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## Perspectives in Practice

## Leadership: Reflections over the Past 100 Years

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**ABSTRACT**

Leadership, viewed by the American Dietetic Association as the ability to inspire and guide others toward building and achieving a shared vision, is a much written-about topic. Research on leadership has addressed the topic using many different approaches, from a very simplistic definition of traits to a more complex process involving interactions, emotions, and learning. Thousands of books and papers have been published on the topic of leadership. This review paper will provide examples of the varying foci of the writings on this topic and includes references for instruments used to measure leadership traits and behaviors. Research is needed to determine effective strategies for preparing dietitians to be effective leaders and assume leadership positions. Identifying ways to help dietitians better reflect on their leadership experiences to enhance their learning and leadership might be one strategy to explore.

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The American Dietetic Association (ADA) recently defined leadership as “the ability to inspire and guide others toward building and achieving a shared vision” (1). The ADA governing boards made a commitment at that time to continually invest in the development of members’ leadership skills (1). Such commitment is consistent with several publications urging the development of leadership skills of dietitians (2-9).

Barker, Arensberg, and Schiller (2) noted, “The cry for dietetics leadership has been heard for decades” and described the need for dietitians to serve as leader-managers, integrating both the role of leader and manager into one. Pace (5) contended that dietetics leaders are no longer defined by their ability to perform management-related or supervisory skills but by their ability to communicate a vision to the team and to inspire individual

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members to take responsibility for team actions and decisions.

The discussion on whether management and leadership are in fact two different concepts began in the 1970s. In 1977, Zaleznik first suggested in a classic *Harvard Business Review* article (10) that managers and leaders were two different types of people. Zaleznik contended that managers seek order and control and excel at diffusing conflicts and ensuring that day-to-day activities are accomplished. Leaders, conversely, thrive on chaos and are continually looking for new opportunities and different ways of achieving goals. This differentiation of management and leadership was supported by Kotter (11,12), who stated that good management brings order and consistency, whereas leadership is about coping with change. Kotter believed that management controls people by pushing them in the right direction; leadership motivates and energizes people by satisfying basic human needs. Thousands of books and papers have been published on the topic of leadership. For this review paper, leadership will be treated as a concept that is different from management. This review paper will summarize only research related to leadership and provide examples of the varying foci of the writings on this topic.

**LEADERSHIP DEFINED**

Although many authors have stressed the need for strong leadership skills in dietitians, a clear definition of what “leadership” is remains somewhat elusive. Numerous definitions of leadership have appeared in the literature. Stogdill concluded after his review of the leadership literature that “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (13). Figure 1 contains examples of the varied definitions of leadership from the business and dietetics literature.

**APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP**

Research on leadership has addressed the topic using many different approaches. The work has evolved from a very simplistic definition of traits to a more complex process involving interpersonal relations, emotions, and learning.

**Trait Approaches to Leadership**

Some of the earliest work on leadership began in the early 1900s and focused on the trait approach to defining leadership. The trait approach attempted to identify personal characteristics of effective leaders. Figure 2 lists some traits identified. In an attempt to simplify the development of trait theories, researchers (21-23) proposed the “Big Five” model as a way to interpret and categorize

Author(s)	Definition of leadership
<b>Business literature</b>	
Hemphill and Coons, 1957 (14)	"behavior of an individual . . . directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal"
Burns, 1978 (15)	"when persons . . . mobilize . . . institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers"
Richards and Engle, 1986 (16)	"is about articulating visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished"
Schein, 1992 (17)	"ability to step outside the culture . . . to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive"
House and colleagues, 1999 (18)	"ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization"
Yukl, 2002 (19)	"process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively . . . process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish the shared objectives"
<b>Dietetics literature</b>	
Garner, 1993 (3)	"recognizes opportunity . . . cares about others . . . guides others to self discovery . . . sees opportunity and takes action"
Borra, Kunkel, 2002 (1)	"ability to inspire and guide others toward building and achieving a shared vision"

Figure 1. Definitions of leadership.

work on leadership traits. The "big five" broadly defined leadership personality traits are surgency, conscientiousness, agreeableness, adjustment, and intelligence. This framework has provided the theoretical basis for much of the current research focusing on leadership traits.

