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Identifying common traits of successful casino executives: Toward succession planning

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IDENTIFYING COMMON TRAITS OF SUCCESSFUL CASINO EXECUTIVES: TOWARD SUCCESSION PLANNING

by

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ABSTRACT

Identifying Common Traits of Successful Casino Executives: Toward Succession Planning

by

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The current study is an attempt to identify traits and skills that determine success in casino executives. Upon identification, a succession plan can be put into place to develop future leaders. In order to determine success factors, three instruments were administered; a measure of personality, the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire, and two leadership/managerial styles questionnaires, the Competing Values Framework and the Leadership Orientation Survey. This study involved two participant samples. Forty-one executives from three Las Vegas hotel/casino properties completed the three questionnaires and 275 peers and/or subordinates completed the two leadership/managerial styles questionnaires on their behalf. Results of the 16 PF were inconclusive; however results of the styles questionnaires suggest some trends in effectiveness. Executives who are more balanced, those who practice situational leadership, tend to be seen as more effective.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In 1946 Ben "Bugsy" Siegel brought glitz and glamour to the desert when he built The Flamingo Hotel. Over the next twenty years Las Vegas grew into America's playground run by mobsters from New York, Cleveland, and Chicago. In 1966, an associate of Howard Hughes' lobbied the state of Nevada to change the law that banned corporations from owning casinos. The change in this law and Hughes' subsequent purchase of the Desert Inn in 1967 signified the beginning of the end for mob-run casinos (Roemer, 1994). Howard Hughes is credited with legitimizing the gaming industry and forever altering the casino business model.

This change in the business model would suggest a change in job descriptions and requirements. What types of skills were rewarded after the shift from a mob-run to corporate-run business enterprise? What knowledge and abilities did the new operators value in their management? In a short span of 40 years, casinos have progressed from attracting members of the mafia to attracting educated graduates of Ivy League universities.

Succession planning has been a hot topic in corporate America for several years. The importance of preparing for the future is clear, but the challenges of application seem cumbersome to actually undertake. In a review of the research on succession planning,

Garman (2004) found very little research available on actual practice. Most of the literature was written by practitioners selling their consulting services.

In this study, a step toward succession planning in the casino industry, common traits and abilities of successful casino executives will be defined using three diagnostic instruments: The 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF), the Competing Values Framework (CVF), and the Leadership Orientation Survey (LOS).

The 16 PF was administered in an attempt to answer the question: What aspects of personality are shared across job functions within the casino industry and what personality attributes are unique to different job functions? The Competing Values Framework and the Leadership Orientation Survey were administered in tandem in an effort to outline the managerial and leadership skills most commonly used by successful casino executives. "Success" was defined by the executive level achieved in the organization.

All three instruments have been used extensively in corporate developmental settings. This study will correlate results of the three instruments revealing a snapshot of commonalities among successful casino executives. This snapshot may then serve as a roadmap for the development of future managers and leaders in the casino industry.

In the coming pages, the theory supporting each instrument will be described, the instruments themselves will be explained, reliability and validity statistics will be stated, and the practical utility of each will be discussed.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT LITERATURE

Three instruments will be described in the coming pages, The Competing Values Framework (CVF), the Leadership Orientation Survey (LOS), and the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF). The theory behind each instrument will be explained, the development process will be described, followed by a description of the final version of each instrument, finally, technical information will be supplied.

The Competing Values Framework (CVF)

The Competing Values Framework Questionnaire is based on the 1983 research of Quinn and Rohrbaugh. The goal in this and subsequent research was to identify what makes organizations and the people in them effective. "The CVF has been studied and tested in organizations for more than twenty five years by a group of thought leaders from leading business schools and corporations" (Cameron, n.d. para. 1). These studies lead to the publication of *Beyond Rational Management: Mastering the Paradoxes and Competing Demands of High Performance* (Quinn, 1988) and *Becoming a Master Manager, A Competency Framework* (Quinn, Faerman, Thompson, & McGrath, 2003). The latter is regularly used as a text in business schools and managerial training courses. It is from these texts that the following CVF information originated unless otherwise credited.

Based on four domains of the construct of organizational and managerial effectiveness, the Competing Values Framework combines four separate leadership theories that developed in America during the 20th century. They are the Rational Goal model, Internal Process model, Human Relations model, and the Open Systems model. Quinn et al. (2003) credit the work of Mirvis (1985) in describing the history behind the development of each of the models of management.

The Rational Goal and Internal Process models appeared in the first quarter of the 20th century. During this time, there were no labor unions, a growing immigrant population willing to work under any conditions for low wages, and natural resources were abundant. It was during this era that Henry Ford revolutionized industry with the introduction of the assembly line.

The Rational Goal model is defined by productivity and profit. Managers and organizations that rely heavily on this model focus on efficiency, work output, and direction. The Internal Process model is defined by documentation, hierarchical bureaucracy, and marked by the routinization of job function. When relying on this model, managers and organizations focus on measurement, record keeping, and the defining of responsibilities.

The Human Relations model emerged between 1926 and 1950. During these turbulent years, the country experienced an economic boom, the stock market crash, and an economic resurgence brought on by World War II. Unions gained strength in fighting for the rights of the American worker and businesses began to understand the importance of employee relationships and morale. The Human Relations model was ushered in with the

era of participative decision making and conflict resolution. Managers and organizations within this model focus on team work and employee development.

Marked by the war in Vietnam, the third quarter of the 20th century brought with it a shift in American values. Average worker education rose from 8.2 to 12.6 years and managers were no longer expected to know more than their subordinates. This era also marked the beginning of the technology boom which brought with it the Open Systems model. Defined by adaptability and external support, this model acknowledges the new fast pace of business and a manager's inability to fully plan or control every decision. Managers and organizations within this model encourage creativity, growth, and innovation.

Each of these models emerged in response to changing business demands and the needs of the employees. Each new model did not replace existing models. Instead, depending on the needs of a particular business, industry, or manager, one model was and is more prevalent than the others. The framework has been used to study both organizational culture and managerial effectiveness. For the purposes of this review, the quadrants and competencies are described from a managerial perspective.

The Competing Values Framework (CVF) is predicated on the idea that all four of these models are important. They are, however, more effective when used situationally as a set of managerial and organizational skills. There are two axes which divide the models into four quadrants. The vertical axis indicates a range from organizational flexibility at the top to control at the bottom. The flexibility – control continuum is a systems stability indicator. The horizontal axis indicates an internal organizational focus on the left of the continuum to an external focus on the right (see Figure 1). This internal – external

continuum indicates whether focus is placed on the people within the organization or on external considerations such as competition and economic growth (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Within each quadrant, or model, are two roles. Within each role there are 3 key competencies.

In the lower right corner of the framework is the Rational Goal model. It is bordered by the axes of control and external focus. This model focuses on profit as a result of productivity and efficiency. Within this quadrant are the Producer and Director roles. In the Producer role, the manager accepts responsibility, completes assignments, prides himself on high productivity and motivates others to accomplish stated goals. The key competencies that are necessary for effective use of the producer role are: "1) working productively; 2) fostering a productive work environment; and 3) managing time and stress" (Quinn et al., 2003, p. 219).

In the same quadrant is the Director role. The Director sets goals, clarifies expectations, defines problems, delegates tasks, and evaluates performance. The key competencies necessary for effective use of the Director role are: "1) developing and communicating a vision; 2) setting goals and objectives; and 3) designing and organizing" (Quinn et al., 2003, p. 183).

Sharing the control axis and complementary to the Rational Goal model is the Internal Process model. This model is placed on the lower left side of the framework, combining the control orientation with an internal focus. The two roles indicative of this location are the Monitor and Coordinator. The Monitor is an analytical manager who focuses on details, data, and forms. In this role, the manager is focused on effective information gathering. This may be misconstrued as an interest in snooping on employees or catching

them doing something wrong. Key competencies of the Monitor are: "1) managing information through critical thinking; 2) managing information overload; and 3) managing core processes" (Quinn et al., 2003, p. 105).

The Coordinator complements the Monitor by handling scheduling, organizing, and other logistical tasks. An effective manager in this role would be described as dependable and reliable. Key competencies are: "1) managing projects; 2) designing work; and 3) managing across functions" (Quinn et al., 2003, p. 135).

Adjacent to the Internal Process model in the upper left-hand corner is the Human Relations model. The roles in this model are bordered by the internal and flexible axes allowing for a focus on the people, both individually and in groups. Both roles within this model, the Mentor and the Facilitator, require excellent listening skills, sensitivity, and empathy. In the Mentor role, managers are encouraged to form relationships and learn about each employee. Mentors are open, fair, considerate, and supportive. Key competencies in this role are: "1) understanding self and others; 2) communicating effectively; and 3) developing employees" (Quinn et al., 2003, p. 29).

The second role in the Human Resources model is that of Facilitator. Managers in the Facilitator role are excellent communicators. They focus on collaboration, cohesion, and conflict resolution. Key competencies are: "1) building teams; 2) using participative decision making; and 3) managing conflict" (Quinn et al., 2003, p.59).

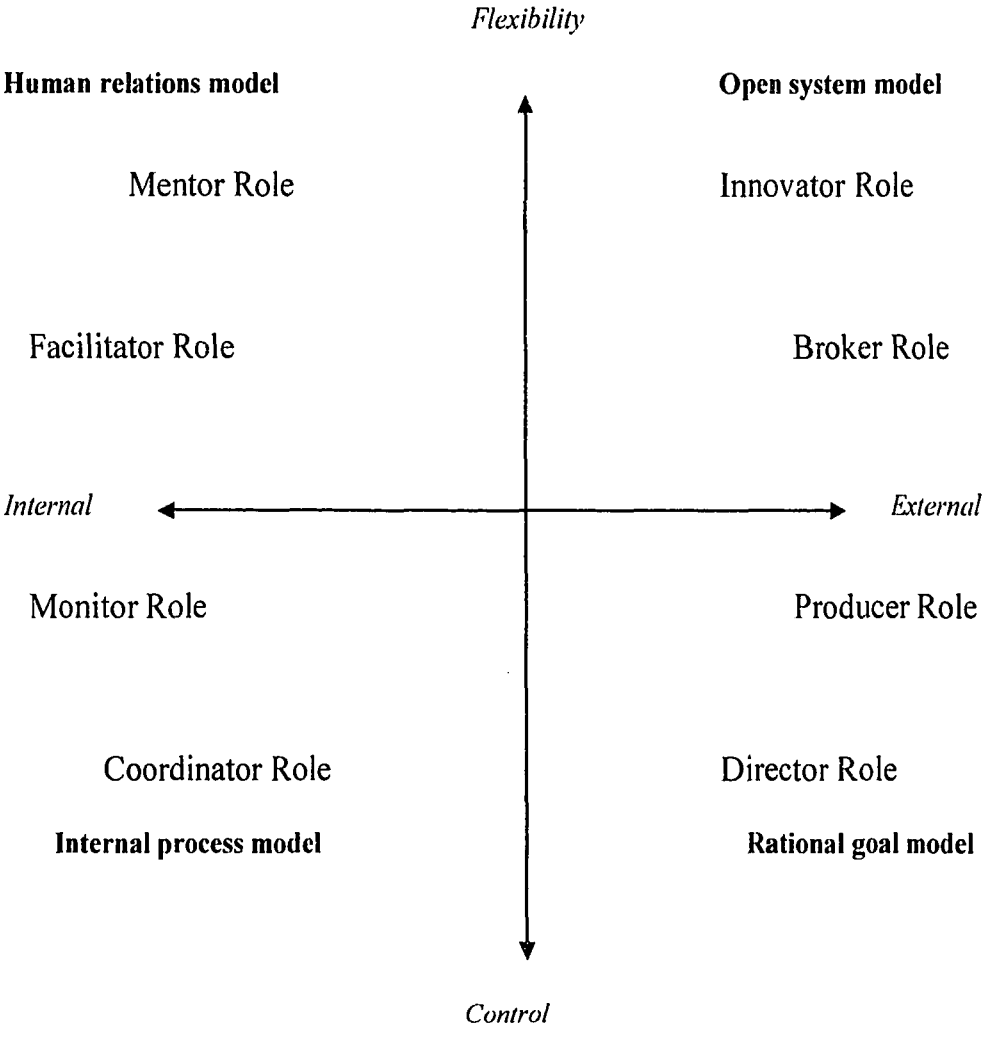
In the upper right quadrant is the Open Systems model. Bordered vertically by a flexible orientation and horizontally by external focus, both roles within this quadrant, the Innovator and the Broker, require excellent social skills and creative problem solving ability. The Innovator focuses on change, transition, and better ways of doing things

within the organization. Key competencies defining this role are: "1) living with change; 2) thinking creatively; and 3) managing change" (Quinn et al., 2003, p. 302).

The Broker takes the ideas of the Innovator and sells them. In this role, a manager must understand the political process within the organization. The Broker must know the key players and build relationships that assist in reaching the desired goal. In order to effectively communicate the benefits of change, the Broker must possess the competencies of: "1) building and maintaining a power base; 2) negotiating agreement and commitment; and 3) presenting ideas: effective oral presentations" (Quinn et al., 2003, p. 261).

They are called "competing" values because the criteria used to determine the skills in each domain are seemingly opposite in nature. For example, the Human Relations model seems at odds with the Rational Goal model because the Human Resource model is defined by participation and interpersonal relationships where the Rational Goal model is defined by taking charge and getting the work done regardless of interpersonal dynamics. Likewise, the controls and task focus necessary for success in the Internal Process model would seem to render the creative thinking and flexibility required in the Open Systems model nearly impossible. Figure 1 illustrates the eight roles and the domains in which they fall.

Figure 1. The competencies and the leadership roles in the Competing Values Framework Source: Quinn et al. (2003). There are two roles within each of the four models. Models are in bold; roles are in plain text. Axes are labeled in italics.



The CVF can be used as an instrument for developmental and diagnostic purposes. As a developmental tool, the framework presents a set of skills to be learned and applied, suggesting the importance of situational focus. When used as a diagnostic tool, the CVF reports the focus or focuses chosen by a particular manager in a particular position.

The CVF also measures the over or under use of a particular skill: the negative zone. If the results of the CVF are seen as three concentric circles placed over the quadrants of the framework, the negative zone is both the center and outer-most circles. Behaviors indicating existence in the negative zone are the over- or under-use of any of the key competencies. The center circle implies lack of skill or lack of awareness while the outer ring implies an overstatement of the competencies that define a given area.

According to the CVF theory, effective managers have the skills and ability to situationally use the competencies of each role. The business world is an ever-changing dynamic environment and "Master Managers must develop the capacity to use contradictory logics simultaneously" (Quinn, 1988, p.xiv). Based on the work required in a given position, however, some managers may need to focus more on a particular role or roles than others.

CVF Technical Information

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) began the process of defining the construct of organizational effectiveness and the criteria that determine it in their aptly titled work *Towards a competing values approach to organizational analysis*. This two-phase study began with a list of 30 indices of organizational effectiveness as determined by Campbell in 1977. The first phase of the study enlisted the assistance of seven individuals with interest in organizational effectiveness. All seven held doctorates and six had published on the topic. Participants were asked to eliminate criteria which were "(1) not at the organizational level of analysis; (2) not a singular index but a composite of several criteria; (3) not a construct but a particular operationalization; or (4) not a criterion of organizational performance" (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983, p. 3). Items were eliminated

from the 30 indices based on the agreement of at least six of the seven participants. The remaining 17 items were agreed upon as "singular constructs pertaining to performance evaluations of organizational units" (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983, p. 4). Next, participants were asked to rate each item's similarity to other items using a scale of 1 (very dissimilar) to 7 (very similar). Based on multidimensional scaling of the similarity judgments, a three-dimensional model emerged. The second phase of the study attempted to replicate the results by enlisting participants who had published at least one study in *Administrative Science Quarterly,* chosen for relevance to the topic of organizational effectiveness and for its high selectivity in article acceptance. Forty-five participants completed judgment tasks making comparisons of the similarities between the 17 remaining criteria (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983).

Results of phase two were interpreted as support for an organizational effectiveness model with three dimensions. The first two dimensions make up the quadrants of the framework; the vertical axis is a flexibility – control continuum and the horizontal axis is an internal – external continuum. The third dimension is described as a means – ends axis which defines the areas of focus in each quadrant. In the Rational Goal model, located in the lower right quadrant, planning and goal setting are applied as the means to an end of productivity and efficiency. In the Internal Process model, in the lower left corner, effective communication and information flow lead to an end result of control and stability. In the upper left corner, the Human Resource quadrant, cohesion and morale are required as the means to an end of human resource development. Finally, in the upper right corner is the Open Systems model which is defined by a means of flexibility and readiness toward an end of growth and resource acquisition (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983).

This 1983 study is the foundation of the competing values framework and the resulting instrument.

The Competing Values Leadership Instrument is a 36-item questionnaire available in two forms, a self-report version and an assessment by others. Items are scored on a Likert scale from 1 to 7. Respondents are asked to determine with what frequency the manager in question engages in each behavior. An answer of 1 indicates very infrequently; a 7 indicates very frequently. Results are calculated by averaging the responses of the four statements that make up each of the eight roles.

Reliability and validity of the instrument were established by Quinn and Spreitzer in their 1991 psychometric study of the Competing Values instrument (Kalliath, Bluedorn & Gillespie, 1999). The study, which looked at 796 executives from public utility companies, assessed each of the four quadrants of the framework using both a multitrait-multimethod analysis and a multidimensional scaling analysis. The multitrait-multimethod analysis compared the results of two types of competing values scales, a Likert scale and an ipsative (forced-choice) scale. Convergent validity was established by comparing the scale scores for each quadrant. They found correlations "significantly greater than zero and of moderate magnitude" (Kalliath et al., 1999, p. 146). In addition, correlations of scale scores from the same quadrant were greater than those from different quadrants, measured by different methods, demonstrating discriminant validity. Multidimensional scaling conducted with this sample supported the three dimensional model determined by the earlier study.

The 1999 research conducted by Kalliath et al. used a structural equations model (SEM) to confirm the results reported by Quinn and Spreitzer. They hypothesized a

higher correlation between quadrants of the framework that share traits along each axis than those that are seemingly opposite in nature. For example, the Human Relations model and the Open Systems model share the flexibility trait, which should result in a positive correlation, while the Human Relations model and the Rational Goal model are seen as opposing values and should result in a near zero correlation.

The results of this study, using 300 managers and supervisors in a hospital setting, positively demonstrated five of six of the hypotheses. The Internal Process model correlated with the Open Systems model at .73, the Internal Process model and the Human Relations model correlated at .19, the Open Systems model and the Human Relations model correlated at .19, the Open Systems model and the Rational Goal model correlated to the degree of .14, and the Rational Goal model and the Internal Process model correlated at .23.

