A Framework for Leading the Transformation to Performance Excellence Part II:
CEO Perspectives on Leadership Behaviors, Individual Leader Characteristics, and Organizational Culture
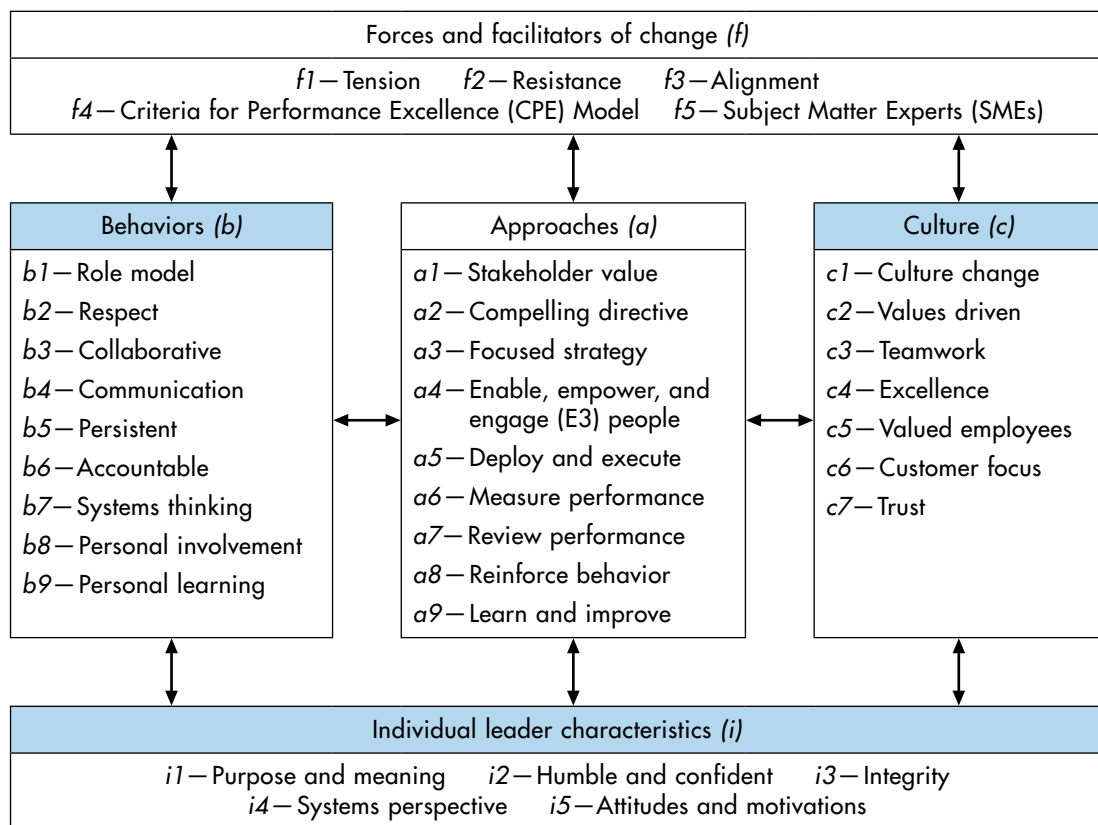
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This is the second in a series of two articles that describe the results of a qualitative, multiple case study that used grounded theory methods based on in-depth interviews with 14 CEOs who led successful organization transformations, resulting in recognition as a Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award recipient. A framework for leading the transformation to performance excellence (LTPE) from the top is described. The LTPE framework consists of 35 concepts organized into five categories: forces and facilitators of change, leadership approaches, leadership behaviors, individual leader characteristics, and organizational culture. This article (part two of two) explores three of the five categories in depth: leader behaviors, individual leader characteristics, and organizational culture. The elements of each individual component are described along with supporting data, relationships to other components are explained, and linkages to theory are identified. Several current leadership theories are identified and discussed including transformational and transactional leadership, servant leadership, and spiritual leadership. In addition, implications for theory and practice are identified and discussed.

Key words: Baldrige Award, case study, Criteria for Performance Excellence (CPE), competing values framework, grounded theory, leading transformation, organizational learning, organizational culture, servant leadership, spiritual leadership, stakeholder value, strategy deployment, strategic leadership, trait theory, transformational leadership, upper echelon

INTRODUCTION

It is estimated that somewhere between 70 and 80 percent of the attempts at organizational transformation fail (Miller 2002). In fact, over the last 20-plus years, less than 10 percent of the more than 1,000 applications for the Baldrige Award resulted in an award. This begs the question, what can one learn from those who have led successful organization transformations and achieved performance excellence? The purpose of this study was to explore the experiences of strategic (upper-echelon) leaders who successfully transformed their organizations in order to develop a richer understanding of the processes, practices, and

Figure 1 Framework for leading the transformation to performance excellence.

Forces and facilitators of change (f)		
f1—Tension f2—Resistance f3—Alignment f4—Criteria for Performance Excellence (CPE) Model f5—Subject Matter Experts (SMEs)		

Behaviors (b)	Approaches (a)	Culture (c)
b1—Role model	a1—Stakeholder value	c1—Culture change
b2—Respect	a2—Compelling directive	c2—Values driven
b3—Collaborative	a3—Focused strategy	c3—Teamwork
b4—Communication	a4—Enable, empower, and engage (E3) people	c4—Excellence
b5—Persistent	a5—Deploy and execute	c5—Valued employees
b6—Accountable	a6—Measure performance	c6—Customer focus
b7—Systems thinking	a7—Review performance	c7—Trust
b8—Personal involvement	a8—Reinforce behavior	
b9—Personal learning	a9—Learn and improve	

| Individual leader characteristics (i)		
i1—Purpose and meaning i2—Humble and confident i3—Integrity i4—Systems perspective i5—Attitudes and motivations		

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behaviors required to lead large-scale transformations. The overall research *design* was a qualitative multiple case study that used grounded theory methods based on in-depth interviews with the senior-most leader (CEO) of 14 Baldrige recipient organizations (Eisenhardt 1989; Eisenhardt and Graebner 2007, 5). According to Corbin and Strauss (1990) "a grounded theory should explain as well as describe." The purpose of this study was to take an initial step in developing a more comprehensive understanding, description, and explanation of the key concepts associated with leading the transformation to performance excellence from the top. The result of this exploration and analysis is a five-part framework for leading the transformation to performance excellence.

This is the second article in a series of two articles on leading the transformation to performance excellence. The first article includes a full introduction and discussion on the problem, purpose, and research

methodology as well as a description and discussion of the forces and facilitators of change and the strategic leadership systems (see Latham 2013). This article completes the "story" with a description, discussion, and explanation of the leadership behaviors, individual leader characteristics, and organization culture aspects of the framework for leading the transformation to performance excellence. In addition, the implications for theory and practice are discussed as well as the limitations of the study.

The framework for leading the transformation to performance excellence (LTPE) consists of 35 concepts organized into five categories: 1) forces and facilitators of change (*f*); 2) leadership approaches (*a*); 3) leadership behaviors (*b*); 4) individual leader characteristics (*i*); and 5) organizational culture characteristics (*c*) (see Figure 1). There are numerous multidirectional connections between the categories and the concepts within each category. As Gordon and Yukl (2004) point

