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A Descriptive Exploration of Executive Perceptions of Leadership

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for the degree of
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ABSTRACT

Interest in leadership from academics and practitioners has been steadily increasing both nationally and internationally. Despite this interest many questions remain regarding the importance, nature, and development of leaders. There has also been a growing concern regarding the quantity and quality of leadership available within organisations.

This research addresses the under-researched area of executives' perceptions on these issues. Executives' perceptions are seen to be important as they determine: the quality of leadership they personally provide; the resources and executive attention devoted to leadership issues within organisations; and the strategies required to further develop executives as leaders.

770 Australasian executives were surveyed in order to elicit their perspective on the three critical areas of:

1. The importance of leadership to their organisations
2. What is leadership?
3. How to develop leaders (principles and processes)?

The overwhelming majority of surveyed executives believe that leadership is important to the future success of their organisations. Leaders were characterised as those who provide direction, are people focused, and character based. Further, the majority (92.5%) of executives believe that leaders are different from managers.

Executives believe that, while leaders can be developed, aspects of leadership are born or innate. Leadership development should be inside-out, starting with one's values, motives, and assumptions; requires a focus on learning and teaching; should integrate action and reflection; and takes longer than a week to develop.

Overall, the ability to attract, recruit, develop, retain and sustain leaders is seen to be poor to fair and the time and effort spent ensuring the necessary leadership is inadequate. Collectively executives believe that an effective leadership system requires both a strong willingness (culture) and strong competence (ability). The organisation must value leadership and be willing to support, encourage and invest in the different leadership processes, as well as complementing this attitude with effective practices.

This research provides valuable insights into executives' perceptions of leadership and leadership development and into the practical implications of these for organisations. It also raises questions for future research that may further enhance the quantity and quality of leadership and therefore increase the quality of working life for people within organisations.

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CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

The selection of a research topic is determined by many factors. The two most important are the values and interests of the researcher and the current context both in academic and practitioner circles (McNeil, 1985; Graziano and Raulin, 1993).

The researcher was personally interested in the leadership area as a result of earlier research conducted on organisational learning. A strong conclusion drawn from the literature on learning organisations was that a lack of leadership was a key reason for the slow development of such organisations (Senge, 1990). The author was also personally involved in an executive leadership development programme and was eager to learn more about this area (Blyde and Bebb, 1996).

Equally, interest in leadership from academicians and practitioners had been steadily increasing both nationally and internationally. Rost's (1991) review of leadership literature showed what he described as a "proliferation" and "veritable explosion" in the number of books, chapters and articles dedicated to the subject of leadership in the 1980's. By implication, this reflected a steady increase in the popularity of the topic among both scholars and practitioners.

The growing interest was matched by growing concern with regards to the quantity and quality of leadership available. A cover article in the *Time International* magazine (July, 1993) asked "Where have all the leaders gone?" which captured the feelings of the time with regards to political and organisational leadership. This combination of personal interest and growing national and international interest in leadership prompted the author to investigate leadership research possibilities.

Emerging from an initial investigation was the decision to look at organisational leadership and its development. Research on both aspects was seen as being pertinent to addressing

the organisational leadership crisis expressed in the literature (Time Magazine 1993; Kotter, 1988; Bennis and Nanus, 1985).

It soon became apparent that a decision needed to be made regarding the point of view to be taken in the research. Hunt (1991) states that a leadership researcher, a leadership consultant, and a leadership practitioner may have different basic assumptions about leadership and different ways of defining leadership. Therefore, the perspective taken in the research was seen to be important. A review of the literature showed that while much has been written in the area of leadership, few researchers had systematically looked at the views of executives within organisations. In particular, the views of senior executives had been largely overlooked. Hunt (1991) highlights that, of the estimated 10,000 leadership studies conducted, almost half had been done at the bottom of the organisation.

Still less research had been conducted that actively sought to elicit senior executives' own understanding of leadership, their belief as to its importance to their organisations, or the successes and challenges they were having with respect to developing the necessary leadership for their organisations. The more common approach was to ask people within organisations to indicate the extent to which they agreed with existing models of leadership. Few started with what could be called a "blank sheet" approach. It was therefore decided to research executive's understanding of leadership and its development by eliciting *their* point of view.

Senior executive's understandings of leadership were deemed to be particularly important for three reasons. First, they are often expected to provide leadership within organisations. The perceptions they hold of leadership will determine the quality of the leadership they provide. Senge (1990) highlights this fact when describing "mental models". He describes mental models as:

“deeply ingrained assumptions, generalisations, or even pictures or images that *influence how we understand the world and how we take action*. Very

often, we are not consciously aware of our mental models or the effects they have on our behaviour.” (Senge, 1990, p 8 - emphasis added).

The importance of these perceptions or mental models is that they form the basis for executive’s understanding and action. However, these models are often unconscious, in which case their impact goes unrecognised. This poses no problems until the mental models become outdated and lead to ineffective action or decisions. Therefore this research aims to surface executives’ perceptions or mental models, with the hope that this will establish a foundation for future research on evaluating and improving these mental models, thereby improving the quality of leadership that senior executives provide.

Secondly, senior executives’ views have a strong impact on the development of leadership within organisations through the role model they provide; through the importance they place on leadership development; and through the resources and executive attention they devote to leadership issues. If leadership is seen to be unimportant to senior executives, the likelihood of leadership development initiatives being encouraged or produced is minimal.

If a theory of leadership is to be used for diagnosis, training, and development, it must be grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) - grounded in the concepts and assumptions that are acceptable to and used by managers, officials and emergent leaders.

Therefore, if organisations are to successfully develop the necessary leadership, leadership developers must be able to justify the importance of leadership development to executives in a way that is meaningful to them, and provide models of development that resonate with these executives’ understandings. Leadership development experts are in a much better position to make this case where they can build on executive’s own understanding of leadership. To aid this process, this research aims to clarify executives’ understanding of the importance, nature and development of leadership.

Thirdly, senior executives are often recipients of leadership development programmes. Successful development of executive leadership requires clarity on both the definition held

by the developer of what leadership is (i.e. the end product), and the definition of leadership that executives currently hold to be true. Understanding the gaps and overlaps between these two positions will help leadership developers identify the necessary strategies for moving executives from where they are, to where they need to be in order to be more effective as leaders. While the purpose of this research is to provide empirical data on current Australasian executive perceptions of leadership, this research also provides a summary of literature definitions of leadership (see Chapter Three), thereby addressing both aspects required for effective leadership development.

A further possible advantage of eliciting senior executives' point of view is that the research may elicit key insights into the practical workings of leadership. Researchers are often criticised for being too theoretical and removed from day-to-day realities. Extracting key, generalisable elements of leadership from practitioners can provide some steps towards redressing the balance between theory and practice.

In summary, clearly understanding what executives currently think is an important step in developing organisational leadership in Australasia. It is important because executives' perceptions of leadership determine the quality of leadership they personally provide; the resources and executive attention devoted to leadership issues within their organisations; and the nature of the strategies needed to develop them further as leaders.

It is important to note that this thesis aims to describe *what* executives think leadership is and *how* it should be developed. Why executives have these perceptions, how these perceptions are developed, and how they can be changed are fruitful areas for future research, but beyond the scope of this thesis. It is hoped that this research will form the foundation for future work in this area.

Three broad leadership issues are addressed from the executive's point of view. The first is the *importance* of leadership; the second is understanding *what* leadership is; and the third addresses *how* to develop leadership. This research systematically addresses these main issues.

The first four chapters provide a framework for understanding leadership in general, and provide a context for the research results obtained from 770 Australasian executives.

Chapter Two begins by looking at the issue of the importance of leadership. With the growing interest in leadership, it is necessary to establish whether leadership does make a difference or whether its importance has been overstated. This chapter explores the debate that has occurred within the leadership literature regarding the importance of leadership, highlighting the major reasons given for its importance and establishing a method for measuring the “real” need for leadership.

Chapter Three reviews the literature on leadership. Leadership literature has tended to fall into two independent streams - leadership definitions and leadership Schools of Thought. By reviewing the literature in both streams, this chapter provides sketch-map frameworks of the leadership literature. By developing a series of frameworks for understanding current conceptualisations of leadership, the reader is in a better position to understand the significance of the research findings.

A fundamental assumption held by leadership theorists highlighted in the literature review is the assumption that leadership equals good management (Rost, 1991). Therefore, to develop a good understanding of leadership in organisations, this critical assumption requires further examination. Chapter Four traces the changes and development in the nature of the relationship between leadership and management, and highlights the key elements that have emerged in the controversy on whether leadership and management are different, and/or in what ways are they different. An integrating framework is proposed as a possible solution to this debate for the future. This chapter also provides the literature context for the research question asking executives if they distinguish between leaders and managers.

Chapter Five focuses on the principles and processes of leadership development. Three major aspects of leadership development were considered important. The first and primary issue is “can leaders be developed?”. This debate, which is closely tied to the debate on

whether leaders are “born or made”, is fundamental to the leadership development field. This question therefore heads the discussion of leadership development. The second aspect relates to the leadership development *principles*. Leadership development principles provide the link between leadership theory and leadership practice. This chapter highlights the current and emerging leadership development principles. The final aspect relates to leadership development *processes*. The processes are in turn, split into development programmes and developmental systems. While there is relatively little literature on actual leadership development programmes, an assessment of the current state of leadership development practice is conducted largely through the summary of Conger’s (1992) work. Attention then turns to the wider leadership systems. This places the development of leaders in the context of the wider leadership processes of attracting, selecting, retaining and sustaining leaders. Chapter Five concludes the literature review chapters.

Chapter Six provides a bridge between the literature review and results sections by providing an outline of the methodological approach taken in the research. This chapter addresses three broad questions regarding the research methodology - “why?”, “what?”, and “how?”. The chapter begins by highlighting “why” this research was conducted, and “what” it sets out to achieve. The methodology for achieving these ends is clarified and reasons for the choices made provided. The questionnaire structure is also explained in the context of the research outcomes. Having addressed the “why” and the “what” for both the research and the particular methodology chosen, the “how” is then addressed covering the processes used to implement the chosen methodology and to conduct the analysis.

Chapters Seven to Ten provide the description and analysis of the survey results. The results chapters approximately mirror the development of the literature review with Chapter Seven addressing the “Importance of Leadership”; Chapter Eight addressing “What Is Leadership?”; Chapter Nine focuses on “Leadership Development Principles”; and Chapter Ten addresses the “Leadership Development Processes”.

Chapter Eleven consolidates the results and highlights the major conclusions drawn. Executives’ conclusions are compared with relevant conclusions drawn in the literature

review, and the implications of the results are explored. Where relevant, the implications are considered for executives, leadership development practitioners, organisational system designers, and leadership theorists/academics. Chapter Twelve completes this research by providing recommendations for future research.

In short, this research explores senior executives' perceptions on three key leadership dimensions. The first, "Is leadership important?"; the second, "What is leadership?", and thirdly, "How to develop leadership?" The Australasian focus; the senior executive focus; and the exploration of executives' own understanding of leadership uniquely characterise this research. Chapter Two begins the literature review by addressing the importance of leadership.

CHAPTER TWO

THE IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP

2.1 *Introduction*

Because defining leadership is a complex and controversial area, this literature review and the research questionnaire begin by establishing whether leadership is important. Assessing leadership's importance, however it is defined, provides a foundation for evaluating whether further research time and energy should be invested in leadership. For example, if it is found that leadership is not important, then researching it would add little value to organisations and the research itself could be said to be of questionable importance.

This chapter addresses two issues regarding the importance of leadership. The first relates to the literature debate that has occurred between those who believe leadership is not important, and those who argue that leadership is very important. Recent perspectives, which go some way towards integrating these two points of view, are also summarised.

The second issue relates to how to measure executives' assessment of the importance of leadership. As Chapter One showed, the importance that executives place on leadership will, in part, determine the attention and resources that leadership receives. Thus, the "felt" or perceived need for leadership has a significant impact on the quality of leadership within organisations. However, executives' perceptions are a necessary, but not sufficient determinant of leadership's importance. Both "real" and "felt" needs must be evaluated. In particular, the challenge of assessing the "real" need for leadership is addressed, and a proposed method of evaluation is explored.

In short, this chapter has two broad objectives. The first is to address the question, "Is leadership important?" The second is to explore methods for evaluating executives' perceptions of the "felt" and "real" need for leadership.

2.2 *The debate - Is leadership important?*

There are two main points of view as to whether leadership is important. Leavy and Wilson (1994) label these camps "voluntarist" and "determinist". Voluntarists, who make up the majority in leadership research, assume that leaders make an important contribution to the direction and performance of organisations. Rost (1991) concurs with this point noting that leadership has been "in" for so long, it is difficult to think of a time when it was "out". In contrast, determinists believe that the situation and environment, not the leader, makes the real difference. They claim that the importance of leadership has been seriously overstated.

The next section begins by taking a closer look at the deterministic camp, and is followed by a review of the voluntaristic camp. Before coming to a conclusion on the question "Is leadership important?", two pieces of research that provide a level of integration between voluntarist and deterministic viewpoints are highlighted.

2.2.1 *The deterministic point of view*

There are relatively few deterministic theories. However, they encompass the range of perspectives, from those that state that leaders make a small contribution to organisational effectiveness by influencing the few areas of discretion that exist (Dreilinger, McElheny, Robinson and Rice, 1982); to those that state that leaders play a symbolic rather than substantive role (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978); and to those that state that leaders play no role at all, being totally constrained by organisational and environmental factors (Hannan and Freeman, 1977; Aldrich, 1979).

Of all the deterministic theories, only one has captured the attention of mainstream leadership theory. This theory is known as the "substitutes for leadership" approach. This section will outline this approach and supplement its argument with conclusions drawn from recent work conducted on "stewardship" by Block (1993).

The concept of substitutes for leadership was developed to account for situations in which leadership was not needed or made little difference regardless of the leader's behaviour, style, or fit with the situation (Griffin, 1990; Howell, Bowen, Dorfman, Kerr and Podsakoff, 1990).

Things that could substitute for leadership included characteristics of the follower, task, or organisation that either neutralised or replaced the leaders' impact. Characteristics of the follower that were identified as substitutes included a high level of personal ability, professional orientation and education, experience, need for independence, and indifference toward organisational rewards. Characteristics of the task that may substitute for leadership included the degree of routine and procedures, the availability of feedback (from clients, peers and the task itself), and the amount of intrinsic satisfaction provided by the task. Organisational characteristics that serve as substitutes included a high degree of organisational formalisation, high group and team structure and cohesion, high inflexibility, and a rigid reward structure (Griffin, 1990; Howell, Bowen, Dorfman, Kerr and Podsakoff, 1990, Robbins and DeCenzo, 1995).

The main conclusion drawn from the substitutes of leadership approach is that the importance and potency of leadership is much smaller than is often claimed or implied. Rather, there are a number of factors that have a greater potential impact on organisational effectiveness. McCall's (1978) statement is representative of this view:

"The emphasis on personal leader responsibility for the group may be unfair, unrealistic and counterproductive. [Organisational factors] have significant effects on whether and in what ways leaders have an effect. The environment of the organisation can directly affect leadership by constraining what leaders can do (cited in Dreilinger, McElheny, Robinson and Rice, 1982, p 70).

The substitutes for leadership approach identifies factors *beyond* leadership that constrain its effectiveness, or have a stronger impact on effectiveness. Block (1993), takes a different approach, identifying factors *within* leadership that question the efficacy of leadership. He

argues that leadership, by its very nature, is unable to bring about fundamental change in organisations. He believes that leadership has received too strong a focus in organisations, and further, that this focus is misplaced. Rather, organisations should turn their attention to what he calls "stewardship".

The emphasis of Block's (1993) work is in defining and exploring stewardship, which he defines as the set of governance principles and practices that create a strong sense of ownership and responsibility for outcomes within all levels of the organisation. However, Block (1993) makes some very strong assertions regarding the nature of leadership. He acknowledges that leadership has strong and attractive connotations including initiative, responsibility, vision, and the ability to transform. The downside is that, at its core, the wish for leadership is disempowering to "followers". It is disempowering in that it represents the desire to have someone else (the leader) provide the necessary hope for organisations. Consequently, leadership automatically brings notions of control and knowing what is best for others. It is this localising of power, purpose and privilege in leadership that makes it unable to create the changes required in organisations. Therefore, stewardship, not leadership, he argues, is the "key to fitting organisations to their marketplace and fitting people to their organisations" (p 6). The overall conclusion is that leadership is not as important as is often claimed, and should move into the "background" of an organisation's focus.

In summary, there are a small number of theorists who argue that leadership is not, or should not be, the predominant driving force in organisational effectiveness and performance. There are organisational factors and other approaches to organisational governance that do, or could, make a more significant difference. Having looked at these arguments, attention will now be focused on the voluntaristic point of view.

2.2.2 The voluntaristic point of view

In contrast to the deterministic perspective is the predominant view that leadership makes a difference. This point of view is well expressed by researchers such as Bass (1990a) and

Locke, Wheeler, Schnider, Niles, Goldstein, Welsh, and Chah (1991) who observe that the study of history has been the study of leaders. They claim that for better or worse, leaders seem to "make" history, and that the understanding of social institutions, social movements, and whole societies appears to be tied up in understanding the leaders of those institutions, movements, and societies. Starratt (1993a) makes a similar point noting that:

"What leaders do or do not do seems to matter enormously in the course of human affairs. Therefore those who would educate leaders should know what they are attempting, because the stakes are high" (p 2).

Almost all works on leadership begin with some assertion as to the importance of leadership. The reasons put forward for its importance include its contribution to:

- ▶ long-term competitiveness (O'Toole, 1995).
- ▶ organisational direction, to see the path ahead and take the risks to show the way (Greenleaf, 1977; Gilmore 1988).
- ▶ organisational survival (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Bass 1990a)
- ▶ alignment of various stakeholder's interests (Gilmore, 1988; Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Patterson, Grenny, and McMillan, 1996).
- ▶ the handling of internal differences (Gilmore, 1988; Clark and Clark, 1990).
- ▶ the provision of meaning (Gilmore, 1988).
- ▶ developing a buffer between the organisation and its wider environment (Gilmore, 1988).
- ▶ developing the basic culture (character) of the organisation (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Kotter and Heskett, 1992).
- ▶ increasing organisational performance and effectiveness (Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan, 1994; Bass, 1990a).
- ▶ success of the organisation (Foster and Heling, 1995).
- ▶ providing shared purpose, values and vision (Wall, Solum, and Sobol, 1992; Senge, 1990).
- ▶ handling the increasing amount and speed of change and to bring about the necessary change in organisations (Kotter, 1988; Kotter 1990a; Locke,

Wheeler, Schneider, Niles, Goldstein, Welsh, Chah, 1991; Clark and Clark, 1990).

While there a number of reasons put forward by the orists as to why leadership is important, three interconnected themes emerge. The first is that leadership is seen to be important because it strongly impacts on future performance. This includes items such as long-term competitiveness, survival, increasing performance and effectiveness, success and direction.

The second theme relates to leadership's role in shaping the organisation's culture. This includes items such as handling internal differences, providing meaning, developing the basic culture, and providing shared purpose, values and vision. Together, these first two themes account for the largest proportion of the reasons provided. They also allude to the so-called "hard" (performance) and "soft" (culture and values) dimensions of organisational life.

The third theme highlights leadership's importance in both handling, and bringing about, change. This also includes the item relating to buffering the organisation from the wider environment.

The predominant view, therefore, is that leadership is very important, primarily due to its impact on future performance and the organisation's culture, and its ability to bring about and handle change.

Statements regarding the importance of leadership can be found in the introduction of most leadership books. There are, however, relatively few pieces of research that provide substantiation for these assertions. The following sections highlight three pieces of research that *actively* sought to address the question, "Is leadership important?"

The first two groups of researchers, Leavy and Wilson (1994) and Peters and Waterman (1982), start with the assumption that there are situational moderators to leadership. Their research leads them to conclude, however, that leaders do make a significant difference. The third group of researchers (Hogan, Curphy and Hogan, 1994) take a psychological

perspective and argue that effectiveness measures, not anecdotal evidence, should determine whether leadership is important or not. Their research outlines three methods for establishing leadership's effectiveness. All three methods conclude that leadership is important.

The following sections summarise each of these pieces of research. Because each researcher did not assume the importance of leadership, their research findings provide strong grounding for the conclusion that leadership is of real importance.

2.2.2.1 Leavy and Wilson (1994)

Leavy and Wilson (1994), having researched both deterministic and voluntaristic camps to identify the importance of leadership relative to other contextual factors, found that the impact of leaders is likely to vary according to two key factors - organisational context and history. This perspective, they claim, bridges the determinism and voluntarism camps by placing the arguments for each in temporal and historical perspectives. It also highlights both the potency and powerlessness of leaders' actions.

This finding would, on the surface, appear to place significant constraints on leaders' effectiveness or importance. However, their key conclusion, was that while leaders are tenants of time and context, they are rarely purely passive agents. Leaders often can and do make their organisations' histories, though not always in circumstances of their own choosing. A clear conclusion was that the autonomous actions of leaders often proved to be the decisive element in determining the pace and direction of change despite strong contextual constraints. Leavy and Wilson (1994) state that:

"We would be confident that many of the leaders described in our study would have acted as they did irrespective of context (organisational and socio-political). It would appear that there are enduring and identifiable characteristics of leadership that emanate solely from individuals themselves" (p 192).

Therefore, leaders' actions are important. Leaders, can and do, make a difference. Leavy and Wilson's (1994) research, outlined above, provides compelling argument for the importance of leadership, as their conclusion comes from research that explicitly examined the situational moderators of leadership rather than looking to provide retrospective justification for the importance of leadership.

2.2.2.2 Peters and Waterman (1982)

In a similar vein, Peters and Waterman (1982) began their research into organisational success by discounting the role of leadership, stating that their strongly held belief was that:

"the excellent companies had gotten to be the way they are because of a unique set of cultural attributes that distinguish them from the rest, and if we understood those attributes well enough we could do more than just mutter 'leadership' in response to questions like 'Why is J&J so good?'" (p 26).

Despite this belief, they found that strong leadership was associated with almost every excellent company. Alder (1993) commenting on Peters and Waterman's (1982) research noted that the recent demise of several of the "successful" companies provides further support for a stronger focus on personal (ie. leadership) rather than organisational factors.

2.2.2.3 Hogan, Curphy and Hogan (1994)

Hogan, Curphy and Hogan (1994) argue that effectiveness, not behaviour, should be the standard by which leadership is judged. They define effectiveness as the impact the leader has on the organisation's bottom line. While recognising that effectiveness measures are difficult to specify, and are often affected by factors beyond the leader's control, they identified three potential methods of evaluation which are summarised below. Each of the methods indicated that leadership does make a difference.

The first method was the analysis of the few leadership effectiveness studies that have been conducted. They highlight four effectiveness studies that clearly showed that certain leader characteristics are associated with enhanced performance. The second, and less direct method, was achieved through taking a historical perspective and reflecting on the consequences of leadership, such as that provided by Hitler and Gandhi. They note that the consequences of these leaders are still being felt today and therefore indicate that leaders' actions matter. Finally, the third method used was taking the follower's perspective of leadership. They quote nine pieces of research that highlighted the detrimental impact that leadership/managerial incompetence has on followers. Summarising their findings, Hogan, Curphy and Hogan (1994) conclude that there is growing evidence supporting the common sense notion that leadership matters.

Substantiation for the importance of leadership is provided by the three pieces of organisational research conducted by Leavy and Wilson (1994), Peters and Waterman (1982) and Hogan, Curphy and Hogan (1994). Taking different perspectives, each of these researchers questioned the importance of leadership and concluded that leadership does make a difference to organisations, and is therefore worthy of further organisational and research attention.

The conclusion that leadership is important dominates the leadership literature and would tend to indicate that the deterministic perspective and conclusions are wrong. However, recent work by Senge (1990) and Collins and Porras (1994) goes some way towards integrating the deterministic and voluntaristic perspectives. Their work is outlined in the next section.

2.2.2.4 Recent Perspectives on the "Does Leadership Make a Difference?" Debate

Senge (1990) argues that learning organisations require a new view of leadership. Within learning organisations, leadership is seen to be critical, but in ways not traditionally associated with leadership. The traditional view of leaders casts them as "special people who set the direction, make the key decisions, and energise the troops" (p 340). However,

the key aspect of the leader's new work, is the neglected role of leader as designer. While little credit goes to the designer, and their work is rarely visible, the consequences and benefits of that work are long-lasting. Senge (1990) illustrates this point by noting that the ship's designer has more influence and impact, than all the normally associated leadership roles of captain, navigator, engineer, or social director.

Coming to a very similar conclusion, Collins and Porras (1994) conducted a six year research study of visionary companies, asking the question, "What makes the truly exceptional companies *different* from the other companies?" (p xiii - emphasis in the original). One of their key findings was that visionary companies did *not* require great, high profile, charismatic, visionary leaders. In fact, they had leaders who concentrated on creating enduring organisations; leaders that were "clock builders" not "time tellers". Collins and Porras (1994) state that:

"Having a great idea or being a charismatic visionary leader is "time telling"; building a company that can prosper far beyond the presence of any single leader and through multiple product life cycles is "clock building" ... instead of concentrating on acquiring the individual personality traits of visionary leadership, they take an architectural approach and concentrate on building the organizational traits of visionary companies ... Their greatest creation is *the company itself* and what it stands for" (p 23).

What is significant is that both authors acknowledge that leadership plays a key role in organisations, thus agreeing with the fundamental premise of the voluntaristic position. However, they argue that leadership is important for reasons not traditionally acknowledged or realised. In fact, the two deterministic theories highlighted (substitutes for leadership and stewardship) come closest to these authors' definitions of leadership. That is, leadership's fundamental responsibility is to create organisational systems that enable the organisation to function effectively without their leadership. This is clearly similar to the ideas raised by the substitute approach. Block's (1993) notions of stewardship are also mirrored in Senge's (1990) and Collins and Porras' (1994) work, where leaders are seen to be responsible for building organisations that empower "people [to] continually expand

their capabilities to understand complexity, clarify vision, and improve shared mental models” (Senge, 1990, p 340).

Thus, the theories and research of Senge (1990) and Collins and Porras (1994) provide a level of integration between the voluntaristic and deterministic schools of thought, by using deterministic arguments to support voluntaristic conclusions.

2.2.3 *“Is Leadership Important?” - A Conclusion*

While there are a small number of theorists who question the importance of leadership, stating that it is not, or should not be, a driving force within organisations, the weight of evidence seems to fall in favour of those who conclude that leadership is important. As with many debates, however, there is often truth in both sides of the argument. Perhaps the answer to the question, “Is leadership important?” is “Yes, but not necessarily in ways we have traditionally assumed.” More specifically, “Yes, leadership is important, but not so much because of what leaders can do, but rather in their ability to establish structures that enable people throughout the organisation to achieve”.

In summary, the overall conclusion is that leadership is important, and therefore there is value in further research and understanding of leadership. This conclusion is advocated by the majority of leadership theorists and is supported by research findings, particularly Leavy and Wilson (1994), Peters and Waterman (1982) and Hogan, Curphy and Hogan (1994). There is also a need to be open to new possibilities, new roles, and new ways in which leadership does make this difference. Therefore, rather than dismiss those determinists who challenge or reject the idealised notions of leadership, their arguments should be used as a spur towards these new developments.

Having addressed the first objective of determining whether leadership is important, the following section addresses the second objective of highlighting the issues involved in assessing executives’ perceptions of leadership’s importance.