As expected, there was a near zero correlation between the Human Relations and Rational Goal models, supposed opposites in the framework. The actual correlation was r = .002. Unexpectedly the data did not support the zero correlation between the Open Systems and Internal Process models, also opposing values in the framework. These correlated at .73. The authors suggest this might have resulted from the turbulence and change seen in the healthcare industry during the time of this study.

Kalliath et al. (1999) confirmed reliability of the individual item scores as demonstrated by squared multiple correlations (R^2), the square root of which results in an approximation of the coefficient alpha measure of reliability. R^2 results for the items of the Internal Process model ranged from .50 to .63 (coefficient alpha, .70 to .79), for the

Open Systems model from .48 to .75 (.69 to.87), for the Human Relations model from .66 to .84 (.81 to .92), and for the Rational Goal model from .55 to .59 (.74 to .77).

Uses of the CVF

The Competing Values Framework is a diagnostic and training tool. It can be administered to determine a range of gaps in effectiveness. On a small scale, it can be used to assess managerial performance. On a larger scale, it is used to assess an organization's culture and readiness for the future. The instrument and the accompanying text, *Becoming a Master Manager (*Quinn et al., 2003), are used in higher education to teach business students how to apply the eight roles of the framework. A logical leap from the classroom is into the training room. In his work with Ford Motor Company, Sendelbach (1993) used the CVF for a range of managerial development activities. In one activity, participants assessed their own leadership practices, the focus of their overall work unit, and their personal values. Once participants had a clear understanding of the Competing Values Framework and an assessment of their current situation, they were asked to identify a desired focus for both their personal vision as well as direction for their work team. In this way, the CVF becomes a developmental tool as a manager compares his current reality to his preferred reality. In an activity designed to assess organizational culture, participants were asked to focus on the historical evolution of their organization. Using "significant points in time," participants evaluated what the culture must have been like at the time and the emphasis placed on each role in the framework. This activity leads to an understanding of culture as a product of environmental needs, helping participants to understand the current cultural state, how it came about, and where they would rather be.

In case studies outlining their use of the CVF, Hooijberg and Petrock (1993) describe how the test results are used to explain the current culture of an organization. Participants determine what they believe the desired culture should be and formulate an action plan of how to get there based on the competencies that define each role. Work groups began by defining what each quadrant means and what it does not mean. For example, they determined that the Human Resource quadrant or what they called the "Clan Culture" means meeting employee needs, promoting teamwork, establishing better morale, and so forth. It does not mean becoming undisciplined and permissive, not working hard, or having "one big love in" (Hooijberg & Petrock, 1993, p.38). A definition of each quadrant and whether to increase or decrease group focus lead these workgroups to a specific action plan outlining their desired direction.

The Competing Values Framework is an instrument that can be used in both small and large settings. It can be administered as part of a managerial development program or to assess the current culture prior to implementing organizational change.

The Leadership Orientation Survey (LOS)

Bolman and Deal's (1984, 2003) four frame leadership theory, as with the Competing Values Framework, is based on multiple theories of managerial, leadership, and cultural effectiveness. Bolman and Deal developed this approach while teaching at Harvard. Their book, *Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organizations* (1984) describes how this holistic approach to management was developed as an antidote to the single-style nature of previous management theories. Their more recent work, *Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership* (2003) is a result of subsequent research

and application of this theory in corporate organizations. It is from these texts that the following information originated unless otherwise credited.

Alinsky (Bolman & Deal, 1984) describes the 20th century as a kind of organizational leadership "big bang" theory. Environmental demands and the quickening pace of business required organizations to begin to look at management as a discipline. Bolman and Deal consolidated the major theories of management and came up with four applicable models, which they call frames. These four frames of leadership are Structural, Human Resource, Political, and Symbolic. "Frames filter out some things while allowing others to pass through easily. Frames help us to order the world and decide what action to take" (Bolman & Deal, 1984, p. 4). The vertical axis runs between the Symbolic Frame at the top and the Structural Frame at the bottom. This axis represents the opposing views of the artistic/expressive/metaphoric versus the rational/linear/sequential. On the horizontal axis are the Human Resource Frame on the left and the Political Frame on the right. Representing the opposing views of the social environment, this axis runs the continuum from caring/trusting/collaborative on the left to realistic/skeptical/competitive on the right (Bolman & Deal, 1991) (see Figure 2).

Similar to the Rational Goal model, the Structural Frame is defined by a goal focus. It is characterized by rules, regulations, authority, and a hierarchical bureaucracy. Managers in this frame believe the organization exists to achieve goals. They focus on information processing, organizational structure, and the impact of environment on the organizational structure. They do not address the needs of the people or the effect they have on the business. Conflict is resolved by implementing policies and procedures that support the organization's existing structure. Leaders in this frame set clear direction, are bottom-line

driven, and hold people accountable for results. Six underlying assumptions of the Structural Frame are: 1) the purpose of a work unit is to achieve goals; 2) employee performance is enhanced and greater efficiency achieved by job specialization and clear divisions of labor; 3) when appropriate structures and proper controls are in place, separate work units mesh to an effective end result; 4) work units maximize effectiveness when logic and rational thought prevail over emotion and personal preferences; 5) structures and controls must compliment existing circumstances, including business goals, labor force, technologies, and surroundings; and
6) performance gaps arise when structures and controls do not match existing circumstances; performance is improved when the situation is analyzed and proper structures put in place.

Where the Structural Frame is defined by efficiency and rational thought, the Human Relations Frame is characterized by a focus on the people in the organization and the belief that the organization exists to serve their needs. This frame is centered around the critical impact people have on processes and outcomes. Leaders in this frame believe the organization gives meaning and satisfaction to the lives of the people and there is a negative result when the organization and the individual have opposing needs.

Human Resource leaders value relationships and feelings. They lead through empowerment and facilitation. When problems arise, rather than putting additional systems in place, they believe problems can be solved through communication and training. This leader acknowledges a person's need for satisfying work that is meaningful, and thus, motivating. Core assumptions of the Human Resource frame are: 1) the purpose of a work unit is to serve the needs of the workers; 2) there is reciprocity

of need. Just as people need careers and to earn money, organizations need the ideas and energy of a talented workforce; 3) when the needs of the worker and the needs of the business are at odds, both suffer; and 4) the individual and the organization benefit when their needs are met. "Individuals find meaningful and satisfying work, and organizations get the talent and energy they need to succeed" (Bolman & Deal, 2003, p. 115).

The third frame, the Political Frame, is defined by organizational politics. Much of the literature on management theory does not cover the politics inherent in the organization. Alinsky (Bolman & Deal, 1984) suggests that the political perspective represents the actual truth about the organization. This frame emphasizes the competition and conflict that are inherent in organizations as leaders vie for scarce resources. Key skills in this role are negotiation, networking, coalition building, and building a power base. In recognizing the existence of politics, a politically savvy manager understands that there is a certain amount of game-playing that takes place within the organization.

"Authorities have exclusive access to the power of position, but they are only one among many contenders for power in the organization. Each contender has different preferences and beliefs. All contenders have access to various forms of power, and all compete for their share of scarce resources in a limited organizational pie" (Bolman & Deal, 1984, p. 118).

There are two key implications derived from the Political Frame: 1) effective politicians win more battles than they lose and 2) rational or humane change efforts are likely to fail without appropriate use of political power. Key assumptions of the Political Frame are: 1) multiple alliances and interest groups exist within organizations;

2) not only do individuals perceive situations differently, they also hold their own values, beliefs, and interests dear; 3) resources are scarce; important decisions are usually based on effective allocation of resources; 4) organizational dynamics are defined by conflict and resource allocation; power is an individual's most important asset; and 5) decisions are made and direction determined by competition and the negotiation between the powers involved.

The three frames discussed thus far are based on rational thought and certainty. The Symbolic Frame is not. It is in this frame that people search for symbolic meaning in the events they witness or experience. In fact, what is important about an event is not what happened, but the meaning, or perceived meaning, of what happened. In this frame, facts are secondary to emotion. Symbols serve three major functions: 1) economy (in information processing), 2) elaboration (attaching meaning to an event); and 3) valuation and prophesy (how to feel about an event.)

People relying on the Symbolic Frame value the subjective. There is an underlying assumption of ambiguity in the organizational environment. The more ambiguity from unanswerable questions, challenges and events, the more people rely on symbols to explain these phenomena. Assumptions of the Symbolic arena are: 1) the meaning associated with an event is more important than the event itself; 2) individuals interpret events differently, each event, then, has multiple meanings as interpreted by each individual; 3) the more uncertainty and ambiguity that exist within an organization; the more symbols are created to give meaning and direction while offering hope; 4) the symbolic events and rituals within an organization form the cultural tapestry of that

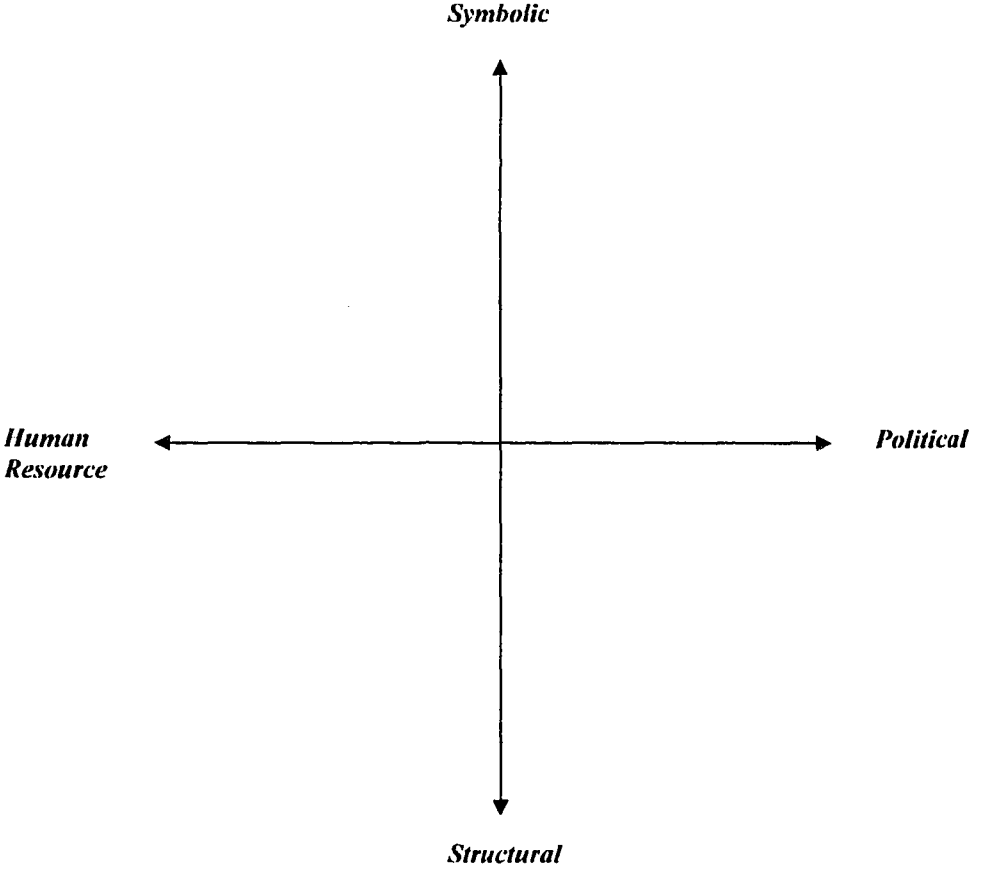
organization; and 5) workers feel a sense of belonging and purpose through the existence of symbols, rituals, and ceremonies.

Similar to the Competing Values Framework, each of the four frames contains two sub-frames, resulting in 8 more narrowly defined dimensions of leadership. These dimensions can be equated to the two roles in each quadrant of the Competing Values Framework. The two actions identified within the Human Resource Frame are Supportive and Participative. To be defined as Supportive, a manager must be concerned about the feelings of others and responsive to their needs. Participative refers to decision making and a manager's openness to new ideas. Within the Structural Frame, managers are Analytical and Organized. The Analytical action is described as thinking clearly and logically. This manager approaches problems armed with facts and details. Organization refers to a manager's ability to develop clear goals and policies. Once those goals are established, this manager holds people accountable for the results. A manager in the Political Frame is Powerful and Adroit. Power, in this case, is defined as the ability to persuade or mobilize people while building alliances and bases of support. A manager is effectively Adroit if he is politically sensitive and a skilled negotiator. Effective leaders in the Symbolic Frame are Inspirational and Charismatic. These managers inspire loyalty and enthusiasm while effectively communicating a vision. They are Charismatic, hold a charming influence over the people they lead. Described as imaginative, these leaders emphasize the importance of culture and values.

In their research, Bolman and Deal (1991) found effectiveness as a manager is most commonly linked to the Structural Frame, where leadership effectiveness is associated with the Political and Symbolic Frames. When using the LOS as a development tool,

Bolman and Deal (Bolman, 2004) focus on the four main frames, for research purposes, they focus on the eight items within the four frames.

Figure 2. The four frames of leadership. Source: Bolman and Deal (1991).



The Leadership Orientation Survey, designed by Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991) is made up of three sections. Section I is a 32-item questionnaire available in two forms, a self-report version and one to be completed by colleagues. Responses are on a five-point Likert scale indicating how often each item is true. A score of 1 indicates an item is never true; a 5 indicates an item is always true. There are four questions per leadership dimension; eight per frame.

Section II is made of six questions that ask the participant to describe their leadership style, or the leadership style of their colleague, by placing the numbers 1 thru 4 next to each of the four choices. The number four is assigned to the phrase that "best describes you," down to the assignment of the number one which indicates the phrase that is "least like you." Section III is made up of two questions; "Overall effectiveness as a manager," and "Overall effectiveness as a leader." Responses are on a Likert scale from 1 to 5, a score of 1 places the manager in the bottom 20%; a 5 places the manager in the top 20%. The terms "manager" and "leader" are purposefully undefined so as to correlate effectiveness scores with the results of the 32-item questionnaire.

LOS Technical Information

To determine how well the four frames correspond to actual management thought and practice, Bolman and Deal (1991) conducted a factor analysis of responses to see if each frame "clustered" together. The results were interpreted such that the items within each frame appeared to be linked, while the frames themselves were seen as separate.

Reliability statistics of the Structural Frame are based on a sample of 1309 business and education managers. Analysis of the eight items measuring usage of this frame resulted in a split-half correlation at .875, a Spearman Brown coefficient of .933, a Guttman (Rulon) coefficient of .933, and a coefficient alpha of .920. Statistics for the Human Resource Frame are based on a sample of 1331 cases. Analysis of the eight items measuring usage of this frame resulted in a split-half correlation at .867, a Spearman Brown coefficient of .929, a Guttman (Rulon) coefficient of .929, and a coefficient alpha of .931. Statistics for the Political Frame are based on a sample of 1268 cases. Analysis of the eight items measuring usage of this frame resulted in a split-half correlation at

.837, a Spearman Brown coefficient of .911, a Guttman (Rulon) coefficient of .911, and a coefficient alpha of .913. Statistics for the Symbolic Frame are based on a sample of 1315 cases. Analysis of the eight items measuring usage of this frame resulted in a split-half correlation at .882, a Spearman Brown coefficient of .937, a Guttman (Rulon) coefficient of .936, and a coefficient alpha of .931.

Reliability statistics reported for Section II, the forced choice portion of the instrument, follow. Figures for the Structural Frame are based on 1229 cases. Analysis of the six items measuring this frame resulted in a split-half correlation at .644, a Spearman Brown coefficient of .783, a Guttman (Rulon) coefficient of .780, and a coefficient alpha of .841. Statistics for the Human Resource Frame are based on 1233 cases. Analysis of the six items measuring this frame resulted in a split-half correlation at .755, a Spearman Brown coefficient of .861, a Guttman (Rulon) coefficient of .856, and a coefficient alpha of .843. Statistics for the Political Frame are based on 1218 cases. Analysis of the six items measuring this frame resulted in a split-half correlation at .708, a Spearman Brown coefficient of .829, a Guttman (Rulon) coefficient of .824, and a coefficient alpha of .799. Statistics for the Symbolic Frame are based on 1221 cases. Analysis of the six items measuring this frame resulted in a split-half correlation at .825, a Spearman Brown coefficient of .904, a Guttman (Rulon) coefficient of .892, and a coefficient alpha of .842 (Bolman, 2004).

Uses of the LOS

As with the CVF, the LOS can be used on a broad scale to determine existing organizational culture. It can also be used on a more personal developmental scale to determine what skills and abilities are naturally relied upon by managers and leaders in a

particular business environment. Bolman and Deal's book, *Reframing Organizations*, (2003) can serve as a roadmap for anyone interested in developing training programs to enhance existing skills or as a tool to overcome organizational challenges. "...The capacity to reframe is a critical issue in success as both manager and leader. In a world of increasing ambiguity and complexity, the ability to use more than one frame should increase an individual's ability to make clear judgments and to act effectively" (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 519).

The Sixteen Personality Factor (16 PF)

Based on the work of Cattell, the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF) was designed to measure personality traits in normal adults combining both behavioral and cognitive variables. Now in its Fifth Edition, the 16 PF is one of the most widely administered personality inventories applying a factor analytic approach. The instrument has three measured components. The 16 Primary Factors which combine to make up five global factors of personality, sometimes referred to as "the Big Five", and the third component, three response style indices. These indices measure a test-taker's reaction to the instrument and the validity of their responses. A discussion of each component follows.

The 16 primary scales are warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, dominance, liveliness, rule-consciousness, social boldness, sensitivity, vigilance, abstractedness, privateness, apprehension, openness to change, self-reliance, perfectionism, and tension.

The warmth scale measures how warm and caring an individual is. A person at the high end of the scale is drawn to people and enjoys working with others. High scoring

individuals are seen as caring, sympathetic, and expressive. Low scoring individuals are less drawn to human interaction, seeming reserved, distant, and aloof.

The reasoning scale does not contribute to any of the global scales. It is a measure of ability rather than personality. Verbal, numerical, and logical reasoning problems are used to determine a respondent's score. A high score is indicative of an intelligent person capable of abstract thinking and problem solving. A lower score may indicate a reduced ability toward abstract thinking or a tendency toward concrete-thinking. Cattell and Schuerger (2003) warn against making judgments of intelligence based on the reasoning scale because personal conditions may influence outcomes. The purpose of this scale is to offer a more complete picture of the person, not to definitively determine intelligence level.