Figure 2   Leadership behaviors and relationships.
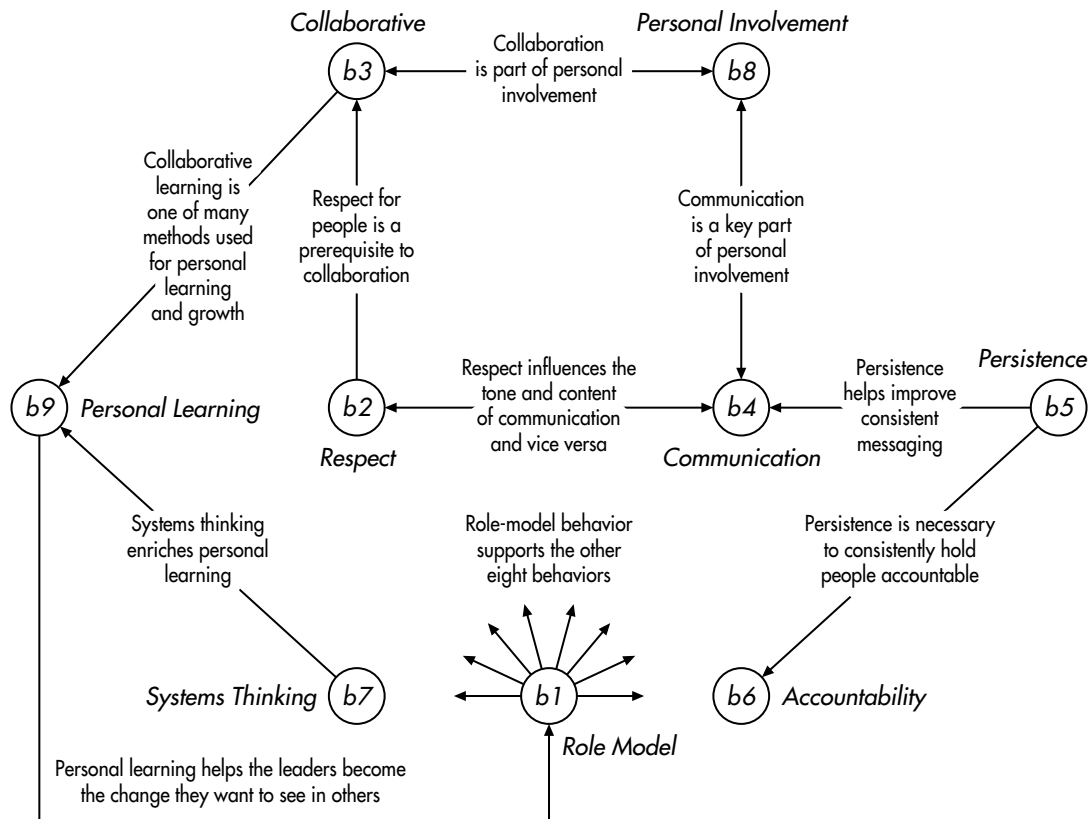
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out, "Causality is not unidirectional in leadership processes, and leader behavior can be a dependent variable as well as an independent variable." This article highlights the key relationships both among the concepts within each category as well as between concepts in other categories.

The five categories can be grouped into two groups. The first group consists of the forces and facilitators of change combined with the leadership approaches or system. This could be called the "science" of leading transformation and was discussed in Part 1 (Latham 2013). The second group consists of the leadership behaviors, individual leader characteristics, and organizational culture (see Figure 1). This group could be called the "art" of leading transformation and is the focus of this article (Part II). For each LTPE concept, the article: a) describes and discusses the particular concept; b) discusses supporting data including representative quotes and frequency counts by case (see

Appendix Tables A1-A3); c) explains linkages to other components in the framework; and d) identifies linkages to selected theories and concepts in the literature.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS

Even after 50-plus years of extensive academic research on leadership, there still is no agreement on the behaviors that constitute effective leadership (Glynn and Raffaelli 2010) and effective leadership of organizational change (Laohavichien, Fredendall, and Cantrell 2009). This lack of agreement and consistency makes it very difficult to compare and contrast the findings of the many studies that have focused on and found different behaviors. Consequently, this study allowed the behaviors to emerge inductively from the data. The analysis identified nine interrelated leadership behaviors (see Figure 2). See Appendix Table A1 for details on the frequency of the codes by case. These nine

behaviors are consistent with many of the behaviors found in transformational, transactional, servant, and spiritual leadership theories. The author begins with the first challenge for leaders—to become the change they want to see in the organization (*b1*).

Role Model *(b1)*

While "setting the example" is an axiom of leadership in general, when leading transformation, as Gandhi proposed, leaders had to become the change they wanted to see in the organization. This was an important form of communication and a key to credibility. As one participant put it, "Seeing what you're doing is so much more powerful than you saying it, so I always talked about Disney where you are on stage all the time." The concept of *idealized influence* and behaviors consistent with the overall vision and desired culture is a fundamental aspect of transformational leadership, as described by Bass (1990) and Mackenzie and Barnes (2007). Vera and Crossan (2004) propose that transformational leaders are natural role models, and followers often identify with them and want to emulate and learn from them. Some of the participants in this study, however, were not the ideal role models when their journey to excellence began. As one participant put it, "I had to change because I was a product of our culture and everybody said I will change when I see [the CEO] change." One way they helped senior leaders develop and implement the role-model behaviors was to measure how they spent their time (*a6*). As one CEO said, "This is where the leadership scorecard came in—role-model behavior, and so the scorecard defined what leaders do in our company." This approach helped them translate abstract concepts into tangible actions and measure the performance to enable leaders to improve. Or, as Kouzes and Posner (2002) described it, "model the way." Consistent with the servant leadership concept of beginning with one's self, one of the organizations used servant leader assessments and action plans with accountability that were also role modeled by the CEO (Melchar and Bosco 2010; van Dierendonck 2011). In addition, the causal model for spiritual leadership includes the degree to which leaders "walk the talk" (Fry and Cohen 2009). Setting the

example or role modeling (*b1*) the desired behaviors has long been a fundamental concept in motivation theory (Bandura 1986; Herzberg 1987). Becoming the change had a positive effect on their credibility and the believability helping to promote trust (*c7*) and reduce the resistance of change (*f2*), a notion consistent with Beckhard and Harris (1987).

Respect *(b2)*

The leaders in this study described a culture where people were treated with respect, regardless of their position in the organization. Underlying elements of respect for people included caring, fair treatment, and giving credit to others. Treating people with respect comes naturally when the leader is focused on serving the followers' needs as servant leadership proposes and is consistent with inspirational motivation and emphasis on the needs of others in transformational leadership (Smith, Montagno, and Kuzmeno 2004). As one participant noted, "I am not a screamer or yeller and, from a culture standpoint, we don't allow that here. So people who are screamers and yellers either have to change their behavior or they don't stay." Empathy is a key dimension of several leadership theories, including emotional intelligence (Goleman 2004) and servant leadership (Hays 2008; Greenleaf 1977). In addition, the degree to which the organization is kind and considerate to the people is an integral part of the causal model for spiritual leadership (Fry and Cohen 2009). The leaders in this study, however, were tough but fair. As put by one CEO, "Treat people fairly and they will respect tough decisions." Respect for people has many benefits and has supported many of the concepts in this framework. For example, treating people with respect helped increase the level of trust (*c7*) and, in turn, increased cooperation, reduced resistance (*f2*), and increased teamwork (*c3*) throughout the organization (Quaquebeke and Eckloff 2009). In addition, leaders who are humble (*i2*) tend to treat people with respect, which encourages employee engagement (*a4*) (Khurana and Nohria 2008). Respect also encouraged collaboration (*b3*), which also helps reduce resistance to change (*f2*), a concept consistent with Beckhard and Harris (1987).

Collaborative *(b3)*

Discourse and dialogue play an important role in the design and eventual adoption of new management practices (Ford, Evans, and Matthews 2004). Collaboration had two advantages related to transformation. First, it leveraged the talents and ideas of a diverse team, resulting in better solutions and strategies, and it avoided the pitfalls of hubris (*i2*). As one CEO participant put it, "I think it is good to have diversity, I don't want a bunch of robots, I want people who can express their opinions, and that's why I said open leadership, express their opinions and even though we may disagree, it's going to be a professional disagreement. I am not going to spear the messenger, I try not to." A collaborative approach combined with a diverse team is consistent with transformational leadership and the findings of Vera and Crossan (2004) and Ekaterini (2010). As Bass (1985) points out, transformational leaders provide a safe environment in which others can think creatively and challenge the status quo. A key skill for effective collaboration is listening, and servant leaders are not only good listeners but also seek the help of others (Greenleaf 1977; van Dierendonck 2011). In addition, there is evidence that autocratic (non-collaborative) leadership, in the long term, results in many negative outcomes, including discouraging employee effort and engagement (Sully de Luque et al. 2008). Second, involvement in the solutions helps increase buy-in and reduce defensive routines and resistance to change (*f2*). This is also not a new concept. Deming (1986, 24) "suggested" in point No. 14 that "transformation is everybody's job." As Budd, Gollan, and Wilkinson (2010) point out, discussions about this date back at least to the first century and a Roman farmer who consulted his slaves because they were more willing to do the work when their opinions had been solicited and considered. Research over the past few decades has made it increasingly clear that strategy development (*a3*) and deployment (*a5*) at the top is just too large and complex of a task to be effectively carried out by a single person (Ireland and Hitt 2005; Ling et al. 2008; Hambrick and Mason 1984). In addition, organizational learning (*a9*) was enhanced by the collaborative approach characterized by dialogue and exploration of solutions, assumptions, and so forth (Ford and Evans 2001; Dvir et al. 2002). However, effective collaboration is dependent on frank two-way communication (*b4*).