2.3 *Diagnosing the need for and importance of leadership*

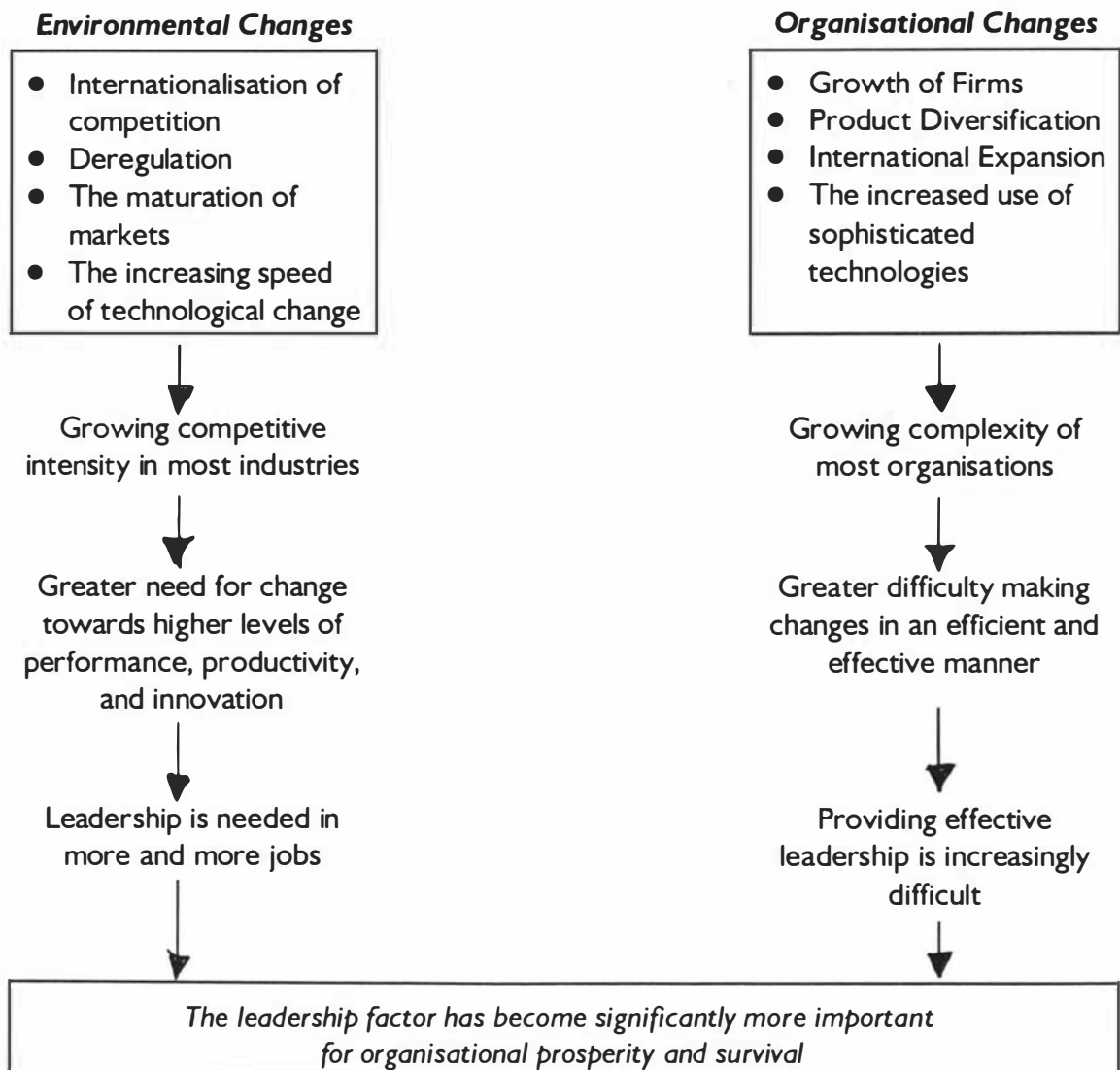
It was deemed necessary to address two aspects of the need for leadership within organisations - the “felt” and the “real” aspects. As was shown in Chapter One, executives' mental models (perceptions) determine the attention received by, and action taken on leadership issues. Therefore, if executives believe that leadership is needed and important, that is, a high “felt” need, then leadership is more likely to receive executive attention and resources. However, executives believing that leadership is important, does not necessarily make it so. Thus, an assessment of the “real” need for leadership is also required.

The “felt” need for leadership can be readily assessed by directly asking executives. However, identifying the “real” need for leadership is more difficult. No existing research instrument was found for establishing the “real” need for leadership within organisations. While there were many leadership questionnaires, such as the popular Posner and Kouzes' (1988) *Leadership Practices Inventory*, and Bass' (1985c) *Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire*, these questionnaires all assume the importance of leadership and tested the degree to which an individual demonstrated the required characteristics of leadership. None of the questionnaires evaluate whether there is a need for leadership. Thus, the existing instruments diagnose an individual's leadership development needs, or more specifically the individual's performance on key leadership dimensions, while no established method of diagnosing the need for leadership within organisations was found.

One framework that lends itself to assessing the real need for leadership, is that developed by Kotter (1990a). His descriptive framework is useful for three main reasons. The first is that his fundamental premise is that leadership is important (see Figure 2.1). This premise is consistent with the conclusion established earlier in this chapter. The second is that his analysis encapsulates many of reasons identified in the literature as to why leadership is important (as per Section 2.2.2). This point will be examined further later in this section. Thirdly, Kotter's (1990a) analysis has a strong research base, and he has a very good reputation in the leadership field.

Kotter (1988) argues that the increase in "competitive intensity" has increased the need for effective leadership. At the same time, increasing organisational complexity has made it more difficult to provide effective leadership (Kotter, 1988; Gilmore, 1988; Clark and Clark, 1990; Foster and Heling, 1995). The cumulative effect of these two changes is powerful and shows that the consequences of effective or ineffective leadership are significant (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1
The Changing Business Scene
and Its Consequences for the Leadership Factor



adapted from Kotter (1988)

This analysis is consistent with this chapter’s earlier conclusion that leadership is important. It also encapsulates many of the literature reasons highlighted for the importance of leadership. Of the three themes identified in the literature, impacting on future performance and handling and bringing about change are explicitly mentioned. Kotter’s (1988) analysis does not, however, directly address the identified theme of leadership’s importance in shaping the organisation’s culture. Nevertheless, the analysis integrates many of the literature reasons for the importance of leadership and is therefore a useful model for assessing the “real” need for leadership.

What is significant is that Kotter (1990a) built on and adapted his analysis to provide a conceptual framework which posits a direct relationship between the level of change and complexity expected in an organisation and the need for leadership *and* management (Kotter, 1990a). Implicit in this analysis is Kotter's (1990a) distinction between management and leadership which is discussed in detail in Chapter Four. However, the focus of this chapter is on relationship identified between the level of change, and the need for leadership. Graphically, the dynamics of his analysis are shown in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2
The Relationship of Change and Complexity to the
Amount of Leadership and Management Needed in an Organisation

Amount of change needed in the organisation (due to environmental instability, rapid growth, etc)	High	Considerable leadership but not much management required (start-up businesses)	Considerable leadership and management required (most organisations today)
	Low	Little management or leadership required (most organisations until this century)	Considerable management but little leadership required (many successful organisations in the 1950s and 1960s)
		Low	High
		The complexity of the organisation (due to size, technology, geographic dispersion, the number of products or services, etc.)	

(Kotter, 1990a, p 13)

In contrast to his earlier model, Kotter (1990a) argues that the increased complexity of organisations does more than just make leadership more difficult to exercise, it creates a greater need for management. However, what is of particular interest here is his assertion *that the greater the amount of change* (due to environmental pressure, competitive intensity, and rapid growth), *the greater the need for leadership*. This is significant in that it establishes that the expected degree of change can be used to indicate the “real” need for leadership.

2.4 Summary

In addressing “Is leadership important?”, the leadership literature was seen to comprise of two camps - determinists and voluntarists. The determinists argue that leadership is not, or should not be, the predominant driving force in organisational effectiveness and performance. The most well known deterministic approach, the substitutes for leadership, stated that factors *beyond* leadership, such as the situation and environment, have a stronger impact on organisational effectiveness than leaders do. Taking a different perspective, Block (1993) identified factors inherent *within* leadership that he believed made it unable to bring about fundamental change in organisations.

In contrast, the voluntaristic approach affirms that leadership is very important to organisations. Numerous reasons were highlighted, but three themes emerged: that leadership has a significant impact on the organisation’s future performance and on its culture; and is necessary to handle and bring about change.

The most compelling arguments for the efficacy of leadership have come from researchers who have been cynical or actively looking for leadership restrainers (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Leavy and Wilson, 1994). The overall conclusion from their research, and the research conducted on leadership effectiveness by Hogan, Curphy and Hogan (1994), was that leadership does make a difference.

As with most debates, it was argued that there is truth on both sides. Recent work by Senge (1990) and Collins and Porras (1994) goes some way towards integrating the deterministic and voluntaristic perspectives by acknowledging that leadership plays a key role in organisations, but for reasons that are more closely aligned with deterministic arguments. That is, leadership's fundamental responsibility is to create organisational systems that enable individuals to function effectively without their leadership. It was therefore suggested that the answer to the question, "Is leadership important?" is "Yes, but not necessarily in ways we have traditionally assumed." There is a need to be open to new ways in which leadership makes this difference.

Having established leadership's importance, attention was focused on assessing executive's perceptions of the importance of leadership. It was argued that both "felt" and "real" aspects were important to address. While no existing method for assessing the "real" need for leadership was discovered, Kotter's (1990a) diagnostic framework provides the basis for a simple diagnostic tool, with the "degree of change expected" used as an indication, or surrogate measure, for the "real" future need for leadership.

This chapter has established two fundamental points. First, that leadership is substantively important, and by implication, worthy of further research effort. Secondly, it has established a method for assessing executive perceptions of the need for leadership. Given this, attention will now be focused on what leadership is.

CHAPTER THREE WHAT IS LEADERSHIP?

3.1 *Introduction*

Chapter One provided the rationale for this leadership research, in particular showing that executives' perceptions of leadership are important as: they determine the quality of leadership personally provided by executives; they impact on the resources and executive attention devoted to leadership issues within organisations; and they influence the nature of the strategies for developing executives further as leaders.

Chapter Two showed that leadership is of real importance to organisations and is therefore worthy of further study and research. Together, Chapters One and Two indicate that the greater the understanding of executive perceptions of leadership and leadership development, the greater will be our ability to increase the effectiveness of organisations via an increased quality and quantity of leadership.

While the purpose of this research is to provide empirical data on New Zealand and Australian executive perceptions of leadership, it is useful to place these perceptions in the context of leadership definitions found in the literature. As noted by Ghauri, Grønhaug, and Kristianslund (1995) a literature review of this nature should:

- a. *frame* the problem under scrutiny;
- b. *identify* relevant concepts, methods/techniques and facts; and
- c. *position* the study. (p 23).

This chapter provides a frame of reference for understanding the concepts relevant to this research by reviewing the major themes in the literature. Due to the vast amount of literature on leadership, rather than provide an in-depth description and review of the literature, this chapter will provide broad "sketch-maps" of the leadership "terrain". These

sketch-maps will help provide some bearings in a large and complex field of study (Thomas, 1993).

In the leadership literature, two main approaches are taken to developing an understanding of leadership. The first could be considered a micro perspective and looks at the *definitions* of leadership. The second is a macro perspective which addresses the major leadership *Schools of Thought*. This chapter will review both approaches in order to develop a broad understanding of the leadership literature, and to provide a context for the responses of the 770 New Zealand and Australian executives in this research.

The review begins with the definitional approach. This encompasses the two main areas of dictionary and leadership scholar definitions. It will be shown that dictionary definitions do not reflect the complexity of the leadership field and are therefore regarded as inadequate for providing clarity on the nature of leadership, and inadequate for reflecting the breadth of definitions that exist in the literature.

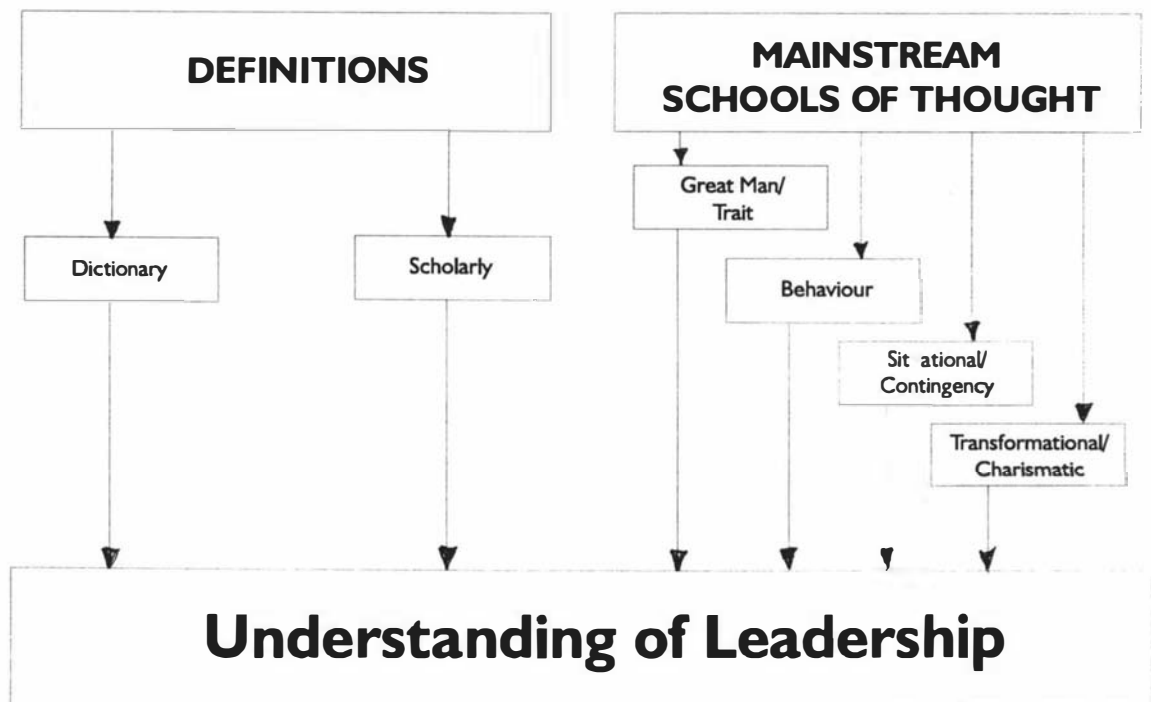
Attention is then focused on scholarly definitions of leadership. A summary of the main leadership definitions highlights the lack of a single, agreed upon definition for leadership and argues that this has hindered the development of leadership studies. A framework which summarises the key themes emerging from the definitions is provided as a means of establishing the breadth of meanings that exist within leadership and which shape executives' perceptions.

The major leadership Schools of Thought are then reviewed. Because of the complexity and controversy in defining leadership, the Schools of Thought have been the preferred approach to understanding leadership. Section 3.3 provides an overview of the four major Schools of leadership Thought - great man/trait, behavioural, situational/contingency, and transformational/charismatic leadership. These Schools of Thought provide an overview of the mainstream and widely accepted understanding of leadership.

The chapter concludes with a critique of the Schools of Thought approach which suggests that underlying all the Schools of Thought is a fundamentally flawed assumption that leadership equals good management. This leads into Chapter Four which explores the difference between leadership and management.

In short, this chapter aims to develop a broad understanding of leadership using the two main streams of definitions and mainstream Schools of Thought (as depicted in Figure 3.1). While it is acknowledged that there is a level of interdependence between the definitional and Schools of Thought approaches, no attempt is made to develop the connections between the two. This reflects the fact that, largely, the two approaches have been developed and reviewed in isolation within the literature. Secondly, in working towards the objective of providing a broad understanding of the literature, the author deemed attempts to integrate the two as providing little added value over and above that provided by independent treatment of the approaches.

Figure 3.1
Chapter Three Framework



3.2 *Definitions of Leadership*

This section begins with an analysis of the current state of leadership definitions. The analysis shows that neither scholars nor practitioners have been successful in developing a widely accepted definition of leadership. This is attributed to three major factors. The first is that there are no agreed criteria for evaluating leadership definitions. The second is that there are few active critiques of leadership definitions, and the third is that often the whole issue of defining leadership is avoided by theorists. To provide some clarity to the confusion, leadership definitions are examined from both an etymological and scholarly point of view. Dictionary definitions are found to be inadequate for providing a broad context for the complexity of leadership definitions, therefore an emergent framework of scholarly definitions of leadership is developed to summarise the breadth of meanings that exist within the leadership field.

3.2.1 *The State of Leadership Definitions - A Context*

It is almost customary in leadership research to start with some statement which mimics either Burns' (1978) comment that, "Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth" (p 2), or Stogdill's (1974) statement that, "There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (p 7). These "ritualised" comments highlight that, despite the fact that much has been studied about leadership, there is still little clarity on exactly what it is. Neither scholars nor practitioners have been able to successfully define leadership so that people are able to identify it correctly when they see it or when they engage in it (Rost, 1991).

This lack of definitional clarity is the result of three inter-related factors. Firstly, there are no agreed criteria to evaluate leadership definitions. Therefore, one person's definition of leadership is as acceptable as any other person's definition. While it is true that some definitions are more widely known and used than others, there is no agreed basis on which

to differentiate "bad", "poor", or "invalid" definitions of leadership (Rost, 1991; Clark and Clark, 1990).

The second contributing factor is that there are few arguments or critiques of definitions in the literature. Worse, as Rost (1991) argues, many scholars do not see this definitional relativity, ambiguity, and confusion as a problem. The result is that all kinds of activities, processes, and groups of people are labelled leadership. "The word *leadership* ... [is] used in scholarly and popular publications, organizational newsletters and reports, and the media to mean very different things that have little to do with any considered notion of what leadership actually is" (Rost, 1991, p 6). Therefore, not only is it difficult to place a value on the accuracy of a leadership definition, there is, in fact, no way of identifying whether a definition is actually about leadership at all.

Thirdly, perhaps as a result of the first two factors, there is little attempt made by researchers and practitioners to define leadership. It would appear that a good way to overcome the first two problems is to not even try to define it. Rost's (1991) survey of the leadership literature since 1910 indicates that over 60 percent of the authors who wrote about leadership did not define it in their work.

Clarifying the nature of leadership is fundamental to understanding, practising and developing it (Sherman, 1995). Agreeing on an accurate definition will provide this foundation. It will also help researchers and practitioners to develop and further their understanding of leadership from one generation to another (Rost, 1991). Rost (1991) and Clark and Clark (1990) state that for leadership studies to progress, and to improve our ability to develop leaders, further work needs to be conducted to develop a definition of leadership that is shared (agreed upon), consistent, clear and easily identifiable, precise/accurate, concise, easily understandable, researchable (able to be used by scholars), and practical (able to be used by practitioners).

While it is true that the area of leadership definitions is complex, it will be argued that there are some fundamental themes that emerge from the literature. It will be shown that while

dictionary definitions are the obvious starting point for defining leadership, they do little to reflect the complexity of the leadership literature and are insufficient for our purposes. The author, therefore, provides an original summary of leadership definitions based on a comparative analysis of two leadership definition experts, Bass (1990a) and Rost (1991). This framework, it is argued, brings together the best of the scholarly and practitioner-oriented literature on leadership and provides an indication of the breadth of meanings within leadership definitions.

3.2.2 Dictionary Definitions of Leadership

When looking to find the definition of any word, the obvious starting point is the dictionary. Some recent dictionary definitions of leadership can be found in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2
Dictionary Definitions of Leadership

Leadership: 1. You refer to people who are in control of a group or organisation as the **leadership**. 2. Someone's **leadership** is their position or state of being in control of a group of people. 3. **Leadership** refers to the qualities that make someone a good leader, or the methods a leader uses to do his or her job. (Collins Cobuild English Dictionary, 1995, p 943).

Leadership: the office of leader or conductor; those acting as leaders of a particular organisation or group; ability to lead (Chambers Concise Dictionary, 1991, p 591).

Leadership: 1. The position or function of a leader. 2. The period during which a person occupies the position of leader: *during her leadership very little was achieved*. 3 a. The ability to lead b. (As modifier): *leadership qualities*. 4. The leaders as a group, party, union, etc.: *the union leadership is now very reactionary* (Collins English Dictionary, 1991, p 884).

Stogdill (1974) in his Handbook of Leadership included a short statement about the origins of the words leader and leadership noting that while the word "leader" had appeared in the English language as early as the year 1300, the word "leadership" did not appear until about 1800. Rost (1991) elaborates on Stogdill's quote, stating that:

"Etymological definitions all say much the same thing. The verb "to lead" comes from the Old English word *leden* or *loeden*, which meant "to make go," "to guide," or "to show the way," and the Latin word *ducere*, which meant "to draw, drag, pull; to lead, guide, conduct." From all accounts, the words *lead*, *leader*, and *leading* have been used in several European languages with Anglo-Saxon roots from 1200 to the present" (p 38).

It is interesting to note that the same cannot be said about the word "leadership". Rost (1991) came to three key conclusions about the usage of "leadership" in his survey of many English dictionaries. Firstly, the word "leadership" did not become a popularly used term until the turn of the century. Even then it lacked the connotations attached to the word today. Therefore, Rost (1991) argues, leadership is a twentieth-century concept which began to take shape in the 1930s, but didn't really have a significant impact on scholars and practitioners until after World War Two.

Secondly, Rost (1991) concludes that dictionary definitions have perpetuated two leadership "myths". By defining leadership as "the position or office of a leader", dictionaries have reinforced the view that leadership and management are synonymous, a position that he believes to be erroneous (see Chapter Four for a full exploration of this issue). Further, dictionaries have perpetuated the trait approach to leadership (see section 3.3.1) by defining leadership as "the *ability* to lead."

Thirdly, he argues that dictionary definitions of leadership are very simplistic and do not reflect the complexity of the concept as represented in the numerous books and journal articles on leadership.

In summary, a review of dictionary definitions highlights the relatively recent origins of present day conceptualisations of leadership. Dictionary definitions are not, however, very helpful in developing an understanding of leadership, and in fact, reinforce wrong notions of what leadership is. Consequently, to develop a fuller understanding of leadership, the following section reviews scholarly definitions of leadership since the early 1900s.

3.2.3 *Scholarly Definitions of Leadership*

To provide a sketchmap framework of scholarly leadership definitions, a method of summarising the variety of definitions had to be established. While there have been many brief reviews of the different definitions of leadership (Morris and Seeman (1950); Shartle (1951a, 1951b, 1956); Gibb (1954, 1969); Hollander and Julian (1969); Schriesheim and Kerr (1977)), it is proposed that the best framework is provided by combining the frameworks developed by Bass (1990a) and Rost (1991). This combination provides a comprehensive categorisation of the themes emerging from the variety of leadership definitions, brings together themes from scholarly and practitioner-oriented literature, and highlights the breadth of meanings encapsulated in the leadership literature.

Undoubtedly the most comprehensive review of leadership is that started by Stogdill (1974) and continued by Bass (1981, 1990a). The initial review had as its stated objective to “undertake a systematic analysis and review of the literature on leadership ... intended for the serious reader who wants to know what results have been obtained, who did the research, and what conclusions can be drawn from the accumulated evidence” (Stogdill, 1974, p vii). Bass’s (1990a) review extended the original 3,000 references to 7,500 references. This expansion is not only the result of the inclusion of additional work conducted since 1974, but also reflects a relaxing of the original criteria for inclusion. The relaxed criteria allowed more work from the “body of softer literature dealing with organisational and management development” (Bass, 1990a, p xv) which increases its usefulness for the purposes of this study. Thus, Bass (1990a) provides a systematic categorisation and review of leadership research conducted this century and is widely

recognised as being the best in the field, encompassing and extending the work conducted by all previously mentioned reviewers. Bass' (1990a) review begins with a summary of leadership definitions, and it is this work in particular, that provides the foundation for the emergent framework of leadership definitions developed in this section.

Rather than duplicate the work of Bass (1990a), the author conducted a comparative analysis of Bass (1990a) and Rost (1991). Rost's work was selected for three main reasons. Firstly, Rost's (1991) book *Leadership for the 21st Century* is recognised as a seminal piece in the leadership literature. James MacGregor Burns, a prominent leadership theorist, states in the foreword to Rost's book that this is "the most important critique of leadership studies in our time, and as such will stand as one of a half-dozen indispensable works on leadership" (Rost, 1991, p xii). In a critique of Rost's book, Gini (1995) states that "Every once in a while in the evolution of an academic discipline, a book comes along that is either so controversial, contentious, seminal, insightful or iconoclastic that even if it is wrong, it must be taken into account and not simply argued around or ignored" (p 143). Therefore, Rost's work was seen to be the closest to matching the comprehensive nature of Bass's review.

Secondly, Rost's (1991) intention is significantly different from Bass' (1990a). Rather than trying to systematically categorise leadership research, Rost's (1991) aim is to critique it. The foundations for his critique come from an in-depth analysis of leadership definitions. Therefore, the two authors provide distinct frames of reference for looking at leadership definitions.

Thirdly, Rost includes practitioner-oriented literature in his analysis. The author shares Rost's (1991) view that:

"many of these popular works have had more influence on people's understanding of leadership ... than most of the books that academics label scholarly. If scholars really are interested in understanding the evolution of

the meaning of leadership, they cannot ignore these books that have had considerable impact on our understanding of leadership" (Rost, 1991, p 45).

This is particularly true when looking at the perceptions that executives hold about leadership.

It is argued that because Bass' (1990a) and Rost's (1991) work are recognised as being comprehensive, are different in intent, and encapsulate both research and practitioner-oriented literature, bringing their understandings together will provide a rich understanding of prevailing scholarly leadership definitions.

3.2.3.1 An Emergent Framework of Scholarly Leadership Definitions

To develop the new framework, the categories developed by Bass (1990a) and Rost (1991) were extracted. Both Bass (1990a) and Rost (1991) provide comprehensive listings and sources of references for each of the categories they highlight. Rather than replicating their work, Table 3.1 provides an overview of the categories of leadership definitions as identified by each author. Where applicable, matching categories are placed opposite each other.

Table 3.1
Categorisation of Leadership Definitions

Bass (1990a)	Rost (1991)
<i>Leadership as a Focus of Group Processes</i> pp 11-12	<i>Leadership as One Person in Charge of a Group</i> p 48
<i>Leadership as Personality and It's Effects</i> p 12	<i>Leadership as Traits</i> pp 47, 82
<i>Leadership as the Art of Inducing Compliance</i> pp 12-13	<i>Leadership as Do As the Leader Wishes</i> pp 70-75
<i>Leadership as the Exercise of Influence</i> pp 13-14	<i>Leadership as Influence</i> pp 53, 79-82
<i>Leadership as an Act or Behaviour</i> p 14	<i>Leadership as Behaviour (or Pattern of Behaviour) that influences people towards shared goals</i> pp 53-57, 75-77
<i>Leadership as a Power Relation</i> p 15	<i>Leadership as Control or Centralisation of Power</i> pp 47-48
<i>Leadership as an Instrument of Goal Achievement</i> p 15	<i>Leadership as Achieving Group or Organisational Goals</i> pp 48-50, 59
<i>Leadership as a Differentiated Role</i> pp 16-17	<i>Leadership is Being Number One</i> p 98
<i>Leadership as an Initiation of Structure</i> p 17	No corresponding category
<i>Transactional Leadership</i> pp 23-24	<i>Leadership as Management</i> pp 58, 77-79
<i>Leadership as a Form of Persuasion</i> p 14	No corresponding category.
<i>Transformational Leadership</i> pp 23-24	<i>Leadership as Transformation</i> pp 82-88
<i>Leadership as an Emerging Effect of Interaction</i> p 16	<i>Leadership as a Relationship</i> pp 62, 105-107
No corresponding category	<i>Leadership as Collective Leaders Who Are In Office</i> p 98
<i>Leadership as a Combination of Elements</i> p 18	<i>Miscellaneous</i> pp 88-90

<p>Culminating Definition "Leadership is an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members. Leaders are agents of change - persons whose acts affect other people more than other people's acts affect them. Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group" (Bass, 1990a, pp 19-20).</p>	<p>Culminating Definition "Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect mutual purposes" (Rost, 1991, p 102).</p>
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What becomes apparent in bringing the two authors' work together is the high degree of similarity in the categorisations of leadership definitions. This provides a high degree of confidence that the framework emerging from this combination provides broad coverage of the key definitional themes in the leadership literature.