The emotional stability scale measures an individual's propensity for anxiety and frustration or calm. A high score on this scale indicates a person who is generally calm and steady; someone who does not get frustrated easily or quit tasks because of frustration. A low score indicates a reactive, temperamental person who is less capable of coping with problems and stress.

As the name suggests, the dominance scale assesses an individual's propensity to be assertive and/or forceful when dealing with people and/or situations. A high score indicates a take-charge personality who does not shy away from conflict. This person is appropriately described as confident, opinionated, and competitive. A low score on the dominance scale indicates a personality who is truly opposite of the high score. This person is best described as agreeable, easy-going, and compliant. There is a range within the category of non-dominance; an unassertive person may be a "martyr," someone who

takes selflessness to the extreme, an over-anxious person avoiding conflict at all costs, or a passive-aggressive saboteur. In general a low score indicates someone who does not readily offer ideas or opinions or make decisions easily. The motivation behind that propensity is not clear based solely on the dominance scale.

The liveliness scale measures an individual's mental and physical energy level. A high score on this scale indicates an enthusiastic, animated personality; a natural performer or storyteller. Where a high scorer is an impulsive person and communicator, low scorers are methodical. They can be described as inhibited, restrained, and reflective. More positively put, lower scores indicate a dependable person who takes responsibility seriously.

The rule-consciousness scale measures an individual's regard for rules; their view of right and wrong. A high score indicates a conscientious individual who prefers to conform to the rules of society. This person is respectful of authority and moral. A low score is indicative of a more unconventional personality; a non-conformist with a propensity for spontaneity. An extremely low score may suggest an amoral person or one with a reduced sense of right and wrong. Cattell and Schuerger (2003) warn, however, that "the rules referred to within the context of the scale's items are usually culturally centered. For this reason, highly religious persons with a fine moral sense may not receive a high score on this scale if their morality transcends that of the general culture" (Cattell & Schuerger, 2003, p. 73).

The social boldness scale measures the respondent's natural reaction in social situations. A high scorer is outgoing and adventurous; probably an attention seeker. This person has high self-esteem and is confident in meeting new people. Low scorers may be

described as shy or timid. More comfortable observing the action than taking part in it, low scorers are quiet; probably easily intimidated by strangers.

"The very nature of the sensitivity scale implies the likelihood of gender differences in raw scores" (Cattell & Schueger, 2003 p. 86). A high score on this scale implies a more "feminine" sensibility, an appreciation for artistic ventures, and an awareness of emotion or feeling. A low score indicates a more "masculine" sensibility. This individual focuses more on logic, less on emotion or intuition. Where the high scorer may react emotionally in crisis, the low scorer tends toward an evaluation of the facts.

The vigilance scale describes how an individual perceives the intentions of others. A high vigilance score indicates a suspicious, distrustful individual who is wary of the motivations of others. The opposite end of the spectrum is the trusting low scorer. This person is tolerant and loyal; expecting the best from others and assuming positive intentions.

The abstractedness scale is a window into an individual's thoughts. It measures openness to the conceptual or theoretical versus the preference for concrete ideas and practicality. High scorers tend to be unconventional creative thinkers. They have the ability to connect abstract ideas to see the "big picture." An individual with a low abstractedness score tends to be more grounded in reality. This person is dependable and prefers to interact in predictable situations. An extremely high score may be indicative of an inability to shift between the practical and the abstract, where an individual at the extreme low end of the spectrum may be so focused on the day-to-day, the big picture is unreachable.

The privateness scale measures an individual's willingness or desire to share personal thoughts or information. A high scorer on this scale can be described as discreet and diplomatic, possibly motivated by social implications. These individuals are observant and learn from the actions of others. A low score on the privateness scale is indicative of an emotionally available person who is willing to share personal information and speak openly with strangers. This person may be seen as naïve or unaware of the reactions of those around them.

The apprehension scale indicates an individual's propensity for anxiety over his actions and the reactions of others. A high scorer on this scale is more apt to think through the possible consequences that may result from these actions. When things go wrong, this person is more apt to accept responsibility and feedback in order to learn from the experience. An individual with a low score tends to be confident and self-assured. With this confidence generally comes a social comfort and modicum of success. Where an extremely high score may be indicative of an individual with low self-esteem who allows other to make decisions for him, an extremely low score may indicate an inability to properly read a situation and assess one's own performance.

The openness to change scale measures the ease with which a respondent embraces or seeks out new ways of doing things. A high score indicates an individual who tends to question the status quo, not out of disrespect, but rather out of an ability to see creative new ways to improve what may not actually be "broken." A low score indicates an individual who prefers to stick with what has always worked. Extremely high scorers may focus so much energy on possible improvements, they initiate change whether

warranted or not. By contrast, an extremely low scorer may resist change at all costs—even to their own personal detriment.

The self-reliance scale interprets an individual's desire to interact with others and solicit opinions versus a preference for independence. A high score is indicative of a person who would rather be alone. They tend to be opinionated and resourceful and as the name implies, prefer to rely on themselves rather than others. A low scorer prefers to be involved in group decision making, enjoying the interaction and sharing of ideas. At the extreme ends of the spectrum a high scorer may refuse the help of others where an individual at the low end may tend to conform to the preferences of the group.

The perfectionism scale assesses the respondent's penchant for order and control versus a tendency toward flexibility and impulsiveness. The high end of the scale indicates an individual who is conscientious and detail oriented; someone who is reliable and hardworking. Extremely high perfectionism may result in an unachievable standard or compulsive behavior. An individual with a low score may be more relaxed and flexible. They are generally not good planners and seem more impulsive in their activities. An extremely low score may indicate an inability to control those impulses or a disregard for social etiquette.

The tension scale is a measurement of how an individual channels energy and drive. High scores on this scale indicate an individual who is goal focused and driven. They are easily frustrated and become impatient with less energetic personalities. Low scores indicate a more relaxed personality who is easy to get along with. This person may seem to lack ambition or direction. The extreme ends of the tension continuum may be indicated by an unreasonable temper at the high end and complacence at the low end.

Individually, the 16 scales paint a dichotomous "either-or" picture. They must be seen in combination to create an over-all personality picture. The five global factors of extraversion, anxiety, tough mindedness, independence and self control combine four or five primary scales and can be interpreted as broader, overarching traits. The positive or negative (low or high) score on each primary scale indicates the resulting effect on the global scale.

"The relationship of the global scales to the primary scales is analogous to that between a map of a major city and a map of a specific neighborhood. Just as the specific neighborhood map provides more detailed information than does the larger map, so do the primary scales provide more detailed information than do the global scales" (Cattell & Schuerger, 2003).

An individual is seen as extroverted when the results indicate a positive score on the warmth, liveliness, and social boldness scales in combination with a negative score on the privateness and self-reliance scales. The anxiety factor is determined by a negative score on the emotional stability scale in combination with positive scores on vigilance, apprehension, and tension. Negative scores on the warmth, sensitivity, abstractedness, and openness to change scales indicate an individual's tendency toward tough-mindedness. The independence factor is determined by positive scores on the dominance, social boldness, vigilance, and openness to change scales. The self control factor is determined by negative scores on the liveliness and abstractedness scales in combination with positive scores on the rule-consciousness and perfectionism scales.

In addition to measuring the primary and global factors, there are three "response style indices" which measure the validity of an individual's responses. These are impression

management, infrequency, and acquiescence. Impression management is a "social desirability" measure. The answers on these 12 items indicate an individual's attempt to hide perceived undesirable attributes. The infrequency measure indicates the possibility of an individuals responding to items randomly. Acquiescence indicates an individual's agreement with all personality items, no matter the content. "An acquiescent response set reflects an examinee's tendency to answer "true" to incongruous items such as these: "I tend to like to be in charge" and "I tend to be more comfortable taking orders than being in charge" (Russell & Karol, 2002, p. 25).

Administrators are urged to read the results beginning with the response style indices to determine the validity of an individual's answers. The global and primary factors are then considered in turn. Figure 3 illustrates how an examinee's personality is determined by the 16 PF.

16 PF Technical Information

The 16 PF was originally published in 1946. Through factor analysis, Cattell, a trait theorist, narrowed the number of trait words in the English language to 16. The current edition, the Fifth, was completed in 1993. Items were updated, screened for ambiguity or bias, and new norms were established. Administration takes between 35 and 50 minutes and is available in paper-pencil format or electronically on the internet.

Figure 3. A visual representation of how personality is determined by the 16PF.

Personality	=	Response Style	+	Global Factors	+	Primary Factors
		Impression Management		Extraversion		Warmth
		Acquiescence		Anxiety		Reasoning
		Infrequency		Tough-Mindedness		Emotional Stability
				Independence		Dominance
				Self-Control		Liveliness
						Rule-Consciousness
						Social Boldness
						Sensitivity
						Vigilance
						Abstractness
						Privateness
						Apprehension
						Openness to Change
						Self-Reliance
						Perfectionism
						Tension

The instrument consists of 185 three-choice items. Possible answers to each question are (a) true, (b) ?, or (c) false. Respondents are encouraged to answer (a) or (c) and reserve the "?" if neither (a) nor (c) is "better for you." The paper-pencil version of the test is scored by using the four answer keys supplied by the publisher. Raw scores are then converted into sten, or "standardized ten" scores by using the updating norming table. "To simplify the comparison of an individual's scores across different factor scales, raw scores were normalized to a 10-point scale, thus becoming sten (or "standardized ten") scores. As a result, an individual obtaining the same sten score on two different factor scales will fall at approximately the same percentile rank on both scales, relative to the normative group" (Conn & Rieke, 1998, p.38).

Updated norming of the sten scores was conducted in 2002 using a sample of 10,261 subjects who closely matched the demographics of the 2000 census. The mean sten score in the normative sample was 5.5 with a standard deviation of 2. When

interpreting the results of the assessment, scores of 5 to 6 on any of the scales is considered average. A score of 4 is considered low average; 7 high average. Extreme scores fall below 4 and above 7. "...The extreme scores in a profile usually indicate an examinee's most distinctive traits. Thus, the greater the numbers of extreme scores, the more distinctive the personality expression is likely to be" (Russell & Karol, 2002, p. 26).

Reliability of the 16 PF, Fifth Edition was established in two ways: (1) tests of Internal Consistency and (2) Test-Retest reliability. Three samples, two general population and one of university students, were used to determine internal consistency. The average values for the primary scales ranged from .66 to .86 with a median of .75. The test-retest measure involved two samples of university students. After a two-week lapse, estimates for the primary scales ranged from .69 to .87 with a median of .80. The global factor estimates ranged from .84 to .91 with a median of .87. After a two month lapse, estimates of reliability for the primary scales ranged from .56 to .79 with a median of .69; global scale estimates were .70 to .82 for a median of .80 (Conn & Rieke, 1998).

Construct validity was established by comparing the results of the primary and global scales with the scales of four of the most common and comprehensive instruments of personality measurement; the Personality Research Form-Form E(PRF), the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), the NEO Personality Inventory-Revised (NEO PI-R), and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Favorable result were achieved and are discussed at length in the 16 PF, Fifth Edition Technical Manual (Conn & Rieke, 1998).

Use of the 16 PF

The 16 PF was designed to measure personality traits in normal adults. It has been used in clinical, counseling, and career development settings. The instrument reports the

basics of an individual's personality which is useful in all of these applications. Results lead to an understanding of how to best communicate with each individual, as well as key strengths and weaknesses in the each respondent's makeup. This instrument has been used for couple's counseling and there is a different version of the instrument available for use in these types of counseling settings (Cattell & Schuerger, 2003).

As a tool in the work place, the 16 PF is used extensively for career counseling, new employee selection, and professional development. When used developmentally, application of the understanding of different personality styles is thought to improve communication and team effectiveness.

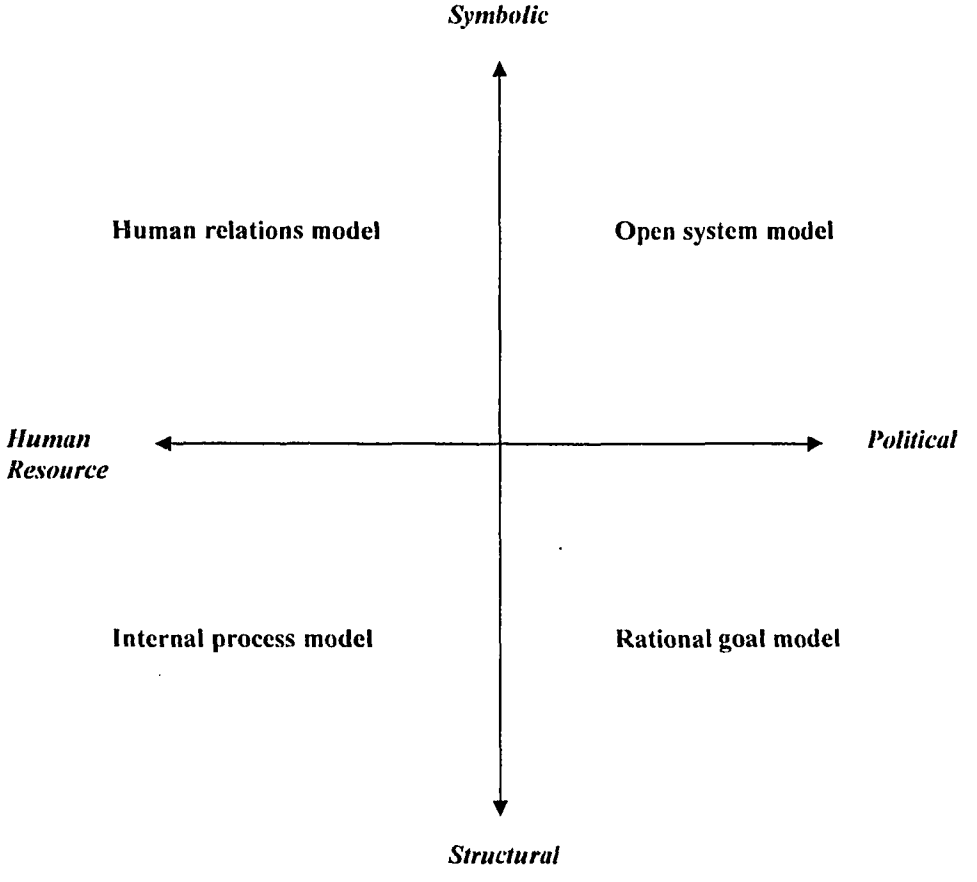
Combining the CVF and the LOS

The Competing Values Framework and the Leadership Orientation Survey share similarities in design and purpose. Both theories were created in response to the plethora of single-style leadership theories and both tout the importance of multiple competencies that can be used situationally. The instruments are also similar in design, intended to measure the use of four main concepts of management and 8 competencies.

Although correlational research comparing the two has not been conducted, Bolman and Deal (1991) suggest an approximate correlation between them. The four frames serve as the axes while the models of the Competing Values Framework fill the quadrants. The vertical axis features the Symbolic Frame at the top and the Structural Frame at the bottom, the horizontal axis places the Human Resource Frame on the left and the Political Frame on the right. The quadrants feature the Human Relations model in the upper left corner. Continuing in a clockwise direction are the Open Systems model,

Rational Goal model, and the Internal Process model in the lower left corner. An illustration of this approximation can be seen in Figure 4.

Figure 4. An approximation of the correlation between the Competing Values Framework and the Leadership Orientation Survey. Source: Bolman and Deal (1991).



Thompson (2000) used these instruments in tandem to explore managerial effectiveness and gender differences. The Leadership Orientation Survey was administered as described previously, measuring perception of how often the leader or manager utilized the skills in each frame. For example, a manager that *sometimes* "thinks very clearly and logically" may receive a 3 on the Likert scale of 1 (never) to 5 (always).

A manager who *always* "shows a high level of support and concern for others" would receive a 5 on that particular statement.

Respondents were then assigned to one of three leadership categories based on their score on each frame compared to the mean of the normative sample established by Bolman and Deal (Bolman, 2004).

To be considered fully balanced, respondents would score above the mean on all four of the leadership frames. To be considered moderately balance, respondents would score above the mean on any three of the four frames. Unbalanced leadership would be indicated by scores above the mean on one or two of the frames.

To add dimension to the results, Thompson (2000) altered the scale of the Competing Values Framework and titled it the Leadership Performance Survey. The same items were used, but the scale and directions were altered to reflect perceptions of managerial effectiveness. Rather than a seven-point Likert scale measuring frequency, this study used a 4 point effectiveness scale where a score of 1 indicates "not effective" and 4 indicates "effective." For example, a manager who is *somewhat* effective in "carefully reviewing detailed reports" may receive a 2 on that item; a manager who is *very effective* at "building teamwork among group members" may receive a 4 on that item.

Scores on each survey compared a particular leader's perceived effectiveness based on the Leadership Performance Survey (CVF) to a leader's perceived skillsets as measured by the Leadership Orientation Survey. Results indicated gender had no significant impact on perceived managerial effectiveness. Results from the Scheffe post hoc analyses, however, found that leaders in the fully balanced group (above the mean on all four

frames of leadership) were perceived by subordinates as most effective (Thompson, 2000).

The Current Study

The current study mirrored Thompson's (2000) use of the CVF and LOS. The LOS was administered as described previously. Results were reported on a Likert scale of 1 (never) to 5 (always), indicating how often a particular leader used each skill. Each leader was assigned to one of three levels of balance. A score above the mean on all four frames indicates a leader who is fully balanced, above the mean on any three frames indicates a moderately balanced leader, and scores above the mean on one or two of the frames will be indicative of an unbalanced leader.

The frequencies determined by the LOS were compared to the results of the CVF. As in Thompson's (2000) study, the current study used an effectiveness scale ranging from 1, not effective to 4, effective. A comparison of these two instruments was intended to illustrate the skillsets used most frequently by successful leaders in the casino industry and their perceived level of effectiveness.

The combination of managerial skill and effectiveness was enhanced by the addition of a personality measure. Training, knowledge, and experience combine to determine the skills used by an individual in a given situation; personality adds insight into why an individual may or may not be considered an effective manager. Personality inventories are often used for career counseling and placement. "A variety of factors help determine whether a person can be a good fit to a job. These factors include but are not limited to ability, career interest, and personality" (Cattell & Schuerger, 2003, p. 222). Based on

personality, generalities and predictions can be made about leadership and managerial potential. For example, leaders tend to receive above average scores on the liveliness, perfection, emotional stability, and dominance scales in combination with below average scores on the abstractedness, tension, sensitivity, and self-reliance scales. Scores predicting management potential generally report average results on the dominance, liveliness, rule-consciousness, sensitivity, abstractedness, privateness, self-reliance, perfectionism, and tension scales; above average scores on the warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, openness to change, and social boldness scales; and slightly below average scores on the vigilance and apprehension scales (Conn & Rieke, 1998, Cattell & Schuerger, 2003, Russell & Karol, 2002).