Communication *(b4)*

The CEOs emphasized two types of communication: a) leaders systematically communicating the compelling directive and strategy; and b) frank two-way communication within and between all levels and functions in the organization. Communication continues to be one of the greatest difficulties in leading and managing complex organizations and leading change. As one of the participants put it, "You can't take people to a place they can't see." At the heart of communication is the concept of rhetoric. Numerous researchers have written about the influence of rhetoric (both positive and negative) on the process of change (Carter and Mueller 2002; Jameson 2007; Masocha and Weetman 2007). In this particular situation, however, rhetoric is a positive influence on organizational change, or as Spender (2009) notes, "Rhetoric becomes a topic as a powerful means of shaping other agencies into directions determined by the rhetor. This is rhetoric as the comprehensive spur to human action, not simply persuasion. It entails facts and meaning with a passion that demands action." Consistent and frequent communication on the compelling directive (*a2*) and the priorities and focused strategy (*a3*) were critical to keeping the people moving in the right direction. The communication of the vision is a key aspect of transformational leadership (Smith, Montagno, and Kuzmeno 2004) and servant leadership's concept of persuasion (Melchar and Bosco 2010). In addition, two-way communication is an essential aspect of understanding and serving the followers—the focus of the servant leader (van Dierendonck 2011). Communication with the multiple stakeholders (*a1*) is also an important aspect of leading transformation. One CEO noted, "You need to tell your people and the *constituents* what you're going do, what are the boundaries and what are the goals and what are the plans." Smith (2003) found

that communication during the entire lifespan of a project was important to building and maintaining stakeholder support (*a1*). Much of the two-way communication was done one on one with employees during what one healthcare CEO described as "rounding" (*b8*). This frank, two-way communication not only helped the leaders spread the word regarding the direction of the organization but also provided them with firsthand feedback from the workforce. As the participants noted, delivering a consistent message requires discipline and persistence (*b5*).

Persistent *(b5)*

Changing organization systems, human behavior, and culture takes time and persistence (Jarzabkowski 2008). Call it determination, tenacity, or perseverance, all of the participants described the importance of not wavering from their mission to transform the organization. Successful change requires a consistent message (compelling directive *a2* and strategy *a3*) along with actions (*a5*) that are congruent (*f3*) in order to convince people the leader is serious this time and that this is not just another change initiative in a long line of change initiatives (Beckhard and Harris 1987). While the CEOs in this study did not doubt that the CPE-based transformation was the right thing to do, several of the CEOs noted that they had doubts during the journey that they could actually accomplish the transformation. However, they did not share these doubts with anyone. In other words, they didn't "blink." Based on the experience of the Baldrige recipients, achieving and sustaining performance excellence is a long journey with many challenges, and CEO commitment is required to see the journey through (Van der Wiele et al. 2000). In addition, according to Jarzabkowski (2008), embedding formal procedures into the strategic planning cycle helps enable persistence over time. According to Grover and Walker (2003), persistence is also needed among the workforce, who are likely to experience setbacks during the implementation phase prior to the new behaviors becoming engrained or habits. However, persistence by itself is not enough, leaders also had to hold people accountable for making the necessary changes (*b6*).

Accountable *(b6)*

Leaders found that setting the direction and communicating the vision, while essential, was not always enough to motivate action. Ultimately, leaders had to hold people accountable for making the changes necessary to achieve and sustain excellence. In one case a subordinate leader had not submitted a strategic plan for the last two years. As the CEO observed, "I thought it would happen more automatically. I guess I was naïve … for some reason human beings will have a tendency to drift and they drift off even if with the best of intentions …. I can swear from my own experience it doesn't happen automatically." While the participants described extensive methods to help people make the transition, including coaching and accountability, most of the participants had to eventually get rid of employees who didn't change and support the transformation (*a8*). Some of these individuals left on their own, but half of the leaders had to force someone to leave. Accountability for both leaders and the followers has long been a foundational aspect of servant leadership (Greenleaf 1977; Herzberg 1987). In addition, it is a common challenge faced by individuals attempting to work on improvement priorities (Ruben et al. 2007). While it can be part of a transformational approach to leadership, holding people accountable is more often associated with transactional leadership (Bass et al. 2003; Bass and Avolio 1993). Not only was it critical to the transformation, ultimately, accountability tied to integrity (*i3*) contributes to the global sustainable competitive advantage of firms (Petrick and Quinn 2001).

Systems Thinking *(b7)*

Through their descriptions of how they achieved excellence, the participants demonstrated a deep understanding of how the various enterprise functions worked together as a system. For example, they described how an enabled, empowered, and engaged workforce, working in cooperation with suppliers and partners, created products and services that customers purchased, and came back and purchased again

(repeat business) and brought their friends with them (referral business), which increased revenue and ultimately profit, resulting in increased investor satisfaction. As one CEO noted, "I believe that if you motivate your people and they do a good job with your customers you retain them, you introduce new products, you gain new ones, you improve processes you know, and I didn't really have to worry about the bottom line because I knew it was going to be there." This systems perspective helped the leaders move beyond a "zero sum game" of resource allocation to redesigning the system to create value for multiple stakeholders ($a1$). For example, it helped some of the participants to rethink and redesign their partnership relationships with their major B2B customers. "We sat down with our B2B customers and we would agree to strategic priorities, we would agree to goals, we would develop scorecards, and we would keep scorecards for the partnership." These key relationships in organization systems have been described by Deming (1986) and Heskett et al. (1994), and have been tested and verified by a variety of researchers including Wayhan, Khumawala, and Balderson (2010) and Foster, Howard, and Shannon (2002). The ability to reimagine the organization and strategies, and then rewrite the rules that result in a competitive advantage, is a key leadership competency (Goldman 2007). While systems thinking is not an explicit part of transformational, servant, or spiritual leadership, there are aspects of transformational leadership such as intellectual stimulation (Bass et al. 2003) and servant leadership's concept of conceptualization (Melchar and Bosco 2010) that support systems thinking. As Duncan, Ginter, and Swayne (1998) propose, strategy depends on understanding how the various functions and resources contribute to creating value and overall competitiveness of the firm. Given that the CPE (f4) focus on the organization systems and associated results, it is not surprising that CEOs who use the CPE also develop an appreciation for the overall organization system perspective. As globalization increases, the task of understanding the external systems becomes even more challenging. Consequently, systems thinking is even more important to success in a highly interconnected world where many relationships and connections are not visible nor accounted for in current accounting systems (Grant 2007). As Kaplan and Norton (1996) propose, a comprehensive scorecard ($a6$) helps leaders understand the organization system of interconnected activities.