Consolidating the overlaps and combining similar categories, the author provides the following original framework for leadership definitions. The framework consists of a category heading and a short defining statement. The framework groups various headings under three broad categories - role, property, and process. Jago (1982) states that leadership can be defined as either a property or a process. As a property, leadership definitions describe the nature of the leader, that is, leadership is equal to the leader. As a process, leadership definitions describe the way in which a leader operates and interacts with others, that is, leadership is often more than the leader. The author added the role category to capture those definitions that describe the function that leadership plays. While not necessarily mutually exclusive categories, they provide further structure and clarity to the framework.

Table 3.2
Emergent Framework of Leadership Definitions

ROLE
<p><i>Leadership as a Differentiated Role</i> The role conceptualisation of leadership is most firmly buttressed by research findings (Bass, 1990a). In these definitions, each individual plays a fairly well-defined role. The leadership role can be differentiated on a number of factors, including many of the factors highlighted under the process definitions e.g. goal and vision achievement, influence.</p>
<p><i>Leadership as One Person in Charge of a Group</i> Leadership is defined as being the person who is the centre or focus of group change, activity, structure, and process.</p>
<p><i>Leadership as Collective Leaders Who Are In Office</i> In common usage, leadership is defined as the group of people in charge of an organisation, institution, or country. For example, "The Leadership in Russia ..."</p>
PROPERTY
<p><i>Leadership as Personality Traits</i> Leaders possess qualities that distinguish them from followers. The effects of their personality tend to be seen as one-way, flowing from the leader to the follower.</p>
<p><i>Leadership as Behaviour or Pattern of Behaviour</i> Rather than a function of personality, leadership is defined in terms of acts or behaviours.</p>
PROCESS
<p><i>Leadership as an Initiation of Structure</i> Define leadership as the process of originating and maintaining the pattern or structure of role relationships in groups, as opposed to the occupancy or acquisition of a position/role. These definitions do not just refer to the physical structure, but rather the "expectation and interaction structures" that exist in organisations (Stogdill, 1959; Senge, 1990).</p>
<p><i>Leadership as Management</i> Depending on the point of view taken, this category could fit under either role or process. It refers to those definitions where leadership is defined in such a way that it is similar to popular definitions of management, or is explicitly deemed to be the same as management.</p>
<p><i>Leadership as "Do As the Leader Wishes"</i> Leadership is seen as the ability to impress one's will on others to induce obedience and compliance. It is the use of unidirectional power or influence to mould others to do what the leader wants done.</p>

<p><i>Leadership as Influence</i></p> <p>Defines leadership as having a determining effect on the behaviours and activities of others. They differ from the compliance (or “Do as the leader wishes”) definitions in that they imply a reciprocal relationship between leaders and followers, and one that is not necessarily characterised by domination or control. One of the important sub-themes is the influence exerted over and above that provided by the person’s role. Leadership as influence also encompasses those definitions that emphasise leadership as an instrument for shaping expectations and beliefs through persuasion.</p>
<p><i>Leadership as a Relationship</i></p> <p>Defines leadership as a relationship between leaders and followers. Rather than seeing leadership as the cause or controller of group action, these definitions see leadership as an emergent result of the interaction process itself. Leadership, in this sense, exists only when it is acknowledged and conferred by followers. These definitions imply a reciprocal relationship between leaders and followers.</p>
<p><i>Leadership as a Power Relation</i></p> <p>Defines leadership in terms of differential power relationships. There are both coercive and non-coercive sources of this power. The most well-known work by French and Raven (1959) identifies five bases of power - referent, expert, reward based, coercive, and legitimate.</p>
<p><i>Leadership as Transformation</i></p> <p>Covers a range of definitions from getting people to do things over and above what is expected (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Bass 1985b) through to bringing about fundamental (second-order) beneficial change (Griffiths, 1986; Kotter 1988). Burns (1978), who first conceptualised leadership as transformation, included the notion of raising others to higher levels of morality. This aspect has not featured strongly in later definitions of leadership.</p>
<p><i>Leadership as an Instrument of Vision and Goal Achievement</i></p> <p>Leadership is defined in terms of its instrumental value in achieving group, organisational or societal goals. While not covered by Bass (1990a) and Rost (1991), the ability of the leader to create and achieve a vision became a significant defining characteristic of leadership during the 1980’s. Vision achievement is included here as it is often considered to be related to goal achievement.</p>
<p>MISCELLANEOUS</p>
<p><i>Miscellaneous or Combination Leadership Definitions</i></p> <p>This category covers the definitions that are either a composite of two or more of the above categories, or that do not fall into any of the above categories</p>

Table 3.2 highlights thirteen identified themes in the leadership definition literature. The majority of definitions fall into the process category. This should not, however, be taken

as an indication of the strength or dominance of these definitions as both role and property definitions are strongly embedded in the literature. The identification of these themes could indicate that there is greater agreement in the definitions literature than is commonly recognised. While beyond the scope of this thesis, future research could be conducted to identify the themes that are more pertinent to today's organisations, and that could be integrated to form the foundation of a widely accepted, encompassing definition of leadership.

This section showed that in the leadership literature, there is no single generally accepted definition of leadership. This was attributed to the lack of agreed criteria for evaluating leadership definitions; the absence of active critiques of definitions; and to the growing avoidance of defining leadership by authors. Therefore, to provide some clarity to the complexity of leadership definitions, the definitions were reviewed from both an etymological and scholarly perspective. Dictionary definitions provided a historical perspective on the concept of leadership, but were deemed to be inadequate for capturing the breadth of meanings that exist within the leadership literature. Thus, an original framework that synthesised the work of Bass (1990a) and Rost (1991) was developed. It was argued that this framework brings together scholarly and practitioner-oriented definitions of leadership, and provides a broad, yet comprehensive categorisation of the variety of leadership definitions that exist. As it is executives' perceptions of leadership that are of interest to this research, no conclusion regarding the best definition of leadership is made; nor is the framework used to categorise or code executive responses. The framework does, however, provide a literature context for the definitions provided by executives in the research questionnaire. Further, comparisons between executives' definitions of leadership and this literature framework will be explored.

As has been noted, in order to provide a full "sketch-map" of the leadership territory, more than a review of leadership definitions is required. A macro perspective is also required and is provided by the next section which reviews the main leadership Schools of Thought.

3.3 *Leadership Schools of Thought*

The second approach to understanding leadership is the Schools of Thought approach. This is the approach most commonly found in organisational development and general management textbooks, and it highlights the major paradigms that exist in the organisational leadership literature. Four of the better known theories and models of leadership, including the Great Man and Trait Approach, Behavioural Leadership, Situational and Contingency Leadership, Transformational and Charismatic Leadership approaches are outlined in sections 3.3.1 to 3.3.5.

In highlighting the major Schools of Thought, it is acknowledged that many leadership theories are not included. This includes areas such as political leadership and leadership and politics (French and Raven, 1959; Burns, 1978), psychoanalytic leadership theories (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1987; Lapierre, 1989), interaction or social learning theories which look at leader and followers (Sanford, 1950; Hollander, 1985, 1986; Johnston, 1981; Lee, 1991; Chaleff, 1995; Lord and Maher, 1989; Hollander and Offerman, 1990) and what could be described as new science leadership theories (Wheatley, 1992; Bennis, Parikh and Lessem, 1994; Clancy and Webber, 1995; Blank, 1995). Equally, numerous models of leadership that are unique to individual authors such as servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977), values based leadership (Fairholm, 1991) and enabling leadership (Jaap, 1989) are not addressed. However, for the purposes of providing a sketch-map, the major Schools of Thought represent the prevailing leadership paradigms.

3.3.1 *Great Man and Trait Approaches*

While not really a school of thought in leadership research, the earliest held view of leadership was known as the Great Man approach. This approach asserted that only a few "great men" could be leaders and that their leadership derived from their inherited superiority. For example, Dowd (1936, cited in Bass, 1990a) stated that individuals possess

different degrees of intelligence, energy and moral force and that the "masses" would always be influenced by the "superior few".

Emerging from this belief was the first organised approach to studying leadership, namely the trait approach. The trait approach analysed the personal, psychological, and physical characteristics of leaders. The underlying assumption was that some basic characteristic or set of characteristics existed that differentiated leaders from non-leaders. If these traits could be defined, potential leaders could then be identified.

Bird (1940) concluded, in his early survey of the literature, that only five percent of all the traits identified in studies related to leadership effectiveness were common to four or more studies. Stogdill (1948) reviewed 124 trait studies in an attempt to find a pattern, and found that, at best, he could classify the trait research under the five broad headings of capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, status and situation. However, his overwhelming conclusion was that:

"the total weight of evidence presented in this group of studies is that if there are general traits which characterize leaders, the patterns of such traits are likely to vary with the leadership requirements of different situations" (Stogdill, 1948, p 61).

The inconsistent and contradictory results of the trait research led Stogdill to conclude that traits alone do not identify leadership. Therefore, while literally hundreds of studies were conducted in an attempt to identify important leadership traits, efforts to isolate these traits failed to identify a set of traits that would *always* differentiate leaders from non-leaders and effective from ineffective leaders (Griffin, 1990). This inability to identify a fixed set of traits brought about a change in emphasis from traits to behaviour in the leadership research.

3.3.2 *Leadership Behaviour Approaches*

Spurred by the lack of success in identifying useful leadership traits, researchers began to investigate other variables, especially the behaviours or actions of leaders. The new underlying assumption was that the *behaviours* of effective leaders were different from the behaviours of non-leaders or less effective leaders.

This new approach was driven by two groups of researchers who, while studying independently, came to similar conclusions. These were the Michigan and Ohio State studies. Both studies identified two basic forms of leader behaviour. The Michigan studies, led by Likert (1961; 1967), called them “job-centred” and “employee-centred” leader behaviours. The Ohio State researchers (Stogdill and Coons, 1957; Morris and Seeman, 1950) labelled similar constructs “initiating structure” and “consideration” behaviour.

Job centred or initiating structure behaviour referred to behaviour that attempted to organise work, work relationships, and set work performance goals. When using this behaviour, the leader determined how tasks would be performed and clearly defined the leader-subordinate role so that everyone knew what was expected (Griffin, 1990; Robbins and DeCenzo, 1995).

Employee-centred or consideration leader behaviour referred to behaviour that worked to develop a cohesive, friendly, and supportive work group or climate and ensured that employees were satisfied with their jobs. In this behaviour, the leaders primary concern was the welfare of subordinates (Griffin, 1990).

While similar, there were some key differences in the results. The Michigan researchers presumed that the two styles of leader behaviour were ends of a single continuum, whereas the Ohio researchers assumed them to be independent variables. This difference filtered through to the conclusions drawn. The Michigan research strongly favoured leaders who were employee oriented. Employee-oriented leaders were associated with higher group

productivity and higher job satisfaction (Robbins and DeCenzo, 1995). Not being locked into a single continuum, the Ohio State studies suggested that the high-high style generally produced more positive outcomes.

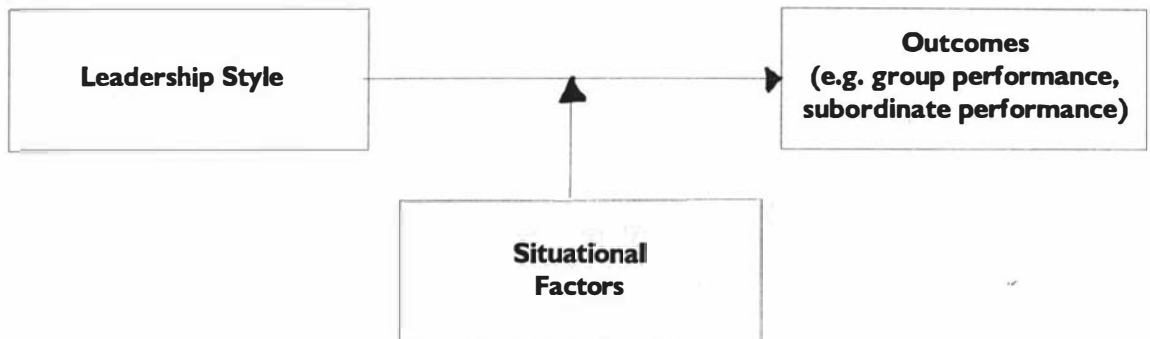
The leader behaviour theories shifted the focus from what leaders are (the trait approach) to what leaders do (their behaviours). However, the attempts of behaviour theorists to identify consistent relationships between leader behaviours and employee responses often failed. Thus, other approaches to understanding leadership were needed.

The catalyst for these new approaches was the realisation that, although interpersonal and task-oriented dimensions were useful to *describe* the behaviour of leaders, they were not useful for *predicting* or prescribing it (Griffin, 1990). There were enough exceptions found to predictions of behavioural theories to indicate that situational factors needed to be integrated into the theory (Robbins and DeCenzo, 1995). Thus, the next step in the evolution of leadership theory was the creation of situational/contingency models.

3.3.3 Situational and Contingency Approaches to Leadership

Situational or contingency approaches to leadership attempt to identify aspects of the situation that "moderate" the relationship between leadership style and leadership effectiveness (see Figure 3.3). The goal is to identify key situational factors and specify how they interact to determine appropriate leader behaviour. The underlying assumption is that there is no universally appropriate style of leadership, but that appropriate leader behaviour varies from one situation to another (Yukl, 1994).

Figure 3.3
The Basic Structure of Situational/Contingency Approaches



(Bryman, 1986, p 126)

The foundation for this basic approach was laid by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) when they developed their continuum of leadership behaviour in the decision making process. While their framework identified the importance of situational factors, it was others who developed more comprehensive and integrated theories. The four most important and widely accepted are Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model (also known as the Life Cycle Theory), Fiedler's Contingency Theory, the Path-Goal theory, and the Vroom-Yetton-Jago (VYJ) model, which is also known as the Leader-Participation Model (Griffin, 1990; Bryman, 1986; Wren, 1987; Statt, 1994; Gray and Starke, 1984).

Using the basic structure of situational/contingency approaches as shown in Figure 3.3 the four main contingency theories will be compared and contrasted using the two key characteristics of leadership style and situational factors.

3.3.3.1 Leadership Style

Table 3.3 compares the four theories on the basis of leadership style.

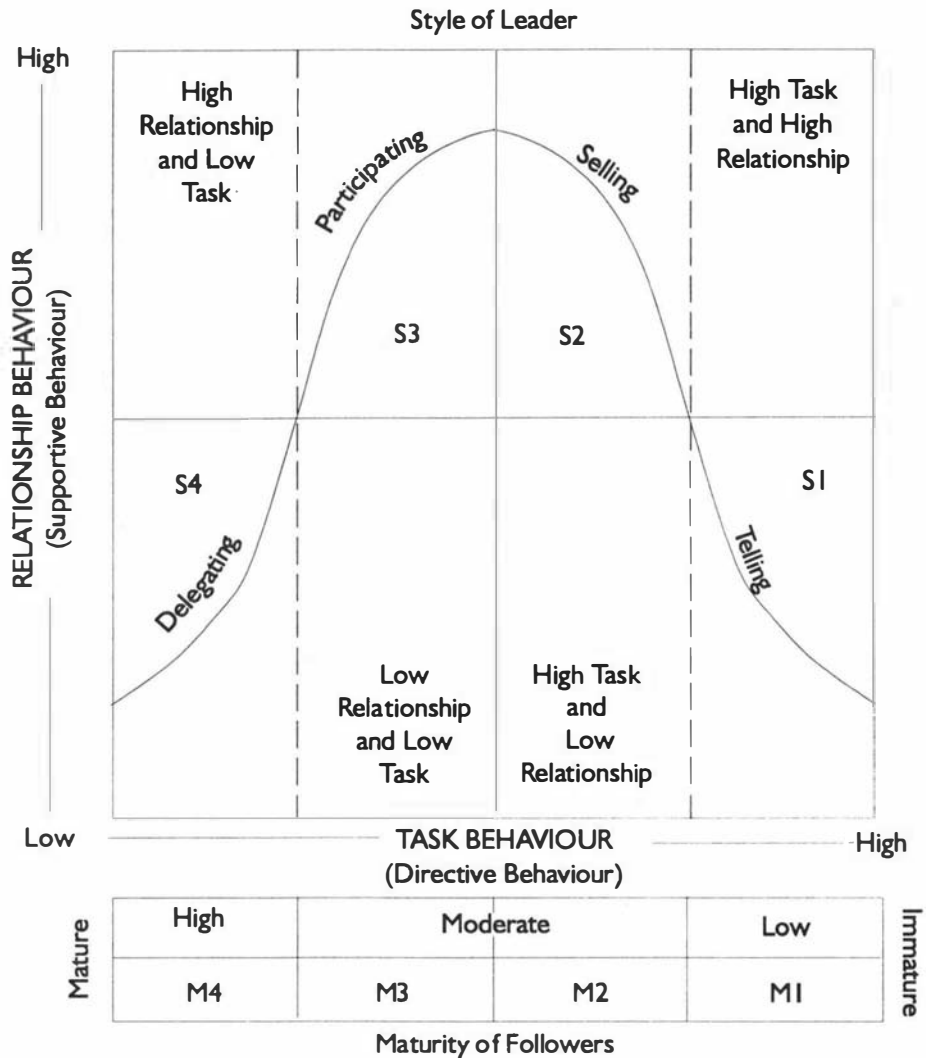
Table 3.3
Comparison of Leadership Style in Four Key Situational Approaches

	Hersey and Blanchard	Fiedler	Path Goal	VYJ
Leadership Style	Delegating Participating Selling Telling	Task Oriented Relationship Oriented	Supportive Participative Achievement oriented Directive	Consultative (I and II) Autocratic (I and II) Group

Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) and Fielder's (1967) theories have a strong degree of similarity with respect to leadership style, in that they both draw heavily on the two behaviourist dimensions of task and relationship behaviour.

Using a grid framework similar to the managerial grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964), Hersey and Blanchard (1982) highlight four leadership styles that represent different combinations of task and relationship behaviour. The four styles are delegating (low task, low relationship), participating (low task, high relationship), selling (high task, high relationship) and telling (high task, low relationship). These styles are identified in Figure 3.4

Figure 3.4
Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model



(Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p 248)

The appropriate style is determined by only one situational variable, follower maturity, which is described in section 3.3.3.2

Fiedler's (1967) description of leadership style directly replicates the leadership behavioural styles highlighted earlier. Unlike other situationalist theorists, he argues that leaders' styles are a reflection of their personality (traits) and are therefore innate and fixed. Leaders are either task or relationship oriented and cannot change their behaviour to fit a

particular situation. Therefore, when a leader's style and the situation do not match, Fiedler (1967) argues that the situation should be changed to fit the leader's style.

Fiedler's (1967) method of evaluating leadership style is distinct and controversial. He measures it by means of the *least preferred co-worker* (LPC) which is assessed by a leader describing the person with whom they are able to work least well on a set of scales anchored at each end by a positive or negative adjective. Researchers disagree strongly about the validity of the LPC measure, with many questioning whether the LPC actually measures behaviour, personality, or some other factor (Griffin, 1990; Bryman, 1986; Gray and Starke, 1984).

The path-goal theory adds a new dimension by combining key elements from the Ohio State leadership research with the expectancy theory of motivation (Robbins and DeCenzo, 1995). It suggests that the two primary functions of a leader are to:

1. Clarify the behaviour that will lead to goal accomplishment and valued rewards, while ensuring that these goals are compatible with the overall objectives of the group/organisation.
2. Make the valued rewards available, and to help their followers by reducing obstacles along the path and providing the necessary support (Evans, 1970; House and Mitchell, 1974).

The model highlights four leadership styles. The directive and supportive styles are similar to the task and relationship styles already addressed. The other two styles draw more strongly on the expectancy motivational theory and include the participative leadership style where a consultative approach to decision-making and leadership is taken, and the achievement oriented style where the leader sets challenging goals and high expectations for performance (Griffin, 1990; Bryman, 1986).

The VYJ model is much narrower in focus than the other situational theories, focusing only on the degree of decision-making participation to allow followers. The aim is to enhance both the quality of the decision made and employee acceptance of the decision, where the decision quality is the objective effect of the decision on performance, and decision acceptance is the extent to which employees accept and are committed to the decision (Griffin, 1990; Bryman, 1986).

Leaders can adopt one of five decision-making styles, two of which are autocratic, where the leader makes the decision using information available at the time; two are consultative, where the leader makes a unilateral decision having shared the problem with followers; and one is a group (democratic) decision making style, where the leader shares the problem with followers and accepts the decision made by the group (Statt, 1994; Chemers, 1984).

In summary, it can be seen that the leadership style component of the four theories outlined have distinctive elements in terms of the number, names and measurement of the styles. However, it can also be seen that they are essentially variations of the same task and relationship themes identified by behaviourist approaches. The major differences between the theories become apparent when the situational factors are considered. Further, it is the interaction between the leadership styles and situational factors that provide the various models distinctive elements. Attention to these factors is provided in the following section.

3.3.3.2 Situational Factors

Table 3.4 compares the four theories based on the situational factors highlighted.

Table 3.4
Comparison of Situational Factors of Four Key Situational Theories

	Hersey and Blanchard	Fiedler	Path Goal	VYJ
Situational Factors	Maturity of followers - psychological and job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Leader-member relations Task structure Position Power 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Follower characteristics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - self perception - authoritarian tendency - locus of control Environment characteristics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - task - formal authority - nature of work group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quality Requirements <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Leader's Information - Problem Structure - Goal Congruence Commitment Requirements <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Acceptance Required - Subordinate Conflict - Fairness - Acceptance Priority

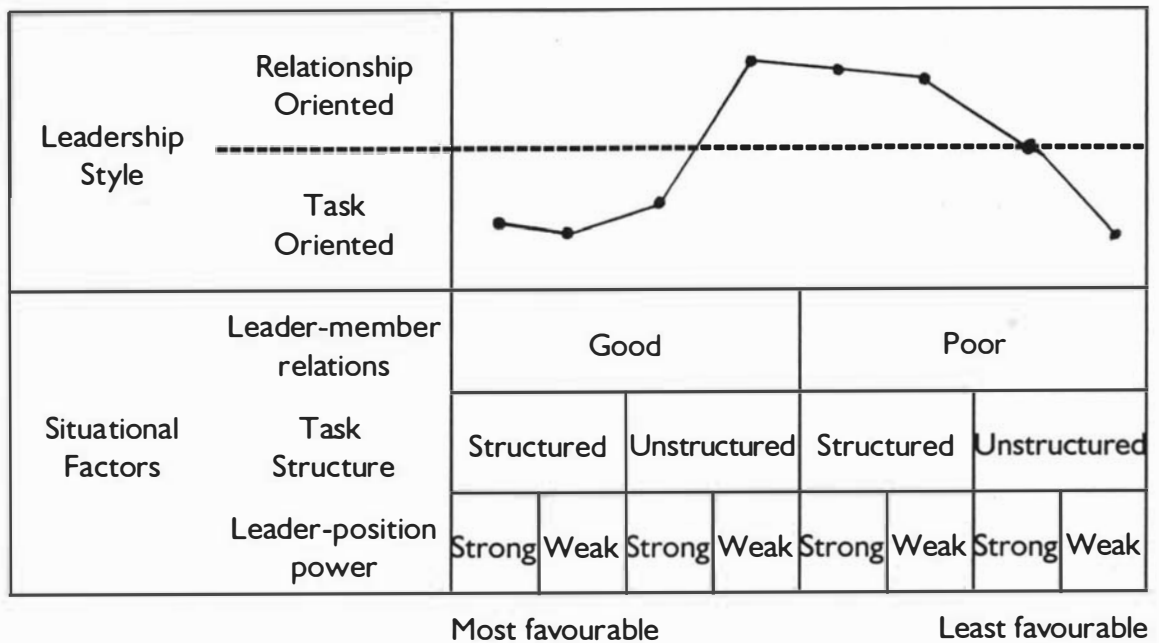
This table clearly shows that Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) model is the most simplistic, in that it identifies only one situational factor called follower maturity. Follower maturity is comprised of psychological maturity, or the degree of internalised motivation to accomplish the task, and job maturity which refers to the follower's knowledge, ability and

experience (Bryman, 1986). Rather than being a generic or blanket assessment, follower maturity is an assessment that is made with respect to a specific task. The degree of follower maturity on a particular task determines the leadership style that should be taken by the leader (see Figure 3.4).

While possibly one of the best known and widely used models, Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) situational leadership model is the least validated by research and the most simplistic of the contingency models (Griffin, 1990; Gray and Starke, 1984; Bryman, 1986).

Fiedler (1967) identifies three key elements in the situation that leaders can manipulate to ensure that the situation matches their fixed/innate style. The first of these is the nature of the leader-member relations which includes existing degree of likeability, mutual trust, respect, and confidence. The second is task structure which is determined by the level of routine, ease of understanding, degree of ambiguity and the level of standard procedures and precedents. The third is the level of position power which is comprised of the power to assign work, reward and punish employees, and to recommend employees for promotion or demotion (Robbins and DeCenzo, 1995). Putting these three major elements together with the leadership style provides eight unique situations (see Figure 3.5). Overall, it is proposed that the task-oriented leader is effective when the situation is either very favourable or very unfavourable, while the relationship-oriented style is most effective under intermediate conditions (Griffin, 1990).

Figure 3.5
Fiedler's Situational Theory



(adapted from Griffin, 1990, p 486)

The situational factors of the Path Goal theory fall into two broad categories - follower and environment characteristics. Follower characteristics include the followers' self perception of their ability; the degree to which they are authoritarian (more authoritarian people preferring directive leadership style); and their locus of control (Filley, House, and Kerr, 1976). Locus of control is a personality trait where those with an internal locus of control believe that what happens to them is a function of their own efforts and behaviour. Those who have an external locus of control assume that fate, luck, or the "system" determine what happens to them (Griffin, 1990; Robbins and DeCenzo, 1995).

The environmental characteristics fall into three areas. The first two, the nature of the task and the formal authority system of the organisation are very similar to Fiedler's (1967) notions of task structure and position power. The third, the nature of the work group, refers to the extent to which the group provides social support and satisfaction (Griffin, 1990).

Follower and environmental characteristics determine which leadership style produces the desired outcomes. Follower's characteristics are seen to influence the degree to which the leader's style is accepted as a valid means of providing immediate satisfaction or as being instrumental in attaining future satisfaction. Each of the environmental factors are hypothesised to either stimulate or inhibit the motivation to perform, or act as rewards for achieving desired performance.

As with Fiedler's contingency model, the validation research on the Path-Goal model has not been clearly supportive. Gray and Starke (1984) note that empirical evidence to date suggests that the theory may provide a good predictor of employee satisfaction, but not employee performance. Bryman (1986) comments that although the theory highlights four styles of leading (supportive, participative, achievement oriented, and directive), research has overwhelmingly focused only on two - directive and supportive. Equally, the focus on the situational variables has been weighted towards task structure. This "stereotyping" of the model in research has made it difficult to validate the whole model, and Bryman (1986) states that "unless the basic theory receives more consistent empirical support ... it will lose its edge as a major focus for research interest in the field of leadership" (p 147).

Unlike the other situational or contingency models reviewed, the VYJ model is normative, providing a sequential set of rules or standards for including followers in decision making (Griffin, 1990). The original model (Vroom and Yetton, 1973) contained seven situational variables, but it has been revised and expanded by Vroom and Jago (1988) to include twelve contingencies.

In essence, the situational factors that determine the appropriate level of participation are identified through a series of questions about the characteristics of the problem under consideration. To assist this process, the leader uses one of four decision trees. Two of the trees are for use when the problem affects the entire group, and two are for use when the problem relates to an individual. One of each is used when the time necessary to reach a decision is important, and the others are used when time is less important but the leader wants to develop the followers decision-making abilities. Each prescribed decision style

is designed to protect the original goals of decision quality and subordinate acceptance (Griffin, 1990).

The original version of the VYJ model has been widely tested. One recent review (Griffin, 1990) concluded that it had received more scientific support than any other leadership theory. While Bryman (1984) concurs with this conclusion, he highlights several problems including the reliance of self-reports and therefore bias, and, the most common criticism of the VYJ model, the high complexity, or lack of parsimony, of the model (Bryman, 1984; Griffin, 1990; Gray and Starke, 1984).