#### Behavior Approaches to Leadership

Starting in the 1950s, psychology researchers began a series of research projects based on the premise that effective leaders performed certain identifiable behaviors. The most well known of these studies were conducted simultaneously at the University of Michigan (24-27) and The Ohio State University (14,28,29). Results of work at both universities suggested leadership behavior could be categorized into two dimensions, one focusing on human interaction and the other on the job itself (Figure 2). Blake and Mouton (30-32) further developed this two dimensional view of leadership behavior into what they initially termed the "Managerial Grid;" later the "Leadership Grid" (33). Behavior approaches suggest that the ideal leader is one who has high concern for people and high concern for the work that needs to be done.

#### Power/Influence Approaches to Leadership

Power and influence research focuses on explaining leadership effectiveness in terms of the type and amount of power held by someone in a leadership position and the influence a leader exerts over others. Figure 2 summarizes findings of research on power and influence.

Work by French and Raven (34) formed the basis for research on leadership power. Many types of power have been identified. Some, such as legitimate, reward, coercive, information, and ecological power, are viewed as types of position power because they evolve from one's position in an organization. Others, such as expert and referent power, are termed "personal power"

because they derive from the individual leader's characteristics (34-36).

More recent work (37-39) has focused on the tactics that leaders use to influence subordinates, peers, and superiors. This work suggests that tactics other than power, such as persuasion, consultation, ingratiation, and coalition-building often are used by leaders to influence the work of others.

#### Contingency/Situational Approaches to Leadership

As the research on leadership progressed, researchers realized that traits and behaviors of effective leaders only partly explained why they were effective, because situational factors were ignored. Thus began work categorized as contingency and situational approaches to leadership (Figure 2).

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### The discussion on whether management and leadership are in fact two different concepts began in the 1970s.

One of the first situational approaches was discussed by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (40) in 1958. Their work suggested that forces in the manager, subordinates, and situation all affected the leadership that was appropriate in a given situation. They were one of the first to suggest that one style of leadership was not effective in all situations.

Fiedler (41,42) developed the LPC Contingency Model, which focuses on the relationship between a trait termed the "least preferred coworker" (LPC) score and leadership effectiveness. Fiedler concluded that the most favorable situations for leaders were those in which they were well liked (good leader-member relations), directed a well-