Personal Involvement $(b8)$

The leaders in this study spent time with key stakeholders, including employees, suppliers and partners, customers, and so forth. This was common to all 14 CEOs, and two of the CEOs described it as "Leadership as a Contact Sport." One CEO advised, "Leaders should spend time with suppliers on their turf and on ours. Leaders at all levels should spend time listening to customers on the phone because we didn't have a lot of interaction with the end customer, but we took 40 to 50 million phone calls. So we set it up so leaders could call in and listen to them live." For employees, these periodic visits were accomplished systematically and were focused on key issues related to employee engagement ($b4$) such as ensuring the workforce had everything they needed to accomplish their jobs (Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes 2002). While for some of the participants this came naturally, others (self-proclaimed introverts) had to develop a systematic approach and schedule to ensure they spent time interacting with the stakeholders ($a1$). As one participant noted, "You can't lead change from your office." To reinforce the behavior, some of the participants tracked their personal involvement activities as part of their personal leadership scorecard ($a6$). Ford and Evans (2006) found that the CEOs of high-performing firms personally facilitated meetings to address improvement plans related to assessment, while low-performing firms delegated the task to the chief quality officer (CQO) or subject matter expert ($f5$). Ultimately, leadership is about influencing followers and other stakeholders, a key concept in transformational leadership—*idealized influence* (Smith et al. 2004). In addition, the ability to persuade vs. coerce is a fundamental aspect of servant leadership (Greenleaf 1977). It is difficult to influence followers and stakeholders if one does not have an active relationship with them, which is only developed by spending time with

them (Ireland and Hitt 2005; Smith, Montagno, and Kuzmeno 2004). Guiding and shaping the strategy and the many changes needed to accomplish the strategy requires that senior leaders engage with and influence multiple stakeholders (Jarzabkowski 2008; Mintzberg 1994). In their article titled "Leadership as a Contact Sport," Goldsmith and Morgan (2004) propose that a key to leadership development is their ability to learn to learn (b9).

Personal Learning (b9)

To become the change they wanted to see in the organization, the leaders reflected on their performance and learned from a variety of sources and methods, including experiences, formal education and training, books, mentors, and organizational learning activities (a9). Not only was the organization transformed but so too were the leaders. As one CEO described it, "I went through several behavior assessments, you know where the team has input on you and all that, it is pretty hard to sit there and go through that. But I listened and I changed and when I changed it was sort of like a light flipped on and off. I was in the new mode at that point." Personal learning at the top increased the leaders' credibility and reduced resistance to change (f2). Hays (2008) notes that servant leaders are committed to personal learning and development and that they exemplify the notion of "leader as learner." Mackenzie and Barnes (2007) and Bass (1990) connect transformational leadership with leaders who are willing to change their behaviors when they discover that those behaviors are ineffective or counterproductive, and Vera and Crossan (2004) note that transformational leaders set the example (b1) by their personal learning, which inspires others to learn. In addition, as Ruben et al. (2007) point out, participation in the self-assessment process promotes self-reflection and helps leaders learn. While individual characteristics or traits were not the original focus of this study, it became clear during the interviews and subsequent analysis that there were important individual characteristics behind these nine behaviors. Further analysis revealed five individual characteristics related to leading the transformation to performance excellence.

INDIVIDUAL LEADER CHARACTERISTICS

While there seem to be many traits that distinguish effective leaders (Fry and Kriger 2009; Ekaterini 2010), others have proposed that trait theory has not produced the once sought after "universal list" of traits and characteristics of effective leaders, yet it is still an active research stream (Glynn and Raffaelli 2010). According to Gordon and Yukl (2004), one of the challenges has been that many traits and characteristics identified in previous studies ended up being context dependent, and they propose that further research is needed. Consistent with previous research, the five characteristics identified in this study may very well be dependent on the context of leading organization transformation to performance excellence from the top (see Appendix Table A2 for details on the frequency of codes by case).

Purpose and Meaning (i1)

At the end of each interview the CEOs were asked, "What was most satisfying about being the senior leader of a successful organizational transformation?" Interestingly, none of the CEOs identified extrinsic rewards as a satisfying part of the job. There was no mention of financial success (personal or company)—although there was plenty—and there was no mention of the Baldrige Award, although they were all proud of that accomplishment. Instead, all of the CEOs shared anecdotes of how their employees had done great things, developed, found meaning in their work, and so forth. As one healthcare CEO put it, "The most satisfying to me is that our people are more engaged and happier and feel proud of what they do and feel proud of what they accomplish, and that they make a difference for the people they're treating." All of them seemed to have found deeper meaning in the intrinsic rewards related to making a difference in the lives of people (Fry and Cohen 2009). Helping followers find a sense of meaning in their work and lives is a key characteristic of both transformational leadership (Bass 1990) and spiritual leadership (Fry and Cohen 2009). In addition, caring and a focus on a deeper meaning for people is a fundamental concept

in servant leadership (Hays 2008). As one CEO noted, "… to watch a person like that grow from where he started to where's he at now and at the level he is at, it just makes me feel good." Inspiring others to achieve beyond expectations is a key aspect of transformational leadership as well (Mackenzie and Barnes 2007). While they were all successful leaders, they managed to remain humble but confident.

Humble and Confident *(i2)*

Examples of tragedy related to leader hubris are legion, such as Napoleon's march to Moscow (Kroll, Toombs, and Wright 2000). While the CEOs did not say they were humble, in 13 of 14 descriptions of leading the journey a total of 79 instances were coded that indicated the leaders did demonstrate this unusual combination of humility and confidence. Chatterjee and Hambrick (2007) note that narcissism, as a personality dimension, is a continuum. They go on to note that while Collins' *Good to Great* study did not make the link between humility and non-narcissism, that link could be "readily drawn." On such a continuum the leaders in this study were at an intermediate position between extreme humility and arrogance. While according to Chatterjee and Hambrick (2007), many scholars propose that humility is incidental to organization performance, that is not consistent with the findings of this study. The level of humility in this study helped the CEOs realize they didn't have all of the answers and thus increased collaboration ($b3$) and inquiry. At the same time, their confidence enabled them to advocate their ideas. Their balance of advocacy and inquiry encouraged collaboration ($b3$) and learning ($b9$ and $a9$). This was common in almost all of the cases. Humility seemed to promote the leaders' personal learning ($b9$); as the old saying goes, "It is difficult to learn when you think you know everything." Humility is also related to a comprehensive strategic decision process (Hiller and Hambrick 2005). Transformational leaders are confident (Avolio, Bass, and Jung 1999) and at the same time they are also empowering, and servant leaders share power and control (Smith, Montagno, and Kuzmeno 2004). In addition, the level of false pride in leaders is an element in the causal model for spiritual leadership (Fry and Cohen 2009). Humility also allows one to view themselves as part of a larger system and team ($c3$) (Hays 2008).

Integrity *(i3)*

Doing what was right for the stakeholders ($a1$), combined with consistency and congruence between words, behaviors, and actions was essential to credibility and, in turn, influence. As one CEO said, "In our environment I think you have to 'walk the talk' because we're too small for everybody not to know what's going on." Integrity is a key part of being an effective role model ($b1$) that inspires trust ($c7$), which is essential for teamwork ($c3$) and overcoming resistance to change ($f2$). Integrity and trust are key elements of both servant leadership and transformational leadership (Smith, Montagno, and Kuzmeno 2004). Integrity is also part of stewardship, which is related to the long-term value created for the multiple stakeholders ($a1$) (Hays 2008). In addition, as was noted in the discussion of role model, "walking the talk" is a core element of the model for spiritual leadership (Fry and Cohen 2009). However, this focus on the interests of stakeholders has to be authentic; otherwise, it will negatively impact the long-term trust ($c7$) and influence of the leader ($f2$) (Sully de Luque et al. 2008). Ultimately, a high level of integrity is a strategic asset that can contribute to global sustainable advantage (Petrick and Quinn 2001).

Systems Perspective *(i4)*

Nearly all of the leaders in this study demonstrated a world view of organizations as open dynamic systems that can be created and re-created to improve performance for multiple stakeholders vs. fixed systems and a zero sum game. This perspective seems to have changed during the journey as the leaders reflected and learned to think differently about their organizations ($b9$ and $a9$). Van de Ven and Sun (2011) propose the ability to change one's mental model to fit the complexity of the organization and the associated change process is essential to successful sustainable

transformation. In addition, this helps leaders to adopt a contingency theory of transformation that best fits the unique situation. This also allows for the continuous development and refinement of the theory of the organization, which is important; as Drucker (1994) points out, every theory of the organization eventually becomes obsolete and invalid. While transformational, servant, and spiritual leadership theories do not explicitly address a systems perspective, they are all compatible with systems thinking (*b7*) and a systems perspective (*i4*).