3.3.3.3 Summary of the Situational/Contingency Theories

Using Bryman's (1986) basic structure (see Figure 3.3), the four main situational theories of leadership were described and compared in terms of the leadership styles, and the situational factors, they identified. Table 3.5 brings the elements back together and provides a summary and comparison of these major situational/contingency models. It can be seen that, while the four approaches share the same basic structure, there are important differences with regards to the assumptions made about the leader, the followers and the impact of the situation on the leader.

Table 3.5
Comparisons of the Four Main Situational/Contingency Approaches to Leadership

Comparison Features	Situational Leadership Model	Fiedler's Contingency Model	Path-Goal Model	VYJ Decision Making Model
<i>Essence of the Approach</i>	Different leadership styles can be effective, depending on the maturity levels of followers. Immature followers require considerable task direction while mature followers require little supervision.	One style is not always best. The effectiveness of a leader is determined by the interaction of environmental and personality variables.	Effective leaders are those who increase employee motivation by clarifying for followers the paths to effective performance as well as the connection between performance and rewards.	Different leadership styles are appropriate in different situations. The most appropriate style is determined by considering key factors (for example, the importance of subordinate acceptance of the decision) before making the decision.
<i>Assumption(s) about qualities of the leader</i>	Leaders can exhibit behaviours that are high or low on task orientation and relationship orientation. Leaders are able to change style as the maturity of followers changes.	Leaders are basically task or relationship oriented. The job should be engineered to fit the particular style of the leader. It is difficult to change the style of the leader.	The leader has the interest and ability to increase the effectiveness of their area of responsibility by improving the motivation of followers.	Leaders are able to determine which key factors are important and which are not. They are also able to use different styles based on their analysis of the key variables.

<i>Assumption(s) about followers</i>	Followers preferences for a leadership style change as their maturity on the job changes. Immature followers prefer a leadership task orientation, while more mature followers prefer a relationship orientation.	Followers prefer different leadership styles depending on how task structure, leader-member relations, and position power are inter-related.	Certain things (particularly organisational level) influence both the type of supervision that followers desire as well as the leader behaviours (style) which are feasible. Differences between followers needs are assumed.	Followers want to be involved in decision-making in some circumstances, but do not want to be involved in others.
<i>Assumed impact of the environment on the leadership process</i>	Moderate: the only environmental variable is follower maturity levels.	High: the type of leader behaviour which is most effective depends on the interaction of environmental and leadership style variables.	Moderate: at present stage, model includes only one environmental variable - leader activities.	High: factors such as the quality requirement of the decision, information available on the problem etc., all govern the leadership decision-making style which is most appropriate.

(adapted from Gray and Starke, 1984, p 279)

The major contribution of situational and contingency theories has been to stress the importance of the situation to leadership, as opposed to leadership characteristics/traits or behaviours. It also opened the possibility of other leadership actions which revolved around changing the situation as opposed to developing/changing the leader (Cogill, 1983).

While there are critiques of individual models, the situational/contingency school approach itself is still popular today, and is highly regarded by mainstream management and organisational behaviour textbooks. In fact, there are relatively few criticisms levelled at the situational/contingency school by such texts. However, some critiques do exist, and the arguments highlighted provide some insight into why research attention has shifted towards transformational/charismatic leadership.

Bryman (1986) notes that “it is difficult not to feel slightly disenchanted with the fruits of the contingency approaches” (p 158). This disenchantment relates to many factors. The first being that research evidence on all models is equivocal (Bryman, 1986). Hunt (1984) concurs, noting that often less than ten percent of the variance in outcomes such as performance are accounted for by the contingency paradigm.

Another problem is that contingency models often describe the appropriate behaviour for extreme situations. Unfortunately these extreme situations are unusual, and “middle ground” situations predominate which make it more difficult to apply the models (Gray and Starke, 1984). There is also the related problem regarding the multi-dimensionality of the situation such that one aspect of the situation may imply one leadership style, while another aspect indicates that another style would be more appropriate (Bryman, 1986).

With respect to leadership styles, Bryman (1986) states that contingency approaches have been disappointing in that their conceptualisations of leadership style have not significantly moved away from the “person-orientation/task-orientation/participation trinity” (p 159) that under-pinned much of the earlier work on leadership styles. In this respect, the contingency approach has added little to the behavioural school of thought.

The single most common criticism levelled at the situational/contingency approaches relates to the number of factors that need to be incorporated in the models. McCall and Lombardo (1978) argue that the leader's job is much broader, complex, and dynamic than the contingency models suggest. Attempts to integrate additional factors into situational/contingency models suggest that researchers are aware of this issue. However, while increasing the number of factors may make the models more realistic, they become so at the expense of simplicity. This dilemma is particularly pertinent for practising executives who tend to prefer simple, easy-to-implement solutions. Gray and Starke (1984) note that this "ease of use" dimension should not be underestimated, and that the paradox between accuracy and simplicity will pull the development of situational/contingency models in opposite directions.

Thus, in many ways, the situational/contingency approach is suffering from the same criticisms levelled at the trait and behaviour theories, where the number of contingency factors that must be included is growing so large that it is becoming less useful as a model. Gray and Starke (1984) make the point strongly when they state that:

"It is interesting to consider that if contingency theories are carried to their logical extreme, we will have a model of leadership effectiveness for each leader, in each situation" (p 280).

In short, the criticisms highlighted imply that no matter how elegant or sophisticated the refinements and enhancements made to the contingency model are, they will not or cannot capture the essence of leadership. Therefore, Hunt (1984) argues that there have been movements towards a leadership "paradigm shift". The result of this movement has been the emergence of the newest, and arguably the most current, school of leadership thought known as Transformational Leadership.

Berlew (1984) also highlights this transition to a new leadership paradigm in his analysis of why an increasing number of high potential individuals are rejecting secure, well-managed positions in favour of working alone or in new organisations with friends.

Drawing on leadership and organisational motivation theory, Berlew (1984) developed the following model which matches the emotional tone of the organisation with the type of governance or leadership required (see Table 3.6).

Table 3.6
Organisational Emotions and Modes of Governance

	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
Emotional Tone:	Anger or Resentment	Neutrality	Excitement
Governing Mode:	Custodial	Managerial	Charismatic

(adapted from Berlew, 1984, p 413).

The model identifies four emotional tones, and three modes of governance that are required to move organisations to a more advanced emotional tone. At the low end are angry and resentful workers (Stage 1) who are primarily concerned with satisfying basic needs. Organisations in Stage 1 try to improve their situation by eliminating “dissatisfiers” by improving working conditions, compensation, and fringe benefits. The type of governance necessary to change an angry or resentful emotional tone to one of neutrality, is labelled custodial. Custodial people are neutral, having neither strong positive nor negative feelings about their work or the organisation. To move from this neutral stage to a position of satisfaction, organisations introduce changes that are oriented toward providing work that is less routine and more interesting or challenging. These improvements include methods such as job enrichment, job enlargement, job rotation, and participative management. The type of governance associated with this movement from neutral to satisfied workers is labelled managerial. It is here, Berlew (1984) argues, that most of the advances in organisational and leadership theory have been made through focusing “on defining and controlling the *elements of supervision* and the organisational *environment* which result in high productivity with high satisfaction” (p 412 - emphasis added). As the emphasis shows, this definition relates very closely to the definition of situational leadership. Berlew (1984) notes that while these advances have been substantial and have led to healthier, more effective organisations, they have not prevented the alienation of professional

employees. Thus, he introduces a further emotional tone, that of organisational excitement, and a new form of leadership required to achieve this new state. Berlew (1984) labels this new form of leadership as charismatic. It is on this new domain of leadership, charismatic or transformational leadership, that the next section focuses.

3.3.4 *Transformational Leadership*

The foundation for the concept of transformational leadership was laid by Burns (1978) when he distinguished between transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leaders, he stated, took the initiative in contacting others for the purpose of exchanging valued things, for example, offering positive payoffs in exchange for task completion. Burns (1978) saw transformational leadership to be more "potent". He proffered the following definition:

"The transforming leader recognises and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower. But, beyond that, the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents" (Burns, 1978, p 4).

While Rost (1991) states that Burns' (1978) unique contribution was including an ethical/moral dimension to leadership, this aspect has received little focus from researchers since. What has emerged, and remained central to the notion of transformational leadership, is that transformational leaders *go beyond ordinary expectations*, seeking to arouse and satisfy higher needs, and engaging the full person of the follower (Bass, 1985a; Roeche, Baker, and Rose, 1989).

Bass (1985a) built strongly on Burns' foundation, and it is Bass' (1985a, 1985b, 1988, 1990a, 1990b; Bass and Avolio, 1994) work that has popularised, clarified and operationalised the transformational leadership concept (Conger and Kanungo, 1988a; Roeche, Baker, and Rose, 1989). Figure 3.6 provides a summary of the differences identified by Bass (1990b) as a result of his surveys, along with clinical and case evidence.

Figure 3.6
Characteristics of Transformational and Transactional Leaders

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADER

<i>Charisma:</i>	Provides vision and sense of mission, instils pride, gains respect and trust.
<i>Inspiration:</i>	Communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, expresses important purposes in simple ways.
<i>Intellectual Stimulation:</i>	Promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving.
<i>Individualised Consideration:</i>	Gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches, advises.

TRANSACTIONAL LEADER

<i>Contingent Reward:</i>	Contracts exchange of rewards for effort, promises rewards for good performance, recognises accomplishments.
<i>Management by Exception: (active)</i>	Watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards, takes corrective action.
<i>Management by Exception: (passive)</i>	Intervenes only if standards are not met.
<i>Laissez-faire:</i>	Abdicates responsibilities, avoids making decisions.

task aspects of performance, and transformational leaders focusing on the whole person and working to secure extraordinary performance. Despite the differences, Bass (1985a) argues that effective leaders do not choose between one or the other, but rather move back and forth between transactional and transformational strategies to achieve the best results.

In developing a model of transformational leadership for universities, Roeche, Baker and Rose (1989) collected and summarised the transformational leadership literature. In addition to Burns (1978) and Bass (1985a, 1985b, 1988, 1990a, 1990b), they summarised the work of three recognised theorists and researchers - Bennis and Nanus (1985), Tichy and Devanna (1986b), and Zaleznik (1977). Their framework provided in Table 3.7 provides a comprehensive summary of the major themes and definitions of transformational leadership.

Table 3.7
Major Themes and Definitions of Transformational Leadership

Themes	Operational Definition	Burns	Bass	Bennis	Tichy	Zaleznik
<i>Vision</i>	The leader's view of the future. While shared with others, the vision is the primary responsibility of the transformational leader.	Through shared vision, elevates followers to a higher level of motivation.	Charisma	Attention to Vision Meaning through Communication	Creation of Vision Institutional- isation of Change.	Attitude toward Goals Sense of Self.
<i>Influence Orientation</i>	Shared attention to problems and the understanding of roles to be played in resolving them. Generally results in increased delegation/empowerment, and self actualization of leaders and followers.	Leader's intention has the effect of raising the needs of both followers and leaders to a higher plane.	Charisma Individualised Consideration Intellectual Stimulation	Deployment of Self	Creation of Vision Mobilisation of Commitment Institutional- isation of Change.	Attitude toward Goals
<i>People Orientation</i>	The leader and follower team interaction, where the strengths of each team member are maximised. At the same time, there exists a strong focus on the individual.	Leader interacts with followers for the purpose of exchange of valued motivators.	Individualised Consideration	Trust through Positioning Meaning through Communication	Mobilisation of Commitment	Work as an Enabling Process Relations with Others
<i>Motivational Orientation</i>	The process where the majority accept a new vision/mission. Followers are motivated to achieve and re-excited through performance and results.	Leader induces followers to pursue goals that represent shared values.	Intellectual Stimulation	Trust through Positioning Meaning through Communication	Mobilisation of Commitment	Work as an Enabling Process
<i>Values Orientation</i>	The moral fibre of the leader. Including commitment, quality, integrity, trust, and respect through modelling. Viewed as an ethical orientation that is morally accepting to an uplifting for followers.	Through a shared vision, the leader and followers create new values, new commitment and a new culture.	Individualised Consideration Intellectual Stimulation	Trust through Positioning Meaning through Communication Deployment of Self	Creation of Vision Mobilisation of Commitment Institutional- isation of Change.	Attitude toward Goals Work as an Enabling Process Relations with Others Sense of Self.

They identify five interdependent themes that form the core of transformational leadership as expressed in the literature. These themes are vision, influence orientation, people orientation, motivational orientation, and values orientation. Many of these themes are variations on ideas from earlier Schools of Thought: for example, the values orientation stems from the great man or trait approaches, and the people orientation from the behaviourist approaches. There is, however, one theme in particular, that is new and unique to transformational leadership. This is the notion of vision, or shared vision. Vision can be defined as a shared picture of an ideal future the organisation seeks to create (Senge, 1990), or similarly as a “realistic, credible, attractive future for your organisation” (Nanus, 1992, p 8). While there are both new and old themes, all of them are cast in the light of achieving performance above and beyond normal expectations, and it is this notion which forms the essence of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership has come to dominate the leadership literature to the extent that transactional leadership is often used as a short-hand description for the majority of the earlier Schools of Thought, particularly the behaviour and contingency/situational approaches. Transactional leadership also appears to represent leadership that is average or standard, while transformational leadership is held up as being the ideal form of leadership (Schermerhorn, 1996; Robbins and DeCenzo, 1995). This thinking appears to have had an impact in New Zealand, with research conducted by Singer (1985) and Singer and Singer (1986) concluding that New Zealand executives’ images of an “ideal leader” were more transformational than transactional and that New Zealand executives believed they would carry out their duties most effectively with transformational leaders.

Strongly related to the notion of transformational leadership has been the notion of charismatic leadership. It is clear from both Figure 3.6 and Table 3.7 that charismatic leadership is considered central to the transformational leadership process (Bass, 1985b). Conger (1988a) highlights that charisma accounted for 66% of the response variance in Bass's (1985a) research. However, Bass (1988) and Avolio and Gibbons (1988) maintain that “purely” charismatic leaders could fail to be transforming as they do not focus on transforming followers into leaders, but rather are happy to remain the focus of followers’

attention. It is interesting to note that in later descriptions of the four central tenets of transformational leadership, Bass and Avolio (1994) rename charismatic leadership as "idealised influence". While providing a simple mnemonic - the "Four I's" of *I*dealised *I*nfluence, *I*nspiration, *I*ntellectual Stimulation, and *I*ndividualised Consideration, it also overcomes some of the debate that has centred around the relationship between transformational and charismatic leadership. Thus, while there is much debate about the nature of the relationship between transformational leadership and charismatic leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1988b; Bass, 1988; Avolio and Gibbons, 1988; Howell, 1988; Griffin, 1990), the following section will treat charismatic leadership as a dominant sub-theme within the over-arching framework of transformational leadership.

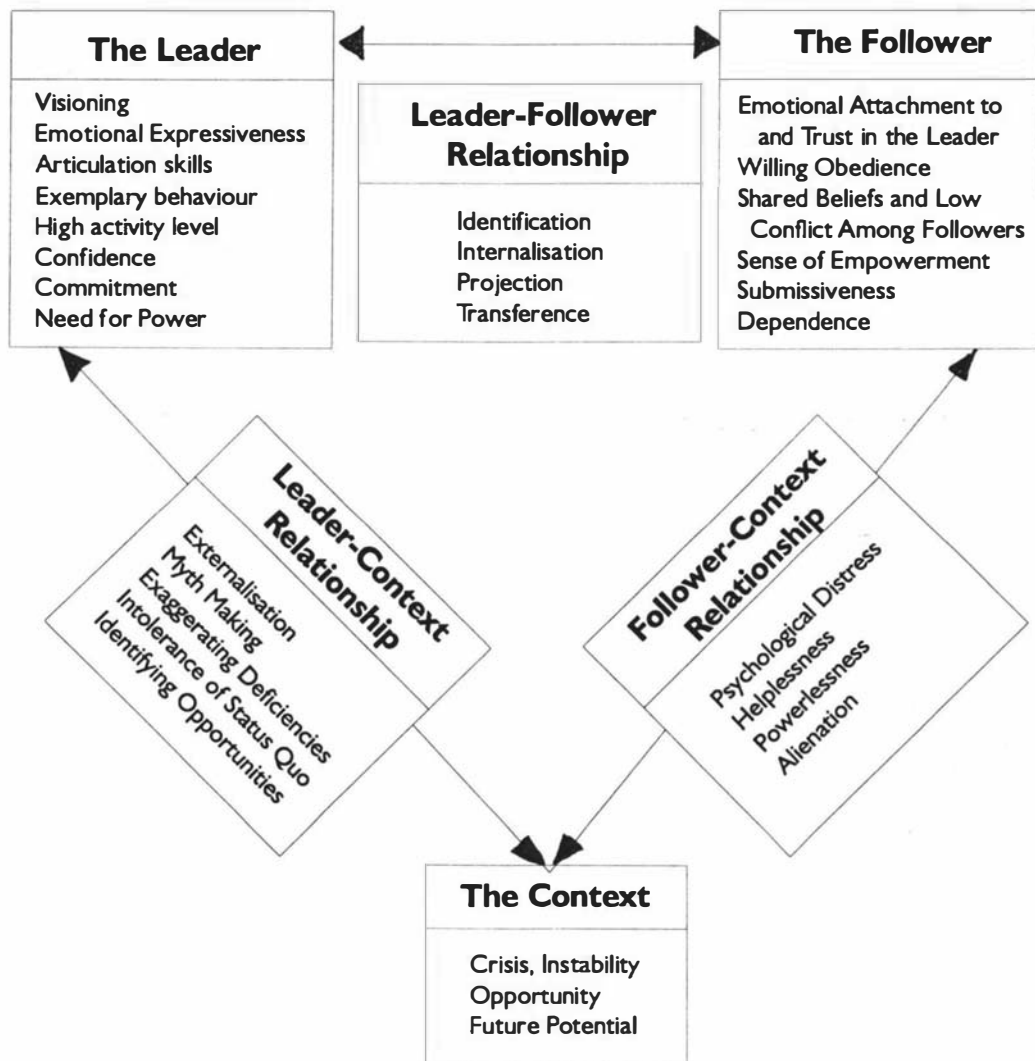
3.3.4.1 *Charismatic Leadership Theory*

Charismatic leadership occurs when followers make attributions of heroic or extraordinary leadership abilities (Conger and Kanungo, 1988a). House, Woycke, and Fodor (1988) state that charismatic theories can be distinguished from "traditional" leadership theories in two ways. The first is that the focus, in terms of leaders' impact, in traditional theories has been on performance, satisfaction and the cognition of subordinates. However, for charismatic leadership the focus is on follower's self-esteem, emotional responses, and motivation as well as the follower's trust and confidence in the leader. The second difference is in the way the leaders themselves are described. In traditional theories, leaders are described predominantly in terms of social or task oriented behaviour whereas charismatic leaders are described in terms of articulating a vision/mission, empowering followers, setting challenging expectations, and creating inspirational images in the minds of followers.

In 1987, Conger and Kanungo noted that only a handful of theories of charismatic leadership had been proposed in organisational or business settings. A year later, they compiled the most comprehensive analysis of organisational charismatic leadership. This work included a number of leading researchers including Bass (1988), House, Woycke, Fodor (1988), Westley and Mintzberg (1988), Kets de Vries (1988), and Avolio and

Gibbons (1988). In summarising the research conducted, Conger and Kanungo (1988b) developed the following model which summaries the convergence of points made by the various authors. Figure 3.7 therefore represents the clearest summary of what is currently known and agreed about charismatic leadership.

Figure 3.7
Components of the Charismatic Influence Process



(adapted from Conger and Kanungo, 1988b, p 326)

Implicit in the model is the acceptance that charismatic leadership is relational. That is, charismatic leadership is not found solely in the leader but rather in the relationship between the leader, followers and context (Conger and Kanungo, 1987). However, despite

this understanding, research has tended to focus primarily on identifying the behaviours and personal characteristics that differentiate charismatic from noncharismatic leaders (Conger and Kanungo, 1988b; Robbins and DeCenzo, 1995). In particular, much more research is required to increase the understanding of the context, and the leaders' and followers' relationship to it (Conger and Kanungo, 1988b).

3.3.4.2 Critique of Transformational Leadership

It is interesting to note that in the numerous accounts of transformational leadership, there are few critiques, criticisms, or shortcomings highlighted. While one would expect an emerging paradigm to have little criticism, transformational leadership has been popular for at least ten years, and it is therefore surprising that so few critiques exist. The author concurs with Bass (1990a) that there is a need for theory and research on the costs and dangers of transformational leaders. There are, however, some gaps identified in the literature, and some criticisms highlighted with respect to transformational leadership. The main arguments are summarised in this section.

Bass (1990a), in his comprehensive review of the leadership literature, identified a number of issues that he believed needed to be addressed within transformational leadership research. These issues relate primarily to clarifying the dynamics involved in moving followers to transcend their own interests for the good of others, and in clarifying the nature of the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership. As Bass (1990a) raises these issues as a series of questions, rather than summarise the issues, his ideas are quoted in full:

“Some empirical support was obtained about the followers’ strong beliefs in the leader as a person. Do these beliefs go beyond the leaders’ actual competence? Followers have faith that the leader will make it possible for the group to succeed. Are they justified in their faith? Do the followers willingly give the leader too much power to act in crises? Do such leaders

transform followers into leaders? Generally, transformational leadership augments transactional leadership, but under what conditions do they conflict? How can one add to the fostering of the pursuit of group and organisational goals (in transformational leadership) to the promotion of self-interest (in transactional leadership)?" (p 902).

Bass (1990a) also believes that more research is required to determine the personality characteristics and dynamics that contribute to the self-confidence, self-determination, and freedom from inner conflict that charismatic leaders display. As a leading proponent of transformational leadership, Bass (1990a) identifies issues that he believes will enhance the understanding of the nature and dynamics of transformational leadership. The following criticisms question the efficacy of transformational leadership as a whole.

The research conducted by Collins and Porras (1994) on visionary organisations (see section 2.2.2.4 for a fuller description of the research) concluded that "*a high profile, charismatic style is absolutely not required to successfully shape a visionary company*" (p 32 - emphasis in the original). They are adamant that the executives of these visionary organisations were good leaders, just not leaders of the highly charismatic style. In fact, they speculate that charismatic leadership may be negatively correlated with building a visionary organisation. This conclusion gives weight to an earlier criticism by McCall (1977, cited in Bass, 1990a) which argued that there was a need to distinguish between the successful influence of the leader, and his or her long term effectiveness as determined by their contribution to the longer-term development of followers and the organisation. These criticisms raise a direct challenge to the efficacy of the charismatic leadership school in particular.

Yukl (1989) claims that there is a danger that the transformational/transactional framework will create a two-factor theory of leadership where the nuances of earlier leadership findings are lost. He implies that the dominance of transformational leadership may limit a full understanding of leadership. Coming to a similar conclusion, but from a different perspective, Meindl, Ehrlich, and Dukerich (1985) state that transformational leadership

develops highly romanticized, heroic views of leadership. While they claim that this leadership myth-making forms an important part of the social reality within organisations, it also “virtually guarantees” that a satisfying understanding of leadership will remain elusive. Thus, they also imply that the current preoccupation with transformational/charismatic leadership will make leadership more, not less, difficult to understand.

There is the risk that the focus on transformational and charismatic leadership places an excessive focus on the leader at the expense of the follower. There is a growing movement to distinguish leadership from the leader, and to define leadership as a relationship, or field of interaction (Hollander and Offerman, 1990; Blank, 1995; Chaleff, 1995; Farson, 1996; Beckhard, 1996). Blank (1995) implies that this misplaced focus is more likely with transformational or charismatic notions of leadership when he states that:

“The mistaken idea that leadership power resides within a single person most frequently occurs in the case of heroic, highly visible leaders” (p 12).

Block (1993) also argues that transformational attributions to people in power causes attention to become unnecessarily fixated on those at the top, at the expense of individual empowerment; and worse that it reinforces the notion that the outcomes created by teams and communities are really the accomplishment of great individual leadership acts.

Rost (1991) is also critical of the focus on the leader and goes further to claim that much of the research conducted on transformational/charismatic leadership is essentially the trait approach repackaged for the 1980s-1990s. That is, much of the research aims to identify those characteristics that distinguish transformational/charismatic leaders from others. As such, the research in this area is subject to the same criticisms and issues that plagued the trait approach.

While there are few critiques, Bass (1990a) argues that research is necessary to fill gaps in the transformational leadership theory, particularly those gaps relating to the dynamics of transformational leadership and on the nature of the relationship between

transformational and transactional leadership. Others claim that transformational/charismatic leadership is flawed in that it doesn't actually contribute to the development of outstanding, visionary organisations (Collins and Porras, 1994); that it may be restricting and narrowing our understanding of leadership (Yukl, 1989; Meindl, Ehrlich, and Dukerich, 1985); and that it focuses too strongly on the leader and their characteristics or influence (Rost, 1991) at the expense of the relationship nature of leadership (Hollander and Offerman, 1990; Rost, 1991; Blank, 1995; Chaleff, 1995; Farson, 1996; Beckhard, 1996) and followers' and teams' contribution to organisational effectiveness (Block, 1993).

3.3.4.3 *Summary of Transformational Leadership*

The foundation for transformational leadership, the latest leadership school of thought, was laid by Burns (1978) who distinguished transformational from transactional leadership. Since that time, transformational leadership has become the dominant leadership paradigm, to the extent that transactional leadership has become the label that encompasses all previous notions of leadership, and transformational leadership represents all that is new and desirable in leadership. Transformational leadership's dominance is also evidenced by how few critiques, criticisms, or shortcomings are identified in the literature.

Transformational leadership was largely popularised through the work of Bass (1990b) who developed a model that identified the four key components of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. The first element of charisma, in particular, has received so much research attention that transformational and charismatic leadership are often used interchangeably. In this chapter, charismatic leadership was seen to be the dominant sub-theme within transformational leadership and refers to leadership that occurs when followers make attributions of heroic or extraordinary leadership abilities (Conger and Kanungo, 1988a).

In essence, the major contribution of transformational leadership to the development of leadership thought has been the idea that leadership creates performance beyond

expectations, raising and satisfying followers higher needs. This notion forms the core of transformational leadership. It is supported by five interdependent themes that were identified by Roeche, Baker and Rose (1989) in their summary and integration of the transformational leadership literature. The five themes they highlighted were vision, influence (often through delegation and empowerment), people orientated, motivational, and values orientated (the moral fibre and ethical orientation of the leader). Throughout the literature, these are the major themes used to characterise transformational leadership and distinguish it from other forms of leadership. Of all the themes, the newest contribution, and possibly the most commonly associated with transformational leadership, is that of vision.

3.3.5 Summary of the Leadership Schools of Thought

Diagrammatically, the history of the leadership schools thought can be represented in the following way.

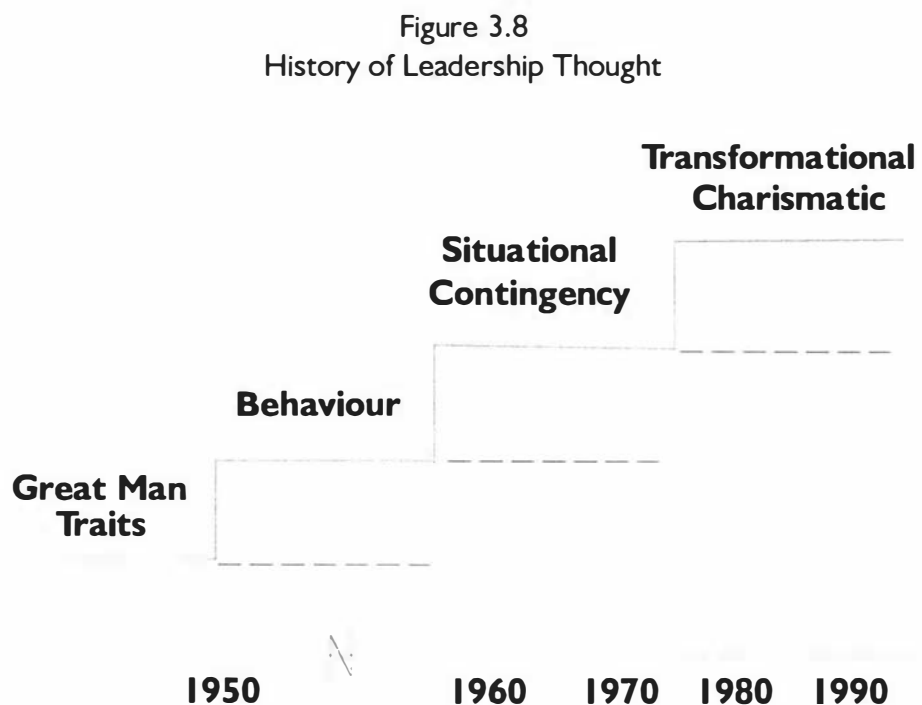


Figure 3.8 highlights the progression of thought that has occurred throughout the 20th Century. The early Great Man and Trait approaches emphasised natural skills and characteristics, but could not agree or isolate key characteristics that distinguished leaders from non-leaders. The emphasis moved, therefore, to what the leader does (behaviours) as opposed to who the leader is. Again, however, the failure of the behaviourist schools to provide a definitive set of behaviours led to the development of the situationalist schools where the appropriate characteristics or behaviour were deemed to be determined by the different situations within which leaders found themselves. This broke the long held notion that there was one best way to lead. More recently, the idea that leadership is about transforming followers to higher levels of performance has dominated. These themes form the major thrusts in the development of leadership thought, and represent the generally accepted notions of what leadership is.

