee a leader success but it covers many of the most important aspects. Bill George sums it up perfectly when he says:

> The capacity to develop close and enduring relationships is one mark of a leader. Unfortunately, many leaders…believe their job is to create strategy, structure and processes…This detached style of leadership will not be successful in the 21st century. (2003, p. 23)

Simply put: Leaders must love.

All of the individuals who impacted my life, in the military, at work and in my personal life, who I hold in the highest regard, are truly the ones who embodied intimacy, passion, and commitment. This is not a coincidence. Co-worker, son, soldier independent—I could trust them beyond any doubt, they knew me better than I knew myself, they were passionate about life, about living, about what they did, and why they did it. They were committed to a higher goal, to themselves, and most importantly, to others. So looking back, I find these results fulfilling, consistent, and rewarding.
In my opinion, it is love that makes people stand apart, that makes individuals into heroes, teams into champions, and memories. I will love and hope the reader does as well—those whom we lead deserve it.

...My words the music of a dream.
Thus, while no single sound too rude
Upon thy slumber shall intrude,
Our thoughts, our souls- O God above!
In every deed shall mingle, love (Poe, 2013).

It was my destiny to love and say goodbye (Neurda, 2005, p. 22).
Appendix A: Sternberg’s Triangular Love Scale

Sternberg’s Triangular Love Scale
Read each of the following statements, filling in the blank spaces with the name of one person you love or care for deeply. Rate your agreement with each statement according to the following scale, and enter the appropriate number between 1 and 9.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Not at all Moderately Extremely

1. I am actively supportive of ____________’s well-being.
2. I have a warm relationship with ____________.
3. I am able to count on ____________ in times of need.
4. ____________ is able to count on me in times of need.
5. I am willing to share myself and my possessions with ____________.
6. I receive considerable emotional support from ____________.
7. I give considerable emotional support to ____________.
8. I communicate well with ____________.
9. I value ____________ greatly in my life.
10. I feel close to ____________.
11. I have a comfortable relationship with ____________.
12. I feel that I really understand ____________.
13. I feel that ____________ really understands me.
14. I feel that I can really trust ____________.
15. I share deeply personal information about myself with ____________.
16. Just seeing ____________ excites me.
17. I find myself thinking about ____________ frequently during the day.
18. My relationship with ____________ is very romantic.
19. I find ____________ to be very personally attractive.
20. I idealize ____________.
21. I cannot imagine another person making me as happy as ____________ does.
22. I would rather be with ____________ than with anyone else.
23. There is nothing more important to me than my relationship with ____________.
24. I especially like physical contact with ____________.
25. There is something almost “magical” about my relationship with ____________.
26. I adore ____________.
27. I cannot imagine life without ____________.
28. My relationship with ____________ is passionate.
29. When I see romantic movies and read romantic books, I think of ________.
30. I fantasize about ________________.
31. I know that I care about ____________.
32. I am committed to maintaining my relationship with ____________.
33. Because of my commitment to ____________, I would not let other people come between us.
34. I have confidence in the stability of my relationship with ____________.
35. I could not let anything get in the way of my commitment to ____________.
36. I expect my love for __________ to last for the rest of my life.
37. I will always feel a strong responsibility for ____________.
38. I view my commitment to __________ as a solid one.
39. I cannot imagine ending my relationship with ____________.
40. I am certain of my love for ____________.
41. I view my relationship with ____________ as permanent.
42. I view my relationship with ____________ as a good decision.
43. I feel a sense of responsibility toward ____________.
44. I plan to continue my relationship with ____________.
45. Even when ____________ is hard to deal with, I remain committed to our relationship.