Attitudes and Motivations *(i5)*

Many of the concepts in the LTPE framework seemed to be motivated by the CEOs' underlying attitudes and motivations. To further investigate this issue, a quantitative survey (iWAM) was used to measure the motivational and attitude patterns. When difference tests were conducted, Baldrige leaders differed from other "successful" leaders on six attitudes and motivations, and both Baldrige leaders and the successful leaders were significantly different on 17 additional attitudes from employees. The six attitudes and motivations that were significantly different for Baldrige CEOs are linked directly to several of the LTPE components as described in Larson et al. (2012). In addition to these five individual leader characteristics, the culture of the organization also influenced leader behavior, and leader behavior influenced culture.

CULTURE

While not an original focus of this study, organizational culture was such an integral part of the leaders' descriptions of the transformation that several culture concepts "earned" their way into the framework. Culture, as it relates to performance excellence, is of interest to both executives and researchers, and was ranked No. 1 on the research agenda at the 2006 Summit (Latham 2008). Latham (2008) identifies four areas for research regarding organizational culture focused on determining the common cultural characteristics of high-performing organizations and the relationships between those

characteristics and performance excellence. This last LTPE category begins to address these issues. Much of what is known about organizational culture has been developed since the 1970s and 1980s and rests on a foundation of knowledge from the fields of anthropology, sociology, and psychology (Schein 1992; Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki 2011). While the definition of organizational culture varies widely (Linnenluecke and Griffiths 2010), one of the most accepted definitions is Schein (1992, 12), "A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems." Hofstede (1997) offers a description of the elements of culture with values at the core, manifested by practices including rituals, heroes, and symbols. Or, as Vera and Crossan (2004) propose it is simply "how people do things here." It also has been identified as one of the primary reasons for the failure of organizational change (Linnenluecke and Griffiths 2010). Cameron and Quinn (1999) provide a competing values framework (CVF) for understanding four dominant culture types, which are based on two dimensions: flexibility vs. stability and internal vs. external focus. While this framework proved useful for analyzing the cultures in this study, the culture concepts identified in this study do not "fit" neatly into any one dominant culture type. This study identified seven culture concepts including culture change, values driven, and five cultural values (see Appendix A3 for details on the number of codes per case).

Culture Change *(c1)*

According to Jung et al. (2009), organizational culture is an important factor in overall organization transformation. Organizational culture change came up throughout the discussions as a key dimension of their transformations. In fact, several CEOs identified it as the ultimate manifestation of organizational transformation. In addition, there is a relationship between the length of time the culture had been in

place (habit) and the degree to which the changes were sustainable, a notion supported by Grover and Walker (2003). Often organizations will change but then revert back to the original habits once the emphasis on the new practice is removed. It seems that maintaining the pressure on the organization is required—at least until the new ways become ingrained habits. This is consistent with Deming's notion of "constancy of purpose." This is not to say that the purpose should not change over time. High-performance cultures include a high degree of learning to continually renew and stay relevant in a changing world. In this case, the concepts of organizational learning and continuous improvement were embedded in the value of excellence. However, it seems clear from the experiences of the participants that the new culture must have time to become ingrained before the organization can adjust the focus toward a new direction. Based on an in-depth case study of Branch Smith Printing (2002 Baldrige recipient), Evans (2010, 242) suggests that culture change is possibly the "most important type of change in achieving a high level of performance excellence." The leader's role in changing the organization's culture (beliefs, values, practices) is a fundamental part of transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio 1993), servant leadership (Greenleaf 1977), and spiritual leadership (Fry and Cohen 2009; Fry and Kriger 2009). There are also clear linkages to the individual leader (Berson, Oreg, and Dvir 2008), behaviors (Fiol 1991), and organizational learning (Ford and Evans 2001).

Values Driven (c2)

High-performing cultures are values driven. Almost all of the CEOs talked about the values of the culture and the importance of having the right values embedded in the culture. While there was little agreement on the many values the CEOs discussed, five themes did emerge that appear useful for leaders attempting to transform their organizations and achieve performance excellence. In this case, the performance excellence culture consists of highly engaged employees ($c5$) who trust each other ($c7$) and work as a team ($c3$) to create and deliver excellent products and services ($c4$) that result in outstanding customer experiences ($c6$). It seems that the common cultural values found in the majority of the cases were related to the "people, service, profit chain" (Heskett et al. 1994). In addition, values driven was closely linked to leadership role-model behavior ($b1$). According to one CEO, "The way I like to say it to people is that when I started in the … business they had vision and values up on the posters and pasted on the columns—they didn't mean anything because we didn't see the leaders wearing them like a coat." Organizational values are elements of both transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio 1993) and spiritual leadership (Fry and Cohen 2009; Fry and Kriger 2009). While values cannot be observed directly, they can be inferred from the organization's rituals, heroes, and symbols (Hofstede 1997). The values identified in this study were inductively derived from the rituals, (including policies and practices), heroes (example stories), and symbols (including words) described in the "stories" of how the CEOs led the transformation to performance excellence. While many potential values and characteristics were explored, only five had sufficient consensus to earn their way into the LTPE framework: teamwork, excellence, valued employees, customer focus, and trust.

Teamwork (c3)

Cross-functional teamwork and knowledge sharing was the most common cultural characteristic identified by the participants and was common to nearly all of the cases. As one CEO described it, "Teamwork in the sense of agreeing to the vital few through the strategic planning goal deployment process and working together … in the past, we still acted functionally so we had to move from a functional organization to a more of a team-based, process-driven organization." Collaborative teamwork and community building are fundamental parts of transformational (Bass 1990), servant (Melchar and Bosco 2010; van Dierendonck 2011), and spiritual leadership theories (Fry and Cohen 2009; Fry and Kriger 2009). Collaboration ($b3$) and teamwork were important to cooperative

internal and external relationships and, in turn, process redesign and improvement (Foster, Howard, and Shannon 2002; Linnenluecke and Griffiths 2010). The organizations in this study had a high level of knowledge sharing and focus on the overall team. Alternatively, on the opposite end of the teamwork continuum, Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki (2011) propose that cultures that are competitive and aggressive can result in low trust ($c7$) and teamwork.

Excellence *(c4)*

Most of the participants also identified quality and continuous improvement as essential for a high-performing culture. One CEO described in an anecdote, "I can remember one of the things that we did, in fact, we couldn't get the production line schedule to stabilize to deliver on time because the manufacturing guys were schedule driven and not quality driven. And he said, stop the line, don't move the product, and these manufacturing guys looked at us like we'd lost it." This was a major cultural shift for some of the organizations but one that was necessary to becoming customer driven ($c6$). While not an explicit characteristic of transformational or servant leadership, quality as a priority for all workers is an element of the model for spiritual leadership (Fry and Cohen 2009). Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki (2011) found that there was a significant relationship between CVF market-driven cultures and product quality. However, they also found that CVF clan cultures have a positive impact on product quality that is greater than market cultures.

Valued Employees *(c5)*

A culture that is respectful of and values employees was identified by most of the participants as a key cultural value. According to the CVF, clan cultures succeed because they attract, develop, and retain a talented workforce (Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki 2011). As one CEO put it, "The thing that did change was I began to understand really how important everything I said and did was to the culture of the organization. And I learned that not only do you have to be caring, you have to be demonstrably caring." Valuing people