While certainly the most popular method of describing the history of leadership thought, and the most useful for the purposes of providing a context for executive responses, the Schools of Thought approach has come under scrutiny by Rost (1991). His critique raises some very pertinent issues with respect to the development of leadership studies as a discipline, and highlights the need for the relationship between leadership and management to be clarified.

3.3.6 *Critique of the Schools of Thought Approach*

Rost (1991) argues that the "ritualised" historical analysis of the history of leadership thought in the 20th century is inaccurate and misrepresentative in three fundamental ways. The first issue is that *only the views of the dominant paradigm are represented*. The views put forward by social psychologists and management theorists have predominated to the exclusion of leadership theories developed in other disciplines such as anthropology, history, political science, military science, and sociology. The implications of ignoring these other disciplines can clearly be seen in the issues of whether leaders are born or made and regarding the importance of leadership. The idea that leaders are born and not made

has been dismissed outright by management scientists, yet remains prevalent in some anthropological, historical, and sociological frameworks of leadership (Rost, 1991). Equally, the importance of leadership is taken for granted by management and psychological scholars, with Rost (1991) stating that management scholars see leadership as being "as essential to human existence and progress as water and air are to human life" (pp 25-26). However, the importance of leadership is more hotly contested by sociologists and anthropologists.

The second issue relates to the impression created by the Schools of Thought approach that *there have been distinct, separate leadership movements throughout history*. Rost (1991) argues that rather than being separate and distinct, these Schools of Thought have in fact been overlapping and intermingled. Whilst the historical analysis gives the impression that each leadership theory dominated a certain period and then disappeared after being discredited by the new theories, the reality is that several movements were popular during each time period, with no single school of thought totally dominating. Equally, none of the theories have become completely extinct. They reappear, sometimes in another form, but basically intact throughout the 20th century. Of particular interest to this research is Rost's (1991) comment that many of the supposed outdated leadership theories "also remained in the behavioural habits of practitioners who continued to put the theories into practice long after they were discredited by researchers" (Rost, 1991, p 28).

The third misrepresentative issue is the sense *that leadership studies has been making progress*. Rost (1991) argues that the Schools of Thought approach is intended to communicate the view that progress is being made in the understanding of leadership. Hence the portrayed history of leadership thought takes on the characteristics of a "mythological tale" that has been developed to produce a sense of well-being that all is well with leadership study and practice. The effect of this reassurance is theoretical and practical "quiescence". Rost (1991) argues that:

"while these leadership narratives may have served their purposes since the 1930s in reflecting the industrial paradigm, they are no longer acceptable as

our understanding of leadership is transformed in the twenty-first century to reflect a post-industrial paradigm" (p 36).

From the point of view of developing future leadership theory and practice, these three arguments are compelling, and must be addressed by those wanting to develop future leadership theory. However, for the purposes of providing a "sketch-map" context for the executive responses in this research, Rost's (1991) critique provides further weight to the argument that the Schools of Thought are representative of the "prevailing narratives" and therefore provide a relevant framework for the study of organisational executive perceptions. When addressing executive perceptions, issues of representativeness and accuracy need to be separated.

The ultimate conclusion of Rost's (1991) critique, however, cannot be so easily dismissed in the context of this research. He concludes his analysis of the history of leadership thought with the statement that:

"There is a school of leadership in the literature since 1930 that has been hidden by the obvious confusion and chaos of the literature as it is presented in books, chapters and articles. Under the surface, I found a consistent view of leadership in the background assumptions and in the meanings behind the words used in the definitions and models. This school conceptualises *leadership as good management*" (p 10 - emphasis added).

Rost's (1991) conclusion is very powerful. Rather than the Schools of Thought (great man/trait, behavioural, situational/contingency, transformational/charismatic) representing a progression of paradigm shifts (Morris, 1987), he argues that they actually represent movements *within* the same paradigm: an industrial paradigm where the fundamental assumption is that leadership is equal to good management.

Thus, in addition to understanding the *definitions* and leadership *Schools of Thought*, it is necessary, for a full understanding of leadership within organisations, to address the nature of the relationship between leadership and management. This is the focus of Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR

LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT ARE THEY DIFFERENT?

4.1 *Introduction*

The issue of whether leadership is different from management is pivotal to both the understanding and development of leadership. It is arguably one of the most important sub-plots in the literature defining leadership. The previous chapter concluded with Rost's (1991) assertion that the fundamental underlying assumption of leadership literature has been that leadership is equal to good management. If this assumption is true then, for reasons of clarity, it would be useful to discard one of the concepts altogether. However, if leadership and management are different, organisations need to be clear on the differences so that they can effectively identify, select, develop and sustain both leaders and managers.

At present, there appears to be confusion rather than clarity. Some argue that leaders and managers are the same; some claim that they are different; and others *say* they are different while *acting* as though they are the same (Rost, 1991). This chapter will explore this issue, starting with the traditional position which asserts that leadership is a subset of, or synonymous with, management. It will then address and critique more recent arguments that distinguish leadership from management. The chapter will conclude by applying the discipline of polarity management (Johnson, 1992) to the debate.

4.2 *Leadership is A Subset Of, Or the Same As, Management*

In the previous chapter, it was noted that present day notions of leadership are relatively new (Rost, 1991). This is equally true of management. The arrival of the manager and the development of management theory coincided with the advent of large scale industry

around the turn of the century. However, during this time, management has tended to dominate leadership as the focus within organisations. As Thomas (1993) observes:

"The emergence of management from a position of obscurity to a prominent place in modern society is one of the more remarkable events of twentieth century history. Little more than a hundred years ago management as we know it barely existed" (p 30).

As a result, leadership has tended to fall under the mantle of management. This is not to say that management as a discipline is free from the definitional debates found in the leadership literature. Rather, it appears to have done a better job of claiming a legitimate role within organisations. Management itself, is a "term in search of a meaning" (Thomas, 1993). The changing nature of organisations and the environment within which they operate has not only necessitated a change in management approach but has led to a multiplicity of definitions and understandings of management (Page and Wilson, 1993). In this respect, defining management has been almost as difficult as defining leadership. It is in this confused context that the traditional marriage between leadership and management will be explored.

Summarising various conceptualisations of management, Carroll and Gillen (1987) conclude that:

"the classical functions still represent the most useful way of conceptualising the manager's job, especially for management education, and perhaps this is why it is still the most favoured description of managerial work in current management textbooks" (quoted in Thomas, 1993, p 54).

The classical functions referred to are planning, leading, organising and controlling. First posited by Henri Fayol in 1916 and popularised by Allen (1969) through use of the acronym "PLOC", these classic functions form the foundation of most management

definitions (see Appleby, 1981; Koontz, O'Donnell, and Wehrich, 1982; Reinecke and Schoell, 1986; Aldag and Stearns, 1987). The PLOC framework will, therefore, be used to explore the traditional view of the relationship between leadership and management.

Before focusing on the leading component, a context is provided by outlining brief definitions for each of the other three components.

Planning refers to "the selection and sequential ordering of tasks that are required to achieve an organisational goal" (Aldag and Stearns, 1987, p 11). Planning ensures that the organisation has clear steps mapped towards a chosen direction.

Organising involves "establishing an intentional structure of roles for people in an enterprise to fill. It involves 1. determining the activities required to achieve objectives, 2. grouping these activities in some structure, 3. assigning these groups of activities to a manager, 4. delegating authority to carry them out, and 5. making provision for co-ordination of activities, authority, and information horizontally and vertically in the organisation structure" (Koontz, O'Donnell, and Wehrich, 1982, p 28). To achieve the plan, activities and people are organised in a manner consistent with the plan.

Controlling involves "checking to see that plans have been carried out and attending to any deviations" (Appleby, 1981, p 24). Controlling ensures that what has been planned and organised actually happens. This involves monitoring actual against planned performance and taking corrective action when there is a significant deviation.

Implicit in this model is the assumption that leadership is a subset of management. At its core the PLOC model frames leadership as not qualitatively different from management, but rather as one of four components of effective management. Koontz, O'Donnell, Wehrich (1982) summarise the view well when they state that:

"Management and leadership are often regarded as the same activity. Although it is true that the most effective manager will almost certainly be an effective leader and that leading is an essential function of managers, there is more to managing than just leading" (p 383).

Thus the first important point to note is that leadership was seen as an integral part of, but subordinate to, management. The second point of interest is that leadership is seen as the inter-personal or motivational aspect of management. Table 4.1 highlights a number of references that adopt the same assumptions.

Table 4.1
PLOC Based Definitions of Leadership

"[Leadership] is the process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically toward the achievement of organisation and group goals ... it is understandable that leading involves motivation, leadership styles and approaches, and communications." (Koontz, O'Donnell, Wehrich, 1982, p 29).
"[Leadership is] encouraging subordinates to work toward achieving company objectives. It is sometimes called guiding, motivating, or actuating" (Reinecke and Schoell, 1986, p 154).
"... It is at this point that managers must engage in what some people consider the hardest part of management - leading. Leading is the set of processes used to get members of the organisation to work together to advance the interests of the organisation ... [including] motivating employees to expend effort, ... dealing with interpersonal processes, groups, and conflict ... [and] communication" (Griffin, 1990, pp 10-11).
"... leading becomes the manager's most important function. Leadership is the process of influencing people to direct their efforts toward the achievement of some particular goal" (Hodgetts and Kuratko, 1988, p 17).
"Leading activities are the ways in which managers direct and influence their subordinates to perform the tasks that are essential for achieving the organisational goals" (Collins, 1993, p 18)
"Leading includes motivating employees, directing others, selecting the most effective communication channels, and resolving conflicts" (Robbins and DeCenzo, 1995, p 6).

It is significant that much of the contemporary work on leadership, including the literature that differentiates leadership from management (see Section 4.3), includes the PLOC notions of motivating and inspiring and the strong inter-personal aspect (Bennis, 1984; Kotter, 1990a; Rost, 1991). The similarity (or overlap) between the contemporary and PLOC views may be part of the reason why executives have difficulty differentiating conceptually between leadership and management.

In summary, in the traditional PLOC framework leadership is not a complete action system but rather a subset of the management action system. Specifically, leadership is responsible for the interpersonal aspect of management, particularly that relating to the motivation of others.

Reference to the “traditional” PLOC framework does not imply that this view is no longer held. Despite the increasing amount of literature differentiating leadership from management (see Section 4.3), the traditional understanding of the relationship between leadership and management is still widely quoted in management texts. Cox and Cooper (1988) assert that the distinctions being made in the literature are only in the minds of academics. Recent New Zealand research in a large public sector organisation to develop a 'lay' theory of managerial effectiveness provide support for Cox and Cooper's (1988) position and go further to conclude that:

"The effectiveness definitions of the respondents in this study provide no support for the development of a separate concept or discipline of leadership. By contrast, the implications are that the *practising managers* in this study *might be better served if the term leadership were either dropped altogether or clearly subsumed under the broader ambit of effective management*" (Cammock, Nilakant and Dakin, 1995, p 461 - emphasis added).

Others still have used the distinctions between leadership and management as a basis for building their case for management's superiority. Alder (1993) uses Bennis' distinction

between leaders and managers (see section 4.3 for a description of Bennis' framework) as a platform for his conclusion that the distinctions do nothing more than describe the manager of the future.

Fairholm (1991) summarises the PLOC school situation by saying:

"For most of this century, leadership was considered a part of management. At best, it is defined as synonymous with "good management". At worst, it is seen as just another skill area in which managers should demonstrate competence" (p 40).

For most of this century, then, leadership has been considered synonymous with, or a subset of, management. This point of view has been surprisingly resilient given the fact that fewer experts or practitioners will now argue that leadership is the same, or even part of the same process, as management (Fairholm, 1991). The next section looks at the more contemporary view that leadership is different from management.

4.3 *Leadership is Different From Management*

There are many conceptualisations of how leadership differs from management (see Finn, 1980; Adair, 1988; McConkey, 1989; Heller, 1995). Rather than provide a summary of the various differences, this section will trace the development of this thought, highlighting the most influential theorists.

One of the first efforts to distinguish leadership from management was made by Selznick (1957) who wrote:

"Leadership is not equivalent to office-holding or high prestige or authority or decision making. It is not helpful to identify leadership with whatever is done by people in high places. The activities we have in mind may or

may not be engaged in by those who are formally in positions of authority" (p. 24).

While the language is not the same, in essence Selznick (1957) is making the point that leadership is not a formal position in the way that management is. Being a manager, or holding the office of a manager, does not equate to leadership. This clearly runs counter to the PLOC framework. Therefore, as early as the late 1950's, the traditional relationship between leadership and management began to be challenged. However, it was twenty years later that the differences began to feature in the leadership literature. The watershed article, in this respect, was Zaleznik's (1977) *Managers and Leaders: Are they Different?*

Zaleznik's (1977) opening headline stated that leaders have more in common with artists than they do with managers. Zaleznik (1977) argued that the functions of managers and leaders are completely separate, with each having different agendas, motivations, personal histories, and thought processes. Managers, he argued, tended to be impersonal and passive. They prefer security, take only calculated risks, and relate to people in role terms. Managers focus on control, problem solving and rationality. By contrast, Zaleznik (1977) argued that leaders use power with relish, take risks, are creative and transforming, and work through others.

Table 4.2 provides a summary of the key differences highlighted by Zaleznik (1977):

Table 4.2
Zaleznik's Distinctions Between Managers and Leaders

MANAGERS	LEADERS
"Once born"	"Twice born"
Low emotional involvement	Rich emotional content
"How"	"What"
Procedure	Substance
Order and control	Tolerate chaos
Impersonal, passive attitude to goals	Personal and active attitude toward goals

The differences between "once born" and "twice born" requires explanation as these are not commonly used terms and they are central to Zaleznik's (1977) argument. "Once born" and "twice born" describe two basic personality types. Once born's sense of self is derived from their harmony with their environment. They lead relatively peaceful lives and make straightforward adjustments to the changes in their lives. Twice borns, however, have a continual struggle for order, and derive their sense of self from their profound separateness from the environment. Leaders, he argues, tend to be twice borns and managers once borns, for it is this profound separateness from the environment that allows leaders to tolerate chaos and also motivates them to bring about significant changes rather than maintain the status quo.

What becomes apparent is that Zaleznik (1977) provides a primarily cognitive or psychological basis for distinguishing leadership and management. He makes this point more strongly in his retrospective commentary, where he states that one of the crucial differences between managers and leaders:

"lies in the conceptions they hold, deep in their psyches, of chaos and order.

Leaders tolerate chaos and lack of structure and are thus prepared to keep answers in suspense, avoiding premature closure on important issues. Managers seek order and control and are almost compulsively addicted to disposing of problems even before they understand their potential significance" (Zaleznik, 1991, p 131 - emphasis added).

One of the reasons Zaleznik's (1977) article was so successful in driving a wedge between management and leadership was that it distinguished leaders on the basis of psychological make-up, rather than skills, behaviours, or abilities. Because management has a strong theoretical foundation in the area of skills, behaviours and abilities, any differentiation on this basis probably would have been dismissed or explained away using the PLOC framework. As it was, Zaleznik's article (1977) generated much controversy, indicative of how deeply ingrained were the traditional assumptions regarding the relationship between

leadership and management. Writing about the reaction to his article, Zaleznik (1989) states that:

"To some, the notion that a manager and a leader are different seems wrong, if not offensive" (p 21).

However, Zaleznik (1977) was successful in creating a legitimate space for theorists to explore further possible differences between leadership and management; a space that many in the 1980's worked to fill (Badaracco and Ellsworth, 1989; Bennis, 1984, 1989a, 1989b; Conger, 1989; DePree, 1989; Nanus, 1989; Yukl, 1989; Zaleznik, 1989).

Probably the most well-known work in this area during the 1980's was that of Bennis (1984, 1989a, 1989b), which was based on interviews with 90 effective executives. Bennis' (1989b) main conclusion was that leaders and managers are different:

"Leaders are people who do the right thing; managers are people who do things right. Both roles are crucial, but they differ profoundly" (p 18).

The other differences that Bennis (1989b) highlights are summarised in Table 4.3:

Table 4.3
Bennis' Distinctions Between Managers and Leaders

MANAGER	LEADER
Administers	Innovates
Focuses on systems and structure	Focuses on people
Short-range view	Long-range perspective
Eye on the bottom line	Eye on the horizon
Imitates	Originates
Accepts the status quo	Challenges the status quo
The classic good soldier	Their own person

(Alder, 1993, p 178)

The key themes emerging from his work are that leadership is both personal and interpersonal; it focuses on the big picture rather than taking the short-term view, it is innovative and challenges the status quo. These themes are consistent with those found in the literature cited in this section. His work, and that of the many other cited authors, confirmed, extended, and popularised the conclusions made by Zaleznik (1977) with respect to the differences between leadership and management.

Summarising and critiquing the literature distinguishing leadership from management in the 1980's, Rost (1991) makes the following observation:

"the distinctions are perfunctory and poorly constructed, and the criteria given to make the distinction are often too general and too ambiguous for people to use with any accuracy in real life or in research" (p 134).

He makes three key criticisms of the literature over this period. The first is that most distinctions focus on personality traits or behaviours (the periphery), and do not identify differences in *processes* or *relationships*, which for Rost (1991), form the essential nature of leadership and management (see later paragraphs for a full description of Rost's (1991) view).

The second criticism is that, when differentiating management from leadership, there is a tendency to denigrate management to make leadership look good. Below are two examples of the many books and articles that explicitly do this (see Zaleznik, 1989; McFarland, Senn, and Childress, 1994; Kouzes and Posner, 1987):

"Leaders are different than run-of-the-mill managers" (McConkey, 1989, p 21).

"WANTED: CORPORATE LEADERS. Must have vision and ability to build corporate culture. Mere managers need not apply" (Keichel, 1983, p 135).

Hickman (1990) has also expressed his concern with this trend. He states:

"One of the most alarming current fads holds that leaders make much more of a difference than managers when it comes to guiding organisations to competitive advantage and enduring results. This wrongheaded notion has given too many people a distorted picture of managers as dull, impersonal, plodding, tedious, unimaginative, and stagnant souls. Of course, everyone would rather be a leader, because leaders, as we've been told, are inspiring, personable, charismatic, creative and visionary folks" (p 3).

Rost (1991) argues that even authors who do not intend to put management down, give that impression anyway in subtle ways (he includes his past work in this analysis). The overall impressions tend to be something like:

"Management is okay and necessary, but leadership is what is needed to operate any organisation effectively."

"Management is what got us into this mess, leadership is what will get us out."

This conclusion is surprising in light of the work in Section 4.2. Over a relatively short period of time, leadership has switched from being a subset of management, to being seen as superior to management.

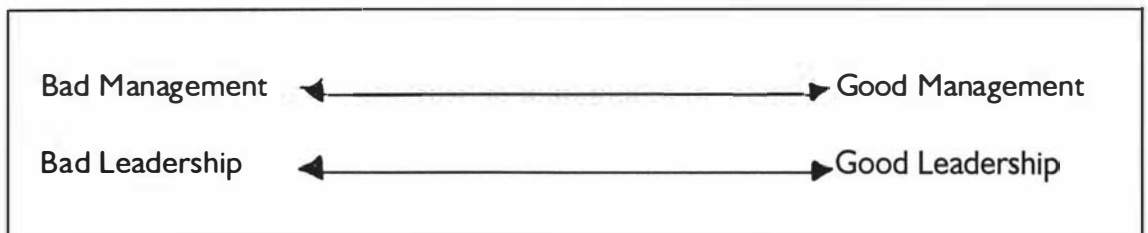
The third criticism is that distinctions put forward are often differences in degree, not in kind. That is, they claim to differentiate but actually imply that leadership and management are not substantively different. Graphically, we can represent the relationship they put forward in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1
Differences in Degree, Not Kind



The absence of references to "bad leadership" in much of the literature gives further evidence that this is occurring. Rost (1991) believes this view predominates because the industrial paradigm is so ingrained that the fundamental assumption that "leadership is good management" has not been challenged. Rather he believes that leadership and management should be seen as separate and distinct processes as represented in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2
Leadership and Management as Distinct Processes



From 1977 through to the late 1980s, it can be seen that a major mindset change occurred with respect to the relationship between leadership and management. Leadership moved from being seen as a subset of, or equal to, management; to being seen as very different from, and superior to, management. However, despite the large amount of literature, Rost (1991) concludes that what exists is a confusing mixture of distinctions that mistake the periphery of leadership for its essential nature; needlessly denigrate management to extol leadership; and espouse leadership and management as being different in nature, but offer distinctions that are different in degree, not kind.

To overcome the criticisms identified, Rost (1991) proposes a framework which he believes addresses the substantive differences between leadership and management. Rost (1991) defines leadership as:

"an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes" (p 102).

In contrast, he defines management as:

"an authority relationship between at least one manager and one subordinate who co-ordinate their activities to produce and sell particular goods and/or services" (p 145).

The definitions contain four essential elements: the *nature* of the relationship, the *roles* within that relationship, the *integrating factor* in the relationship and the *outcomes sought*. Leadership (and management) can be identified when *all* four defining properties co-exist - two or three elements are not sufficient. Rost (1991) does not clarify what type of relationship exists if one or more elements of either the leadership or management definition are missing, therefore a relationship with less than four elements would constitute a different kind of relationship that was leadership-like or management-like. Comparing and contrasting these elements provides an outline of the essential differences that Rost (1991) identifies and provides a good framework for exploring these distinctions. The distinctions are summarised in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4
Rost's Distinctions Between Leadership and Management

	LEADERSHIP	MANAGEMENT
<i>Nature of relationship</i>	Influence relationship	Authority relationship
<i>Relationship roles</i>	Leaders and followers	Managers and subordinates
<i>Integrating Factor</i>	Mutual purposes	Co-ordinated activities
<i>Outcomes Sought</i>	Real changes	Produce and sell goods and/or services

(adapted from Rost, 1991, p 149)

The purpose of the following descriptions is to explicate the differences between leadership and management, not to develop a complete description of management or leadership.

Nature of Relationship: Influence vs Authority

The key differences Rost (1991) identifies relate to the use of coercion and the direction of attempted efforts to impact on others. The influence relationship in leadership requires that coercion is not used as a regular or patterned form of behaviour, whereas authority allows or implies the use of coercion in this way.

Attempts to influence others in the leadership relationship are multidirectional. That is, leaders influence other leaders and followers, and followers influence other followers and leaders. This is in contrast to the uni-directional and top-down use of authority. Rost (1991) argues that even in more democratic management relationships, the fundamental nature of the relationship remains top-down.

Relationship Roles: Leaders and Followers vs Managers and Subordinates

Rost (1991) argues that these two sets of roles are different and are therefore not interchangeable. This means that subordinates can be leaders, and managers can be

followers. Equally, leaders can be managers or subordinates, or can be in a leadership relationship where there are no managers or subordinates. All combinations are possible as each role is different. The important implication for organisations is that managers may, or may not, be leaders. People in authority positions are not automatically leaders by virtue of that position. Equally, leaders in organisation need not be managers or hold formal authority roles within the organisation. The key point is that leaders and managers are different and the distinction between the two needs to be maintained.

Integrating Factor: Mutual Purposes vs Co-ordinated Activities

Mutual purposes express what the leaders and followers have expressly and jointly agreed as being important and worthwhile. Mutual purposes reflect the shared understanding that has developed over time as to what is most important. It is often intangible yet provides the underlying holistic and integrated sense that binds leaders and followers together. In contrast, to produce goods and services, the various activities must be co-ordinated. This requires that all parts of the system work together, and comply with the process necessary to produce the goods or services. This sense of co-ordinated activity is qualitatively different from the non-coercive, co-created sense of purpose that is essential for leadership. This is not to say that a leadership relationship will not involve co-ordinated activities, but the crucial point is that co-ordinated activities are not essential to leadership, whereas they are essential to management.

Outcomes Sought: Real Changes vs Producing and Selling Goods

Leaders and followers join forces with the intention to produce real changes. Managers and subordinates get together to produce and sell goods and/or services. When managers and subordinates join forces to really change either the kind of products/services they provide, or the way in which they produce them, those managers and subordinates *may* have transformed their managerial relationship into a leadership relationship (*may* is emphasised as the other three essential elements of leadership must also be present).

These distinctions are intended to highlight the substantive differences between leadership and management. They focus on the fundamental differences in terms of relationship and

process, rather than focusing on behaviours and traits. It is important to remember that Rost (1991) is seeking to develop an interdisciplinary method of identifying leadership. It is not a method for evaluating leadership, which he argues, is a separate issue. Separating identification from evaluation is important as it overcomes the problem of seeing leadership as equal to good management, but it also points to a short-coming in the model. In developing an interdisciplinary approach, the organisational context has been removed, and it therefore requires theorists and practitioners to apply the framework in an organisational context. Gini (1995) states in his critique of Rost (1991) that while there is value in the interdisciplinary approach, there is also value in looking at the peculiarities within disciplines. That is, leadership as practised in a particular profession is different, at least in part, from leadership practised in other professions. Kotter's (1990a) research goes closest to doing this.

Kotter (1990a) conducted two extensive pieces of research looking at differences between leadership and management in organisations. The first asked executives about the differences between leadership and management (the essential nature in Rost's (1991) terms); the second asked them to identify the behaviour of highly effective management and of highly effective leadership (which provides the specific organisational context). The results of his research are published in his book *A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs From Management*. This book presents one of the most systematic and comprehensive descriptions of the distinctions between leadership and management.

Kotter (1990b) avoids the criticisms raised by Rost (1991) when he concludes that management and leadership are two distinct, but complementary, action systems. Neither is one aspect of the other, nor is leadership better than management nor a replacement for it.

Kotter (1990b) differentiates leadership and management both on the outcomes they seek to achieve, and in the *processes* used to achieve these outcomes. He argues that the pioneers of modern management were concerned with getting consistent results from large and complex organisations, and taking account of all major stakeholders (shareholders,

customers, staff and suppliers). Management was therefore created to help keep complex organisations on time and on budget. The primary outcome of management was, and still is, to provide a *strong degree of consistency and order*. Leadership, on the other hand, works to provide *fundamental beneficial change*. It is interesting to note the similarities between Kotter's (1990b) notions of "consistency and order" and "providing fundamental beneficial change" and Rost's (1991) notions of "co-ordinated activities" and "real changes".

The differences in the processes used are outlined in Table 4.5. It is interesting to note that both leaders and managers have responsibility for creating an agenda, creating networks and relationships to achieve this agenda and then ensuring people execute what needs to be done. However, the processes used to achieve them and the outcomes sought are very distinct.