<b>Approaches</b>	<b>Summary</b>
<b>Trait</b>	
Effective leader traits (20)	Identifies traits of effective leaders as: intelligence, alertness to needs of others, understanding of tasks, initiative and persistence in dealing with problems, self-confidence, desire to accept responsibility, and interest in occupying a position of dominance and control; based on review of 124 studies from 1904-1948.
Successful leader traits (13)	Suggests that successful leaders had the following traits: a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, exhibited vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, used originality in problem solving, were self-confident, showed a willingness to accept consequences of their decision and actions, displayed a readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, and were able to tolerate frustration and delay; demonstrated an ability to influence the behavior of others, had a high energy level, were adaptable, worked cooperatively with others, and were achievement oriented; based on review of 124 studies from 1948-1973.
Big Five model (21-23)	Categorizes leadership personality traits into five groups: surgency (includes traits such as energy, assertiveness, and extroversion); conscientiousness (includes traits such as dependability, integrity, and need for achievement); agreeableness (includes traits such as optimism, helpfulness, and affiliation); adjustment (includes traits such as emotional stability, self-esteem, and self-control); and intelligence (includes traits such as inquisitiveness, open mindedness, and learning oriented).
<b>Behavior</b>	
University of Michigan leadership studies (24-27)	Categorizes leadership behavior as employee oriented and task oriented. Employee- or relationship-oriented behaviors suggest a focus on and concern for subordinates and included acting friendly and being considerate toward employees, helping develop subordinates, keeping employees informed, and recognizing and appreciating the contributions of others. Production- or task-oriented leadership behaviors emphasize performance and the technical aspects of a job.
Ohio State University leadership studies (14,28,29)	Suggests leadership behavior consists of two separate and distinct dimensions: consideration and initiating structure. Consideration includes behaviors that showed friendship toward employees, developed mutual trust and respect, and exhibited strong interpersonal relationships. Initiating includes behaviors that defined the work to be done, performance expectations, and relationships among employees. Displayed as a grid with consideration on the vertical axis and initiating structure on the horizontal axis.
Managerial grid/leadership grid (30-33)	Views leadership as a two-dimensional grid; concern for production on the horizontal axis and concern for people on the vertical axis. Each axis has nine points and managers are categorized using numbers, ie, 1, manager has low concern for both production and people; a 9, manager has high concern for both.
<b>Power/influence</b>	
Power (34-36)	Suggests leaders have several different types of power including: reward, coercive, legitimate, expert, referent, information control, and ecological control.
Influence (37-39)	Identifies 11 proactive influence tactics used to influence subordinates, peers, and/or superiors: rational persuasion, apprising, inspirational appeals, consultation, exchange, collaboration, personal appeals, ingratiation, legitimating tactics, pressure, and coalition tactics.
<b>Contingency/situational</b>	
Situational leadership (40)	Suggests that forces in the manager, the subordinates, and the situation all affected the leadership that is appropriate in a given situation.
LPC contingency model (41,42)	Describes how the situation moderates the relationship between leadership effectiveness and least preferred coworker (LPC) score. Three variables believed related to leader effectiveness include: leader-member relations, task structure, and position power.
Path goal theory (43-46)	Indicates that behavior of the leader influences the satisfaction and performance of subordinates by offering rewards for achieving goals, clarifying the path to goals, and removing obstacles from the path. The effect of the leader's behavior depends on the situation.
Leaders substitutes theory (47)	Includes two kinds of situational variables, substitutes and neutralizers, which reduce the importance of leadership. Various attributes of the subordinates, task, and organization may serve as substitutes and/or neutralizers for leader behavior.
Multiple linkages model (19)	Includes four types of variables: managerial, intervening, criterion, and situational. In the model, managerial behavior and situational variables interact with intervening variables to determine the performance of a work group.
Cognitive resources theory (48,49)	Suggests that performance of a leader is determined by complex interaction among two leader traits (intelligence and experience), one type of leader behavior (directive leadership), and two aspects of the leadership situation (interpersonal stress and the nature of the group's task).
<b>Reciprocal</b>	
Transactional leadership (15)	Proposes that leaders set conditions and use contingent rewards, incentives, and punishment to motivate employees

**Figure 2.** Summary of leadership research. *(Continued on following page.)*

Approaches	Summary
Transformational leadership (50,51)	Suggests that followers feel admiration, loyalty, trust, and respect toward leader and thus are motivated to do more than originally expected to do. Transformational leadership behaviors include: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transformational leadership fosters change and innovation.
Full-range of leadership model (52)	Combines concepts of both transactional and transformational leadership and suggests that leaders generally possess both types of leadership behaviors.
Servant leadership (53,54)	Defines a servant leader as a servant to others first and a leader second; describes five ways of being a servant leader: authentic, vulnerable, accepting, present, and useful.
Relational leadership model (55)	Proposes that leadership is about relationships and focuses on five components: inclusion of people with diverse points of view, empowering those involved, purposefully building commitment, ethics, and the realization that the accomplishment of the other four components are done through a process-orientation.
Emotional intelligence (56-60)	Suggests that leaders use self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, empathy, and social skills, all components of emotional intelligence, to effectively lead.
Primal leadership (61)	Indicates that leader moods and behaviors drive the moods and behaviors of others in the organization and will impact information sharing, trust, risk taking, and learning within the organization.

Figure 2 (continued).

defined job (high task structure), and had a powerful position (high position power).

Path-goal theory (43-46) suggests that a leader's behavior will effect subordinates' job satisfaction and effort and this effect depends on aspects of situation (both task and subordinate characteristics). The "best" leadership behavior in a given situation is a function of the task to be performed and characteristics of the employee who will perform the task.