In addition, the proposed study was designed to validate the use of the LOS, CVF, and 16 PF as developmental tools in a casino environment.

Hypotheses

This study is an intended first step in developing a succession plan, or roadmap, for future executives in the casino industry. Results were expected to identify traits that are shared by successful executives within a major casino organization. The researcher expected to:

1) Find significant correlations between balanced leadership, as determined by the LOS, and perceived effectiveness, as determined by the CVF.
2) Identify trends by job function as determined by perceived use of the skills measured by Section I of the Leadership Orientation Survey and the Leadership Style Rankings as determined by Section II of the same instrument.

3) Identify common personality traits of participants within departments and job functions.
4) Find a significant positive correlation between overall effectiveness as a manager, as determined by question 1 in Section III of the LOS, and above average scores on the warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, openness to change, and social boldness scales of the 16 PF.
5) Find a significant correlation between overall effectiveness as a manager, as determined by the LOS, and slightly below average scores on the vigilance and apprehension scales of the 16PF.
6) Find a significant correlation between overall effectiveness as a leader, as determined by question 2 in Section III of the LOS, and above average scores on the liveliness, perfection, emotional stability, and dominance scales of the 16PF.
7) Find a significant correlation between overall effectiveness as a leader, as determined by the LOS, and below average scores on the abstractedness, tension, sensitivity, and self-reliance scales of the 16PF.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The current study involved a blended method; requiring a qualitative approach to achieve quantitative results. Data from all three instruments was analyzed using statistical software; results were then interpreted for use within the casino environment. "Blending qualitative and quantitative research methods is widely propagated as a strategy for both quality control and enrichment of organization research (Hertog, 2002, p. 1).

Subjects

This study was based on a primary sample of 41 casino executives who were identified as successful leader. Effectiveness was defined by level in the company. Each of these participants was a Director, Vice President, or President working for a major hotel/casino organization in Las Vegas.

The secondary sample was identified by each executive as an appropriate candidate to offer feedback on the executive's performance. Each respondent in this category worked with or for the executive for a minimum of six months. A notation of "subordinate" or "peer" was made on each survey, however respondent data was combined and averaged regardless of notation.

Sampling

Primary research subjects, considered a convenience sample (Glesne, 1999), were selected based on employment with the major casino organization and willingness to

participate in the study. Final selection for inclusion in the study was determined upon receipt of the initial information-gathering survey (Hertog, 2002). These purposeful sampling techniques ensured a small homogenous subject pool from which executive effectiveness can be suggested. "The logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research...(Patton, 1990, 169)" (Glesne, 1999, p. 29).

Variables

Gender is a variable that was considered only in the attempt to involve both men and women in the subject pool. It was the researcher's intention to combine the results of all participants regardless of gender. If, however, the results indicated an unexpected difference in perceived effectiveness or personality differences across gender lines, those would be reported.

Department and job function were considered as a variable. For example, results from executives in finance and accounting fields would be compared to the results from executives in casino marketing. In this way, effectiveness criteria may be suggested more specifically by job classification.

Instruments

A demographic questionnaire was completed by all participants that included items such as (1) What is your current position and (2) What is your level of education? See Appendix B to view the entire instrument.

A presentation was made to the executive committees from three of the properties within the hotel casino organization. Executives volunteered to take part in the research.

Once the pool of participants was identified, each was asked to complete three additional instruments. The Competing Values Framework, the Leadership Orientation Survey, and the 16 PF. Upon completion of these three instruments, participants were asked to identify 10 peers or subordinates to be included in the feedback portion of the study. These respondents completed The Competing Values Framework and the Leadership Orientation Survey on behalf of the executive participant.

Anonymity

Utilizing a purposeful sample often brings maintenance of anonymity to the fore. The original survey participants, effective leaders, were not anonymous. The leaders' names were attached to each instrument until all corresponding instruments were received and data entered into a database.

Secondary participants, those identified by each executive, however, were completely anonymous. The secondary subject pool was contacted and asked to complete the Competing Values Framework and the Leadership Orientation Survey on the internet. In addition to the questions, two fields were added to the questionnaires. An open field in which was typed the name of the executive for whom s/he was completing the instruments and a drop down field which required the participant to identify whether s/he is a subordinate or a peer of the executive.

Human Subjects Research

Approval to conduct research on human subjects was received from the Internal Review Board at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas on October 25, 2005 prior to conducting research and collecting data. Renewal of the approval was granted on October 18, 2006. Data were collected between March of 2006 and January 2007.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS OF THE CURRENT STUDY

Executive teams within a major hotel/casino corporation in Las Vegas were asked to take part in this research study. Forty-one executives (primary participants) from three resort properties volunteered to participate. Each executive received a packet which included the required Informed Consent and the research materials. These materials included the demographic survey, the 16 PF (Personality Factor Questionnaire), the Competing Values Framework (CVF), and the Leadership Orientation Survey (LOS). Each executive participant identified 10 peers or subordinates who were asked to complete the Competing Values Framework and Leadership Orientation Survey on his or her behalf. Copies of the instruments are included in Appendices E and F.

The subordinate/peer contributors (the secondary research sample) completed the two surveys (CVF and LOS) electronically after acknowledging consent to participate. Two hundred seventy-five Competing Values Framework assessments were completed and two hundred sixty-one Leadership Orientation Surveys were completed. Feedback reports ranged from as many as 11 for some executives, to as few as three for others. The discrepancy in secondary feedback reports may be due to an unwillingness of some peers or subordinates to participate, computer error or a misunderstanding of the number of assessments to be completed. Three hundred sixteen total subjects participated in this study. In their research, Thompson (2000) and Bolman and Deal (1991) chose to include

only the results of the secondary subjects. In the current study, results of the secondary subject responses will be presented alongside those of the primary subject self-report responses.

The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Secondary subject responses were combined and averaged in order to compare and correlate instrument outcomes with the self report assessments completed by primary participants.

The personality assessment was hand scored, after which results were entered into SPSS. The 16 individual measures of personality were included as well as the five global factors of extroversion, anxiety, tough-mindedness, independence, and self-control. Extraversion was determined by combining scores from the warmth, liveliness, social boldness, privateness, and self-reliance subscales. Anxiety was determined by combining the scores from the emotional stability, vigilance, apprehension, and tension subscales. Tough-mindedness was determined by combining scores from the warmth, sensitivity, abstractedness, and openness to change subscales. Independence was determined by combining scores from the dominance, social boldness, vigilance, and openness to change subscales. Finally, self-control was determined by combining scores from the liveliness, abstractedness, rule-consciousness, and perfectionism subscales.

The results of the Competing Values Framework were tallied and averaged to determine the outcomes in each of the 8 roles and the four models. The Rational Goal Model was determined by averaging the scores of the Producer and Director roles. The Producer Role was determined by averaging the results on questions 3, 13, 24, 29, and 33, and the Director Role was determined by averaging the results on questions 4, 6, 31,

and 35. The Open Systems Model was determined by averaging the scores of the Broker and Innovator roles. The Broker Role was determined by averaging the scores on questions 2, 20, 28, and 34. The Innovator Role was determined by averaging the scores on questions 1, 5, 17, and 25. The Human Resource Model was determined by combining the average scores from the Facilitator and Mentor roles. The Facilitator Role was determined by questions 9, 12, 14, 21, and 30. The Mentor Role was determined by the scores on questions 10, 16, 18, and 32. The Internal Process Model was determined by averaging the scores of the Monitor and Coordinator roles. The Monitor Role was determined by averaging the responses to questions 15, 19, 22, and 27. The Coordinator Role was determined by questions 7, 8, 11, 23, 26, and 36.

The results of the Leadership Orientation Survey were reached in the same fashion. The Structural Frame is made up of two sub-frames; Analytic as determined by averaging the scores from questions 1, 9, 17, and 25, and Organized as determined by questions 5, 13, 21, and 29. The Human Resource Frame is made up of the Supportive sub-frame as determined by questions 2, 10, 18, and 26; the Participative sub-frame of questions 6, 14, 22, and 30. The Political Frame is made up of the Powerful sub-frame as determined by questions 3, 11, 19, and 27 and the Adroit sub-frame as determined by questions 7, 15, 23, and 31. Finally, the Symbolic Frame was determined by combining the Inspirational sub-frame of questions 4, 12, 20, and 28 with the Charismatic sub-frame of 8, 16, 24, and 32.

In order to determine commonalities by job category, executives were divided into groups by similarity of job function. Two separate divisions were created: a two-group division and a five-group division. The first division split executives into departments

with direct customer contact and departments that do not typically have direct contact with customers or what is commonly called "back of house". The second division split executives into five categories, 1) human resources (HR) and training, 2) hotel operations, 3) marketing, advertising, and sales, 4) finance, analysis, and administration, and 5) casino operations. In order to confirm the appropriateness of departmental grouping assignments, four people were enlisted to assign departments to categories. Two of the four were members of the executive sample; two were selected as management level employees with an understanding of the hotel/casino organization and job functions. A consensus was reached as three of the four were in full agreement with the researcher on category placement. The fourth agreed on the majority of grouping assignments. For a complete listing of the category assignments and rationale, see Appendix G.

The Demographic Survey

The demographic survey resulted in the collection of demographic data about the executive participants. A total of 41 executives volunteered to participate; the breakdown by title was as follows: 21 were Directors, 17 were Vice Presidents, and three were Presidents. The average executive age was 42.76 years, with a broad range from 25 to 63. As seen in Table 1 the greatest age range and standard deviation were experienced at the Director level, the smallest range and standard deviation at the President level. Consistent with the hierarchy in a corporate environment, there are more executives at the Director level than at the Vice President or President level.

There were 30 males in the executive sample and 11 females. Ten of the executives hold a High School diploma; one had some college, five held Associate's Degrees, 18

held Bachelor's Degrees, 6 held Graduate Degrees, and one held an Honorary Doctorate. Length of time in current position averaged 4.22 years, with a range from six months to 28 years.

Table 1: Average age of executive participants by title.

Title	Range	Mean/SD
Director N=21	25-63 yrs	42.19 yrs (10.42)
Vice President N-14	33-58 yrs	43.64 yrs (8.29)
President N=3	44-47 yrs	46 yrs (1.73)

Years in the casino industry ranged from 3 to 31 years for an average of 15.84 years. Length of time in the hospitality industry ranged from 3 to 32 years for an average of 17.7 years. Executives who were higher in the organization typically had been in their current position for a shorter period, although they had generally been working in the casino and/or hospitality industry for a longer time period.

Question six of the demographic survey asked "To what do you attribute your success in the hotel/casino industry?" As anticipated, there was a broad range of responses, however common themes emerged. Thirty-seven percent of the executives (n = 15) attributed their success to a "strong work ethic" or "hard work". Twenty-four percent of the executives attributed their success to "interpersonal" or "communication skills." Twenty-two percent credited a "strong willingness to learn." The top three responses were followed by leadership/management skills, mentors/supportive company, drive, flexibility, attitude/belief in self, aptitude, focus, education, and passion. Table 2

indicates the frequencies of individual responses to the question "To what do you attribute your success?"

Table 2. Success factor frequencies.

Success Factor	Frequency
Strong Work Ethic/Hard Work	15
Interpersonal/Communication Skills	10
Willingness to Learn	9
Leadership/Management Skills	8
Mentors/Support of Company	7
Drive	6
Aptitude	5
Attitude	5
Flexibility	5
Focus	4
Education	4
Passion	4
Expertise/Experience	4
Embrace Values/Integrity	3
Luck	3
Preparation	2
Follow Through	2
Discipline	2
Common Sense	2
Personal Responsibility	2

Hypotheses Results

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 was to examine correlations between balanced leadership as determined by the LOS, and perceived effectiveness, as determined by the CVF.

Hypothesis one was that there would be significant positive correlations between balanced leadership as determined by the LOS and perceived effectiveness as determined by the CVF. Balanced leadership was determined by skill use as measured in Section I of the LOS and perceived effectiveness was determined by both the results of the CVF and

Section III of the LOS. To be considered fully balanced, respondents needed to score above the mean on all four of the leadership frames. Moderate balance was defined as scores above the mean on any three of the four frames. Unbalanced leadership was indicated by a score above the mean on one or two of the frames. The expectation was that a positive correlation would exist between balanced leadership and perceived effectiveness. Results were in alignment with this prediction. As balance increased, so too did perceived effectiveness. Results of primary respondent data showed that ten participants saw themselves as fully balanced, seven participants saw themselves as moderately balanced, and twenty-four participants saw themselves as unbalanced in their leadership styles (see table 4). Results of secondary respondent data show subordinate/peers scored twenty-four executive as fully balanced, five executives as moderately balanced, and twelve executives as unbalanced in their leadership styles (see table 5).

Results for hypothesis one indicate a lack of agreement between the primary respondents' self report surveys and the perception of the secondary respondents. As seen in Table 3, when looking at primary and secondary responses separately, significant positive correlations exist between balance and effectiveness of skill use. The self report surveys of the primary subjects indicate correlations to the .01 level of significance on all categories with the exception of the Coordinator Role, which reports significance to the .05 level of confidence. Secondary responses indicate a significant positive correlation between balance and effectiveness of skill use at the .01 level. There is a distinct lack of agreement between primary and secondary responses as evidenced by many negative correlations (see table 3).

The means and standard deviations of each level of balance and effectiveness of skill use show how effectiveness increases with balance. Table 4 indicates the balance and effectiveness of skill use as determined by the four models and the eight roles of the Competing Values Framework. As balance increases, effectiveness of skill use increases, with the exception of the Broker role. In this instance, the moderately balanced sample had the highest perceived effectiveness in that role.

Table 5 illustrates the results determined by the secondary subject responses to effectiveness of skill use as determined by the Competing Values Framework and fully, moderately, or unbalanced styles of leadership as determined by the Leadership Orientation Survey. With the exception of the HR model and the Mentor role within the model, these results are consistent with the expectation. The unexpected result is that unbalanced leaders seem to be more effective Mentors than moderately balanced leaders. This category also shows the broadest range of responses with the greatest standard deviations. Nevertheless, the fully balanced leader is perceived as being the most effective Mentor.

Spearman's rho correlations supported these findings. For primary respondents, the correlation between balance and the Rational Goal model was .507 *($p < .01$)*. The correlation between balance and the Open Systems model was .598 *($p < .01$)*. The correlation between balance and the Human Resource model was .559 *($p < .01$)*. The correlation between balance and the Internal Process model was .433 *($p < .01$)*. For secondary respondents, the correlation between balance and the Rational Goal model was .653 *($p < .01$)*. The correlation between balance and the Open Systems model was .722 *(p*

$< .01$). The correlation between balance and the Human Resource model was .707 ($p < .01$). The correlation between balance and the Internal Process model was .726 ($p < .01$).

Table 4. Means and standard deviations of each model and role of the CVF by balance for primary subjects.

Primary	All Cases N=41	Fully Balanced N=10	Moderately Balanced N=7	Un-balanced N=24
Producer	3.33 (.41)	3.64 (.34)	3.43 (.35)	3.18 (.39)
Director	3.15 (.54)	3.63 (.36)	3.25 (.58)	2.93 (.46)
Rational Goal Model	3.25 (.43)	3.64 (.32)	3.35 (.42)	3.07 (.36)
Broker	3.23 (.54)	3.50 (.39)	3.71 (.27)	2.98 (.50)
Innovator	3.19 (.50)	3.60 (.41)	3.21 (.34)	3.01 (.47)
Open Systems Model	3.21 (.44)	3.55 (.33)	3.46 (.27)	2.99 (.40)
Facilitator	3.12 (.43)	3.46 (.40)	3.29 (.34)	2.93 (.37)
Mentor	3.29 (.57)	3.65 (.54)	3.25 (.32)	3.15 (.59)
HR Model	3.19 (.43)	3.54 (.41)	3.27 (.27)	3.03 (.39)
Monitor	3.31 (.42)	3.60 (.34)	3.39 (.32)	3.17 (.43)
Coordinator	3.18 (.42)	3.47 (.32)	3.12 (.13)	3.08 (.47)
Internal Process Model	3.23 (.39)	3.52 (.31)	3.23 (.18)	3.11 (.40)

Results of the correlations between balance and effectiveness as measured by questions one and two in Section III of the Leadership Orientation Survey were not as clear.

Table 3. Correlations between balanced leadership as determined by Section I of the LOS and the effectiveness of skill use as determined by the CVF.

	Balance Primary	Balance Secondary
Producer Primary	.468** .002	.041 .798
Producer Secondary	-.142 .375	.720** .000
Director Primary	.460** .002	.081 .615
Director Secondary	-.153 .340	.819** .000
R G Model Primary	.511** .001	.067 .677
R G Model Secondary	-.172 .282	.760** .000
Broker Primary	.509** .001	.193 .227
Broker Secondary	-.147 .358	.601** .000
Innovator Primary	.520** .000	-.173 .280
Innovator Secondary	-.063 .695	.701** .000
OS Model Primary	.598** .000	.020 .900
OS Model Secondary	-.115 .474	.699** .000
Facilitator Primary	.543** .000	.061 .705
Facilitator Secondary	-.026 .873	.691** .000
Mentor Primary	.445** .004	-.059 .714
Mentor Secondary	.035 .830	.448** .003
HR Model Primary	.565** .000	.002 .992
HR Model Secondary	-.001 .996	.627** .000
Monitor Primary	.435** .004	.213 .181
Monitor Secondary	-.237 .135	.665** .000
Coordinator Primary	.326* .037	.101 .529
Coordinator Secondary	-.373 .016	.732** .000
IP Model Primary	.406** .008	.161 .316
IP Model Secondary	-.285 .070	.803** .000

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

Relationships from the primary respondent answers were not significant, although they were positive. Results from the secondary respondents were significant to the .01 level of confidence. These correlations are displayed in Table 6. There is a considerable lack of agreement between primary and secondary reports.

Table 5. Means and standard deviations of each model and role of the CVF by balance for secondary subjects.