Table 4.5
Kotter's Distinction Between Management and Leadership

	MANAGEMENT	LEADERSHIP
<i>Creating an Agenda</i>	Planning and Budgeting: establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving results and allocating the necessary resources.	Establishing Direction: developing a vision of the future, and the needed change strategies.
<i>Developing a human network for achieving the agenda</i>	Organising and Staffing: establishing structure, staffing it, delegating responsibility and authority, providing policies, procedures and systems.	Aligning People: communicating the direction by words and deeds to all who need to understand and accept the vision and strategies.
<i>Execution</i>	Controlling and Problem Solving: monitoring results, identifying deviations, planning and organising actions.	Motivating and Inspiring: energising people to overcome major barriers to change.
	↓	↓
<i>Outcomes</i>	Produces a degree of predictability and order , and has the potential of consistently producing key results expected by various stakeholders.	Produces change , often to a dramatic degree, and has the potential of producing extremely useful change.

(adapted from Kotter, 1990a, p 6)

Table 4.5 shows that Kotter's (1990a) framework also overcomes the criticisms raised by Rost (1991). Kotter (1990a) differentiates on the basis of processes and relationship, not in terms of traits or behaviours. He explicitly avoids putting management down, but insists that both are necessary in organisations and the differences he highlights are qualitatively different in nature and not merely differences in degree.

In terms of meeting the four dimensions of Rost's (1991) definition, Kotter's (1990a) framework omits only one, the explicit mention that the relationship roles are that of leaders and followers. In "developing the human network for achieving the agenda", Kotter (1990a) distinguishes between management's authority relationship and the influence

relationship implied in the "aligning people" and in the "motivating and inspiring" components. The "real changes" and "co-ordinated activity" similarities have already been highlighted and the mutual purposes component could be encompassed by Kotter's (1990a) vision. In describing mutual purposes, Rost (1991) acknowledges that it is akin to the notion of vision or, more particularly, shared vision.

The conclusion that can be drawn from this is that for one of the most comprehensive overviews of the leadership and management literature can be developed by merging the work of Rost (1991) and Kotter (1990a). In an organisational context, Kotter's (1990a) work has the advantage of being directly applicable without seriously contravening any of the important criteria developed by Rost (1991).

4.3.1 Summary of Leadership Vs Management Debate

In summary, leadership has traditionally been seen as a subset of, or the same as, management. Since Zaleznik (1977), it has been increasingly asserted that leadership and management are different. However, the frameworks used to distinguish the two, often reinforced (albeit unintentionally at times) the underlying assumption that leadership equals good management, and as such, have resulted in a lack of clarity as to the qualitative or substantive differences between leadership and management.

What is remarkable is the "upgrading" that occurred for leadership over this period. Despite Rost's (1991) contention that the literature has not really been successful in distinguishing leadership from management, it is evident that leadership moved from being subordinate, to being superior to management; a significant transition in fourteen years. It is interesting to note that the PLOC themes regarding the interpersonal and motivational aspects of leadership still come through strongly in the newer conceptualisations. This may be adding to the confusion in differentiating leadership from management. In addition, the themes of bringing about change (challenging the status quo), seeing the bigger picture

(particularly through vision), and being innovative, have become important definers of leadership.

It was argued that Kotter (1990a) and Rost (1991) provide two comprehensive and logically consistent frameworks for explicating the differences between leadership and management. To them, leadership is not the same as management or even good management. They are distinct but complementary processes within organisations. Kotter's (1990a) framework was selected as the basis for the research questionnaire as it addresses directly the leadership and management distinction from an organisational perspective.

It will be argued that contributing to the confusion between management and leadership has been the inability to see and understand an underlying polarity. The next section will look at the leadership versus management debate from a polarity perspective and highlight how this can overcome many of the problems encountered in the leadership versus management literature.

4.4 Polarity Management and the Leadership/Management Debate

Polarities refer to relationships between pairs of interdependent opposite values. They are sometimes called dilemmas or paradoxes. Organisations that manage polarities well outperform those that do not and create better environments in which to live and work (Johnson, 1995b). One of the key polarities organisations need to manage is that between leadership and management.

Understanding both the structure and dynamics that underlie polarities, as described by Johnson (1992), will provide a valuable framework for identifying how to integrate the leadership and management debate at both an individual and organisational level. These polarity principles will also be used to analyse executive responses to the leadership development principles.

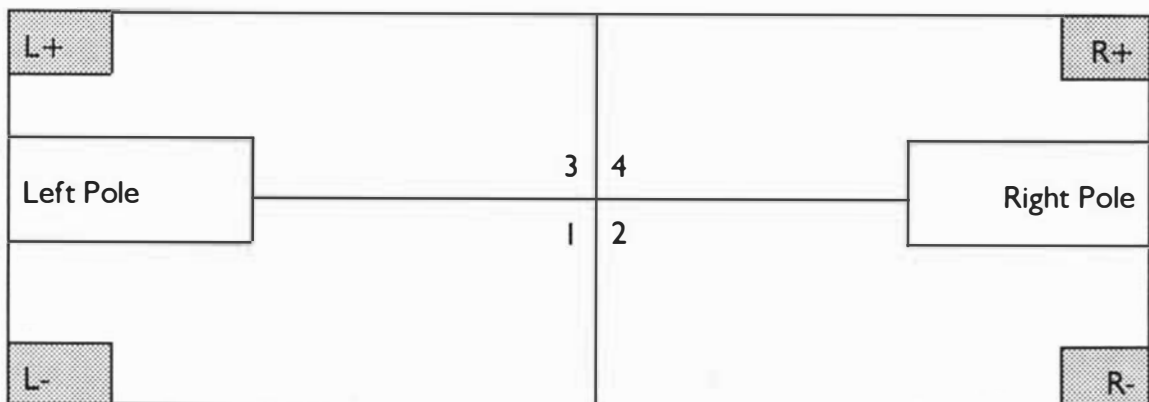
4.4.1 The Structure of Polarities

Polarities describe situations (often seen as difficulties) where there is a never-ending shift in emphasis or focus from one pole to the other. With polarities, there is no one, clear, end-point solution. The "solution" lies in balancing both poles over an extended period of time (Johnson, 1992; 1995a).

A polarity can be identified by asking, "Is the difficulty ongoing?" and "Are there two poles which are interdependent?" If the answer is "yes" to *both* questions, then a polarity exists. Using these criteria, Johnson (1992) distinguishes between polarities to be managed and problems to be solved. In contrast to polarities, problems have solutions which can be considered an end point. Further, these solutions can stand alone. That is, they do not have a "necessary opposite" that is required for the "solution" to work over time.

Having identified the interdependent poles, the full polarity structure is created by developing a four quadrant diagram that highlights the upsides and downsides of each pole (Figure 4.3). The crucial point is that each pole has both upsides and downsides, as it is the inability to see the whole structure that frustrates efforts to manage a polarity effectively. Having established the generic polarity structure, it is important to understand the dynamics that exist within this structure.

Figure 4.3
Polarity Structure



4.4.2 *The Dynamics of Polarities*

The ideal movement within a polarity is what Johnson (1992) refers to as the "polarity two-step", where the goal is to maximise the upsides of each pole and minimise the downsides. The polarity two-step starts in either lower quadrant and moves diagonally across, then down. This repeats continually, diagonally across, then down, so that one moves through all four quadrants. For example, in Figure 4.3 this movement could be represented by the movement from cells 1→4→2→3, and then back to 1 again. You do not "solve" a polarity by choosing *either* the left pole *or* the right pole, you manage it through understanding the benefits of each pole while appreciating the limits of both.

This polarity two-step is in contrast to what Johnson (1992) refers to as the "one-pole myth". The one-pole myth claims that if you stay on one pole you will get the upside and downside of that pole while avoiding the downside of the opposite pole. The reality is, however, that the more one pole is over-emphasised, the more that pole's downside is experienced. Further, if a pole is over-emphasised for a long time, the downsides of both poles are experienced (and the benefits of both poles tend also to be lost). This dynamic explains why the two-step movement is necessary.

Unfortunately for organisations, polarities are rarely self managing. The ideal polarity two step is often frustrated because people seldom see the full polarity structure. Whenever there is a push for a shift from one pole to the other, it is because those pushing are experiencing or anticipating the downsides of the present pole (which they often identify as the "problem"), and they are attracted to the upsides of the other pole (which they often identify as the "solution"). Clearly, these people are working with only half of the picture. Johnson (1992) calls people with this viewpoint, "crusaders". They feel very strongly about their crusade to move from the downside of one pole to the upside of the other pole, and think that those opposing them are wrong. While the move is probably good and necessary, it is not a "solution". Crusaders are often blind to the downsides of pole they are moving to, and to the upsides of the current pole. This is one of the key traps with polarities - *it is easy to be right, but difficult to be complete*. The crusaders viewpoint is not inaccurate; it

is, however, incomplete. It is the incompleteness, coupled with the conviction of being *absolutely* right, that leads to polarisation of views, conflict and polarity mismanagement.

Conflict occurs because the opposing point of view in a polarity is normally held by those Johnson (1992) refers to as “tradition bearers”. Tradition bearers want to preserve the best of the current pole and avoid the downside of the other. Both crusaders and tradition bearers have an “either/or” mindset. The viewpoint that wins depends on which group has the most power. However, over time, both will lose because over-emphasising one pole leads to experiencing the downsides of both.

To manage a polarity effectively, it is necessary to move from an “either/or”, to a “both/and”, mindset. Instead of contradicting each other's view, crusaders and tradition bearers can supplement each other's view in order to see the whole picture. Having identified the whole picture (the upsides and downsides of each pole), the polarity two step can be facilitated by using the downsides as indicators of the need to move to the other pole: that is, each one indicates the beginning of the next polarity two-step. Managing the polarity in this way maximises the experience of the upsides of both poles.

A further advantage of understanding and managing the polarity is that there is less resistance to moving to the other pole when people see that, at some future stage, the polarity will need to swing back to their preferred pole. When it is not seen as a choice between the two, the fear of losing out altogether is removed enabling the people involved to see that in the long run, all will benefit.

In summary, polarities are not self managing because the “either/or” mindset creates a situation where people stay stuck in one or both of the downsides. Managing the dynamics of a polarity involves maximising the upsides of each pole by identifying downside indicators for each pole, and on becoming aware of the movement to a downside, being prepared to take steps to move to the other pole to regain the upside benefits of that pole. This ideal movement is known as the polarity two-step.

4.4.3 *The Polarity Structure of the Leadership/Management Debate*

The dynamics of the polarity two step have been apparent in the history of the leadership/management debate. The periods of organisational expansion and growth (50s-70s) saw a move away from the personal leadership approach because of its inability to cope with increasing complexity. This led to a move towards the management pole, a shift that saw many organisations experience the upsides of management. During the 1980's, organisations were considered to be overmanaged and underled (Bennis, 1989a; Kotter, 1992), indicating that they had slipped into the downside of management. Leadership, therefore, was put forward as the "solution". While the polarity structure can explain the dynamics throughout time, the following analysis will concentrate on the trends during the 1980s-early 1990s.

Understanding the underlying polarity provides an explanation for why management has often been denigrated to make leadership look good, and also provides a rationale for the confusion that exists between leadership and management. The leadership and management debate has the hallmarks of an unmanaged polarity, with many "crusader" authors and practitioners during the 1980s and 1990s seeing only the downsides of management and the upsides of leadership. This belief that they are completely right, rather than half right, has resulted in leadership being put forward as the solution to an organisation's performance and competitive problems. Focusing and reinforcing half of the polarity structure will only entrench "either-or" thinking and take organisations further away from identifying the whole structure.

Equally, the inability to understand the dynamics of interdependent opposites has contributed to the confusion between leadership and management. Instead of seeing leadership and management as separate and distinct, yet interdependent, the interdependence has been confused with similarity and the conclusion drawn that leadership and management are the same process. Understanding polarities allows one to see management and leadership as separate *and* interdependent action systems. Rather than getting caught in a debate over which is best, the polarity framework reveals the full picture

and provides a diagnostic tool for organisations to identify where they are in the polarity framework, and a strategy via the "two step" adjustment for moving forward. Of greater benefit, however, is that each move is not seen as the final solution, but rather as one more step in a infinite two step movement that brings, over the long term, the benefits of both management and leadership.

Given that Kotter (1990a) has been used to describe the differences between leadership and management within organisations, it will be useful to look at how Kotter's (1990a) descriptions could be used in a polarity framework.

4.4.3.1 Kotter's (1990a) Leadership-Management Model in the Polarity Framework

Table 4.6 uses Kotter's (1990a) descriptions of leadership and management as the basis for establishing the upsides of the polarity structure. In order to elicit the downsides of each, the technique of using humour or exaggeration, as described by Hampden-Turner (1990), has been used.

Table 4.6
Leadership Management Polarity Using Kotter's Framework

+	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Systematic, achievable plan. • Resources effectively allocated. • Role clarity • Clear Structure and Systems • Effective Controlling and Problem Solving • Predictability and Order • Consistency • Efficiency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Compelling long-term vision • Alignment of variety of stakeholders • Motivating and Inspiring • Excitement and Passion • Beneficial Change • Commitment • Effectiveness 	+
Managing			Leading
—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meaningless Short-term Plans • Constricting Roles • Overspecialisation and Rigidity • Role Myopia • "Why Am I Doing This?" • Analysis Paralysis • Senseless detail • Over-controlling • Boredom and "Sedimentation" • Ineffectiveness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pie-in-the-Sky Fantasy • Ungrounded Dreams • Role Confusion and Waste • All Fired Up with No Place to Go • Unco-ordinated Faith Without Works • Plitudinous Exhortations (Bumper Sticker Solutions) • Chaos and Confusion • Needless Change • Inefficiency • Instability 	—

The leadership management polarity structure has the advantage of identifying the upsides and downsides of both leadership and management, overcoming both the "crusader" and "tradition bearer" mindset. The framework also highlights the interdependence of the two processes, moving the mindset away from "either-or" to "both-and".

In terms of practically managing the polarity, the downsides highlighted in the framework can be used by the organisation as indicators that the organisation needs to begin the next phase of the polarity two-step. Such a transition is less likely to be acrimonious as the

polarity framework provides a common language and understanding of the whole picture. It may also encourage organisations to tolerate a diverse mix of people.

Thus, by understanding the full polarity structure, organisations and individuals can better manage the polarity, maximising the benefits of both management and leadership. Moving away from either-or thinking enables organisations to recognise the interdependence between management and leadership and instead of asking "Which is best?", the questions become, "How do we tap the natural tension between management and leadership? Do we need to bolster one or the other? Can we find a better way to integrate the two?"

In the relatively steady environments prior to the 1970s, organisation's could take a long time to switch their focus between leadership and management, without seriously affecting their performance. However, the increasing speed and complexity of change has necessitated a faster movement between the two. Failure to identify and manage the underlying polarity makes the transitions difficult and can seriously affect an organisation's performance. Understanding the structure and dynamics of the polarity gives organisations a significant competitive advantage, as over time they can maximise the benefits of both management and leadership.

While this analysis holds true for organisations, there has been some debate as to whether leadership and management can be encompassed within one individual. Attention to this issue is provided in the following section.

4.4.4 The Polarity Management Debate At the Individual Level

Zaleznik (1977) argues that trying to reconcile the leadership and management dilemma is difficult with a "both/and" strategy as leaders and managers are fundamentally different in motivation, personal history, and in how they think and act. Fairholm (1991) concurs with Zaleznik (1977) stating that because leadership and management require substantively

different skills, knowledge bases, and values, it is unrealistic to expect one individual to combine both competencies at high levels of proficiency.

In contrast, Hickman (1990) argues that everyone possesses some combination of management and leadership orientations, and while each may have an overall preference for one or the other, it is possible for individuals to move between the two orientations. Kotter (1990b) states it even more strongly when he says:

"When it comes to preparing people for executive jobs, such companies rightly ignore the recent literature that says people cannot manage *and* lead. They try to develop leader-managers. Once companies understand the fundamental difference between leadership and management, they can begin to groom their top people to provide both" (p 104).

Historically, the confusion between the two has made this balance difficult, although it is also clear that the two orientations cannot easily be blended or balanced. There is a natural tension between the two, but the key to enduring success lies not in turning the tension into conflict, nor in trying to make the tension go away, but rather in accepting and encouraging the differences in order to tap the power of the tension (Hickman, 1990). Polarity management provides both the understanding and the tools for doing so.

4.4.5 Summary of the Leadership-Management Polarity

In summary, the leadership/management debate shows the characteristics of an unmanaged polarity. The inability to see the underlying polarity has contributed to recent "crusaders" putting management down and "glorifying" the leadership solution. While the shift in emphasis to leadership may bring initial benefits for many organisations, the polarity structure reveals that neither management nor leadership can stand alone over time as a final solution.

It was argued that the polarity framework provides a valuable mindset and tool for understanding the nature of the relationship between leadership and management. Understanding the structure and dynamics of polarities enables the leadership and management polarity to be managed, both within organisations and within individuals, so that the upsides of both can be realised.

4.5 *Conclusions*

This chapter has shown that leadership and management are different, complete, and yet interdependent, action systems. The inability to recognise this has resulted in confusion regarding the relationship between leadership and management, with the traditional “solution” being that leadership is a subset of management, and the more recent “solution” claiming that leadership is good management.

Kotter’s (1990a) framework was selected as providing the best organisational summary of the differences between leadership and management. His model clearly differentiates on the basis of essential processes and relationship; he highlights substantive differences, not differences in degree; and he insists that both are necessary in organisations.

While Kotter’s (1990a) model provides a clear sense of the nature of the differences between leadership and management, it was argued that Johnson (1992) provides an understanding of the dynamics of the interdependent relationship between leadership and management. Together, Kotter’s (1990a) and Johnson’s (1992) models represent a strong and cohesive framework for viewing leadership as substantively different from, yet dynamically interdependent with, management.

The above chapter and conclusions, together with the definitional and Schools of Thought frameworks provided in Chapter Three provide a broad “sketch-map” for understanding the important elements of what leadership is, particularly in an organisational context. Having established these frameworks, the following chapter provides a context for understanding

leadership development. Chapter Five concludes the literature review section of this research and is followed by the description of the research methodology and results.

CHAPTER FIVE

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

5.1 *Introduction*

The first four chapters have shown that leadership is substantively important to organisations, that there are a variety of definitions and Schools of Thought regarding the nature of leadership, and that leadership is often considered to be good management, rather than being a different, complete action system, yet interdependent with management. Given such complexity and confusion within the leadership domain, it is not surprising that leadership development is also a confused and complex area, as the issues of definition and development are closely related (Clark and Clark, 1990; Rost, 1991). Sinetar (1981) notes that most organisations do not have developmental programmes for leaders because the traits and skills which comprise leadership have not been clearly specified and are not adequately understood. Sherman (1995) puts it more directly, “developing leaders requires defining it” (p 67).

This close connection between definition and development provides some explanation as to why, despite the volumes of work on leadership, there is surprisingly little work on leadership development processes. It appears that while researchers have spent most of their time working to clarify what leadership is, little time has been spent addressing how it can be developed. Sherman (1995) comments:

"If everybody thinks business needs better leadership - and apparently everybody does - then why is the corporate world understanding of how to teach leadership still Stone Age primitive?" (p 66).

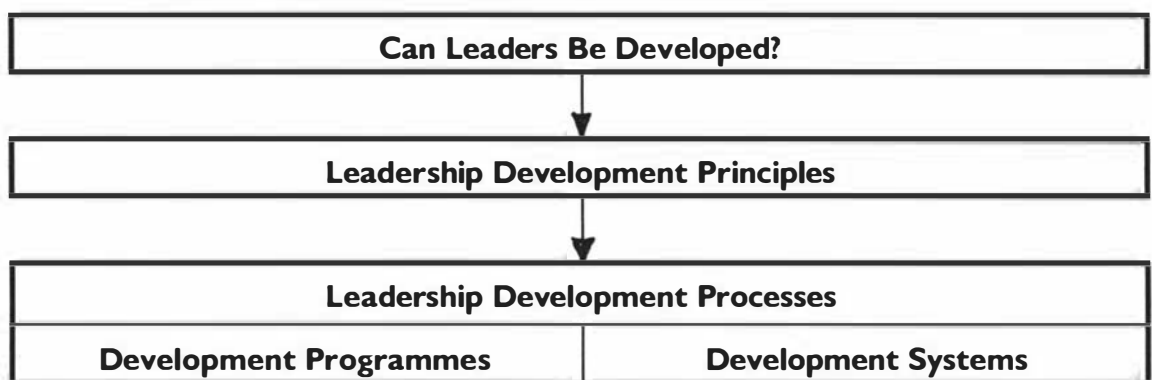
Three major aspects of leadership development were considered important. The first and primary issue is “can leaders be developed?”. This debate, which is closely tied to the debate on whether leaders are “born or made”, is fundamental to the leadership development field. This question therefore heads the discussion of leadership development.

The second aspect relates to the leadership development *principles*. Leadership development principles provide the link between leadership theory and leadership practice. They form the bridge between the two disciplines and are therefore very important. Section 5.3 addresses these current and emerging leadership development principles. The principles build on the conclusion drawn in the previous chapter and argue that if leadership is truly different from management, then the way in which it is developed needs to be different from the traditional methods of management development.

The final aspect relates to leadership development *processes*. The processes are in turn, split into development programmes and developmental systems. Leadership development programmes refer to contrived training experiences. Leadership systems are the human resource systems within organisations that contribute to the development of leaders. These systems often have a more powerful impact on the development of leaders than do the development programmes.

Figure 5.1 summarises this chapter's framework:

Figure 5.1
Framework for Leadership Development Chapter



The following section begins by exploring the various perspectives on the issue of “can leaders be developed?”.

5.2 *Can Leaders Be Developed?*

The question of whether leadership can be developed is intimately connected with the debate over whether leaders are born or made (Kotter, 1988; Posner and Kouzes, 1990). It is interesting to note that despite the contentious nature of the argument, the author found little mention of it in many modern organisational behaviour texts, or in the recent organisational leadership literature. It would appear that the debate in this area has settled. This lack of attention is consistent with Rost's (1991) observation that:

"sociologists and anthropologists have been very interested in the nature-nurture issues concerning leaders and leadership. The notion that leaders are born and not made has been dismissed summarily by management scientists and to some extent by social psychologists" (p 25).

The issue of whether leadership can be developed is clearly important. Kotter (1990a) states that while it is not possible to say with certainty much about the origins of leadership, an assessment of the current state of our knowledge in this area is important because our attempts to develop leaders are based on the assumptions we make about the role of heredity and childhood. Before looking closer at his conclusions, which are representative of the current view, it is valuable to trace the history of this debate.

What becomes apparent, is that notions of whether leadership can be developed follow strongly from the Schools of Thought that prevailed at the time. The connections between leadership definitions and development are such that the way in which leadership is defined not only determines the output of the leadership development, that is what leadership should look like; it also determines, to a large extent, the approaches to development that are taken. Using the Schools of Thought identified in Chapter Three, the following section traces the development of the "Born versus Made" debate.

5.2.1 *Historical Development of "Born versus Made" Debate*

5.2.1.1 *Great Man/Trait Approaches*

To adherents of the Great Man and Trait approaches, it was taken for granted that leadership could not be developed (Gray and Starke, 1984). One was born a great leader, with the necessary leadership traits, or one was not. Consequently, there was little or no focus on development, as leaders simply emerged. Hollander (1985) notes that this view still has wide appeal, even though it has been largely discredited. Hayes (1993) believes that we are still seeing the impact of the great man and trait approach on executive development, stating that:

"[People who hold the view] That leadership is born and not made, ... believe that no amount of later training can provide a substitute for this early developmental experience. It is not surprising therefore that "background and breeding" and "character and references" are still regarded by many as being more important than formal qualifications, and therefore why more than 50% of all British companies do not engage in executive training" (p 6).

Therefore, for the first thirty years of this century, the prevailing view was that leaders were born. This changed dramatically under the behaviourist approach.

5.2.1.2 *Behavioural Approaches*

In the behaviourist school of thought, leadership is seen as a set of skills and behaviours that can be developed. In this framework, leadership skills are just as teachable as all other skills. Further, Posner and Kouzes (1990), argue that like any other skill, leadership is normally distributed in the population. The implication of this is that everyone can

improve their ability to lead, but some people have a higher aptitude for leadership to start with.

The wider “nature versus nurture” debate may also have played a part in this trend towards the belief that leaders are made. Seligman (1993), a prominent psychologist in the area of learned helplessness and human plasticity (human ability to change), notes that at the same time as behavioural approaches to leadership were becoming popular (i.e. late 1940s-1950s), genetic explanations, as a whole, fell out of favour due to the impact of Nazi Germany. The Nazis used the then respectable science of genetics to bolster their theory of Aryan superiority and to justify the genocide of “genetically inferior” people. In the wake of the victory over the Nazis, genetics was tainted and the focus shifted away from genetic explanations of personality. As Seligman (1993) succinctly puts it:

“Once we allow the explanation that Sam does better than Tom because Sam is genetically smarter, we start our slide down the slippery slope to genocide. After World War II, genetic explanations became explanations of last resort, for they had the fetid odour of fascism and racism about them” (p 229).

It would appear, therefore, that trends in the leadership literature mirrored trends in the wider nature versus nurture debate. It is likely that the view that leaders are born, not made was largely, although not entirely, ignored by academics as a result of the discrediting of the trait approach and of genetic explanations generally, and the consequent rise of behavioural approaches to leadership.

5.2.1.3 Situational/Contingency Approaches

Many of the situational/contingency leadership proponents have strong roots in the behaviourist tradition, particularly with regard to their notion of leadership style. Thus, many take a similar perspective to development arguing that leaders can be developed.

However, their perspective is somewhat broader with the inclusion of situational factors that leaders need to be aware of, and manipulate, to achieve the outcomes they desire.

Fiedler (1967), however, takes a stronger position arguing a form of leadership development that focuses on what leaders can do to change the situation, rather than themselves. As Fiedler and Mahar (1979) note, this runs counter to the many leadership development approaches that promote a "one best way" leadership style or teach leaders to change their personality or behaviours to fit the situation.

Much like the great man and trait approaches, Fiedler (1967) believes that a person's character and behaviour are fixed and therefore these dimensions of leadership are "born". However, he believes that leadership can be developed in the sense that leaders can be taught the diagnostic and change skills necessary to adapt the situation to themselves and, therefore, achieve effective performance.

In summary, situational leadership theorists believe that leadership can be developed. The majority of development approaches work to change aspects of both the leader and key aspects of the situation, while Fiedler (1967) takes a more extreme position arguing that leadership development must focus on changing aspects of the situation and work around the "born" constraints that the leader has.