The Leaders Substitutes Theory, developed by Kerr and Jermier (47), focuses on aspects of situations including subordinates, tasks, and organizations that reduce the importance of leadership. This theory identifies two types of situational variables: substitutes, which make leader behavior unnecessary and redundant; and neutralizers, which prevent a leader from acting in a specified way or nullify the effects of the leader's actions. This theory suggests that factors such as work design, reward systems, informal peer leadership, and self-management could replace a leader's influence on subordinates.

Yukl (19) developed the Multiple Linkages Model to better show the interacting effects of managerial behavior and situational variables on the intervening variables (task commitment, ability and role clarity, organization of work, cooperation and mutual trust, resources and support, external conditions) that determine the performance of a work unit. This was one of the first contingency models to emphasize leadership processes at the group level.

The most recent of the contingency/situational theories was developed by Fiedler and his colleagues (48,49) and is termed the Cognitive Resources Theory. This theory suggests that the performance of a leader's group is determined by the interaction among leader traits, leader behavior, and the leadership situation.

### Reciprocal Approaches to Leadership

Reciprocal approaches to leadership focus on the interaction between leaders and followers and on the emotional

components involved in this interaction. This work reflects some of the most current thinking on the topic of leadership.

Burns (15) introduced and Bass (50) expanded the concept of transactional and transformational leadership, which focuses on behaviors used to influence followers and the effect of the leader on followers, respectively. Transactional leadership uses rewards and punishment to influence employee behavior. In contrast, transformational leadership motivates employee performance through idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transformational leaders have been shown to receive better performance evaluations (62) and are characterized as more innovative (63). The transformational and transactional leadership models were merged into a Full-Range of Leadership Model (52), which suggests that leaders generally possess both types of leadership behaviors.

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## Research is needed to determine strategies for preparing dietitians to be effective leaders and assume leadership positions.

Greenleaf (53) also focused on the relationship between leaders and followers. Greenleaf used the term "servant-leader" to describe his belief that true leaders are chosen by their followers. The servant-leader meets the needs of the followers and helps followers to grow both physically and emotionally.

Rost and Barker stated that "Leadership is a particular form of social relationships" (64). These relationships are recognized as the basis of leadership in the Relational Leadership Model, which views leadership as a relational process of people working together to benefit the common good (55).

<b>Instrument/Author</b>	<b>Purpose</b>	<b>Forms</b>	<b>Dimensions scored</b>
Life Styles Inventory J. Lafferty (66)	Measure of a person's thinking patterns and self-concept. Can be used at any level in an organization.	Self and others	12 scales <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Humanistic-encouraging</li> <li>• Affiliative</li> <li>• Approval</li> <li>• Conventional</li> <li>• Dependent</li> <li>• Avoidance</li> <li>• Oppositional</li> <li>• Power</li> <li>• Competitive</li> <li>• Perfectionistic</li> <li>• Achievement</li> <li>• Self-actualization</li> </ul>
The Visionary Leader: Behavior Questionnaire M. Sashkin (67)	Measure of organizational leadership for managers and employees.	Self and others	10 scales <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focused leadership</li> <li>• Communicative leadership</li> <li>• Trust leadership</li> <li>• Respectful leadership</li> <li>• Risk leadership</li> <li>• Bottom-line leadership</li> <li>• Empowered leadership</li> <li>• Long-term leadership</li> <li>• Organizational leadership</li> <li>• Cultural leadership</li> </ul>
Leadership Practices Inventory J. Kouzes and B. Posner (68)	Measure of leadership behaviors in managers and supervisors. Versions are available for students and teams.	Self and observer	5 scales <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Challenging the process</li> <li>• Inspiring a shared vision</li> <li>• Enabling others to act</li> <li>• Modeling the way</li> <li>• Encouraging the heart</li> </ul>
Survey of Leadership Practices C. Wilson and P. Connolly (69)	Measure of an individual's skills and attributes needed to change organizational culture, methods, and procedures.	Self	8 phases of leadership <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurial vision</li> <li>• Leadership for change</li> <li>• Gaining commitment</li> <li>• Monitoring personal impact</li> <li>• Drive</li> <li>• Recognizing performance</li> <li>• Residual impact</li> <li>• Sources of power</li> </ul>
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire B. Bass and B. Avolio (70)	Measure of the full range of leadership styles including transformational, transactional, and nonleadership for leaders at all levels.	Leader and raters	12 scales <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Idealized influence (attributed)</li> <li>• Idealized influence (behavioral)</li> <li>• Inspirational motivational</li> <li>• Intellectual stimulation</li> <li>• Individualized consideration</li> <li>• Contingent reward</li> <li>• Management by exception (active)</li> <li>• Management by exception (passive)</li> <li>• Laissez-faire</li> <li>• Extra effort</li> <li>• Effectiveness</li> <li>• Satisfaction</li> </ul>
Leader Behavior Analysis II D. Zigarmi, K. Blanchard, R. Hambleton, and D. Forsyth (71)	Measures perceptions of leadership styles and ability to use leadership styles by middle- and upper-level managers.	Self	6 scales of leadership style <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High directive/low supportive</li> <li>• High directive/high supportive</li> <li>• Low directive/low supportive</li> <li>• Low directive/high supportive</li> <li>• Flexibility</li> <li>• Effectiveness</li> </ul>