Scoring
Psychologist Robert Sternberg sees love as being composed of three components: intimacy, passion, and commitment. The first 15 items in the scale reflect intimacy, the second 15 measure passion, and the final 15 reflect commitment. Add up your scores for each group of 15 items. Find the scores closest to your three totals in the appropriate column below to determine the degree to which you experience each of these three components of love.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intimacy</th>
<th>Passion</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Items 1–15)</td>
<td>(Items 16–30)</td>
<td>(Items 31–45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>108</td>
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<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>120</td>
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<tr>
<td>129</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Sternberg, high scores in all three components would indicate consummate love. However, uneven or low scores do not necessarily mean that a relationship is not strong: All relationships have ups and downs, and the nature of a relationship may change over time.
Appendix B: Love Scale (with modification)

1. My supervisor is actively supportive of my well-being.
2. I have a warm relationship with my supervisor.
3. I am able to count on my supervisor in times of need.
4. My supervisor is able to count on me in times of need.
5. I am willing to share myself and my work with my supervisor.
6. I receive considerable emotional support from my supervisor.
7. I give considerable emotional support to my supervisor.
8. I communicate well with my supervisor.
9. I value my supervisor greatly in my life.
10. I feel close to my supervisor.
11. I have a comfortable relationship with my supervisor.
12. I feel that I really understand my supervisor.
13. I feel that my supervisor really understands me.
14. I feel that I can really trust my supervisor.
15. I share deeply personal information about myself with my supervisor.
16. Just seeing my supervisor excites me.
17. I find myself thinking about my supervisor frequently during the day.
18. My relationship with my supervisor is very powerful.
19. I find my supervisor to be very personally attractive.
20. I idealize my supervisor.
21. I cannot imagine another supervisor making me as happy as my supervisor does.
22. I would rather work for my supervisor than with anyone else.
23. There is nothing more important to me (at work) than my relationship with my supervisor.
24. I especially like interaction with my supervisor.
25. There is something almost “magical” about my relationship with my supervisor.
26. I adore my supervisor.
27. I cannot imagine work without my supervisor.
28. My relationship with my supervisor is passionate.
29. When I see romantic movies or read romantic books I think of ______.
30. When I see read books or see movies about great leaders I think of my supervisor.
31. I fantasize about having my supervisor’s job.
32. I know that I care about my supervisor.
33. I am committed to maintaining my relationship with my supervisor.
34. Because of my commitment to my supervisor, I would not let other people come between us.
35. I have confidence in the stability of my relationship with my supervisor.
36. I could not let anything get in the way of my commitment to my supervisor.
36. I expect my love for my supervisor to last for the rest of my life.

* I expect my relationship for my supervisor to last for the rest of my life. 

37. I will always have a strong responsibility for my supervisor.

38. I view my commitment to my supervisor as a solid one.

39. I cannot imagine ending my relationship with my supervisor.

40. I am certain of my love for my supervisor.

41. I view my relationship with my supervisor as permanent.

42. I view my relationship with my supervisor as a good thing.

43. I feel a sense of responsibility toward my supervisor.

44. I plan to continue in my relationship with my supervisor.

45. Even when my supervisor is hard to deal with, I remain committed to our relationship.
Appendix C: Leadership Survey

PART I
Read each of the following definitions and statements, with your current supervisor in mind. Rate your agreement with each statement according to the following scale, and enter the appropriate number between 1 and 9

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Not at all Moderate Extremely

Courage - Moral/Physical Courage
This scale measures the degree to which one demonstrates resiliency when facing internal friction or uncertainty and assesses the degree to which one takes action by speaking up or standing up for what they believe to be right. Leaders with high scores are able to accept criticism and face adversity without feeling threatened or intimidated and take action immediately. Leaders with lower scores may worry more about negative consequences of their actions as leaders, especially in the face of competing demands and consider the situation and the impact of their actions on their own well-being.
My current supervisor ______ is courageous.

Integrity
This scale assesses the degree to which one adheres to moral and ethical principles in word and deed. Leaders with high scores see issues as very black and white, and leaders with lower scores see significant gray areas when considering issues of ethics and morality.
My current supervisor ______ displays integrity.