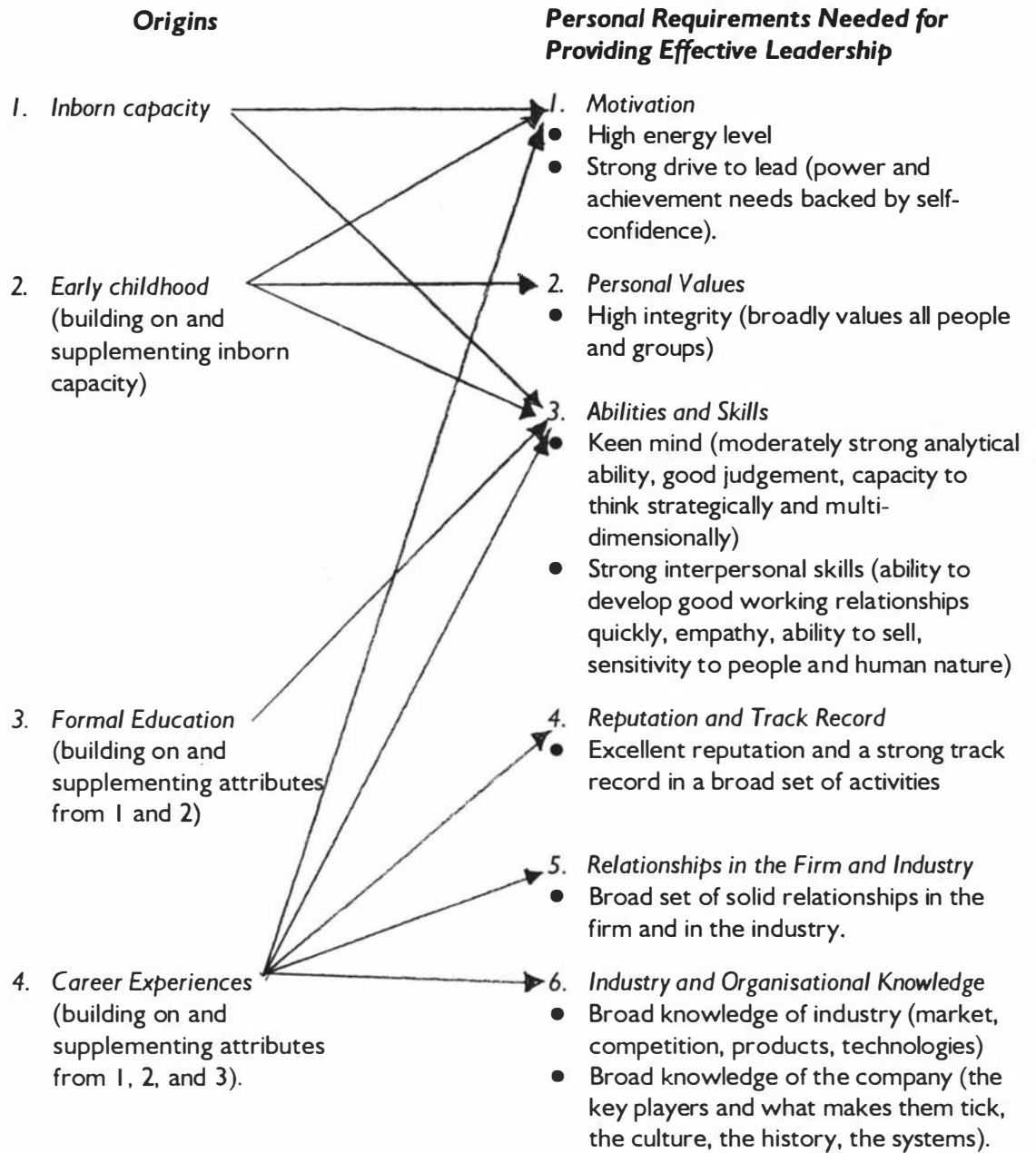
5.2.1.4 Transformational and Charismatic Approaches

Theorists from the transformational/charismatic Schools of Thought hold the whole range of perspectives already mentioned in the born versus made debate. In general though, most of the charismatic theorists see charisma as a leadership trait that is inherent (Kotter, 1988), while Bass, in conjunction with many associates (see Bass and Avolio, 1994; Yammarino and Bass, 1990), have concluded that transformational leaders can be developed.

However, despite the diversity of views, a consensus has been emerging. Kotter (1988) provides one of the most comprehensive analyses of the nature versus nurture debate and his conclusion that the origins of leadership are multiple encompasses much of the previous literature, and expresses succinctly the consensus emerging (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 summarises Kotter's (1988) findings which indicate that a combination of inborn capacity, early childhood, formal education and career experiences contribute to the development of leaders. Of the characteristics identified, Kotter (1988) estimates that one-third have roots in heredity or early life experiences. Seligman (1993), speaking of human characteristics and development generally, puts the heredity figure at one half. At worst, this leaves 50% of factors that can be influenced by development. Kotter's conclusion, and the emerging consensus, indicate that leadership is *both born and made*.

Table 5.1
Origins of Leadership



Adapted from Kotter (1988)

Kotter (1988) states that confusion over the leadership development issue is also shaped by misunderstanding about the nature of leadership. When people think of leadership they often think of Gandhi, Churchill or Martin Luther King. In doing so, they put leadership on a level that is relevant to a handful of people at best. Thinking this way, people avoid

developing their leadership, because, after all, they are not like those other leaders and surely not born a leader. Kotter (1988) argues that progress could be made in developing leadership talent if people distinguished between leadership with a small "l" and the larger than life capital "L" leadership.

In summary, the prevailing view tends to be that leadership can be improved/developed, but it cannot be created. There is a natural capacity already present which can be polished and honed. Simon's (1977) statement is representative:

"A good executive is born when someone with some natural endowment ... by dint of practice, learning, and experience, develops that endowment into a mature skill" (p 44).

Further, while all may not become leaders in the capital "L" sense, all can improve their leadership and make a greater contribution.

In conclusion, it has been shown that throughout history, different viewpoints on the nature versus nurture debate have dominated, depending on the prevailing leadership School of Thought. Starting with "leaders are born" early this century, the pendulum has swung backwards and forwards, resting at present at a mid-point where it is believed that leadership can be developed and enhanced but not necessarily created.

Given that aspects of leadership can be developed, the focus now shifts to how best to develop leaders. The "how" section will be broken down into two major parts - the *principles* and *processes* of development. Section 5.3 addresses the principles of leadership development, and section 5.4 deals with the development processes.

5.3 *Leadership Development Principles*

Given the scarcity of literature describing best practice for leadership development, this section will examine current and emerging development principles that are likely to guide future leadership development practice. By principle, this section means "an underlying or guiding theory or belief" (Collins Dictionary of the English Language, 1990). Principles provide a natural link between the definitions and theory of leadership and the practice of leadership development. It is here that the leadership literature can, and should, have its greatest impact as it is the principles of leadership development that provide the rationale and context for the development processes.

From the analysis in Chapter Four, it can be seen that a fundamental flaw in the leadership literature has been the confusion between leadership and management. This confusion has flowed over into organisational leadership development efforts. If leadership is fundamentally different from management (Kotter, 1990; Rost, 1991), then it follows naturally that the *way in which we develop leaders* should also be fundamentally different. That is, the principles and processes used to develop leaders should be different than those used for managers.

In attempting to isolate those development principles that apply specifically to leadership development, not management or executive development generally, it is acknowledged that the selection made is imperfect. The imperfection can be attributed to two main factors. The first is that emergence of these principles is in its infancy. While there is a growing appreciation that leadership development requires different development principles, the principles still show some similarity to the management development principles from which they are emerging.

The second reason is that the differences between the two sets of principles are often subtle and qualitative in nature. Koestenbaum (1991) states that:

"what differentiates leadership from other management-development approaches is *depth*" (p 18 - emphasis in original).

This notion of depth relates to a stronger philosophical approach to leadership and is indicative of the subtle difference between leadership and management development. Taking a different, but related perspective, Wheatley (1992) urges that leadership development ceases "teaching facts - the 'things' of knowledge - and focuses, instead, on relationships" (p 34). While relationships are intangible, as are other key leadership elements such as vision, values and culture, they have a significant effect even though it is difficult to define why they are such potent forces (Wheatley, 1992). The distinction Wheatley (1992) draws between "things" and "relationships" is akin to the distinction between explicit and tacit knowledge (Gorey and Dobat, 1996).

Explicit knowledge consists of the information that "can be expressed, communicated verbally, or codified through organisational artifacts such as knowledge repositories, policy manuals, user guides, visioning documents" (Gorey and Dobat, 1996, p 2). Stucky, in an interview with Galagan (1993), notes that while we are very good at thinking systematically about how to acquire explicit knowledge, we are not so good at helping people gain tacit knowledge. Tacit knowledge includes all those things that people "know" but cannot express or codify (Gorey and Dobat, 1996) - see Table 5.2.

Table 5.2
Organisational Examples of Explicit and Tacit Learning

	Individual	Group
Explicit	job skills design rules procedures rules of thumb	drills best practices stories work processes
Tacit	intuition know-how/expertise common sense good judgement	work practice core competencies texture

(Galagan, 1993, p 36)

It is argued that leadership development is comprised of a high degree of tacit learning. This makes the distinction between leadership and management development more difficult to express and codify.

Despite these imperfections, five principles have been identified as forming the core of the current and emerging leadership development principles. Koestenbaum's (1991) work has been adopted to provide the framework for this review for three reasons. Firstly, he recognises the need for a qualitatively different approach from management development. He speaks of a "breakthrough" required with new conceptualisations of leadership and leadership development. Secondly, he focuses on leadership development specifically and not executive or management development generally; and lastly his principles are consistent with many of the leadership development principles found in other leadership literature.

The four principles highlighted by Koestenbaum (1991) are:

1. Leadership is about being, not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one's values, motives, and assumptions.
2. Becoming a leader is about personal transformation i.e. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts.
3. Effective leadership development combines action with reflection (results oriented pragmatism with philosophic depth).
4. Leadership cannot be taught, but it can be learned.

While not explored further in the following sections, it is interesting to note the polarities or dilemmas that exist within these principles (being-doing; action-reflection; taught-learned). The ability to handle polarity and ambiguity is increasingly seen as a key leadership skill (Zaleznik, 1977; Tichy and Devanna, 1986; Hunt, 1991; Kaplan, Drath and

Kofodimos, 1991; Johnson, 1992; Starratt, 1993a; Collins and Porras, 1994). Koestenbaum (1991) puts it succinctly when he states that leaders have the ability to deal with "conflicting thoughts and opposing emotions, incompatible attitudes and polarised belief systems" (p 36). It should not be surprising then, that leadership development principles are categorised by such polarities and dilemmas.

In addition to the above principles, the author included one other: "that leadership cannot be developed in a week, nor a month". One of the important implications of the aforementioned development principles is that the amount of time required to develop leaders needs to be reconsidered. The following sections examine each principle.

5.3.1 Leadership is about being, not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one's values, motives, and assumptions.

Perhaps more than any other principle, this is both the most widely associated with leadership development, and the most widely accepted leadership development principle. Koestenbaum (1992) writes:

"Leadership is ... not primarily a set of skills and behaviours; it is a way of thinking and *being*, more than techniques and methods" (p 24 - emphasis added).

Frances Hesselbein, CEO of the Peter Drucker Foundation concurs: "Leadership is not a basket of tricks or skills. It is the quality and character and courage of the person who is the leader" (Sherman, 1995, p 72). This principle has been popularised largely by the work of Covey (1990) and Senge (1990). Covey (1993) puts it succinctly:

"we need a principle-centred, character based, "inside-out" approach. Inside-out means to start first with self - to start with the most inside part of self - with your paradigms, your character, and your motives" (p 2).

The "being" nature of leadership, and therefore the necessity of inside-out development, has grown out of the recognition that technique or skills alone do not guarantee leadership success (Kaplan, Drath and Kofodimos, 1991; Koestenbaum, 1991; Olson, 1996). In fact, techniques can have the opposite effect. Researching executive effectiveness, Likert (1961) found that when executives behaved in ways that did not match their personality, others viewed their behaviour with suspicion and distrust; two characteristics that are antithetical to effective leadership. Therefore, development that focuses on teaching a prescribed set of practices, or developing a particular style of leadership regardless of the individual executive's personality are sure to be ineffective and may halt the real development of the leader (Livingston, 1971).

This perspective is in contrast with management development. Management development seeks to identify a common set of identifiable skills, behaviours and abilities which can be taught. These skills are often thought to be transferable across organisations and industries (Griffin, 1990).

Inside-out development is particularly necessary for leadership due the nature of leadership itself. Taking Rost's (1991) notion that leadership is primarily a relationship, then issues of trustworthiness and character become increasingly important. Kaplan, Drath and Kofodimos (1991) make this point very strongly:

"the lesson we have learned is that leadership and leadership development are thoroughly *personal*. An executive's basic character powerfully affects the way he or she runs an organisation ... To comprehend leadership fully, we must not confine ourselves to observable behaviour ... we must delve beneath the surface and look at the profound effects of basic character on leadership" (p xiv).

Leavy and Wilson (1994) note that the "wellsprings" of visionary and inspirational leadership are also deeply rooted in basic values.

In many ways, this inside-out principle is the response to the question, “Can character and values be developed?” The answer being, “Yes, they can be developed through an inside out approach that focuses on values, motives and assumptions”. Kaplan, Drath and Kofodimos (1991) note that, while difficult, such “character shifts” are possible for executives.

In short, outside-in leadership development is insufficient. The essential nature of leadership is less about skills or abilities, and more about character and values (being). In fact, purely behavioural and skills-based approaches that ignore personality aspects can lead to the inauthentic application of such behaviours which inhibit the effectiveness of leaders and their development. The relationship and character based nature of leadership further requires an inside-out approach to development.

5.3.2 Becoming a leader is about personal transformation i.e. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts.

Koestenbaum (1991) describes the shift to leadership as a “conversion, a transformation, a breakthrough” (p 60). From the previous development principle, it can be inferred that this transformation must not occur at the level of skills but rather in the nature of the person (Koestenbaum, 1991). This encompasses the whole person, the way in which they think, feel and act.

Speaking of organisational transformation, Levy and Merry (1986) distinguish between two types of change: morphogenesis and morphostasis. These terms, borrowed from biology, can be very helpful for understanding transformative leadership development. Morphogenesis is defined as development that:

“penetrates so deeply into the genetic code that all future generations acquire and reflect those changes. In morphogenesis the *change has*

occurred in the very essence, in the core, and nothing special needs to be done to keep the change changed" (p 5 - emphasis added).

The second type of change, morphostasis, encompasses two types of change. First there are those that enable things to *look different while remaining basically as they have always been*. The second kind of morphostatic change occurs as a *natural expression of the development sequence*, or the natural maturation process.

From these definitions, it can be seen that transformational leadership development works at the fundamental level and results in changes to the core or essence of the leader. It is more than a superficial change, and is different from the natural development or maturing of a person. Support for this point of view is also provided by some key learning theorists. Honey and Mumford suggest that the way that we learn will have a significant impact upon what we learn and will, therefore, have an impact on the degree to which we are "*transformed by our learning*" (cited in Robinson, 1992, p 47). Robinson (1992) states:

"unless our learning results in a change in us significant enough to cause us to make a substantial shift in our thinking, approach or action, then it is not really learning at all" (pp 47-48).

As we have seen in Section 3.3.4, transformational leadership is an important part of modern-day conceptualisations of leadership. It is therefore surprising that transformation does not appear more frequently as an integral part of leadership development. In the leadership literature reviewed by the author, few specifically cite the need for personal transformation (Koestenbaum, 1991; Tichy and Devanna, 1986b; Avolio and Gibbons, 1988). It would seem, from the literature, that leaders are meant to transform organisations and followers, not themselves.

This separation of personal and organisational development is somewhat contradictory. Mitroff (1983) calls the strict division between the inside of the individual and the outside world the most fundamental division in the social sciences and argues that it is misplaced

and is becoming increasingly blurred. Therefore, if leaders are to continually transform and lead their organisations, then they must transform their own understanding and perceptions. As Gandhi said, "We must be the change we wish to see in the world". Thus, the development of leaders should facilitate a personal transformative process that brings about fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts.

5.3.3 Effective leadership development combines action with reflection (results oriented pragmatism with philosophic depth).

Building on Plato's work, Koestenbaum (1991) speaks of the need to develop "philosopher-kings"; that is, people of action with the ability to think deeply about the issues at hand. In leadership development terms, this identifies the importance of combining reflection with action. The emphasis of this principle lies with bringing the two components together. Some will argue, as Adair (1988) does, that action must precede reflection, but the crucial point is that both must occur. Kets de Vries and Miller (1987) state it well when they say:

"What has become obvious to us is that leaders in the future, apart from having basic technical competence and a propensity for action, need to pay far more attention to their own interior processes ... Leadership of the future will need to combine action with reflection and passion with reason" (p 199).

At present, it is taken for granted that leadership is about action, "leaders get things done". However, the reflection aspect is often neglected. Bennis (1989a) attributes the leadership crises we face today, in part, to the overemphasis on "delivering the goods" and an underappreciation of regular time out to think about what we are doing (reflection). Hallstein (1992) highlights that this "addiction to action" is widespread with executives. Kets de Vries and Miller (1987) go further to state that problems in unsuccessful organisations stem from the inability to strike the seemingly contradictory balance between action and reflection.

As reflection is the most neglected aspect of the combination, it will form the focus of the remainder of this section. One of the benefits of reflection in leadership development is that it can help leaders take more effective future action (Sherman, 1994). However, increasing the propensity for effective action is not the only reason reflection is gaining prominence in the leadership development literature. A recent Fortune magazine article (Sherman, 1994) highlighted that many large American organisations are helping leaders acquire the ability to reflect for a variety of reasons. The eight major reasons give insight into the benefits and results that reflection can bring to leaders and their organisations. The eight results/benefits described were:

1. *Objectivity*: Reflection encourages objectivity in the situation and also about oneself. Koestenbaum (1991) refers to this as “non-attachment”, being detached from emotional identification with the matter at hand. Senge (1990) talks of “turning the mirror inward; learning to unearth our internal pictures of the world, to bring them to the surface and hold them rigorously to scrutiny” (p 9).
2. *Learning*: Reflection enables more effective learning and continues the learning process.
3. *Self-confidence*: Reflection can increase self-confidence, which is defined as the willingness and ability to face uncertainty and emotional discomfort. Reflection can enable leaders to be confident enough to go where the pain is.
4. *Heightened sense of personal responsibility*: Rather than ruminating and blaming, reflection can foster a greater sense of responsibility.
5. *Tolerance for ambiguity and paradox*: A defining attribute of the new economy is said to be paradox. Koestenbaum (1991) also speaks of the importance of leaders developing their capacity for paradox.

6. *Balance in life:* Reflection can help keep priorities in focus and avoid the excessive imbalance of work at the expense of self and family.
7. *Increase creativity and intuition:* Reflection can strengthen the intuitive and innovative dimensions of leadership.
8. *Egolessness:* Reflection fosters the ability to transcend selfish concerns and focus on others.

(Sherman, 1994).

While management and executive development generally has concentrated on task-oriented learning (action) and has neglected personal learning (self-reflection), leadership development requires the bringing together of these two disciplines (Kaplan, Drath, and Kofodimos, 1991). In particular, this requires a greater emphasis on developing and using reflection.

5.3.4 Leadership Cannot Be Taught, But It Can Be Learned

Within educational literature, the difference between teaching and learning has been widely debated. The distinction may appear semantic, but behind the words lies an important difference in mind-set, philosophy and practice. These differences, important to human development in general, are particularly pertinent to leadership development.

Teaching often refers to the imparting of knowledge and is associated with the classroom or lecture style presentation of facts, concepts or theory. In contrast, learning is focused on developing skills, behaviours and character (as opposed to knowledge), and is associated with a wider variety of delivery and instructional mediums (Clayton, 1965; Leicester, 1989; ASTD, 1995).

Sherman's (1995) article evaluating leadership development concludes that the emerging consensus is that leadership cannot be taught, but can be learned. Peter Senge states that:

"Teaching suggests that you have certain concepts you want people to understand, and that's pretty useless in a domain like leadership. Leadership has to do with how people are. You don't teach people a different way of being, you create conditions so they can discover where their natural leadership comes from." (Sherman, 1995, p 68).

Adair (1988) takes a similar position noting that leadership cannot be taught, but that it is possible to help people find it within themselves. Koestenbaum (1991) speaks of leadership being "facilitated or challenged into existence" (p 65). The inter-relationship between this and the earlier development principles can be seen. Because leadership is character and relationship based, requiring an inside-out transformation, encompassing both action and reflection, leadership development requires an approach different from traditional teaching. As such, this principle is the logical extension of the previous principles, applied to the pedagogy of development.

The principle, as expressed, casts the issue as an "either/or" situation. It is possible that leadership is *both* taught *and* learned. The "both/and" position is taken by some educational theorists, including Statt (1994), who states that even where the distinction between teaching and learning can be made, it can never be regarded as watertight. Speaking of leadership development specifically, Roeche, Baker, and Rose (1989) state that many of the skills of leadership have been defined and can therefore be "taught and learned".

While the words may not adequately express the principle, the underlying message conveyed is that "more of the same" will not produce the necessary leadership. The "chalk and talk" methods of old are insufficient for leadership development and alternative methodologies need to be explored. From this point of view, "learning" seems to capture the meaning of these new approaches more sufficiently than "teaching" does.

5.3.5 *Leadership Cannot Be Developed in A Week, Nor A Month*

Leadership development programmes today are typically of a one day to one week duration. Adair (1988), in his criteria for effective leadership development includes:

"Short - about two or three days is right for most leadership courses at all levels. Beyond that the programme is in danger of becoming repetitive or academic" (p 36).

While some leadership development practitioners acknowledge that developing leaders takes longer than a few days, this has not led to many changes in their development programmes. A possible explanation for this is the reasoning put forward by the President of the Center for Creative Leadership who states that:

"Leadership development doesn't happen in one or two days, of course. Neither does it really happen in five days. But some important things do happen in that week ... In truth, leadership development takes many years. It is closely woven into how someone develops his or her total life" (Lee, 1995).

In essence, there is a belief that a little is better than nothing. There are also organisational realities and constraints. Many organisations are unwilling, or unable, to invest in the long term development of leaders. It is a time and money intensive process, with the return on investment being difficult to quantify. For some, a five-day leadership programme is a safe alternative to cultivating leadership within their organisation. This way an organisation can show an interest in leadership without taking a deeper responsibility for its successful realisation (Conger, 1992). Others, having completed the short programme may legitimately believe they have done the "leadership thing" and move on to other more urgent matters at hand.

One of the clear implications of all the previous principles is that more than a week is required to develop leadership. Conger (1992) in his review of leadership development programmes concludes that three or five day programmes cannot have a significant impact on developing lasting skills. It might make sense, he argues, to spend that time developing *one* leadership skill, but not the "wine-tasting" (a taste of every skill) approach that currently dominates (see section 5.4.2 for a full description of his results). As early as 1981, Sinetar was stating that:

"it is insufficient to send a manager to a one-day seminar on leadership. This type of activity, so prevalent in today's organisational development programmes, illustrates a superficial understanding of [leadership development]" (p 195 - parenthesis added).

For the deeper changes required by the previously mentioned principles, the time factor must certainly be reconsidered. Programmes which are individualised to the specific needs and unique perceptions of the leaders in development, and that fundamentally transform their beliefs and assumptions, are not instant (Sinetar, 1981). Conger (1992) sums it up well when he states:

"Leadership development is a complicated and time-consuming process. It requires a very serious commitment in terms of time and resources. There are no quick or magic solutions; rather it is a never-ending process that demands continual experimentation and dogged persistence" (Conger, 1992, p 214).

Avolio and Gibbons (1988) argue that it is worthwhile to develop guidelines for determining the length of time necessary for a leader to have influence on followers' development, as the time interval required for lower-order change will be shorter than the time required for higher order change. This argument could also be applied to the development of leaders themselves, and indicates that the depth of change required by leadership requires a longer time interval.

In short, to develop the calibre of leadership necessary, and applying the principles outlined earlier, it is unlikely that a one day or one week programme will precipitate, let alone bring to completion, this sort of development. A much longer term development process is needed to provide the quality and depth of leadership required.

5.3.6 *Summary*

The impact of these five developmental principles is yet to be felt in many organisations. The emergence of these principles, however, is an important precursor to the emergence of new forms of leadership development processes. The author argues that these principles form the core of a new paradigm or philosophy of leadership development. While still in the infancy stage, and working with distinctions that are more tacit than explicit, these principles differentiate leadership development from management and executive development generally.

Together these principles highlight the need for development that starts on the inside with one's values, motives, and assumptions; and that the development requires a transformation in the way one thinks, feels, and acts. To bring about these changes requires significantly more than a day or a week to develop; requires a focus on learning and new learning methodologies as opposed to traditional teaching methods; and requires the integration of both action and reflection.

As additional programmes emerge incorporating these development principles, the development of leadership within organisations should become more effective. It is to the current leadership development processes that this review will now focus. The next section will look at current leadership development processes from two perspectives. Firstly looking at development programmes offered to organisations, often provided by outside development organisations and secondly looking at the organisation's internal leadership processes.

5.4 Organisational Leadership Development Processes

This section examines the literature with respect to the processes of leadership development. It was highlighted earlier that, despite the voluminous work conducted on leadership, very little work reviews leadership development efforts within organisations. This is not an indication of, nor the result of, little leadership development occurring. Mann and Staudenmier (1991) surveyed directors of executive development in 77 companies in the United States and Canada, asking them to rate a list of 31 development topics in terms of how much emphasis each received in their organisations in the past, and how much emphasis they expect them to receive in the next three to five years. Table 5.3 shows the five topics that received the greatest percentage of “high emphasis” ratings. It can be seen that leadership development has received, and is expected to continue to receive, high emphasis with organisations.

Table 5.3
“High Emphasis” Executive Development Topics

Past	Executive Education and Development Topic	Future
38%	Leadership	89%
22%	Managing human performance (motivation, performance standards, coaching, and appraising)	73%
27%	Becoming customer- or market-focused.	72%
23%	Implementation of business strategies	70%
15%	Managing organisational change	64%

(Adapted from Mann and Staudenmier, 1991, p 38)

More recent research from the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD, 1995) revealed that leadership was the most frequently delivered training topic in 1995, and was predicted to keep that position in 1996. It is suggested that confusion regarding the nature of leadership has inhibited research and theoreticians’ attention in this area. It is also likely that organisations and leadership development consultants are unwilling and/or unable to publish their successes or failures in this area.

In exploring organisational leadership development processes, two perspectives are taken. The first addresses what will be referred to as “course based” approaches. This section reviews both the future trends expected in course based programmes as well as providing an overview and taxonomy of current leadership development programmes provided for organisations. The second perspective addresses the leadership systems within organisations that impact on the development of leaders.

5.4.1 Course Based Leadership Development Trends

Two pieces of research, one conducted before, and one conducted after this research, identified future trends in leadership and executive development. Before providing an overview of the current status with regards to leadership development programmes, it is useful to describe the predictions, and compare these with the leadership development principles identified earlier.

Mann and Staudenmier (1991) surveyed directors of executive development in 77 companies in the United States and Canada to establish the future trends in executive development. Fulmer and Vicere (1996), researched the competitive forces affecting executive development. Table 5.4 compares the conclusions of these two pieces of research.

Table 5.4
Future Leadership Development Trends

Mann and Staudenmier (1991)	Fulmer and Vicere (1996)
Merging of learning and work, including move towards customised, results-oriented programmes	More action learning projects with measurable results
Balancing individual and organisational needs	More customised, strategic programmes.
Global focused	Shorter, more focused, large-scale cascaded programmes.
Maximise learning opportunities, both formal and informal	

Mann and Staudenmier's (1991) first trend, and Fulmer and Vicere's (1996) first and second trend are very closely related. The *merging of learning and work* expresses a trend towards experiential and action learning becoming a priority, with executives learning on-the-job, through mentoring relationships, and on courses that focus on solving specific problems facing their business. Encompassed within this trend is the predicted move away from theoretical, pre-packaged programmes towards customised, results-oriented programmes. The two parts of this trend relate very strongly to Fulmer and Vicere's (1996) trends of *more action-learning projects with measurable results* and *more customised, strategic programmes*. All respondents indicated that the majority of their new initiatives relied less on classroom time led by an instructor, and more on facilitated, small-group, action learning applications. The focus of these applications is on delivering observable results within the workplace as organisations are demanding programmes that support their specific strategic objectives, reflect their vision and values, and involve a critical mass of key players. As a result, 75% of all executive education dollars go towards customised programmes rather than to "public" or open-enrolment courses (Fulmer and Vicere, 1996).

These trends reinforce and build upon the principle that effective leadership development combines action with reflection. “Action-learning” uses strategically important, real-life situations that participants are experiencing to develop leadership. Learning and reflection are used to complement the action taken and further develop the necessary qualities. The shift towards facilitated small group interventions as opposed to workshop presentations, and the increased inclusion of on-the-job and mentoring activities, reinforces the principle that leadership cannot be taught, but can be learned.

The second trend identified by Mann and Staudenmier (1991) is a move towards *balancing needs*. This refers to the need to balance common development needs with individual development needs. This was predicted to display itself through the increase in specific development plans developed for individual executives on development programmes. Although this trend recognises the need for a personal approach to leadership development, it stops short of the development principle which highlighted that becoming a leader is about personal transformation. It is also difficult to assess whether the trend reflects the principle that leadership is about being, not just doing or whether it refers only to the development of personalised action plans (doing) or the personalised development of skills.

The need to develop a *global focus* was also highlighted by Mann and Staudenmier (1991). Future development was predicted to focus increasingly on equipping executives with the skills needed to operate in a global marketplace. This trend does not relate to any of the previously mentioned development principles, but rather highlights the necessity for leadership development to equip leaders for the new reality that the globalization of markets is ushering.