**Figure 3.** Description of various leadership measurement instruments available. (Continued on following page.)

<b>Instrument/Author</b>	<b>Purpose</b>	<b>Forms</b>	<b>Dimensions scored</b>
Campbell Leadership Index  D. Campbell (72)	Measure of leadership characteristics in students and adults.	Self and observer	22 scales <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ambitious</li> <li>• Daring</li> <li>• Dynamic</li> <li>• Enterprising</li> <li>• Experienced</li> <li>• Farsighted</li> <li>• Original</li> <li>• Persuasive</li> <li>• Energy</li> <li>• Affectionate</li> <li>• Considerate</li> <li>• Empowering</li> <li>• Entertaining</li> <li>• Friendly</li> <li>• Credible</li> <li>• Organized</li> <li>• Productive</li> <li>• Thrifty</li> <li>• Calm</li> <li>• Flexible</li> <li>• Optimistic</li> <li>• Trusting</li> </ul>

Figure 3 (continued).

Goleman (56) also stressed the importance of managing relationships and described emotional intelligence as an important ingredient for excellent leadership. Goleman defined emotional intelligence as “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships.” Measures for emotional intelligence have been developed (57), and emotional intelligence has been linked with effective leadership styles (58), transformational leadership (59), and effective teams (60).

Primal leadership theories often are viewed as an extension of emotional intelligence. A leader’s moods and behaviors are thought to drive the moods and behaviors of the organization and impact its overall performance (61).

**CAN LEADERSHIP BE MEASURED?**

Whether leadership can be measured is of serious debate. Several researchers have constructed instruments by which different aspects of leadership, including behaviors, traits, and characteristics, are said to be measured. Leslie and Fleenor (65) described several leadership tools; most are geared toward managers and leaders in the business or public sectors and are grounded in theory and research (see Figure 3). Several of the instruments include a self-evaluation for the manager to complete and an observer evaluation, which is completed by a colleague or employee as an assessment of the manager. Costs of these instruments range from \$10 to \$400.

**DIETETICS LEADERSHIP RESEARCH**

Very little research related to leadership in dietetics has been published; as a result, only limited information exists about dietetics leadership. Much of the research includes unpublished dissertations or smaller pieces of larger studies. Figure 4 contains a summary of dietetics-based leadership studies since 1993. The majority of the research is descriptive survey research, which tends to classify dietitians as having certain leadership styles and/or characteristics.

**FUTURE DIRECTIONS**

Leadership classification systems and definitions have evolved over the years and have included a focus on traits, characteristics, and behaviors. A variety of instruments (Figure 3) have been developed in an attempt to measure leadership. Beliefs are changing; no longer is leadership viewed as being only hierarchical and linked to a formal position with status and power (55). Current writings on leadership suggest that it is a very complex process that is not easily defined or described. Learning, however, appears to be an underlying, necessary component to effectiveness as a leader.