Secondary	All Cases N=41	Fully Balanced N=24	Moderately Balanced N=5	Un-balanced N=12
Producer	3.43 (.35)	3.58 (.20)	3.56 (.11)	3.06 (.38)
Director	3.33 (.36)	3.54 (.20)	3.29 (.28)	2.91 (.26)
Rational Goal Model	3.40 (.33)	3.57 (.19)	3.44 (.17)	3.04 (.34)
Broker	3.41 (.39)	3.59 (.26)	3.33 (.36)	3.09 (.42)
Innovator	3.39 (.34)	3.58 (.23)	3.28 (.18)	3.06 (.32)
Open Systems Model	3.40 (.34)	3.58 (.23)	3.31 (.25)	3.07 (.31)
Facilitator	3.19 (.33)	3.39 (.21)	2.94 (.32)	2.90 (.23)
Mentor	3.35 (.40)	3.54 (.28)	3.01 (.26)	3.11 (.44)
HR Model	3.26 (.32)	3.45 (.21)	2.97 (.13)	3.00 (.29)
Monitor	3.40 (.34)	3.55 (.24)	3.50 (.29)	3.07 (.33)
Coordinator	3.27 (.39)	3.49 (.18)	3.25 (.33)	2.84 (.38)
Internal Process Model	3.31 (.36)	3.51 (.20)	3.35 (.30)	2.88 (.29)

Means and standard deviations of results on balance and effectiveness of skill use can be found in Appendix H. Although the correlations concerning primary subjects are not significant, the data indicate an increase in effectiveness as balance increases. Likewise,

respondents who scored themselves highest (4 or 5) on leadership and managerial effectiveness tended to be more balanced in their skill use compared to respondents who scored themselves lower. Means and standard deviations of the results from secondary subjects can also be found in Appendix H.

Table 6. Correlations between balance, as determined by Section I of the LOS and Manager or Leadership Effectiveness as determined by Section III of the LOS.

	Mgr. Effect. Prim.	Mgr. Effect. Sec.	Ldrshp Effect. Prim.	Ldrshp Effect. Sec.	Bal. Prim.	Bal. Sec.
Manager Effectiveness Primary						
Manager Effectiveness Secondary	.387* .012					
Leadership Effectiveness Primary	.492** .001	.204 .202				
Leadership Effectiveness Secondary	.494** .001	.814** .000	.336* .032			
Balance Primary	.134 .405	-.208 .192	.284 .072	-.031 .845		
Balance Secondary	.353* .023	.771** .000	.167 .298	.744** .000	-.131 .416	

*p < .05. ** p < .01.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 was to attempt to identify trends by job function as determined by perceived use of the skills measured by Section I of the Leadership Orientation Survey and the Leadership Style Rankings as determined by Section II of the same instrument.

Hypothesis two was that trends by job function would be discernable upon inspection of the skills measured by Section I of the Leadership Orientation Survey as well as the Leadership Style Rankings as determined by Section II of the same instrument.

Section I of the Leadership Orientation Survey asked the respondent to rate the frequency of the use of each particular skill. Results of this section indicated how often each of these skills is used in a particular department. A score of one (1) equals never; five (5) equals always.

In general the primary participants thought the frame they most commonly used was the Structural Frame, followed by the Human Resource, Political, and Symbolic Frames. The secondary sample agreed that the most commonly used frame was the Structural and the lowest used was Symbolic, but placed the frequency of skill use from the Political Frame higher than that of the Human Resource Frame. The customer contact departments were in full agreement with the population as a whole. Agreement was reached by both primary and secondary subjects. The back of the house departments believed the Human Resource Frame to be most used, followed by the Structural, Political, and Symbolic Frames. The secondary respondents were in agreement with the back of house frequency of skill use.

When broken into the five smaller divisions of 1) human resources and training; 2) hotel operations; 3) marketing, advertising, and sales; 4) finance, analysis, and administration; and 5) casino operations, the frequencies of skill use trends are not as clear. For instance, the casino operations; hotel operations, and marketing, advertising, and sales divisions show the most frequent skill used is the Structural Frame, which is the least common skill used by the human resources and training division. The Symbolic

Frame is the least used skill in both the hotel operations and finance, analysis, and administration divisions. Table 7 indicates the results of Section I of the Leadership Orientation Survey. The rows list each department beginning with the cumulative scores of all executives. The columns indicate each frame of the Leadership Orientation Survey broken into primary and secondary responses under which are the means, rankings, and standard deviations.

Table 7. Means, standard deviations, and rankings of skills as determined by Section I of the LOS.

	Structural		Human Resources		Political		Symbolic	
	Prim.	Sec.	Prim.	Sec.	Prim.	Sec.	Prim.	Sec.
All Execs.	4.07 4 (.48)	4.27 4 (.46)	4.06 3 (.47)	4.21 2 (.38)	3.85 2 (.48)	4.23 3 (.43)	3.84 1 (.60)	4.17 1 (.44)
Customer Contact	4.14 4 (.35)	4.23 4 (.43)	4.00 3 (.44)	4.13 2 (.38)	3.84 1 (.44)	4.18 3 (.42)	3.89 2 (.55)	4.12 1 (.41)
Back of House	3.95 3 (.65)	4.35 4 (.51)	4.17 4 (.52)	4.35 3 (.35)	3.88 2 (.56)	4.32 2 (.44)	3.74 1 (.69)	4.27 1 (.49)
Casino	4.31 4 (.26)	4.18 3 (.36)	4.02 2 (.46)	4.15 1 (.38)	4.00 1 (.46)	4.19 4 (.46)	4.08 3 (.62)	4.15 2 (.45)
Hotel	4.22 4 (.46)	4.40 3 (.44)	4.06 3 (.50)	4.70 4 (.44)	3.81 2 (.51)	4.26 2 (.47)	3.72 1 (.59)	4.19 1 (.45)
Mrktg, Etc.	4.08 4 (.30)	4.17 1 (.53)	4.02 3 (.33)	4.27 4 (.33)	3.71 1 (.42)	4.27 3 (.32)	4.00 2 (.29)	4.20 2 (.43)
HR & Training	3.69 1 (.93)	4.06 1 (.69)	4.23 4 (.65)	4.34 4 (.30)	4.04 3 (.43)	4.18 2 (.60)	3.96 2 (.79)	4.27 3 (.55)
Finance, Etc.	4.02 3 (.17)	4.51 4 (.27)	4.02 4 (.51)	4.26 2 (.45)	3.63 2 (.57)	4.27 3 (.25)	3.35 1 (.37)	4.05 1 (.43)

Section II of the Leadership Orientation Survey was used to determine what skills were perceived as most like the executive sample. These results show what skills are generally promoted as important in each of the groupings. Section II of the survey lists six sets of four skills. Respondents were asked to place a four (4) by the skill that best

described them down to one (1), the skill that least described them. In each of the six sets, line one indicated the Structural Frame, line two indicated the Human Resource Frame, line three indicated the Political Frame, and line four indicated the Symbolic Frame.

Results of this section of the Leadership Orientation Survey indicate which of the skills are most common among the executive sample. In general, these executives scored themselves highest in the Structural Frame, followed by the Human Resource Frame, the Symbolic Frame, and the Political Frame. The secondary sample agreed with the primary sample in the highest ranking of Structural Frame, but scored the Political Frame as second followed by the Human Resource, and Symbolic Frames.

When separated into smaller divisions, the primary and secondary scores differ by varying degrees. The division that showed the greatest variance from the common primary participant trend was human resources and training within the five-group division. Both the primary and secondary participants in the human resources and training group scored highest in the Human Resource Frame. Both sets of participants also agreed that the second most common skill set used was the Symbolic Frame. In general the other executives scored the Structural Frame highest in skill use. The secondary sample in the human resources and training group scored the Political Frame third, with the Structural Frame being the lowest skill set used. The primary sample scored the Political Frame lowest placing the Structural Frame at number two. Table 8 indicates the results of Section II of the Leadership Orientation Survey. The rows list each department beginning with the cumulative scores of all executives. The columns indicate each frame of the Leadership Orientation Survey broken into primary and secondary responses under which are the means, rankings, and standard deviations.

There is consistency among the results of both Sections I and II for all executives. The primary respondents seemed to use the Structural Frame most often, followed by the Human Resource Frame, Political Frame, with the lowest skill use practiced overall being the Symbolic Frame. The secondary respondents scored the executives highest in the Structural Frame, followed by the Political Frame, Human Resource, and finally, the Symbolic Frame.

Table 8. Means, standard deviations, and rankings of skills as determined by Section II of the LOS.

	Structural		Human Resources		Political		Symbolic	
	Prim.	Sec.	Prim.	Sec.	Prim.	Sec.	Prim.	Sec.
All Execs.	2.99 4 (.86)	2.82 4 (.75)	2.73 3 (.58)	2.45 2 (.54)	1.96 1 (.50)	2.45 3 (.42)	2.32 2 (.87)	2.28 1 (.65)
Customer Contact	3.11 4 (.66)	2.87 4 (.67)	2.64 3 (.58)	2.29 1 (.52)	1.94 1 (.49)	2.51 3 (.40)	2.31 2 (.79)	2.32 2 (.51)
Back of House	2.80 3 (.1.11)	2.72 4 (.88)	2.87 4 (.57)	2.71 3 (.48)	2.00 1 (.53)	2.32 2 (.43)	2.33 2 (1.02)	2.22 1 (.85)
Casino	2.87 4 (.70)	2.81 4 (.74)	2.58 3 (.64)	2.36 1 (.64)	2.03 1 (.44)	2.43 3 (.41)	2.51 2 (.86)	2.40 2 (.55)
Hotel	3.19 4 (.57)	3.04 4 (.52)	2.71 3 (.49)	2.25 2 (.35)	1.90 1 (.48)	2.52 3 (.42)	2.19 2 (.59)	2.21 1 (.56)
Mrktg, Etc.	3.11 4 (.79)	2.46 2 (.68)	2.72 3 (.62)	2.41 1 (.53)	1.78 1 (.58)	2.48 3 (.44)	2.39 2 (1.04)	2.65 4 (.46)
HR & Training	2.22 2 (1.12)	2.03 1 (.77)	3.06 4 (.76)	2.99 4 (.56)	2.03 1 (.57)	2.35 2 (.23)	2.69 3 (1.09)	2.63 3 (.84)
Finance, Etc.	3.44 4 (1.05)	3.54 4 (.32)	2.67 3 (.48)	2.49 3 (.39)	2.08 2 (.57)	2.38 2 (.62)	1.81 1 (.95)	1.51 1 (.25)

Hypotheses 3 - 7

Hypotheses three through seven concern the results of the16 PF. Table 9 located in the pocket, shows the results of the 16 PF. The rows are the raw scores for each of the 16 personality factors and the sten scores of the global factors. The columns show the breakdown by level of executive as well as by department.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 was to attempt to identify common personality traits of participants within departments and job functions.

Hypothesis three was that personality traits might differ by department. In order to get a clearer picture of the personalities associated with different jobs and divisions, the results of the 16 PF were combined for all participants and then separated by job function. For the first set, participants were separated into two divisions: customer contact and back of house. For the second set, participants were separated into five divisions: 1) human resources and training; 2) hotel operations; 3) marketing, advertising, and sales; 4) finance, analysis, and administration; 5) casino operations. For a complete breakdown of job titles in each division, see Appendix G.

The discussion on personality begins with a look at the differences between departments as seen in the results of the global factors of extroversion, anxiety, tough-mindedness, independence, and self control.

Extroversion

Lower scores on extroversion indicate an introverted person who is more socially inhibited, where higher scores indicate someone who tends to be more social. Extroversion is made up of positive scores on the warmth, liveliness, and social boldness subscales combined with negative scores on the privateness and self-reliance subscales. As a group, the Presidents scored higher than the Directors or Vice Presidents on the extroversion factor. Their scores on warmth, liveliness, and social boldness were the highest of the three. Although they scored highest on privateness, their self-reliance scores are consistent with the expectation and are the lowest of the three.

The department with the highest extroversion score was human resources and training. Of all departments they tended to be the highest with respect to scores on the warmth, liveliness, and social boldness subscales. Although not the lowest scorers on privateness and self-reliance, these scores were low. The department with the lowest score on extroversion was the finance, analysis, and administration department. These executives scored lowest on the warmth, liveliness and social boldness subscales. The privateness subscale score is in the mid-range, while the self-reliance score was higher than all other departments.

Anxiety

The global anxiety factor is determined by a negative score on the emotional stability subscale in combination with positive scores on the vigilance, apprehension, and tension subscales. The executives with the highest anxiety scores were the Presidents. The Presidents' scores on the emotional stability and apprehension subscales were in the middle between the other two executive levels; however their vigilance and tension scores were the highest of the three. Executives in the human resources and training department scored lowest on the anxiety scale. They scored highest on the emotional stability subscale of all departments. The apprehension score was in the mid-range while vigilance and tension were the lowest of all departments studied.

Self Control

The self control factor is determined by negative scores on the liveliness and abstractedness subscales in combination with positive scores on the rule consciousness and perfectionism subscales. A low score on the self control factor indicates an unrestrained person who is apt to follow personal urges. A high score on the self control

factor indicates a restrained person who inhibits personal urges. The Directors were the executive group with the highest self control rating. This is attributable to the high scores on the rule consciousness and perfectionism subscales. A look at departments indicates that participants from the hotel operations division scored highest on self control attributable to the high scores on the rule consciousness and perfectionism subscales. The division with the lowest score on self control was human resources and training. This low score on self control is attributable to the high scores on the liveliness and abstractedness subscales.

Tough-mindedness

The tough-mindedness factor is determined by negative scores on the warmth, sensitivity, abstractedness, and openness to change subscales. A low score on tough-mindedness would indicate an open-minded, receptive, and intuitive personality, while a high score on this factor would indicate a more unyielding, less empathetic personality. The levels of tough-mindedness by executive rank are very similar. Directors and Vice Presidents have nearly identical scores with the Presidents scoring only slightly lower. The marketing, advertising, and sales division scored highest on the tough-mindedness factor. Each of the warmth, sensitivity, and abstractedness subscale scores is in the mid-range of all respondents, attributing the high score on tough-mindedness to the low score on the openness to change subscale. The hotel operations division's score on the tough-mindedness factor is only slightly lower than that of the marketing, advertising, and sales division. This is attributable to this division having scored lowest on the abstractedness and sensitivity subscales. The casino operations division scored lowest on this factor

which is attributable to the high scores on the openness to change and abstractedness subscales.

Independence

The independence factor is determined by positive scores on the dominance, social boldness, vigilance, and openness to change subscales. A low score on the independence factor indicates an accommodating, agreeable personality; a high score on the independence factor indicates a more persuasive, willful personality. The Presidents scored highest of the three levels of executives on this factor. As a group, they scored highest on all of the subscales that combine to determine the independence factor; the dominance, social boldness, vigilance, and openness to change subscales. The division with the highest score on the independence factor is the casino operations division. This is attributable to the high scores on the dominance and openness to change subscales. The division with the lowest score on the independence factor is the back of house. Although the back of house departments did not score lowest of all departments in any of these four subscales, the scores are consistently in the low range for all four factors.

In general, when compared to customer contact departments, back of house departments scored higher on the warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, liveliness, rule consciousness, sensitivity, apprehension, self-reliance, and perfectionism subscales. These departments in general scored lower in the areas of dominance, social boldness, vigilance, abstractedness, privateness, openness to change, and tension.

In looking at the five divisions, the human resources and training departments scored the highest on the warmth subscale. They were also the highest scorers on social boldness, emotional stability, and sensitivity subscales. Executives in the human

resources and training department tended to score low in the areas of vigilance, self reliance, and tension.

Individuals in the marketing, advertising, and sales and human resources and training divisions scored the lowest on the rule consciousness subscale. Those in the finance, analysis, and administration division scored lowest in the areas of social boldness, warmth, and dominance. They scored highest in the areas of apprehension, self-reliance, and tension. Individuals in the finance, analysis, and administration, casino operations, and hotel operations divisions show an inclination toward openness to change.

Along with an openness to change, executives represented in the hotel and casino operations departments scored higher on the dominance and perfectionism subscales. Both areas also displayed a trend toward lower sensitivity. Except for human resources and training, the casino operations division scored lowest on the self-reliance subscale.

When considering executives by level in the company, Presidents scored not only highest of the three executive levels on the warmth subscale, but they also scored higher than the normative sample. The Presidents scored notably higher on the dominance, liveliness, social boldness, sensitivity, abstractedness, privateness, and tension subscales. Of the three levels, the Presidents in the sample scored the lowest on the self-reliance subscale.

In general, the Directors scored the highest on the rule-consciousness, apprehension, self-reliance, and perfectionism subscales. Of the three levels of executives, the Vice Presidents showed the highest scores on the emotional stability subscale, but the lowest scores on the dominance, social boldness, sensitivity, abstractedness, privateness, openness to change, perfectionism, and tension subscales.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 was to determine whether there is a significant, positive correlation between overall effectiveness as a manager, as determined by question 1 in Section III of the LOS, and above average scores on the warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, openness to change, and social boldness subscales of the 16 PF.

Hypothesis four was to examine the correlation between overall effectiveness as a manager and above average scores on the warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, openness to change, and social boldness subscales in order to determine whether these characteristics are related. Although the 16 PF is a self report measure and was not completed by the secondary sample, correlations were run based on the primary and secondary responses to question 1, section III and tabulated accordingly. Table 10 illustrates the relationships between these factors of the 16PF and effectiveness as a manager. The correlations were not significant. There were, however, negative relationships between effectiveness and the warmth, openness to change, and social boldness subscales for both primary and secondary respondents. Results indicated a positive although not significant relationship between manager effectiveness and the reasoning and emotional stability subscales.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 was to determine whether there is a significant correlation between overall effectiveness as a manager, as determined by the LOS, and slightly below average scores on the vigilance and apprehension subscales of the 16PF.

Table 10. Hypothesis 4. Correlations between manager effectiveness and subscales of the 16PF.

(Raw Scores from 16 PF)	Manager Effectiveness Primary	Manager Effectiveness Secondary
Warmth	-.291 .065	-.148 .356
Reasoning	.210 .188	.196 .218
Emotional Stability	.273 .084	.125 .436
Openness to Change	-.004 .980	-.168 .295
Social Boldness	-.256 .107	-.028 .864

Hypothesis five was to examine the correlation between manager effectiveness and below average scores on the vigilance and apprehension subscales in order to determine whether these characteristics are related. Table 11 illustrates the correlations between effectiveness as a manager and these scales of the 16 PF. The correlations were not significant. The positive relationship between vigilance and effectiveness was unexpected. The negative relationship between apprehension and effectiveness, however, falls in the predicted direction.

Table 11. Hypothesis 5. Correlations between manager effectiveness and subscales of the 16PF.