Selflessness
This scale evaluates the degree to which one places the needs of others above their own. Leaders with high scores are more interested in the developmental needs of others. Leaders with lower scores place more value on their own personal achievements.
My current supervisor ______ is selfless.

Empathy - Tolerance
This scale measures one’s conceptual willingness to understand the differences in others. Leaders with high scores appreciate the diverse creativity of others, and leaders with lower scores prefer to keep emotion and innovation out of important decisions.
My current supervisor ______ is empathetic.

Empathy - Humility
This scale evaluates one’s ability to get past their ego and see the potential in others because of their different strengths and challenges. Leaders with high scores are humble and always look for what others can positively contribute. Leaders with lower
scores are quick to size people up and have a low tolerance for what they perceive as weakness.

My current supervisor ______ is empathetic.

Collaboration - Peer Support
This scale assesses the degree to which one share ideas and information, and whether or not they take pride in the accomplishments of their peers. Leaders with high scores value teamwork and are not threatened by helping their peers succeed for the good of the organization. Leaders with lower scores are more competitive and independent.

My current supervisor _____ is collaborative.

Collaboration - Big Picture
This scale measures the degree to which one demonstrates an understanding of what is important to the organization from the perspectives of their superiors. Leaders with high scores are able to nest their priorities within those of the organization. Leaders with lower scores tend to focus primarily on the needs of the organization at their level.

My current supervisor _____ is collaborative.

Reflective Capacity – Perceived Experience
This scale measures the degree to which one believes they have had leadership experiences worthy of reflection. Leaders with high scores believe they have had significant experience as a leader, leaders with lower scores see themselves as rather new to leadership roles.

My current supervisor _____ is reflective.

Reflective Capacity – Perceived Changed
This scale assesses the degree to which reflection on ones experiences and new knowledge of themself and leadership result in an altered view of themself, others or the world. Leaders with high scores are very introspective and think in terms of long-term successes. Leaders with lower scores may be failure intolerant and are likely to attribute leadership outcomes to external influences such as fate.

My current supervisor _____ is reflective.

Reflective Capacity - Use of Mentor
This scale evaluates the degree to which one actively engages in the use of a mentor. Leaders with high scores have one or more mentors who play a significant role in their development. Leaders with lower scores are independent learners who may not like taking advice from others.

My current supervisor _____ is reflective.
Appendix D: Interview Consent Form

Study Title
Love and Leadership

Background and Purpose
I am a student at Benedictine University in Lisle, Illinois engaging in research related to my dissertation project. You are being asked to take part in a research project the purposes of which is to help further the understanding of the love and leadership.

Procedures
The anonymous survey is composed of three sections:
Demographics – 7 questions
Love – 45 questions
Leadership 10 Questions
The survey should take approximately 10-15 minutes.

Confidentiality and Risk
It is my intention to publish my dissertation research upon completion. You will not be required to submit your name – all answers will remain anonymous. Provision will be made for the safe and secured storage of all research data, including recordings, for a minimum of 6 years.

Signature
By checking the box below you acknowledge that you have read the above disclosure, agree to participate in this study and understand the results are anonymous.

Participant (interviewee) Date

Contact Information
Researcher
Joe Ricciardi
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Valparaiso, IN 46383
C: 630-518-0269

Research Advisor
Kevin Lynch, Ph.D.
Professor
Benedictine University
5700 College Road
Lisle, Illinois 60532
klynch@ben.edu

What is your sex?
M/F
Appendix E: Demographic Questionnaire

What is your sex?
M/F

What is your age?
Age

What is your highest education level?
1 2 3 4
High School/2 year degree/4 year degree/Masters/Doctorate

How long have you worked for the individual you rated?
# years/# months

Have you served in the military?
Y/N, # years, Combat Y/N

Does your current supervisor have military experience?
Y/N/UNK

How satisfied are you with your current job?
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Not at all Moderately Extremely
References


Regent University-School of Leadership Studies. (2002). Be a leader for God’s sake. Virginia Beach, VA: Winston, B.