Dickmann and Stanford-Blair recently developed the Mindful Leadership framework, which aligns “leadership behavior to the collective capacity of individuals in organizations to think, learn, and achieve purpose” (79). This framework suggests that mindful leaders acquire knowledge, apply knowledge, and adjust leadership knowledge based on experience. This learning aspect of leadership also appeared in recent work by



Author, year	Study design	Major findings
Schiller and colleagues, 1993 (73)	Survey research: The Life Styles Inventory was completed by 893 dietitians attending a leadership seminar.	Two dominant leader styles among dietetics professionals identified: dependent style (overcautious, meek, and eager to please) and self-actualize style (optimistic, confident, energetic, and spontaneous).
Molt, 1995 (74)	Survey research: 269 management dietitians and their supervisors completed questionnaires developed by the researcher and the Center for Creative Leadership.	Experience was found not to be a predictor of leadership. Six types of experiences were helpful in developing leadership skills: specific assignment, working with others, professional organization work, breadth of experience, volunteer service, and analysis of the organization.
Arensberg and colleagues, 1996 (75)	Survey research: The Visionary Leader: Behavior Questionnaire was utilized with 116 clinical nutrition managers and their 344 subordinates.	Clinical nutrition managers were found to have self-perceived transformational leadership qualities. Generally, clinical nutrition managers' "self" scores were higher than those of their subordinates' perceptions of them. Overall, clinical nutrition managers rated highest on the respectful leadership scale and lowest on the communication leadership scale.
Dykes, 1999 (76)	Survey research: Dietetics program directors at 2-year (n=26) and 4-year institutions (n=80) were given the Visionary Leader: Behavior Questionnaire.	No significant differences were noted when comparing director's self-ratings on the Visionary Leader: Behavior Questionnaire with those ratings provided by their colleagues (other-rating). Program directors at 2-year institutions rated higher on the communication scale than directors at 4-year institutions.
Mislevy and colleagues, 2000 (77)	Survey research: Clinical nutrition managers (n=178) completed the Conditions for Work Effectiveness Questionnaire.	Clinical nutrition managers who had attained education beyond a baccalaureate degree had greater access to opportunity and resources and had higher overall empowerment score.
Burzminski, 2002 (78)	Survey research: Dietetic interns (n=91) completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (transformational, transactional, and non-transactional leadership assessment).	Dietetic interns perceived themselves to have more transformational leadership behaviors as compared to transactional leadership behaviors. No significant relationship was found between leadership behaviors and age, sex, educational level, or formal leadership training.
Golzynski, 2003 (unpublished data)	Delphi Method: Dietetics professionals who were identified as leaders and futurists in the field participated in a Delphi Technique via the Internet.	Seventeen professionalism categories emerged. "Showing leadership" was rated the third most important category of the professionalism categories analyzed.

Figure 4. Leadership studies in dietetics.

Bennis and Thomas, who found that effective leaders often had one or more events, termed "crucibles," which challenged them and molded them into better leaders (80). They stressed that self-reflection and learning were required for leaders to understand the significance of the crucible.

#### SUMMARY

This article provided an overview of the central themes in leadership literature from the past 100 years. Results suggest that leadership is difficult to define and may change based on the situation and individuals involved. Leaders do not need to be in positions of power; leadership concepts can be applied in a variety of job contexts.

The dietetics profession needs leaders. This need prompted the ADA to initiate a Leadership Institute (81) to help develop the leadership potential of members. Dietitians need to reflect on their own leadership styles and

explore ways to enhance their leadership abilities. Kellerman (82) suggested a required reading list about leadership; this could provide a first step for dietitians wanting to explore the topic further. Those working in a quality improvement environment might find the article by Schultz (83) a helpful resource. Another learning opportunity for dietitians is the reflective human action leadership program offered online by Kappa Omicron Nu, a national honor society for family and consumer sciences professionals (see [www.kon.org](http://www.kon.org)).

Research is needed to determine strategies for preparing dietitians to be effective leaders and assume leadership positions. Identifying ways to help dietitians better reflect on their leadership experiences in order to enhance their learning and leadership abilities might be one strategy to explore. Showcasing leaders in the dietetics profession in the *Journal of the American Dietetic Association* and at national meetings

might provide concrete examples of leadership for dietitians.

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