and serving each other's needs is a core concept for servant leadership, transformational leadership, and spiritual leadership (Smith et al. 2004; Fry and Cohen 2009). A clan culture supports collaboration ($b3$) and the sharing of information ($c3$) that are necessary for product and process improvement ($a9$), which seems to explain the correlation with product quality (Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki 2011). Valuing people also leads to trust ($c7$) among the workforce and, ultimately, teamwork ($c3$). Valued employees and their satisfaction leads to a workforce that treats the customers similarly (Chuang and Liao 2010).
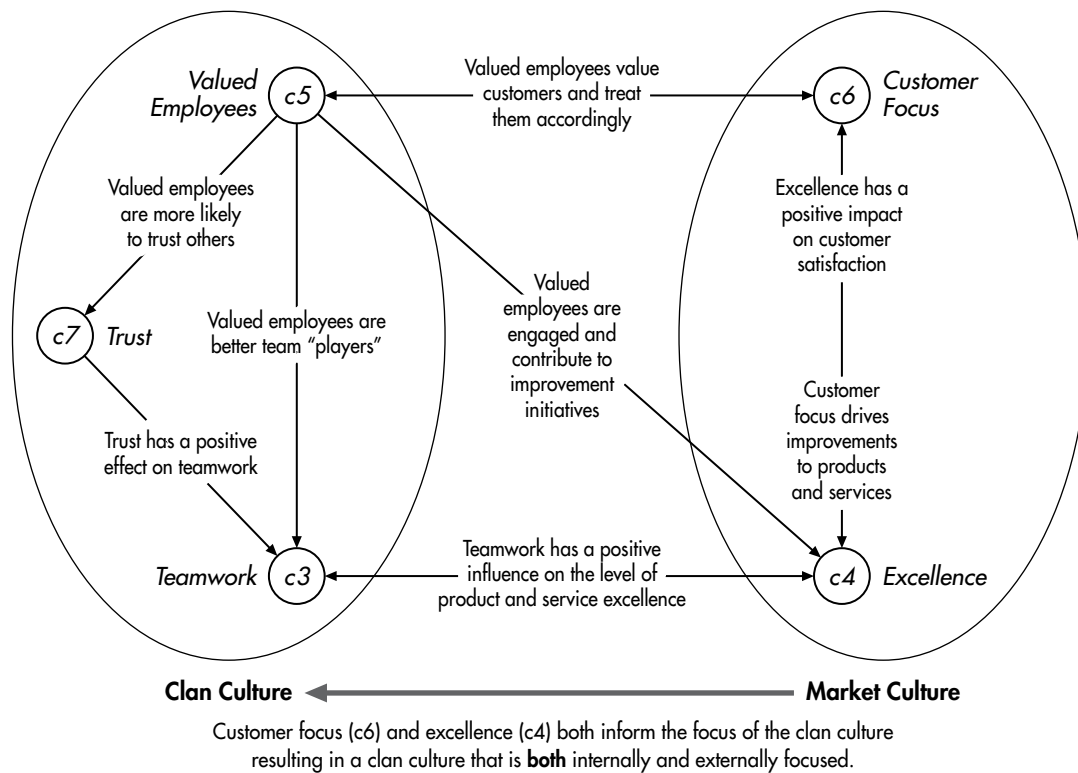
Customer Focus *(c6)*

Many of the CEOs identified "customer driven" as a key cultural value. This was not surprising given the focus on the customer throughout the CPE model, including the customer focus category and the key concept and value titled "customer-driven excellence." But, as one CEO put it, "… it's not about Baldrige, it's about the culture of patient satisfaction still at the 99th percentile and employee satisfaction still at the 99th percentile." A customer-driven culture is not bureaucratic and, as Berson, Oreg, and Dvir (2008) found, the more bureaucratic the culture, the lower the level of client satisfaction. The customer-driven culture is influenced by the "shared perceptions" of the systematic approaches (policies, practices, and procedures), including the rewards and incentives (Chuang and Liao 2010). Spiritual leadership supports a customer-focused culture by focusing on creating value for multiple stakeholders including customers (Fry and Kriger 2009). Customer focus ($c6$) is also linked to valued employees ($c5$) in that employees who are valued tend to treat customers as if they are valued (Heskett et al. 1994). In addition, as previously noted, market cultures ($c6$) are significantly correlated with product quality ($c4$) (Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki 2011).

Trust *(c7)*

A high level of trust among the workforce and leaders was a key characteristic of culture in most of the cases. As one CEO noted, "What our values are is how we

Figure 3 Culture concepts and relationships.

Customer focus (c6) and excellence (c4) both inform the focus of the clan culture
resulting in a clan culture that is **both** internally and externally focused.

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live, and you can get in trouble in our company with integrity violations, you only lose your integrity once and that is really key.'' While there are many quality controls involved with performance excellence, all aspects of the organization cannot be controlled, nor is it desirable to do so. Consequently, trust is required to achieve and maintain excellence in any complex organization, a notion supported by Rowe (2001). According to Ghoshal and Bartlett (1994), trust is a key characteristic that ''induces'' its members to rely on the commitments to each other. Trust is also an essential characteristic for transformational and servant leaders (Bass 1990; Colbert et al. 2008; Greenleaf 1997). In addition, the degree to which the organization is trustworthy and loyal to the employees is an element of the model for spiritual leadership (Fry and Cohen 2009). There is a direct connection between trust ($c7$), role-model behavior ($b1$), and integrity ($i3$), confirming once again that actions speak louder than words (Post, Preston, and Sachs 2002). A motivated and engaged workforce ($c5$), plus a high level of trust

($c7$), are key ingredients to successful teamwork ($c3$). Unfortunately, with all of the recent sensational ethical disasters, business leaders have lost a great deal of trust and legitimacy (Khurana and Nohria 2008).

The culture described by these five values is a combination of the clan and market cultures found in the CVF (Cameron and Quinn 1999). The clan culture is reflected in valued employees ($c5$), trust ($c7$), and teamwork ($c3$), and the market culture is reflected in customer focus ($c6$) and excellence ($c4$) (see Figure 3).

The basic premise of the CVF proposes that the clan culture values are *opposites* to the market culture values (Cameron and Quinn 1999). However, the organizations in this study figured out how to combine values that the CVF would propose are *competing* in ways that are *complementary*. There is precedent for this finding. Cameron and Quinn (1999), the originators of the CVF, note that approximately 20 percent of those organizations studied do not have a dominant culture type. They propose that there is usually one of two explanations: a) the organization doesn't understand

their culture; or b) they emphasize the different culture types equally. However, they also describe a third type of culture anomaly that doesn't fit the dominant culture paradigm, and they label that culture a "TQM" culture. In fact, the TQM culture they describe is remarkably similar to the performance excellence culture found in this study. In addition, Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki (2001) found that all four culture types in the CVF were positively correlated with an average correlation of 0.54, which they propose indicates the values in the four culture types may not be "mutually independent competing values." They note that when one describes cultures based on competing or dominant culture types, one ignores the potential synergy between the various values. Given the systems thinking ($b7$) and systems perspective ($i4$) found in the leaders in this study, it is not surprising that they figured out how to develop a culture with values that are aligned with the overall system. In the end, the use of the CPE to redesign the systems in the organization may have had the greatest impact on the culture.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY

This study provides a comprehensive framework for leading the transformation to performance excellence from the top consisting of 35 interrelated concepts organized into five categories. This framework emerged inductively from and is grounded in the data (stories of leading transformation) from the CEO participants. While the study does not identify any "new" concepts or components, the contributions to theory include: a) it narrows down the immense "landscape" of potential concepts and theories to 35 interrelated components; b) it describes the components and explains their interrelationships (grounded theory); and c) it identifies and discusses established theories related to the concepts and relationships. As previously noted in Part I, at the beginning of this project it was impossible to determine which concepts and theories may apply to this specific context and phenomenon. It would have taken hundreds of studies to "play the guessing game" of theory testing and elimination. Instead, with one large inductive study, the author now has an initial framework that identifies what is important to include and what,

at least for now, can be left out. While the components in the LTPE framework, on the surface, may appear to be common sense, if this particular group of 35 interrelated components was common sense, there would be more the 90 Baldrige Award recipients over the last 24 years (Note: five organizations have received the award twice, for a total of 95 awards). The framework provides new guidance on where future research should focus in order to achieve the most progress and avoid unnecessary theory-testing studies that are now known to be unlikely to produce useful results. In addition, the LTPE framework provides a more comprehensive explanation of the phenomenon and includes more connections to established leadership theories than previous studies. Specifically, Part I provided a more complete and detailed "picture" of the forces and facilitators of change as well as a strategic leadership system based on the CEO's perspective. Part II contributes nine leadership behaviors, five individual leader characteristics, and seven culture concepts related to the LTPE framework, all of which come from the perspective of the CEO vs. the majority of previous leadership studies that focused on lower-level managers and supervisors. In addition, it provides a richer understanding of the complexity involved with leading the transformation vs. the majority of previous studies that used quantitative methods that provided little agreement on the behaviors that constitute effective leadership (Glynn and Raffaelli 2010; Gordon and Yukl 2004). Part of the problem has been attributed to the variation of context among studies and findings (Gordon and Yukl 2004). It is important to note that the LTPE framework is specific to the phenomenon of leading the transformation to performance excellence. While many of the implications for theory are embedded in the individual concept discussions and explanations, there are a few cross-cutting implications for theory.