Raw Scores, 16 PF	Manager Effectiveness Primary	Manager Effectiveness Secondary
Vigilance	.249 .116	.279 .077
Apprehension	-.219 .170	-.197 .218

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 was to examine the correlation between overall effectiveness as a leader, as determined by question two in Section III of the LOS, and above average scores on the liveliness, perfection, emotional stability, and dominance scales of the 16PF.

Hypothesis six was to determine whether there is a significant positive correlation between leadership effectiveness and the liveliness, perfection, emotional stability, and dominance subscales of the 16 PF. Table 12 illustrates these relationships. The primary respondent self report on effectiveness resulted in significant, positive correlations between the liveliness and emotional stability subscale scores and effectiveness. The relationship between the dominance subscale score and effectiveness was positive, though not significant, while relationship between the perfection subscale score and effectiveness was negative, though not significant. The secondary participant responses to effectiveness resulted in positive, although not significant, relationships between the perfection, emotional stability, and dominance subscales and effectiveness. The relationship between the liveliness subscale and effectiveness is negative, although not significant.

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 was to determine whether there is a significant correlation between overall effectiveness as a leader, as determined by the LOS, and below average scores on the abstractedness, tension, sensitivity, and self-reliance subscales of the 16 PF.

Table 12. Hypothesis 6. Correlations between effectiveness and subscales of the 16 PF.

Raw Scores, 16PF	Leader Effectiveness Primary	Leader Effectiveness Secondary
Liveliness	.347* .026	-.047 .770
Perfection	-.173 .279	.132 .410
Emotional Stability	.355* .023	.221 .164
Dominance	.283 .073	.149 .352

* $p < .05$.

Hypothesis seven was to examine the correlations between leadership effectiveness and the abstractedness, tension, sensitivity, and self-reliance subscales of the 16 PF in order to determine whether these characteristics are related. Table 13 illustrates the relationship between leadership effectiveness and the 16 PF. There were no significant correlations between leadership and these 16 PF subscales. The primary responses resulted in negative relationships between leadership effectiveness and the tension, sensitivity, and self-reliance subscales. The relationship between effectiveness and the abstractedness subscale score is in the positive direction. The secondary responses resulted in negative, although not significant, relationships between leadership effectiveness and the abstractedness, tension, and sensitivity subscale scores. There was a positive, although not significant, relationship between effectiveness and self-reliance.

Table 13. Hypothesis 7. Correlations between leadership effectiveness and subscales of the 16 PF.

Raw Scores, 16 PF	Leader Effectiveness Primary	Leader Effectiveness Secondary
Abstractedness	.134 .402	-.099 .538
Tension	-.011 .947	-.073 .650
Sensitivity	-.294 .062	-.050 .758
Self Reliance	-.298 .058	.107 .506

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion of Results

The discussion section will begin with the limitations of the current study, after which will follow an explanation of the results of each hypothesis, followed by potential uses for the information. Recommendations for future research will conclude the discussion section.

Limitations

This study was limited in five ways. First, the instruments are limited in that they are all self-report questionnaires; results are determined by the awareness and honesty of the individual completing the assessment. Second, although the feedback provided from peers and subordinates in the secondary sample was anonymous, participants may not have felt secure in responding honestly; they may have been concerned with the possibility of retaliation. Third, the purposeful sample limited the generalizability of the results. Although the results indicated certain traits and behaviors of the selected sample, these results are not necessarily true for all casino executives. Fourth, the executive participants were divided into departments with similar job titles/functions rather than exact job titles/functions. An ideal subject pool would allow for exact comparison (e.g., ten Directors of food and beverage would be grouped together for comparison). A much larger subject pool would have been required to make this possible. Finally, the recent

larger subject pool would have been required to make this possible. Finally, the recent acquisition of another major casino organization may have affected the results of both the primary and secondary respondents. The organization that agreed to participate in this study acquired six additional properties in the Las Vegas area just before data collection began. This acquisition nearly doubled the size of the organization. In addition to the uncertainty and upheaval caused by the acquisition, rumors also began to circulate about which properties would be sold in the near future. Participants, both primary and secondary, may have been affected by the existing and future changes potentially causing cautious or overly harsh responses to the questionnaires. Some of the primary subjects were also promoted into new positions not long before the data collection began. The requirement that feedback be submitted by peers or subordinates who had worked with or for the executive for a minimum of six months may have caused a stronger focus on peer responses and a lesser focus on subordinate responses.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis one was concerned with the relationship between balanced leadership (LOS) and perceived effectiveness (CVF). Balanced leadership was determined by the frequency of skill use as measured in Section I of the LOS and perceived effectiveness was determined by both the results of the CVF and Section III of the LOS. To be considered fully balanced, respondents had to score above the mean on all four of the leadership frames. Moderate balance was defined by scores above the mean on any three of the four frames. Unbalanced leadership was indicated by a score above the mean on two or fewer frames. In this study, the relationships discovered between balanced leadership and effectiveness were different depending on whether the information

provided came from the primary or secondary respondents. This finding demonstrates a difference in perception by self and others. It is not surprising that the executives (primary subjects) saw themselves differently than their peers and/or subordinates (secondary subjects) perceived them. "Research has generally found that the validity of self ratings of leadership is generally low, so there's considerable advantage in getting colleague ratings" (Bolman, 2005, ¶ 2). In general, the executives rated themselves lower on both frequency (LOS) and effectiveness (CFV) of skill use. Three hundred and sixty degree feedback (feedback from all views in the work place; bosses, peers, and subordinates) tools have become popular in recent years because they give individuals a 360 degree picture of how they are perceived. This study is an example of how perceptions can be different and illustrates the importance of feedback from others. Examination of individual cases would show the degree of difference between perception by self and others.

When viewed separately, there are significant correlations *($p < .01$)* between balance and effectiveness of skill use as measured by the CVF. These correlations, illustrated in Table 3, reinforce the importance of situational leadership; the ability to assess a situation and respond using the skills of the most appropriate of the four frames and/or quadrants.

Results of effectiveness of skill use as measured by the four models of the Competing Values Framework (the Rational Goal, Open Systems, Human Resource, and Internal Process models), indicates that as frequency of skill use (balance) increases, effectiveness of skill use increases (see Tables 4 and 5). Each model is made up of two roles. The Producer and Director roles make up the Rational Goal model, the Broker and Innovator roles make up the Open Systems model, the Facilitator and Mentor roles make up the

Human Resource model, and the Monitor and Coordinator roles make up the Internal Process model. With the exception of the Broker role, all other roles showed an increase in effectiveness as balance increased. In this study, the moderately balanced participants in the primary sample scored the highest on the Broker role, fully balanced participants scored in the middle, and those in the unbalanced category scored lowest in effective use of this role. The Broker role is related to understanding the political process within an organization and building the relationships that will allow individuals to communicate the benefits of their ideas. This anomaly may be due to the over use of this particular skill by some of the individuals in the moderately balanced category. Examination of the individual results of the CVF might indicate whether members of the moderately balanced group were in the negative zone, tending to over use the key competencies within the Broker role. The inconsistency may also be a consequence of the recent corporate acquisition which may have caused a more politically charged environment. The uncertainty that accompanied the corporate growth and change may have demanded greater use of the political skills required in the Broker role.

Results from the secondary respondents also indicated an outcome that is inconsistent with what was expected. With respect to the HR model and the Mentor role in this model, balance and effectiveness did not increase conjointly. Leaders who are considered unbalanced, those who use two or fewer frames consistently, seem to be more effective in the Mentor role than moderately balanced leaders (see Table 5). The Mentor role is related to interpersonal skills and building relationships with employees. The inconsistency may be due to the over-use of the mentoring skill by participants in the unbalanced category, possibly to the detriment of other skills or in lieu of other skills.

Examination of the individual results of the CVF might indicate whether members of the unbalanced group were in the negative zone, tending to over use the key competencies within the Mentor role. Individuals who rely too heavily on the Mentor role may focus too much time on developing relationships with employees and not enough time utilizing the skills of the other quadrants. Fully balanced leaders are still perceived as being the most effective users of the Mentor role.

The correlations between balance as determined by skills measured in Section I of the LOS and effectiveness as measured by Section III of the LOS also resulted in a discrepancy between primary and secondary subjects. Although the results based on the primary respondents did not result in significant correlations, they fall in the predicted direction. The results based on secondary respondents yielded significant correlations *($p < .01$)* between balance and manager and leadership effectiveness. In essence, the more effective a leader/manager is; the more balanced the skill use (Appendix H includes tables that illustrate a progression of effectiveness). These findings reinforce the importance of an executive's ability to apply appropriate skills as situations occur. For example, a fully balanced leader would have the ability to seamlessly change quadrants and roles throughout a work day: An employee situation may require the executive to use the skills in the Human Resources quadrant, followed by an important budget meeting that utilizes the skills of the Rational Goal model. A new challenge that arises may require group creative problem solving—the Open Systems model—followed by managing all aspects of a new project, the Internal Process model. Less effective managers would not transition smoothly; neither would they incorporate all aspects of the CVF and LOS. A hypothetical example of this lack of balance would be a manager who

relies heavily on the Rational Goal model. In this case, the manager would focus on maximum efficiency in each of the described settings, which might translate into applying the skills of the Rational Goal model to a Human Resource situation.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis two was that trends by job function would be discernable by the skill use measured in Sections I and II of the Leadership Orientation Survey. Responses to these sections of the survey show which skills are most commonly used by the executives. A comparison between Sections I and II of the LOS can be made in addition to a comparison between primary and secondary subject responses.

Each frame of the LOS is characterized by managerial/leadership functions. The Structural Frame is characterized by rules, regulations, authority, and hierarchy. The focus is on the achievement of goals. The Human Relations Frame is characterized by relationship building, empowerment, group facilitation, and group problem solving. The Political Frame is characterized by competition, negotiation, networking, and coalition building. The Symbolic Frame is characterized by the intangible and objective meanings behind events. While working in the Structural Frame, managers focus on information processing and organizational structure. They do not address the needs of the people or the effect they have on the business. Conflict is resolved by implementing policies and procedures that support the organization's existing structure. In this frame, managers set clear direction, are bottom-line driven, and hold people accountable for results. Both primary and secondary respondents were in agreement on both sections I and II of the LOS suggesting that the executive participants as a whole use the skills of the Structural Frame most often.

While working in the Human Resources Frame, managers focus on the people in the organization and the belief that the organization exists to serve their needs. They lead through empowerment and facilitation. When problems arise, rather than putting additional systems in place (policies and procedures) they believe problems can be solved through communication and training. Both primary and secondary respondents were in agreement on both sections I and II of the LOS. Primary respondents agreed that the executive participants as a whole used the Human Resources Frame second most frequently. The secondary respondents ranked the Human Resources Frame as the third most frequently used skill set.

In the Political Frame, managers focus on the competition and conflict that are inherent in organizations as leaders vie for scarce resources. In recognizing the existence of politics, a politically savvy manager understands that there is a certain amount of game-playing that takes place in the organization. On Section I of the LOS, primary respondents placed the Political Frame third in the frequency of skills used by the executives. On Section II of the LOS, primary respondents placed the Political Frame as the skills least frequently used by the executives. The secondary respondents were in agreement on both sections I and II of the LOS ranking the Political Frame as the second most frequently used skill set.

In the Symbolic Frame, managers focus on the subjective. Facts are secondary to emotion. What is important about an event is not what happened, but the meaning behind what happened. The more uncertainty and ambiguity that exist within an organization, the more important the Symbolic Frame becomes; offering hope to the people within the organization by giving them meaning and direction. Arguably, this frame would have

been the most important during the corporate acquisition. It was, however, ranked the lowest of the skill sets used by the executive sample, with the exception of the primary respondents on Section II of the LOS. These respondents placed the Symbolic Frame third in frequency of skill use.

Results of Section I of the LOS show that the primary participants ranked the skills of the Structural Frame highest in frequency of use, followed by the Human Resources Frame in second, the Political Frame was third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least often. The secondary respondents ranked the executives as a whole as using the Structural Frame most often, followed by the Political Frame, the Human Resources Frame was used third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. The discrepancy in perception is in those skills ranked second and third. It is possible that the executives preferred not to acknowledge the politics inherent in the industry.

Primary respondents in the customer contact departments ranked the skills of the Structural Frame highest in frequency followed by the Human Resources Frame in second, the Symbolic Frame in third, and the Political Frame as the least frequently used skills. Secondary respondents in the customer contact departments ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency, followed by the Political Frame, the Human Resources Frame was third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. Primary and secondary respondents are in agreement with the most frequently used skills of the Structural Frame. The discrepancies were in the other three skill sets. These discrepancies may indicate a lack of self understanding by the executives in the customer contact departments. It may also be the result of a flaw in the data caused by combining

departments into comparable groupings that share similar job functions rather than having the ability to study executives who share exact job functions.

Primary respondents in the back of house departments ranked the Human Resources Frame highest in frequency of skill use followed by the Structural Frame, the Political Frame was third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. Secondary respondents in the back of house departments ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency, followed by the Human Resources Frame, the Political Frame was third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. The discrepancy was between the respondents in the most frequently used skills. The primary respondents saw themselves as more Human Resources Frame focused, while the secondary respondents saw the executives as more Structural Frame focused. This discrepancy may be due to a skewed self perception by the primary respondents, or it could be because the human resources and training department is part of the back of house division.

Primary respondents in the casino operations division ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Symbolic Frame, the Human Resources Frame was third, and the Political Frame was used least. The secondary respondents in the casino operations division ranked the Political Frame highest in frequency of skill use followed by the Structural Frame, the Symbolic Frame was third, and the Human Resources Frame was used least. Primary and secondary respondents in this division disagreed completely on the frequency of skill use. These discrepancies could be due to a skewed self perception by the primary respondents, or may be a result of combining similar departments for study. Examination of individual feedback reports might lead to a better understanding of these discrepancies.

Primary respondents in the hotel operations division ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency of skill use followed by the Human Resources Frame, the Political Frame was third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. Secondary respondents in the hotel operations division ranked the Human Resources Frame highest in frequency of skill use followed by the Structural Frame, the Political Frame was third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. Primary and secondary respondents disagreed on the two most frequently used skill sets. Primary respondents saw themselves as more Structural Frame focused, while secondary respondents saw the executives as more Human Resources focused. These discrepancies may be due to a skewed self perception.

Primary respondents in the marketing, advertising, and sales division ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Human Resources Frame, the Symbolic Frame was third, and the Political Frame was used least. Secondary respondents in the marketing, advertising, and sales division ranked the Human Resources Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Political Frame, the Symbolic Frame was third, and the Structural Frame was used least. Primary and secondary respondents in this division disagreed completely on the frequency of skill use. These discrepancies could be due to a skewed self perception by the primary respondents, or may be a result of combining similar departments for study. Examination of individual feedback reports might lead to a better understanding of these discrepancies.

Primary respondents in the human resources and training division ranked the Human Resources Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Political Frame, the Symbolic Frame was third, and the Structural Frame was used least. Secondary respondents in the human resources and training division ranked the Human Resources

Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Symbolic Frame, the Political Frame was third, and the Structural Frame was used least. Primary and secondary respondents in this division agreed on which skills were most frequently used, and which skills were least often used. The discrepancies were in which skills are ranked second and third. These discrepancies may be due to a skewed self perception. Examination of individual feedback reports might offer a clearer understanding.

Primary respondents in the finance, analysis, and administration division ranked the Human Resources Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Structural Frame, the Political Frame was third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. Secondary respondents in the finance, analysis, and administration division ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency, followed by the Political Frame, the Human Resources Frame was third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. Primary and secondary respondents in this division disagreed completely on the frequency of skill use. These discrepancies could be due to a skewed self perception by the primary respondents, or may be a result of combining similar departments for study. Examination of individual feedback reports might lead to a better understanding of these discrepancies.

Results of Section II of the LOS show that the primary participants ranked the skills of the Structural Frame highest in frequency of use, followed by the Human Resources Frame in second, the Symbolic Frame was third, and the Political Frame was used least often. The secondary respondents ranked the executives as a whole as using the Structural Frame most often, followed by the Political Frame, the Human Resources Frame was used third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. Primary and Secondary respondents agreed on the most frequently used skill set, but disagreed on the remaining

three. These discrepancies may be due to a skewed self perception by the primary respondents. Examination of individual feedback reports may lead to a greater understanding of these discrepancies.

Primary respondents in the customer contact departments ranked the skills of the Structural Frame highest in frequency followed by the Human Resources Frame in second, the Symbolic Frame in third, and the Political Frame as the least frequently used skills. Secondary respondents in the customer contact departments ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency, followed by the Political Frame, the Symbolic Frame was third, and the Human Resources Frame was used least. Primary and secondary respondents agreed that the Structural Frame was the most frequently used, and the Symbolic Frame was ranked third. Discrepancies exist between the second and fourth ranked skills. Primary participants placed the Human Resources Frame much higher than the secondary subjects. This may be the result of skewed self perception. Individual examination of feedback reports might determine the cause of these discrepancies.

Primary respondents in the back of house departments ranked the Human Resources Frame highest in frequency of skill use followed by the Structural Frame, the Symbolic Frame was third, and the Political Frame was used least. Secondary respondents in the back of house departments ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency, followed by the Human Resources Frame, the Political Frame was third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. Primary and secondary respondents in this division disagreed completely on the frequency of skill use. These discrepancies could be due to a skewed self perception by the primary respondents, or may be a result of combining similar departments for

study. Examination of individual feedback reports might lead to a better understanding of these discrepancies.

Primary respondents in the casino operations division ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Human Resources Frame, the Symbolic Frame was third, and the Political Frame was used least. The secondary respondents in the casino operations division ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency of skill use followed by the Political Frame, the Symbolic Frame was third, and the Human Resources frame was used least. Primary and Secondary respondents agreed on the most frequently used skills, the Structural Frame, but disagreed on the remaining skills. These discrepancies may be due to skewed self perception. Individual examination of feedback reports might lead to a better understanding of these discrepancies.

Primary respondents in the hotel operations division ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency of skill use followed by the Human Resources Frame, the Symbolic Frame was third, and the Political Frame was used least. Secondary respondents in the hotel operations division ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency of skill use followed by the Political Frame, the Human Resources Frame was third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. As with the casino operations division, primary and secondary respondents agreed on the most frequently used skills, the Structural Frame, but disagreed on the remaining skills. These discrepancies may be due to skewed self perception. Individual examination of feedback reports might lead to a better understanding of these discrepancies.

Primary respondents in the marketing, advertising, and sales division ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Human Resources

Frame, the Symbolic Frame was third, and the Political Frame was used least. Secondary respondents in the marketing, advertising, and sales division ranked the Symbolic Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Political Frame, the Structural Frame was third, and the Human Resources Frame was used least. Primary and secondary respondents in this division disagreed completely on the frequency of skill use. These discrepancies could be due to a skewed self perception by the primary respondents, or may be a result of combining similar departments for study. Examination of individual feedback reports might lead to a better understanding of these discrepancies.