At the beginning of the first few interviews, the CEOs asked if the researcher wanted to hear about their "Baldrige" journey or the overall journey and transformation to excellence. The researcher responded with "the latter." The CEOs went on to clarify that while the Baldrige CPE were a very valuable "tool" that helped achieve performance excellence, the overall journey to excellence was much larger

and guided by strategy. In other words, the Baldrige journey was an internal improvement process that supported the overall organizational strategy. Consequently, the transformation to performance excellence is a phenomenon that integrates strategic management and strategic (upper-echelon) leadership with performance excellence, as defined by the Baldrige CPE. This helps the organization avoid spending time on internally focused organization improvement efforts that do not support the overall organizational vision or strategy. While some Baldrige experts (SMEs) have debated this point, noting that the Baldrige CPE include strategic management, not the other way around, this was not the view of the CEOs. While the Baldrige CPE can help improve the strategy development and deployment process, they do not help the organization with the specific content of an externally driven strategy. Consequently, the conclusion drawn here is that the transformation to performance excellence, at its core, is a strategic leadership process.

This study provides a more holistic and integrated description and explanation of the intersection between leading transformation at the top, strategic management, and performance excellence than do previous studies. The nine leadership approaches used by CEOs who led successful transformations to performance excellence form an interconnected strategic leadership system. These findings are consistent with current strategic leadership and strategic management theories (Ireland and

Table 1 LTPE concepts vs. leadership theories.

LTPE Concept	Leadership Theories			
	Transformational	Servant	Spiritual	Transactional
f1 Tension				
f2 Resistance	X	X	X	X
f3 Alignment	X		X	
f4 CPE				
f5 SMEs				
a1 Stakeholder Value	X	X	X	
a2 Compelling Directive	X	X	X	
a3 Focused Strategy	X	X	X	
a4 E3 People	X	X	X	
a5 Deploy and Execute			X	
a6 Measure Performance			X	
a7 Review Performance	X			X
a8 Reinforce Behavior	X		X	X
a9 Learn and Improve	X	X		
b1 Role Model	X	X	X	
b2 Respect for People	X	X	X	
b3 Collaborative	X	X		
b4 Communication	X	X		
b5 Persistent				
b6 Accountable	X	X		X
b7 Systems Thinking	X	X		
b8 Personal Involvement	X	X		
b9 Personal Learning	X	X		
i1 Purpose and Meaning	X	X	X	
i2 Humble and Confident	X	X	X	
i3 Integrity	X	X	X	
i4 Systems Perspective	X	X		
c1 Culture Change	X	X	X	
c2 Values Driven	X		X	
c3 Teamwork	X	X	X	
c4 Excellence			X	
c5 Valued Employees	X	X	X	
c6 Customer Focus			X	
c7 Trust	X	X	X	

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Hitt 2005). Additionally, the CEOs in this study could not separate leadership at the top from strategic management. And, the researcher was unable to separate the two in the analysis of the CEO's "stories" of transformation. In addition, the concepts described in this article provide additional insights into how strategic leadership and management systems can be designed to include transformation. While Part I was focused on the strategic leadership system, these concepts are also influenced by several leadership theories.

The findings in both papers also connect with and contribute details specific to leading the transformation to performance excellence with several popular leadership theories such as transformational, servant, spiritual, and transactional leadership. A summary of the linkages is presented in Table 1. The majority of the concepts in this article are linked to and consistent with transformational leadership (Bass 1990). While only a few of the concepts were consistent with transactional leadership theory, the results of this study provide additional evidence that transformational and transactional leadership styles are not only compatible and complementary as Bass and Avolio (1993) suggest, but both may be essential to leading a successful transformation. Bass and Avolio (1993) propose that organizations move toward more transformational approaches while maintaining an effective base of transactional methods, which is consistent with the findings in this study. While less well-defined, servant leadership theory was also linked to many of the concepts (for example, Greenleaf 1977). It is often difficult to "tease" out the differences between transformational and servant leadership. While neither theory is specific enough to guide a transformation to performance excellence, when combined with the CPE and the findings in this study, the evidence suggests either approach will work.

The study also adds new connections between spiritual leadership theory and leading the transformation to performance excellence (Fry and Cohen 2009; Fry and Kriger 2009). The analysis suggests that in the context of performance excellence, spiritual leadership supports several areas that are not addressed by the other leadership theories included in this study. In particular, the causal model of spiritual leadership includes aspects of a high-performance culture and productivity. Additional research is needed to explore how spiritual leadership can be integrated and used to support the LTPE framework concepts. Due to space limitations, the discussions and connections to the leadership theories in this study are limited in depth and detail. Further discussion and analysis is needed to truly explain the details of how the specific aspects of these theories apply to the concepts in the LTPE framework.

This study also contributes five individual leader characteristics that, like previous trait research, may be dependent on the particular context of leading a large-scale transformation using the CPE as a major tool. Although the CEOs in this study were from a wide variety of organizations, they all shared the common context of leading transformation using the CPE from the top. Their deep sense of purpose and meaning combined with humility and confidence, integrity, a systems view of the world, and motivations that are different from other successful leaders, all work together to support the behaviors, approaches, and ultimately a culture of performance excellence. More research is needed to gain a better understanding as to how these characteristics influence the other LTPE concepts and test the relationships.

The culture of performance excellence found in this study is further validation of the TQM culture described by Cameron and Quinn (1999). The results in this study provide further evidence that the aspects of the four culture types in the CVF can be complementary, which is consistent with the findings of Hartnell, Ou, and Kimicki (2011) and Cameron and Quinn (1999). This brings into question the value of the "competing" aspect of the CVF. While many organizations—more than 80 percent according to Cameron and Quinn (1999)—have a dominant culture type, is that desirable? Is it not simply an indicator that most organizations do not have a systems view of their organization? More research is needed in this area to acquire a deeper understanding of how some organizations, such as those that achieve performance excellence, successfully combine aspects of different culture types and the various options or combinations that might be useful for different purposes.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

There are at least three practitioner audiences that could benefit from the LTPE framework and concepts presented in this article: a) future leaders of already high-performing organizations; b) leaders who are currently attempting to transform their organization or are considering starting a journey to excellence; and c) SMEs, internal and external change agents, working with leaders at all levels in the organization. For the first group, those organizations that have achieved high performance, the framework provides insights on leveraging the forces and facilitators of change along with leader approaches and behaviors, individual leader characteristics, and culture characteristics that can be used to design new and improve existing leadership development programs to help develop a "pipeline" of leaders capable of continuing the journey and taking the organization to the next level. For those currently attempting a transformation, those considering starting a transformation, and their coaches, the insights in this article offer practical advice on the key elements for leaders to address as part of their overall leadership efforts. In addition, the framework can be used to assess the current state of leader development and practice to inform the development of leadership improvement plans.

Whether the organization finds itself in a crisis or just has many drivers of change, understanding the forces and facilitators of change can help leaders use the forces and facilitators to their advantage. For example, if there is a lack of tension ($f1$), using the information in this article, leaders can create more tension by either increasing the measurement of performance ($a6$) and comparing results to high-performing organizations to *push* the organization and increase the compelling directive ($a2$) to *pull* the organization. If the transformation is moving slowly or is stalled, they can increase the alignment of the strategy, activities, and results ($f3$) and the use of the CPE + SMEs ($f4 + f5$) to accelerate the journey. In addition, the framework can be used to inform the development of custom leadership systems.