Primary respondents in the human resources and training division ranked the Human Resources Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Symbolic Frame, the Structural Frame was third, and the Political Frame was used least. Secondary respondents in the human resources and training division ranked the Human Resources Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Symbolic Frame, the Political Frame was third, and the Structural Frame was used least. Primary and secondary respondents in the human recourses and training division agreed on the two most frequently used skills, but disagreed on the skills ranked third and fourth. This minor discrepancy might be explained by examining the individual feedback reports.

Primary and secondary respondents in the finance, analysis, and administration division were in complete agreement. They ranked the Structural Frame highest in frequency of skill use, followed by the Human Resources Frame, the Political Frame was third, and the Symbolic Frame was used least. This is the only division to achieve complete agreement. This may be an indication of the appropriateness of studying these departments as a homogeneous group. Examination of individual feedback reports may

also explain the agreement between self and others. These executives may have a more realistic self perception.

The primary respondents were not in complete agreement between Sections I and II of the LOS. There is agreement on the two most commonly used skill sets. The Structural Frame is the most frequently used followed by the Human Resources Frame. Results from Section I returned the Political Frame in third, followed by the Symbolic Frame being used the least often. Section II resulted in the Symbolic Framed being used third most often and the Political Frame least often. The secondary subject feedback responses were in full agreement on both Sections I and II of the LOS. These rankings suggest the skills required in the Structural Frame were most commonly used among the executive sample. The second most commonly used skills were those in the Political Frame, followed by the Human Resources Frame, and the Symbolic Frame.

A look at individual departments suggests the human resources and training division differs from the rest of the executive sample. In these departments, the Human Resources Frame is most commonly used across both sections of the LOS including primary and secondary subjects. With the exception of the primary responses in Section II, the Structural Frame is the least commonly used frame. This is not surprising as these departments carry out the human resource functions in the hotel/casino and should place a strong importance on the Human Resources Frame.

The secondary respondents in the marketing, advertising, and sales department disagreed with the primary respondents on both Sections I and II of the LOS. Primary respondents agreed on both sections that the Structural Frame is the most commonly used followed by the Human Resources Frame, Symbolic Frame, and the least frequently

used, the Political Frame. Secondary responses on Section I found the Human Resources Frame is the most commonly used followed by the Political, Symbolic and Structural Frames. Secondary responses on Section II found the Symbolic Frame most commonly used, followed by the Political, Structural, and Human Resources Frames. This may be indicative of a broader difference in perception between the executives and the peers and subordinates who completed the surveys on their behalf.

The overall trends suggest these executives focused most commonly on the Structural Frame. A much larger sample would need to be studied to determine if this is the cultural norm within this hotel/casino organization. Bolman and Deal (1991) found that management effectiveness was directly related to use of the Structural Frame, whereas leadership effectiveness was related to effective use of the Political and Symbolic Frames. Results of the current study reinforce those connections. Correlations between effectiveness as a manager as determined by Section III of the LOS and use of the Structural Frame resulted in significant relationships on both primary and secondary subject reports. Primary responses returned a correlation at the .05 level of confidence; secondary responses returned a correlation at the .01 level of confidence. Correlations between effectiveness as a leader and use of the Political and Symbolic Frames also reinforce the findings of Bolman and Deal. Correlations are significant at the .01 level of confidence in both the primary and secondary subject results.

There is a possibility that the environments of this hotel/casino organization put a negative connotation on the politics and symbolism inherent in the business. Where the secondary respondents may acknowledge the politics inherent in the environment, the primary respondents may prefer not to answer questions measuring these two frames

positively. For example, questions such as "I am a very skillful and shrewd negotiator," or "I am highly charismatic" may be off-putting to the primary participant.

Although there can be no conclusions drawn from the results of this hypothesis, a suggestion of what is important in each department can be made. Further study is required to determine the skills necessary to be successful in each department.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis three was related to the differences that might be observed in personality by job function. An examination of the global factors by level of executive showed that Presidents scored highest on the extroversion, anxiety, and independence scales; lowest on tough-mindedness and self control. There were only three participants in this group making generalizations inappropriate, however these results are not surprising. A review of the individual factors of personality shows the Presidents ranked higher on the warmth, reasoning, dominance, liveliness, social boldness, sensitivity, vigilance, abstractedness, privateness, openness to change, and tension subscales than either the Directors or Vice Presidents. Their scores also resulted in the lowest of the three executive levels on rule consciousness, apprehension, and self-reliance. These results are not surprising. As leaders of hotel/casino properties with thousands of employees, these individuals would need to seem approachable, outgoing, and sensitive to the needs of others. They would also need to be somewhat guarded, a trait of vigilance, prone to creative problem solving and open to change. Rules take on a different meaning at the presidential level; the low score indicates nonconforming personalities. The low scores on apprehension and self-reliance indicate self-assured personalities who are group oriented, traits that would be expected at the presidential level.

Large differences between customer contact executives and back of house executives were not apparent. In essence, executives from customer contact departments are more dominant, meaning they are more assertive with people and situations, and more vigilant than executives from back of house departments. This is likely because executives in the customer contact departments deal with the public regularly and individuals with few skills in these areas would likely have gravitated toward jobs or departments that focus elsewhere.

Differences in global traits are more discernable when examining the executives separated into the five divisions. Respondents from finance, analysis, and administration departments are less extroverted than the other four divisions. They returned the lowest scores on the warmth, liveliness, and social boldness subscales, and the highest score on the self-reliance subscale. This finding is consistent with stereotypes associated with members of finance, analysis, and administration departments. At the opposite end of the spectrum, executives from the human resources and training division scored highest on the extroversion scale. Executives from this division scored highest on the warmth, liveliness, and social boldness subscales. Their scores on the privateness and self-reliance subscales, although not the lowest of all divisions, were low. This finding is consistent with human resources and training job functions. They are the cheerleaders who support all other departments. Examples of their job duties include training and disciplining employees, administering employee programs, planning events, and internal communications.

No other global factor rankings suggest notable differences between divisions, with the exception of the self control measure. Executives from the human resources and

training division scored lowest on self control, while executives from the hotel operations division scored highest. The self control factor is determined by negative scores on the liveliness and abstractedness subscales in combination with positive scores on the rule consciousness and perfectionism subscales. The human resources and training outcomes on the self control factor are not surprising as these executives scored highest on the liveliness and abstractedness subscales combined with a low score on the perfectionism subscale and the lowest score on the rule consciousness subscale, traits that indicate an uninhibited personality. The inhibited personalities of the hotel operations division are surprising only in that these executives scored higher on self control than did the executives in the finance, analysis, and administration and casino operations divisions. The regulations inherent in the finance, analysis, and administration and casino operations divisions created the expectation that both would have scored higher than the hotel operations division.

Although generalizations can not be made based on the results of this research, there are individual division scores of interest. For example, participants in the casino operations division scored highest on the dominance subscale; they are abstract thinkers and are most open to change. These findings are not surprising as the casino environment would seem to require assertiveness in dealing with the public and creative problem-solving in an ever-changing environment.

Executives from the marketing, advertising, and sales division scored second highest on social boldness (behind executives from human resources and training). They also demonstrated high scores on the vigilance and privateness subscales; while returning the lowest scores on the openness to change subscale. The high scores on the social boldness

and privateness subscales are not surprising as an out-going nature and discretion would seem to be appropriate in the marketing, advertising, and sales field. The high vigilance score likely indicates a distrustfulness that is surprising. The low openness to change is also surprising, as the marketing, advertising, and sales environment would seem to be creative and ever-changing.

The small sample available for the study reported here prevents drawing more precise conclusions. Additional research involving a larger sample of hotel/casino executives will need to be conducted to see if clearer trends emerge.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis four was related to the relationship between manager effectiveness and scores on the warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, openness to change, and social boldness subscales. The results were not as predicted. Not only did the responses from both the primary and secondary participants yield nonsignificant correlations, the relationships between manager effectiveness and warmth, openness to change, and social boldness were negative. Managers who are perceived as more effective scored lower on these factors than managers who are perceived as less effective. It is possible that these personality traits are not reinforced as important in these work environments or that people who tend to score higher on these traits are not drawn to work in these environments. Additional research must be conducted in the hotel/casino industry before general conclusions can be drawn regarding managerial effectiveness and these measures of personality.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis five was designed to investigate the relationship between managerial effectiveness and the vigilance and apprehension subscales of the 16PF. Neither correlation was significant; however the correlation between effectiveness and apprehension was negative, which was the predicted direction. According to these results, more effective managers in this executive sample were less apprehensive than less effective managers, but more vigilant. These findings are inconsistent with the expected findings. The expectation was that more effective managers would score lower on the vigilance subscale, meaning they are more trusting and accepting. This may be because of the nature of the hotel/casino industry; a more vigilant personality might be required in an industry with high potential for cheating and theft. Additional research must be conducted in the hotel/casino industry before general conclusions can be drawn regarding managerial effectiveness and these measures of personality.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis six was designed to examine the relationship between leadership effectiveness and the liveliness, perfection, emotional stability, and dominance subscales of the 16 PF. The primary respondent data resulted in significant correlations *($p < .05$)* between effectiveness and both the liveliness and emotional stability subscales as well as a positive though not significant correlation with the scores on the dominance subscale. The correlation between effectiveness and scores on the perfection subscale was negative and nonsignificant. These results could be interpreted to suggest that less effective leaders tend to focus more on order and control than their more effective counter parts. Correlations between these variables based on secondary respondent data were not

significant. There was however, an unexpected negative relationship between leadership effectiveness and the liveliness subscale. This result suggests that less effective leaders are more animated and enthusiastic than more effective leaders. Additional research must be conducted in the hotel/casino industry before general conclusions can be drawn regarding leadership effectiveness and these measures of personality.

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis seven was designed to examine the relationship between leadership effectiveness and scores on the abstractedness, tension, sensitivity and self reliance subscales of the 16 PF. The results were not consistent between primary and secondary respondents. Primary respondent data returned negative relationships between effectiveness and the tension, sensitivity, and self-reliance subscales, but a positive relationship with the abstractedness subscale. Secondary respondent data returned negative relationships between effectiveness and the abstractedness, tension, and sensitivity subscales, but a positive relationship between effectiveness and the self-reliance subscale. It would appear from the executive's perspective (results from primary respondents) that more effective leaders tend to be more open to conceptual ideas. On the other hand, peers and subordinates (secondary respondents) may believe that more effective leaders tend to be more open to group processes. Additional research must be conducted in the hotel/casino industry before general conclusions can be drawn regarding leadership effectiveness and these measures of personality.

Hypotheses four through seven resulted in unexpected outcomes. Existing research on the 16 PF (Conn. & Rieke, 1994) has shown significant correlations between manager and leadership effectiveness and the stated scales. These scales are often used in

organizations to predict managerial and leadership potential. Future research in the hotel/casino industry with a larger sample size might result in supporting or rejecting the validity of these scales in predicting effectiveness.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study is one small step toward validating the use of the Competing Values Framework and Leadership Orientation Survey as developmental tools in the hotel/casino industry. Additional research needs to be conducted to determine if there are skills more commonly used or required in individual departments. Nonetheless, the trends noted here may be helpful in directing future research on the development of future leaders and/or managers. Significant correlations were found between managerial and leadership effectiveness and balance. These results suggest the importance of developing future leaders and managers to use the four frames of the Leadership Orientation Survey and quadrants of the Competing Values Framework. For example, the instruments could be administered as a baseline to prepare a learning plan for an employee designated as having potential.

The results of this study supply a preliminary picture of which skills are used successfully in the hotel/casino industry as well as which skills are under- or over-utilized. For example, trends by job function as explored in hypothesis two indicate a general propensity by all executives toward the skills used in the Structural Frame, with the Human Resources Frame coming in second or third depending on primary or secondary responses. Effectiveness results suggest that the Structural and Human Resources Frames are related to managerial effectiveness and the Political and Symbolic

Frames are related to leadership effectiveness. Yet the Political and Symbolic Frames are the least often practiced skill sets.

The theories that accompany each instrument could be used as an aid when developing training materials to support the growth and development of hotel/casino managers and leaders. As an example, the instruments could be administered pre and post training to assess the effectiveness of training designed to help employees understand and implement information from both the CVF and LOS.

The data may also be interpreted to suggest that effectiveness as a manager and effectiveness as a leader are related to different skill sets. "Our data strongly suggest that political and symbolic orientations are keys to effective leadership. Yet the literature and our own experience lead us to believe leadership development programs typically focus mostly on structural and human resource issues" (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 525). Correlations between effectiveness as a manager as determined by Section III of the LOS and use of the Structural Frame resulted in significant relationships on both primary and secondary subject reports. Primary responses returned a correlation at the .05 level of confidence; secondary responses returned a correlation at the .01 level of confidence. Correlations between effectiveness as a leader and use of the Political and Symbolic Frames also reinforce the findings of Bolman and Deal. Correlations are significant at the .01 level of confidence in both the primary and secondary subject results. These findings indicate a two pronged approach in training and development would be valuable; management development would focus on the Structural and Human Resources Frames whereas leadership development would focus on the Political and Symbolic Frames.

Directions for Future Research

Endeavors in this arena in the future should focus on two specific issues: 1) a study of the hotel/casino industry culture which would help determine the skills that are necessary in successful executives, and 2) the testing of the effectiveness of individual development plans.

In order to get a clear picture of the managerial and leadership skills that are rewarded or necessary in the industry, the Competing Values Framework should be administered as a cultural diagnostic tool. A large sample of employees, not just executives, at individual properties should be given the CVF instrument. Results may indicate whether the managerial and leadership skills most effectively used by the executives in the current study are simply cultural norms. Cultures should then be compared between properties to determine if there are commonalities throughout the industry or if each property has an individual culture.

In order to test the effectiveness of individual development plans, future researchers, should not be concerned with the number of primary participants, but rather concern themselves with appropriate secondary participants. Managers, leaders, and employees with the potential to be managers or leaders should be identified as the primary participants. Each primary participant should identify a number of peers, subordinates, and his/her immediate supervisor to complete the assessments on their behalf, thereby creating a complete 360 degree view of perception of self and others. The CVF and LOS should be delivered as in the current study but with a developmental focus. Training materials should be created from the literature sited in the current study. A pretest would serve as a baseline of effectiveness followed by appropriate training interventions. The

assessments would then be administered a second time to determine the effectiveness of the training. This study should also include qualitative measures; interviews with the immediate supervisor and on the job observations. The 16 PF would not be included in the recommended study as this study would focus on developing effectiveness rather than identifying success factors.

APPENDIX A

The DATA COLLECTION MATRIX

Question	Data to be Collected	Process of Analysis
Who are the primary research subjects? Statistical qualifications.	Demographic Survey	Convenience Sample, identification of participants, database analysis.
What Personality traits are prevalent among subjects? What leadership/managerial traits does each possess?	16 Personality Factor Questionnaire	To be hand-scored by the researcher. Comparative analysis conducted across subjects and departments.
What skills are most commonly used by successful executives?	Competing Values Framework (CVF)	Determines effective skill use. To be hand-scored by the researcher. Comparative analysis conducted across subjects and departments. Correlated with the results from the LOS.
Are successful executives balanced, moderately balanced, or unbalanced in their leadership styles?	Leadership Orientation Survey (LOS)	Determines frequency of skill use. To be hand-scored by the researcher. Comparative analysis conducted across subjects and departments. Correlated with the results from the CVF.

APPENDIX B

REQUEST FOR PARTICIPATION, EXECUTIVE PARTICIPANT

Dear (insert name),

You have been identified by (insert Executive's name) as a candidate to participate in a research study.

In completion of a degree in Educational Psychology, I am studying the traits of young successful casino Executives. The intention of this study is to serve as a stepping stone toward succession planning in the casino industry.

(Executive's name) has volunteered to take part in the study as an Executive participant. As such s/he will complete an information survey, a personality styles inventory, and two managerial/leadership questionnaires. S/he has recommended you as an Executive who meets the study criteria and may also wish to participate.

As an Executive participant, you will complete all four of the above mentioned items and identify ten subordinates or peers who will complete the two managerial/leadership questionnaires on your behalf. Your commitment will take approximately 90 minutes.

Once all documents have been received, your name will be removed from all data. Only generalities and themes will be reported. Participation of your peers and/or subordinates will be completely anonymous. Both questionnaires will be available on line through a third party.

If you are willing to be a study participant, please contact me at 531-3872 or 236-1946 to receive a consent form and participation directions.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

APPENDIX C

REQUEST FOR PARTICIPATION, PEER/SUBORDINATE PARTICIPANT

Dear (insert name),

You have been identified by (insert Executive's name) as a candidate to participate in a research study.

In completion of a degree in Educational Psychology, I am studying the traits of young successful casino Executives. The intention of this study is to serve as a stepping stone toward succession planning in the casino industry.

(Executive's name) has volunteered to take part in the study as an Executive participant. As such s/he will complete two managerial/leadership questionnaires and has asked that you complete these two questionnaires with him/her in mind. Your commitment will take approximately 40 minutes.

Your participation will be completely anonymous. Both questionnaires will be available on line through a third party. Results will leave no identifiers except the Executive's name and whether you are a peer or subordinate.

If you are willing to take part in this study, please follow this URL (insert once established) to the consent form, directions, and questionnaires.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Finley Bolton-Cotrone

APPENIX D

THE DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

Name: _____ Age: _____Gender:_____

1. What degree(s) do you hold? _____
   _____
2. What is your job title? _____
3. How long have you been in this position? _____
4. How long have you been in the casino industry? _____
5. How long have you been in the hospitality industry? _____
6. To what do you attribute your success in the hotel/casino industry?

7. The researcher may wish to contact you to discuss your success. Would you be willing to take part in an interview or focus group? _____

8. I would recommend the following Executive members of my peer group to take part in this study:

Demographic Survey (Continued)

Please list the names of 10 peers or subordinates who may be asked to complete the Competing Values Framework and the Leadership Orientation Survey on your behalf.

Name	Peer	Subordinate
Jane Doe	X	

APPENDIX E

THE COMPETING VALUES FRAMEWORK INSTRUMENT

Participants will rate themselves, or be rated by others, on how effective they perform the following tasks: (1 = not effective; 4 = very effective) Source: Quinn (1988)

As a leader I....

1. _____Come up with inventive ideas.
2. _____Exert upward influence in the organization.
3. _____Clarify the need to achieve unit goals
4. _____Continually clarify the unit's purpose.
5. _____search for innovations and potential improvements
6. _____Make the unit's role very clear
7. _____Maintain tight logistical control.
8. _____Keep track of what goes on inside the unit.
9. _____Develop consensual resolution of opening expressed differences.
10. _____Listen to the personal problems of employees
11. _____Maintain a highly coordinated, well organized unit.
12. _____Hold open discussion of conflicting opinions in groups.
13. _____Push the unit to meet objectives.
14. _____Surface key differences among group members, then work participative to solve them.
15. _____Monitor compliance with the rules.
16. _____Treat each individual in a sensitive, caring way.
17. _____Experiment with new concepts and procedures
18. _____Show empathy and concern in dealing with employees.
19. _____Seek to improve the workgroup's technical capacity.
20. _____Get access to people at higher levels.
21. _____Encourage participative decision making in the group.
22. _____Compare records, reports and son on to detect discrepancies.
23. _____Solve scheduling problems in the unit.
24. _____Get the unit to meet expected goals.
25. _____Do problem solving in creative, clear ways.
26. _____Anticipate workflow problems, avoid crisis.
27. _____Check for errors and mistakes.
28. _____Persuasively sell new ideas to higher ups.
29. _____See that the unit delivers on stated goals.

30. _____Facilitate consensus building in the work unit.
31. _____Clarify the units priorities and direction
32. _____Show concern for the needs of employees.
33. _____Maintain a "results" orientation in the unit.
34. _____Influence decisions made at higher levels
35. _____Regularly clarify the objectives of the unit.
36. _____Bring a sense of order and coordination into the unit.

APPENDIX F

THE LEADERSHIP ORIENTATION SURVEY

I: Behaviors

Participants will complete the following survey indicating how often the following items are true for themselves, or the person chosen to offer feedback (1 = Never, 3 = Sometimes, 5 = Always). Source: Bolman, 2004.

As a leader I...

1. _____Think very clearly and logically.
2. _____Show high levels of support and concern for others.
3. _____Have exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.
4. _____Inspire others to do their best
5. _____Strongly emphasize careful planning and clear time lines.
6. _____Build trust through open and collaborative relationships.
7. _____Am a very skillful and shrewd negotiator.
8. _____Am highly charismatic.
9. _____Approach problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.
10. _____Show high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.
11. _____Am unusually persuasive and influential
12. _____Am able to be an inspiration to others.
13. _____Develop and implement clear, logical policies and procedures.
14. _____Foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.
15. _____Anticipate and deal adroitly with organizational conflict.
16. _____Am highly imaginative and creative.
17. _____Approach problems with facts and logic.
18. _____Am consistently helpful and responsive to others.
19. _____Am very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.
20. _____Communicate a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission.
21. _____Set specific, measurable goals and hold people accountable for results.
22. _____Listen well and am unusually receptive to other people's ideas and input.
23. _____Am politically very sensitive and skillful.
24. _____See beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities.

25. _____Have extraordinary attention to detail.
26. _____Give personal recognition for work well done.
27. _____Develop alliances to build a strong base of support.
28. _____Generate loyalty and enthusiasm.
29. _____Strongly believe in clear structure and a chain of command.
30. _____Am a highly participative manager.
31. _____Succeed in the face of conflict and opposition.
32. _____Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.

II: Leadership Style

Participants will be asked to place a 4 by the item that best describes them, or their leader; a 1 by the item that is least descriptive.

1. My strongest skills are:
    a. _____Analytic skills
    b. _____Interpersonal skills
    c. _____Political skills
    d. _____Ability to excite and motivate
2. The best way to describe me is:
    a. _____Technical expert
    b. _____Good listener
    c. _____Skilled negotiator
    d. _____Inspirational leader
3. What has helped me the most to be successful is my ability to:
    a. _____Make good decisions
    b. _____Coach and develop people
    c. _____Build strong alliances and a power base
    d. _____Energize and inspire others
4. What people are most likely to notice about me is my:
    a. _____Attention to detail
    b. _____Concern for people
    c. _____Ability to succeed, in the face of conflict and opposition
    d. _____Charisma
5. My most important leadership trait is:
    a. _____Clear, logical thinking
    b. _____Caring and support for others
    c. _____Toughness and aggressiveness
    d. _____Imagination and creativity
6. I am best described as:
    a. _____An analyst
    b. _____A humanist
    c. _____A politician
    d. _____A visionary

III: Overall Rating

Participants will be asked to compare themselves (or their leader) to others with comparable levels of experience and responsibility (1 = Bottom 20%, 3 = Middle 20%, 5 = Top 20%).

1. _____Overall effectiveness as a **manager**.
2. _____Overall effectiveness as a **leader**.

APPENDIX H

BALANCE AND EFFECTIVENESS

Table 1. Balance, as determined by Section I of the LOS and Effectiveness, as determined by Section III of the LOS for primary subjects.

	Managers Effectiveness Mean	Leadership Effectiveness Mean
Balance in 2 or fewer Frames N=24	3.42 (.65)	3.58 (.65)
Balance in 3 Frames N=7	3.57 (.53)	3.57 (.53)
Balance in 4 Frames N=10	3.70 (.48)	4.00 (.00)

Table 2. Balance, as determined by Section I of the LOS and Effectiveness, as determined by Section III of the LOS for secondary subjects.

	Managers Effectiveness Mean	Leadership Effectiveness Mean
Balance in 2 or fewer Frames N=12	3.79 (.62)	3.71 (.52)
Balance in 3 Frames N=5	4.60 (.30)	4.39 (.28)
Balance in 4 Frames N=24	4.68 (.23)	4.60 (.36)

Table 3. Effectiveness as determined by Section 3 of the LOS and balance as determined by Section I of the LOS for primary respondents.

Effectiveness	Balance
Primary Self Report ≥ 4 Leader N= 28	2.57 (1.26)
Primary Self Report < 4 Leader N=13	1.69 (.85)
Primary Self Report ≥ 4 Manager N=21	2.52 (1.29)
Primary Self Report < 4 Manager N=20	2.05 (1.10)

Table 4. Effectiveness as determined by Section 3 of the LOS and balance as determined by Section I of the LOS for secondary respondents.

Effectiveness	Balance
Secondary Report ≥ 4 Leader N=33	3.55 (.75)
Secondary Report < 4 Leader N=8	1.63 (1.06)
Secondary Report ≥ 4 Manager N=34	3.56 (.75)
Secondary Report < 4 Manager N=7	1.29 (.49)

APPENDIX H
Division Rationale Chart

The Category (Average Responses)	Department	Number of Primary	Average Number of Secondary	Rationale
HR and Training N=6 (8.13)	Human Resources	4	8.25	Members of the Human Resources (HR) departments.
	Training	2	8	Training is a function of the Human Resources department.
Hotel Operations N=12 (6.15)	Security	2	7	A department which supports the hotel operation. Oversees safety of employees and guests.
	Hotel Operations	2	9	Oversight of hotel departments.
	Food & Beverage	1	6	Oversees supplies and orders in support of restaurant and bar guests as well as employing a large percentage of all hotel employees.
	Executive Chef	1	7.5	Executive in the Food & Beverage Department.
	Room Reservations	1	3	Reserves hotel rooms for hotel guests.
	Retail	1	9.5	Services retail needs for all guests.
	Operations*	1	5	Manages building facilities including engineering, room, and property maintenance.
	Entertainment	1	5	Provides non-gaming entertainment for all guests.
	Engineering*	1	4	Manages building facilities including engineering, room, and property maintenance.
	Property Operations*	1	5.5	Manages building facilities including engineering, room, and property maintenance.
Marketing, Advertising, & Sales N=6 (6.39)	Sales	3	4.17	Oversees the sales and marketing of groups, organizations, and large guest gatherings.
	Marketing Advertising	1	6.5	Creation of advertising collateral and sales support for hotel guests.
	Casino Marketing	2	8.5	Creation of advertising collateral and sales specifically for casino guests.
Finance, Analysis, Administration N=6 (5.75)	Finance	2	6.75	Budget oversight.
	Risk Management	1	4.5	Prevention of financial losses due to safety related circumstances as well as potential mismanagement of payroll or funds.
	Planning & Analysis*	1	5	Report to Finance Department. Responsible for putting budgets into place and assessing fund allocation year over year.
	General Council	2	6.75	Oversight of legal administration as well as hotel and casino finances.
Casino Operations N=11 (6.42)	Table Games	1	9	Casino wagering department servicing guests playing table games.
	Casino Operations	4	7	Oversight of employee scheduling and administrative support of the casino departments.
	Casino Cage	1	6.5	Supports the casino operation with cash and chip distribution.
	Race & Sports	1	4.5	Casino wagering department focused on race and sports betting.
	Slot Operations	4	5.6	Oversight of casino slot machine play and/or guests.

Table 9. Results of the 16PF for all participants including established norms.

Raw Scores	Norms (10,261)	Director (21)	Vice President (17)	President (3)	Customer Contact (26)	Back of House (15)	Finance (6)	Casino (11)
Warmth	14.90 (4.60)	14.10 (5.57)	13.29 (4.37)	15.33 (2.89)	13.65 (4.73)	14.20 (5.29)	12.00 (6.42)	13.18 (5.23)
Reasoning	10.32 (3.18)	9.48 (2.73)	10.88 (3.10)	11.00 (2.00)	10.00 (3.18)	10.47 (2.33)	10.83 (2.48)	9.45 (3.33)
Emotional Stability	14.61 (4.94)	15.48 (3.53)	16.35 (2.62)	16.00 (4.00)	15.42 (3.25)	16.67 (2.92)	16.33 (3.83)	15.18 (2.93)
Dominance	13.29 (4.28)	14.90 (3.96)	14.23 (3.41)	17.33 2.08)	15.50 (3.24)	13.60 (4.12)	10.83 (1.72)	16.64 (3.83)
Liveliness	12.38 (4.82)	11.19 (5.46)	11.29 (4.67)	15.00 (3.61)	11.04 (5.21)	12.33 (4.76)	9.67 (3.83)	12.64 (5.33)
Rule Consciousness	14.80 (5.09)	16.00 (4.42)	14.47 (5.44)	13.33 (5.03)	14.88 (4.98)	15.67 (4.79)	16.83 (2.32)	15.00 (5.78)
Social Boldness	11.83 (6.38)	12.57 (5.91)	10.00 (5.56)	14.00 (9.54)	11.65 (6.04)	11.53 (6.23)	6.50 (4.72)	10.82 (7.11)
Sensitivity	12.02 (5.86)	9.62 (6.29)	9.12 (5.38)	10.33 (4.04)	8.73 (4.66)	10.73 (7.13)	12.00 (6.23)	7.73 (3.58)
Vigilance	10.79 (4.54)	9.48 (2.96)	10.18 (5.43)	11.00 (3.61)	10.54 (4.22)	8.73 (3.84)	9.50 (4.32)	9.55 (3.88)
Abstractedness	7.59 (5.46)	6.76 (4.58)	6.29 (5.97)	7.67 (1.53)	6.81 (5.15)	6.33 (4.89)	5.50 (4.64)	8.00 (6.53)
Privateness	10.60 (5.21)	11.95 (4.10)	11.53 (5.62)	14.67 (1.53)	12.15 (4.50)	11.67 (5.09)	12.00 (7.04)	12.73 (3.90)
Apprehension	10.97 (5.65)	10.86 (4.08)	9.59 (3.54)	8.67 (2.08)	9.35 (3.67)	11.60 (3.58)	12.00 (4.73)	10.36 (2.42)
Openness to change	17.28 (5.51)	18.00 (5.07)	17.65 (4.23)	18.33 (5.86)	18.04 (4.41)	17.60 (5.22)	18.17 (4.02)	18.91 (4.55)
Self Reliance	7.55 (5.26)	9.33 (6.91)	8.18 (5.23)	6.67 (6.43)	8.42 (5.91)	9.07 (6.68)	11.33 (7.89)	6.27 (6.75)
Perfectionism	11.63 (5.02)	14.76 (5.37)	11.06 (5.89)	12.33 (4.16)	12.92 (5.56)	13.27 (6.10)	12.83 (6.01)	13.73 (4.45)
Tension	9.85 (5.39)	10.52 (5.55)	8.76 (4.90)	12.00 (4.00)	9.92 (5.18)	9.87 (5.36)	11.67 (6.65)	8.91 (5.17)
Sten Scores								
Extroversion	5.70 (1.81)	5.08 (2.13)	5.08 (1.71)	5.83 (1.78)	5.11 (1.80)	5.17 (2.14)	3.98 (2.38)	5.47 (1.81)
Anxiety	5.60 (1.97)	5.30 (1.34)	5.07 (1.35)	5.70 (1.51)	5.31 (1.28)	5.09 (1.44)	5.30 (2.04)	5.34 (1.39)
Tough Mindedness	5.43 (1.79)	5.93 (1.61)	5.94 (1.43)	5.47 (1.01)	5.82 (1.37)	6.04 (1.67)	5.90 (.40)	5.66 (1.58)
Independence	5.46 (1.60)	5.82 (1.81)	5.42 (1.38)	6.93 (1.86)	5.96 (1.62)	5.35 (1.68)	6.27 (.54)	6.46 (2.06)
Self Control	5.54 (1.56)	5.86 (1.84)	5.59 (2.08)	4.90 (.56)	5.80 (1.89)	5.47 (1.90)	6.32 (1.11)	5.54 (2.01)

ıg established norms.

t	President (3)	Customer Contact (26)	Back of House (15)	Finance (6)	Casino (11)	Hotel (12)	Mktg (6)	HR & Trng (6)
	15.33 (2.89)	13.65 (4.73)	14.20 (5.29)	12.00 (6.42)	13.18 (5.23)	13.67 (4.91)	14.17 (4.02)	17.00 (2.97)
	11.00 (2.00)	10.00 (3.18)	10.47 (2.33)	10.83 (2.48)	9.45 (3.33)	10.17 (2.59)	10.67 (3.93)	10.33 (2.42)
	16.00 (4.00)	15.42 (3.25)	16.67 (2.92)	16.33 (3.83)	15.18 (2.93)	16.00 (3.46)	15.50 (3.56)	16.83 (2.48)
	17.33 2.08)	15.50 (3.24)	13.60 (4.12)	10.83 (1.72)	16.64 (3.83)	16.08 (2.54)	13.17 (2.56)	14.50 (4.54)
	15.00 (3.61)	11.04 (5.21)	12.33 (4.76)	9.67 (3.83)	12.64 (5.33)	10.08 (3.87)	10.83 (6.58)	14.83 (5.38)
	13.33 (5.03)	14.88 (4.98)	15.67 (4.79)	16.83 (2.32)	15.00 (5.78)	16.17 (4.13)	13.50 (4.46)	13.50 (6.90)
	14.00 (9.54)	11.65 (6.04)	11.53 (6.23)	6.50 (4.72)	10.82 (7.11)	12.00 (6.21)	14.00 4.05)	15.00 (3.58)
	10.33 (4.04)	8.73 (4.66)	10.73 (7.13)	12.00 (6.23)	7.73 (3.58)	7.00 (5.62)	10.83 (5.23)	13.67 (6.68)
	11.00 (3.61)	10.54 (4.22)	8.73 (3.84)	9.50 (4.32)	9.55 (3.88)	10.50 (3.87)	12.17 (5.08)	7.33 (3.67)
	7.67 (1.53)	6.81 (5.15)	6.33 (4.89)	5.50 (4.64)	8.00 (6.53)	5.42 (4.10)	6.17 (3.49)	8.17 (5.64)
	14.67 (1.53)	12.15 (4.50)	11.67 (5.09)	12.00 (7.04)	12.73 (3.90)	10.92 (4.54)	13.17 (5.53)	11.50 (3.56)
	8.67 (2.08)	9.35 (3.67)	11.60 (3.58)	12.00 (4.73)	10.36 (2.42)	8.92 (4.23)	9.50 (4.13)	11.17 (3.49)
	18.33 (5.86)	18.04 (4.41)	17.60 (5.22)	18.17 (4.02)	18.91 (4.55)	18.50 (4.54)	15.50 (3.45)	16.83 (6.91)
	6.67 (6.43)	8.42 (5.91)	9.07 (6.68)	11.33 (7.89)	6.27 (6.75)	9.08 (5.33)	10.67 (4.55)	7.50 (5.96)
	12.33 (4.16)	12.92 (5.56)	13.27 (6.10)	12.83 (6.01)	13.73 (4.45)	14.42 (6.10)	10.67 (5.89)	11.67 (7.23)
	12.00 (4.00)	9.92 (5.18)	9.87 (5.36)	11.67 (6.65)	8.91 (5.17)	10.92 (5.37)	9.33 4.63)	8.50 (4.59)
	5.83 (1.78)	5.11 (1.80)	5.17 (2.14)	3.98 (2.38)	5.47 (1.81)	5.05 (1.71)	4.85 (2.10)	6.17 (1.70)
	5.70 (1.51)	5.31 (1.28)	5.09 (1.44)	5.30 (2.04)	5.34 (1.39)	5.23 (1.35)	5.37 (1.00)	4.83 (.94)
	5.47 (1.01)	5.82 (1.37)	6.04 (1.67)	5.90 (.40)	5.66 (1.58)	6.10 (1.55)	6.15 (1.00)	5.70 (2.37)
	6.93 (1.86)	5.96 (1.62)	5.35 (1.68)	6.27 (.54)	6.46 (2.06)	6.08 (1.37)	5.37 (.83)	5.57 (2.00)
	4.90 (.56)	5.80 (1.89)	5.47 (1.90)	6.32 (1.11)	5.54 (2.01)	6.42 (1.90)	5.57 (1.49)	3.95 (1.77)

APPENDIX I

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN BALANCE AND FRAMES OF THE LOS

Table 1. Correlations between manager effectiveness as determined by Section III of the LOS and the Structural Frame.

	Manager Effectiveness Primary	Manager Effectiveness Secondary
Structural Frame Primary	.396* .010	.232 .145
Structural Frame Secondary	.455** .003	.866** .000

*p < .05.
**p < .01.

Table 2. Correlations between leader effectiveness as determined by Section III of the LOS and the Political and Symbolic Frames.

	Leader Effectiveness Primary	Leader Effectiveness Secondary
Political Frame Primary	.410** .088	.277 .078
Political Frame Secondary	.216 .175	.841** .000
Symbolic Frame Primary	.461** .002	.144 .368
Symbolic Frame Secondary	.256 .107	.789** .000

**p < .01.

APPENDIX J

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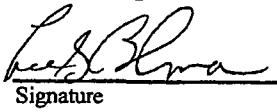

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