The descriptions and explanations of the nine leadership approaches ($a1 - a9$) can help inform the overall design of custom leaderships systems and their individual components. While there is extensive research on strategic management, unfortunately, there is little research on the design of leadership systems or the connections between leadership and systems in general (Ackoff 1998). In fact, developing a custom strategic leadership system might be the first step for those organizations that have not started their journey and the next step for those already on the journey but finding progress slow. Why? As the participants developed and implemented formal approaches to strategic leadership, they began to experience several benefits including: a) improved alignment and integration of the organization's managerial and leadership system components as well as strategy, actions, and results; b) improved communication and deployment of managerial approaches and systems; c) clarified roles, responsibilities, and boundaries; d) increased continuity and reduced dependency on individual leaders and employees throughout the organization; e) a systems perspective of the organization for leadership; and f) improved results. For a more detailed discussion on leadership and management system design, see Latham (2012).

There are assessment instruments available for the key leadership theories identified, including transformational and transactional, servant, and spiritual leadership. These instruments can be used to assess leaders and inform leadership development efforts. There are also instruments available for assessing and diagnosing the culture of the organization. According to Bass and Avolio 1993, the culture survey (ODQ) provides two overall scores—the Transactional Culture Score (TA) and the Transformational Culture Score (TF). However, while transformational leadership theory is related to several culture concepts identified in the LTPE framework, it is not clear if it directly and accurately addresses all of the performance excellence culture factors. While a dominant culture is not consistent with performance excellence, the CVF survey instrument does seem to address the key aspects of a performance excellence culture. Consequently, the CVF instrument might be the most useful for assessing the culture for those organizations seeking to achieve and sustain performance excellence. For a more complete discussion of organization culture survey instruments, see Jung et al. (2009).

LIMITATIONS

This study was limited to CEO (senior most leader) personal perspectives. It is quite possible that leaders and employees at other levels in the organization have a different perspective of the same events than the CEO. Future research should consider including participants with different perspectives to form an even richer and more complete "picture" of the transformation process. In particular, future research should consider the perspective of the internal SMEs.

The participant group did not include any female CEOs. Future research should consider including both male and female senior leaders to determine the differences, if any, between gender and the framework components, including the cross-cutting leadership behaviors.

While the study includes a variety of organizations including business, education, and healthcare, no nonprofit or government cases were included. Now that there are MBNQA recipients in the government and nonprofit category, future research should consider including cases from this sector to determine the differences, if any, between leading transformation in government and nonprofit organizations and the sectors represented in this study.

This study included only 14 cases and, thus, the generalizability of conclusions may be limited. In addition, no comparison cases were included in this study. Future research should consider including additional cases and control groups (for example, non-Baldrige recipient organizations) to verify the applicability of the framework and the conclusions. The author also suggests comparing to organizations that attempted to use the CPE as a major part of their transformation but did not achieve the performance required for recognition as a Baldrige Award recipient.

All participating organizations are headquartered in the United States. There are many organizations that have achieved the Baldrige Award level maturity (both processes and results) in other countries, such as India where the Tata Group has its own internal JRD Quality Value Award based on the CPE-based Tata Business Excellence Model (TBEM). Future research should include comparisons with high-performing organizations from a variety of countries to discover how the framework components are adapted to different cultural and business contexts.

Specific deductive questions on the various framework components, relationships, and conclusions were not asked during the interviews. More research is needed to verify the framework components and the conclusions produced by this study. Future research should consider more objective quantitative methods to test and refine the findings and insights produced by this study.

CONCLUSION

There is a popular saying regarding performance excellence: "There are no silver bullets." It would have been nice for practitioners if this study had produced a short list of "bullets" one could follow to successfully lead the transformation to performance excellence. Likewise, it would have been helpful for academics if the study had identified a few existing theories that explain the phenomenon of leading the transformation to performance excellence from the top. Unfortunately, it appears that leading large-scale organizational transformation is more complicated than most current leadership theories and practitioner books would suggest. Part of the reason some authors are able to identify a limited number of things to be successful, such as Collins (2001), is that the purpose of their research was to identify what was different between the research group and the control group. The problem with focusing on only what is different is that it fails to identify those things that are essential to success, but were common to both groups. The danger is that people might think they can do only the few *different* things and still succeed. For example, both a fast and a slow car might have the exact same tires. If one only focuses on what is different, then one might create a car that has inferior tires not realizing that good tires are essential because they were not identified as different. The author suspects that many leaders fail in their efforts to transform their organizations because they were seduced into thinking that there was a short list of silver bullets.

Indeed, it is tempting. While this is just a first step in developing a more comprehensive understanding of leading the transformation to performance excellence from the top, the LTPE framework presented here is more comprehensive than previous studies simply because it does not focus on what is different but rather on a comprehensive framework of the *key* elements involved with leading transformation from the CEO's perspective. While the increased complexity of the LTPE framework compared to most other popular frameworks might make it more difficult to use, as Amory Lovins at the Rocky Mountain Institute is fond of saying, "If it has been done, it must be possible." Ultimately, it is hoped that the concepts presented in these articles will help improve the probability of success when leading an organizational transformation to performance excellence.

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BIOGRAPHY

John Latham is director of the Monfort Institute and a Monfort executive professor of management at the Monfort College of Business (2004 Baldrige Award recipient), University of Northern Colorado. Latham has more than 35 years of experience working in and with a variety of commercial, nonprofit, and government organizations from Asia to Europe. He has had a wide variety of work experiences, from consulting on organization and management system design and change to vice president of corporate quality and business excellence for a $1.3 billion manufacturing company with operations in 40 countries. He served nine years on the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award board of examiners and as a judge for the Colorado Performance Excellence, VA Carey, and Army Communities of Excellence awards. He earned a doctorate from Walden University in 1997 and an MBA from Chapman University in 1992. He is the co-author of *Organization Diagnosis, Design and Transformation: A Baldrige User's Guide,* fifth edition and has published several articles in *Quality Management Journal, Quality Progress,* and others. He is a Senior member of ASQ, a Certified Quality Engineer, and a past section chair. He can be reached by email at john.latham@unco.edu or through his website at www.johnlatham.info.

APPENDIX

Table A1 NVivo Codes by Cases: Leadership Behaviors *(b)*.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	Total	Cases
b1	21	3	5	41	2	0	3	1	8	1	7	8	5	5	110	13
b2	17	2	0	8	3	6	1	5	8	1	7	4	8	5	75	13
b3	8	1	11	20	2	2	5	11	9	1	3	7	2	6	88	14
b4	28	16	3	22	0	2	6	0	2	3	16	2	20	12	132	12
b5	5	17	3	35	5	7	10	5	5	8	9	24	10	16	159	14
b6	0	20	2	11	12	6	3	0	1	0	1	9	8	10	83	11
b7	1	6	3	42	2	7	3	0	4	4	6	1	2	0	81	12
b8	12	24	13	39	12	4	13	12	8	5	38	20	45	14	259	14
b9	19	11	8	24	18	1	2	11	14	7	17	20	5	9	166	14

Cells in the table are the number of times that the particular code (*b1-b9*) was coded in the verbatim transcript for the particular case (1-14).

Table A2 NVivo Codes by Cases: Individual Leader *(i)*.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	Total	Cases
i1	1	1	3	3	1	1	3	5	1	1	4	6	3	2	35	14
i2	5	11	2	9	9	0	2	7	5	4	3	12	4	6	79	13
i3	8	3	1	6	2	0	0	6	6	5	3	3	6	2	51	12
i4	10	4	1	8	1	0	2	1	4	3	1	2	2	0	39	12

Cells in the table are the number of times that the particular code (*i1-i4*) was coded in the verbatim transcript for the particular case (1-14).

Table A3 NVivo Codes by Cases: Culture *(c)*.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	Total	Cases
c1	8	12	7	11	3	19	2	5	2	1	10	8	7	2	97	14
c2	20	10	5	6	4	12	4	3	13	2	7	2	8	0	96	13
c3	4	4	9	36	0	0	5	4	13	1	5	5	4	3	93	12
c4	3	1	2	5	3	5	0	1	1	0	4	2	2	0	29	11
c5	12	5	1	8	1	4	1	8	12	0	0	3	5	0	60	11
c6	0	2	0	8	2	5	0	1	4	1	0	1	3	0	27	9
c7	1	1	1	10	1	1	0	0	5	0	2	0	5	0	27	9

Cells in the table are the number of times that the particular code (*c1-c7*) was coded in the verbatim transcript for the particular case (1-14).

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