The final trend identified by Mann and Staudenmier (1991) was the move to help executives maximise formal and informal *learning opportunities*. This included designing programmes that increase executives’ responsibility for learning and enable them to consciously enhance and reflect on their learning opportunities. This strongly reinforces

the reflection aspect of the action-reflection development principle, and is indicative of the growing acceptance that effective leadership development combines action with reflection.

Fulmer and Vicere's (1996) third identified trend of a move towards *shorter, more focused, large-scale, cascaded programmes* runs counter to the earlier principle that leadership cannot be developed in a day, nor a week. Fulmer and Vicere (1996) found that development programmes are being designed to minimise executives' time away from work; reducing what is often the most significant cost of training. The move towards large scale, cascaded development is prompted by the need to have a company-wide impact when shifting strategic direction or when changing the organisation's culture. This is consistent with Roeche, Baker and Rose's (1989) conclusion that: "It must be remembered that it is the combination of leaders at all levels in the organisation that provides for successful outcomes. It is necessary that the professional development of these leaders be coordinated for maximum effectiveness" (p 289). The move to shorter programmes, in particular, highlights a potential clash between the principles of leadership development and predicted future leadership development practice. Business realities may make it difficult for organisations to invest the necessary time and resources to develop the quality of leadership required.

It can be seen that the predicted trends in leadership development reflect, to some extent, the principles of development highlighted earlier. In particular, the more pragmatic principles of combining action with reflection and utilising more learning, rather than teaching, applications are increasingly being incorporated. It appears that the clash between an organisation's time constraints and the necessity to develop leaders over a longer period will continue, and it will be interesting to watch the impact of this on the development of leaders. What is unclear, is the extent to which the principles of "leadership is about being, not just doing", and that "becoming a leader is about personal transformation" are being incorporated into future training. The predicted move towards more personalised training is a positive step forward, but insufficient if the personalisation relates only to skills, and not to the values, motives, and assumptions of individuals.

Having identified predictions for the future of leadership development, attention will now be focused on assessing the current reality with respect to course-based leadership development.

5.4.2 The Reality of Course Based Leadership Development

A notable exception to the silence regarding the reality of leadership development programmes is the research conducted by Conger (1992). For his research, Conger (1992) went "undercover", enrolling in many American leadership development programmes to evaluate the effectiveness of training to develop leaders. In the process of his research, Conger (1992) not only assessed the effectiveness of the various programmes, he also developed a taxonomy of leadership development programmes that provides a useful framework for categorising the numerous development programmes that currently exist externally and in-house. Having described his framework and assessment of each of the development categories, a brief review will be provided of the assessment made on leadership development programmes in New Zealand based on unpublished research conducted by Gray (1993).

Conger (1992) found that there were essentially four categories of leadership training: conceptual understanding, skill building, feedback, and personal growth. The following sections describe each of these approaches, highlighting their major benefits and drawbacks. Conger's (1992) recommendations for the future of leadership development are also summarised.

5.4.2.1 Leadership Development through Conceptual Understanding

Traditionally the domain of universities, many commercial leadership development programmes are now also strongly conceptual. The main assumption underlying these approaches is that leadership is complex and poorly understood. Consequently, leadership

development should focus on developing a cognitive understanding and awareness of key leadership concepts. In particular, distinguishing leadership from management is seen to be important. It is believed that this awareness generates interest in becoming a leader and begins the journey of learning about leadership (Conger, 1992).

Theory oriented by nature, the pedagogical tools often used are lectures and discussions based on theoretical models and case studies. While limited, Conger (1992) concluded that a single, powerfully presented model of leadership could have an impact on behaviour. The impact of these programmes was enhanced when:

1. The leadership model was relatively simple to understand, with clear, memorable descriptions of each element. Simplicity aided post programme retention.
2. Each element was reinforced with films, case studies, or exercises to demonstrate the associated behaviours. This was particularly true when "everyday", not "larger than life", examples were used.
3. Outdoor-adventure experiences and skill building exercises were incorporated to ground and provide practice in the behaviours associated with each element of the model.

In conclusion, Conger (1992) stated that he had underestimated the importance of ideas and concepts in training, yet found conceptual approaches in themselves, were insufficient. While important in framing the notion of leadership in participants' minds, especially when distinctions were made between leadership and management, individuals often required an emotional experience to shift the idea from an intellectual level to a deeper understanding, and ultimately, into practice.

5.4.2.2 Leadership Development through Skill Building

These approaches assume that leadership can be broken down into concrete, teachable processes. They identify what they consider to be the key leadership skills, formulate these into skill modules which are modelled, practised and critiqued. Conger (1992) notes that while skill building is the most commonly employed methodology in management training, there are few effective examples dealing with the newer conceptualisations of leadership. He attributes this to the fact that these newer understandings of leadership involve many complex cognitive and psychological skills which are difficult, and perhaps impossible, to teach.

However, he found that there are certain skills of leadership that are teachable, particularly at the supervisory or mid-management level. The main benefit of these skill building approaches is that participants have clear methods for measuring progress and assessing their capability. A major determinant of success was the degree to which the skills were reinforced back on the job. Unfortunately, follow-up after the programmes revealed that senior managers often do not, or cannot, reinforce the skills learnt. This, combined with the fact that it takes considerable time to develop skills, led Conger (1992) to conclude that awareness development may be a more realistic expectation than in-depth skill development within organisations.

5.4.2.3 Leadership Development through Feedback

While most programmes use some form of feedback, in these approaches feedback constitutes a large portion of the session time and is the predominant focus and vehicle for development. The underlying premise in these approaches is that feedback provides a pivotal role in identifying leadership strengths and weaknesses. Based on new insights into how their behaviour affects themselves and others, participants can develop the weaker skills while building on their strengths.

Conger (1992) found that two situations characterised those who benefitted most from feedback. The first situation is where the feedback received powerfully contradicted an individual's self-image on dimensions that were important to them. This "shock" led them to examine their behaviour more deeply and make concerted efforts to develop more effective behaviour. The second situation was where participants received very favourable feedback, which surprised them. This surprising positive feedback led to greater self-confidence and translated into more initiative and risk-taking on the job. He also found that, for best effect, the feedback needed to have the following five characteristics: it should be used in the context of a long-term coaching relationship; come from a credible and trusted source thereby increasing the acceptance of results; focus on behaviours that participants believe are important for their effectiveness; be coupled with exercises that display or develop the behaviours being evaluated; and focus on key areas, not take a "broad-brush" approach.

On the whole, Conger's (1992) research indicated that feedback had less impact than expected, with most participants claiming that they sincerely wanted to change key ineffective behaviours, but their enthusiasm dissipated soon after the programme due to the following four factors:

1. *Information overload*: the quantity of feedback was too much to process.
2. *The focus of the feedback being misplaced or unclear*: feedback often focused on management rather than leadership skills, and/or priorities for development were difficult to extract.
3. *Insufficient opportunities to practice new behaviours*: participants found that knowing change is required was very different from knowing *how* to change.
4. *A lack of support and coaching back on the job*.

In conclusion, Conger (1992) discovered that feedback approaches, by themselves, were particularly unsuccessful.

5.4.2.4 Leadership Training through Personal Growth

These programmes are based on the assumption that leaders are deeply in touch with their personal dreams and talents and act to fulfill them, therefore leadership development should help executives get in touch with their inner-most desires and abilities.

Conger (1992) focuses heavily on the personal growth approaches in his book as he concludes that, of all the approaches, they offer the greatest opportunities for leadership improvement. Since many of the experiences on the personal growth programmes occur at an emotional level, they appear to have a more lasting impact than the conceptual, skill, and feedback approaches. It is on the emotional level that Conger (1992) believes that participants' greatest learning can take place and lead to behaviour change.

For this reason, a greater focus will be placed on the discussion of these approaches. Conger (1992) identified three similar premises underlying all personal growth approaches. Each premise will be described and critiqued on the basis of Conger's (1992) evaluation.

The first premise is that *leaders are individuals who are deeply in touch with their gifts and passions. Therefore, developing as a leader is about reconnecting with the inner-most values, passions and talents. This allows leaders to develop inspiring visions and to motivate others.* Conger (1992) states that on the basis of what is known about leadership, this premise appears to be true as leadership is, in part, a passion for what we do. He argues that since people cannot be taught to be passionate, the key is for each person to find out what deeply interests them. Of all the training approaches, personal growth comes the closest to addressing this issue.

However, in practice, Conger (1992) found that few got "in touch" with their passions. The reason for this he suggests, is that not everyone has a passion. However, insufficient time or inadequate guidance may also be contributing factors. He also found that getting in touch with one's values may not necessarily translate into becoming an effective leader in the organisation for two reasons. Firstly, this awareness could move people into areas that are not leadership, which he admits may not be a bad outcome for the organisation. Secondly, the process of getting in touch with oneself often led to significant improvements in participants' personal lives, but not so much in their work lives.

The second underlying premise is that *only a "whole" person can be an effective leader. By whole, it is meant someone whose personal and work life are in balance and whose emotions are clear and accessible.* Of all the premises, this is the one that Conger (1992) finds the least defensible. He cites the fact that many effective leaders do not have balanced lives, but instead are consumed by work. Limited time, combined with the leader's passion for work and the sheer workload required, often necessitates a strong focus on work with sacrifices on the personal and family side. Further, he notes that many of these leaders have a difficult time expressing personal feelings with little apparent consequence on their leadership ability.

While Conger's (1992) insights reveal some truths about the current state of leaders, the author believes that this is a position that is becoming increasingly unsustainable. Kofodimos (1990) notes that historically the workplace has been the domain of mastery and home the domain of intimacy. Many executives have been able to avoid intimacy by putting more time and energy into the workplace and drawing the rewards and recognition they require from there. However, in many of the new conceptualisations of leadership, where leadership is primarily described as a relationship (Lord and Maher, 1989; Hollander and Offerman, 1990; Rost, 1991; Lee, 1991; Chaleff, 1995), this split between mastery and intimacy is becoming less valid, with the effect that intimacy is becoming increasingly valued and necessary for leadership and must be added to the mastery that exists. Koestenbaum (1991) makes this point when he states that "leadership is the art of integrating results and heart" (p 25). Hence, handling one's own feelings and being

sensitive to the feelings of others, and having balance and wholeness may become increasingly important for future leaders.

Thirdly, Conger (1992) highlights that *leaders take responsibility for their own lives and development*. In the language of Covey (1990), they are not victims or reactors, but proactors. Conger (1992) found that executives on these programmes report becoming more open to taking personal risks, and that this provided a sense of energy that the other approaches did not. However, many found this behaviour difficult to implement at work because of the conservatism of their organisations. Instead, participants' newfound sense of risk taking more often expressed itself in their private lives.

Given these premises and critique, what value do personal growth approaches offer to leadership development? According to Conger (1992), they provide a great deal. He believes that more extensive use of personal growth approaches is needed. He states:

"I believe that the personal growth programmes make an important contribution to leadership training. In conclusion, the power of the personal growth approaches is that they directly challenge us to examine our most deeply felt emotions and most entrenched values. And if leadership is in part the emotional manifestation of one's passionate interests and aspirations, then this is where a significant portion of training must take place" (Conger, 1992, p 168).

5.4.2.5 Summary of Conger's Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Leadership Development

Assessing the impact of the various developmental approaches, Conger (1992) asserts that realistically, a well-designed leadership programme could expect to produce the following changes:

1. No behavioural change and little enhanced awareness for 10-20% of participants.
2. An expanded conceptual understanding of leadership for 30-40%.
3. Some positive, though incremental, behavioural change (in addition to a conceptual understanding) for 25-30%.
4. Significant positive behavioural change for 10%.

He believes leadership development programmes are worth the effort on this basis, but also believes these percentages can be improved by incorporating elements of all four approaches - experiences in personal growth, conceptual understanding, skill building and feedback. The ideal programme would begin with a conceptual overview, then provide feedback on where participants stand relative to the skills associated with the model. This would be followed by skill building for skills that are teachable, and awareness building for the skills that are more complex (and therefore less amenable to being taught). Personal growth experiences would be used along the way as powerful opportunities for reflection on two levels: to help executives determine their desire to lead, and to free participants from ineffective behaviours. Senge (1985) comes to a similar conclusion regarding the necessity of multiplicity of approaches when he argues that:

"One of the most persistent findings of cognitive psychology is that much apparent learning results in no significant change in behaviour. The failure of education to produce enduring change is especially troubling when the primary objective of leadership development is better leadership. It is becoming apparent that the failure of much traditional learning relates to its limited access to the multiple dimensions of learning. Educational environments that fail to engage people physically and emotionally as well as intellectually are generally less impactful than those that do. Learning that does not relate to an individual's personal objectives and personally recognised needs has less probability of being retained than learning that is perceived as relevant." (Senge, 1985, p 3)

However, the most notable conclusion that Conger (1992) draws is that the personal growth approaches offer the greatest levers to developing leadership ability. This is because they address the inner side of an individual, which is where leadership may ultimately spring from or where it is blocked. Conger (1992) therefore recommends that more time and research be spent on understanding personal growth approaches. The conclusion that personal growth approaches have the greatest potential for developing leaders is consistent with research conducted by Leavy and Wilson (1994). They state that:

"... the wellsprings of true visionary and inspirational leadership are very deeply rooted in basic values which are developed over a long period in the leader's life ... such attributes cannot easily be taught ... In so far as it can be consciously developed, however, the capacity for truly visionary and inspirational leadership will, it seems to us, be best enhanced by the kind of liberal education that helps leaders to explore their own deeply held values and beliefs and to connect with the sweep of human history and with their own cultures and contexts" (Leavy and Wilson, 1994, p 186).

This conclusion regarding the personal growth approaches provides strong reinforcement to the development principles that "leadership is about being, not just doing" and that "becoming a leader is about personal transformation". Conger's (1992) assessment of current leadership development programmes highlights that these two principles in particular, can and should increase the effectiveness of current leadership development efforts.

Having explored Conger's (1992) taxonomy and critique of leadership development programmes, the following section provides a brief overview of the state of leadership development programmes within New Zealand as assessed by Gray (1993).

5.4.2.6 Leadership Development Programmes in New Zealand

At the same time as this research was being conducted, Gray (1993) conducted an analysis of some of the key leadership development programmes provided by consultants and training organisations within New Zealand. Using Kotter's (1990a) distinction between leadership and management, Gray (1993) analysed the course descriptions of these programmes to assess the extent to which they addressed the key leadership dimensions identified by Kotter (1990a).

Promotional literature from fifty-five organisations in Auckland, Wellington, and Christchurch were requested. Twenty five replies were received, of which fourteen were excluded from the sample as they were communication courses. While not explored by Gray (1993), it is interesting to note that fourteen organisations responded to a request for information on leadership development programmes with material on communication courses. The remaining sample of eleven companies is small, and therefore conclusions drawn must be interpreted with caution. However, the sample did include the majority of the larger training and consulting organisations, and included a number of the more recognised leadership developers at the time, for example: Fortune Group, SMI, Dale Carnegie, Development Dimensions International.

Gray's (1993) major conclusion was that the leadership development programmes represented in the sample were essentially management development programmes. That is, taking Kotter's (1990a) framework, the programme content reflected management issues, that is, planning and budgeting, organising and staffing, and controlling and problem solving, more than they reflected leadership issues, namely establishing direction, aligning people to that direction, and motivating and inspiring others to overcome barriers. Given the confusion between leadership and management, this should not be surprising. In short, Gray (1993) concludes that "formal training, as represented by the majority of the sample ... focus on techniques and do not address the differences between leaders and managers" (p 22).

In discussing the implications of his research, Gray (1993) makes the observation that:

“leadership development is the responsibility of the organisation ... Only when organisations take responsibility for developing their own leaders will they benefit from the talent around them” (p 23).

This conclusion points to the second dimension of leadership development processes, namely the organisation’s in-house systems. Having identified the predicted future trends in course-based leadership development, and having assessed the current reality of such programmes via Conger’s (1992) and Gray’s (1993) research, attention will now be focused on leadership development systems within organisations.

5.4.3 Leadership Systems Within Organisations

Course-based leadership development programmes make up only a small percentage of the factors responsible for the quality and quantity of leadership within organisations. Steve Kerr, Director of General Electric's leadership school, advises organisations to invest heavily in formal employee training and education but warns people not to rely on these courses to magically produce leaders. He explains:

"I wish I could tell you that courses are the key, but they are not. When we ask our people to write down the outstanding development experience of their lives, only about 10% cite formal training. The majority of peak learning experiences occur on the job - and through serendipity, not planning" (Sherman, 1995, p 69).

Calloway, CEO of Pepsi, an organisation that is currently putting a lot of effort into developing leaders, states that of all the elements involved in developing leadership, 80% is experience (Sherman, 1995). The experiences of these organisational executives are consistent with the research findings of Ruderman, Ohlett, and McCauley (1990) who state

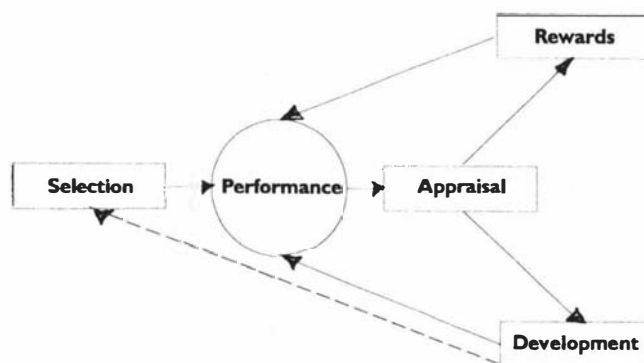
that executives learn the most important leadership lessons from experiences on the job, not from formal programmes. Earlier research into professional development by Saline (1977) suggests that formal programmes should constitute about 5% of professional development, with 80% being work assignments, coaching and supervision 10%, career planning 8%, and “other” 2%.

If formal leadership development programmes only make up a small percentage of the effort required to provide the necessary leadership in organisations, the question becomes, “What are the other components?” Sherman (1995) provides a possible answer when he states:

"Creating the right environment for leadership is a symphonic process, involving such disciplines as selection, appraisal, job assignment and mentoring" (p 66).

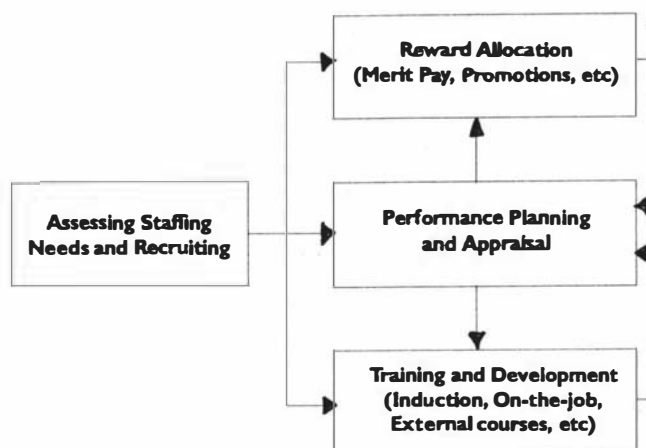
That is, to develop the necessary leadership, organisations should focus and tailor their whole human resource management system on leadership issues. While there are many models of human resource systems (Rudman, 1991; Dessler, 1988), the two models below provide a concise summary of the key elements required.

Figure 5.2
The Human Resource Cycle



(Fombrun, Tichy, and Devanna, 1984 p 41)

Figure 5.3
The Individual Human Resource Cycle



(Boxall and Sisley, 1990, p 125)

From these models it can be seen that organisations must focus their human resource systems on leadership selection/recruiting, appraising leadership performance, rewarding and developing leaders.

It is interesting to note that the leadership literature focuses on selection (Morris, 1987; Stamp and Macdonald, 1987; Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan, 1994; Gilmore, 1988) and leadership development. There is very little on appraising the performance of, or rewarding, leadership. In particular, there is little focus on motivating and sustaining leaders. One of the functions of the rewards system is to motivate and sustain performance (Dessler, 1988). However, in all the literature reviewed, the author found no references to motivating and sustaining leaders. It would appear that leaders motivate and sustain others; they do not require this themselves. However, the frequency of leadership derailment and failure (Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan, 1994) could be indicative of the lack of attention leadership motivation and sustenance receives.

The key points to emerge from this section are that organisational systems provide the most potent levers for the effective development of leadership, yet they are largely under-valued and unnoticed. While the selection and development of leaders receives some research

attention, greater focus on the full range of leadership systems, including appraising leadership performance, rewarding, motivating and sustaining leaders, is required.

While literature on leadership development is scarce, literature on leadership systems within organisations is even rarer. The most comprehensive research conducted on the full range of leadership systems was conducted by Kotter (1988). Kotter's (1988) stated objective was to determine whether organisations:

"have inadequate leadership, because they do not attract and retain sufficient people with leadership potential in the first place, because they do not fully develop much of the potential possessed by the employees they do attract and retain, and because they fail to motivate (or allow) people to lead" (p 63).

Kotter (1988) interviewed nine hundred executives with regards to the above objective. The results can be found in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4
Attracting, Developing, Retaining, and Motivating Leadership Talent:
Results from Kotter's Questionnaire

1.	How good a job is your company doing with respect to recruiting and hiring a sufficient number of people into the firm who have the potential someday of providing leadership in important management positions?		
	% of Respondents Answering Very Good or Excellent	27%	
	% of Respondents Answering Poor or Fair	30%	
2.	How good a job is your firm doing with respect to developing high potential employees?		
	% of Respondents Answering Very Good or Excellent	19%	
	% of Respondents Answering Poor or Fair	42%	
3.	How good a job is your company doing with respect to retaining and motivating high- potential people?		
	% of Respondents Answering Very Good or Excellent	20%	
	% of Respondents Answering Poor or Fair	43%	

(Kotter, 1988, p 66)

Executives in Kotter's (1988) survey were relatively more satisfied with their ability to recruit and hire people with strong leadership potential, as compared to their ability to develop, retain, and motivate such people. The results indicate that few executives think that their organisations are doing a very good job overall of attracting, developing, retaining, and motivating a sufficient number of people to provide the needed leadership. In fact, with respect to developing, retaining and motivating high potential people, twice as many executives answered poor/fair when compared to those answering very good/excellent. This reinforces the importance and need to increase the focus and attention on all the leadership systems that impact on the development of leaders.

5.5 *Leadership Development - A Summary*

In conclusion, three major aspects of leadership development have been addressed. The first is the fundamental issue of whether leaders can be developed. This issue is tied very closely to the “born versus made” debate. It was shown that throughout history different viewpoints on the nature versus nurture debate have dominated, depending on the leadership school of thought that prevailed at the time. Starting with “leaders are born” early this century, the pendulum has swung backwards and forwards, resting at present at a mid-point where it is believed that leadership is both born and made. Kotter (1988) goes further to expand on the “made” aspects of development to include early childhood, formal education, and career experiences. The conclusion that a complex phenomenon such as leadership springs from multiple origins and can be developed or enhanced, but not necessarily created, provides a more satisfactory answer to the question, “can leaders be developed?” than the more simplistic response that leaders must either be born or made.

Having concluded that leadership can be developed or enhanced, attention was focused on the current and emerging leadership development principles. Leadership development principles provide the logical link between the *theory* of leadership and the *practice* of leadership development. Five key developmental principles were identified as being consistent with the earlier conclusion that leaders and managers are different and therefore require different development principles. These principles, it was argued, form the core of a new paradigm of leadership development that is emerging. The principles highlighted the need for development that is inside-out, starting with one’s values, motives, and assumptions; and that facilitates a transformation in the way one thinks, feels, and acts. The development process was deemed to require significantly more than a day or week to complete, required a focus on learning as opposed to traditional teaching methods; and required the integration of both action and reflection.

Moving from the principles to the practice of leadership development, two major perspectives were taken. The first addressed development programmes offered to organisations; the second looked at the organisation's internal leadership systems.

Predicted trends in leadership development programmes were identified. These included more action-learning projects with measurable results; more customised, strategic programmes; greater balance between common development needs and individual development needs; an increased global focus; leveraging formal and informal learning opportunities; and a move towards shorter, more focused, large-scale, cascaded programmes (Mann and Staudenmier, 1991; Fulmer and Vicere, 1996). It can be seen that the predicted trends in leadership development reflect, to some extent, the principles of development highlighted earlier. In particular, the more pragmatic principles of combining action with reflection and utilising more learning, rather than teaching, applications are increasingly being incorporated. It appears that the clash between an organisation's time constraints and the necessity to develop leaders over a longer period will continue, and it will be interesting to watch the impact of this on the development of leaders. What is unclear, is the extent to which the principles of "leadership is about being, not just doing", and "becoming a leader is about personal transformation" are being incorporated into future training. The predicted move towards more personalised training is a positive step forward, but insufficient if the personalisation relates only to skills, and not to the values, motives, and assumptions of individuals.

The current reality with respect to leadership development programmes was explored through Conger's (1992) taxonomy of leadership development programmes, and his assessment of their effectiveness. He identified four categories of leadership training: conceptual understanding, skill building, feedback, and personal growth. As a whole, these programmes were shown to produce no behavioural change and little enhanced awareness for 10-20% of participants; an expanded conceptual understanding of leadership for 30-40% of participants; some positive, though incremental, behavioural change (in addition to a conceptual understanding) for 25-30% of participants; and a significant positive behavioural change for the remaining 10%. Conger (1992) concluded that personal growth approaches offered the greatest levers to developing leadership ability, because they address the inner side of an individual which is where, he believes, leadership ultimately springs from. In terms of the ideal future development programme, Conger (1992) argued that programmes incorporating elements of all four approaches - experiences in personal

growth, conceptual understanding, skill building and feedback - would be the most effective.

Gray's (1993) evaluation of leadership development programmes in New Zealand was also reviewed. Gray (1993) concluded that the leadership development programmes surveyed were essentially management development programmes. That is, these so-called leadership programmes, in reality developed skills and qualities that are identified as being management by Kotter (1990a). It was not possible from the research to assess the degree to which the programmes exhibited the leadership development principles highlighted earlier. However, it was assumed that the fundamental confusion regarding the difference between leadership and management development indicated that it was unlikely that the development principles were incorporated in New Zealand leadership development programmes at this time.

Having assessed both the predicted trends and current reality with respect to leadership development programmes, attention was turned to the organisational systems that influence leadership development. It was shown that the organisational systems provide the most potent levers for effective development of leadership, yet are largely under-valued and unnoticed. While the selection and development of leaders receives some research attention, greater focus on the full range of leadership systems, including appraising leadership performance, rewarding, motivating and sustaining leaders, is required. This conclusion was reinforced by the poor performance of these systems identified by executives in Kotter's (1988) research. His results indicated that it is a rare executive who thinks that their organisation is doing a very good job overall of attracting, developing, retaining, and motivating a sufficient number of people to provide the needed leadership. In fact, with respect to developing, retaining and motivating high potential people, twice as many executives answered poor/fair as compared to those answering very good/excellent.

Overall, it was found that leadership can be developed or enhanced. While the leadership development area has received relatively little attention, some key leadership development

principles were found to exist. These principles work to distinguish between leadership and management and point to a new paradigm in leadership development. Further, while development programmes are not exhibiting many of the principles at present, many of the principles are predicted to be incorporated in future development efforts. Greater reporting of the lessons learnt by organisations and development specialists running development programmes, will aid the process of creating more effective leadership development. Finally, organisations and leadership researchers must focus more broadly than leadership selection and development, and in particular, address the longer term issues of motivating and sustaining leaders.

5.6 The Literature Review - Concluding Remarks

This brings the literature review section of this research to a close. At this stage it is useful to remember that the focus of this research is on understanding executive perceptions of leadership and leadership development. Thus far, the literature review has provided the context for the issues that will be explored in the research questionnaire. The danger with such a literature review is that it creates a sense of structure and order that does not necessarily exist, particularly in the minds of executives.

As the intention of the research is to let executives' understanding of leadership emerge, no attempt was made during the analysis to superimpose any of the frameworks developed in the preceding chapters. However, after presented the research results, comparisons between the literature frameworks and executive perceptions will be made. To this end, the next chapter outlines the research methodology; followed by the description and discussion of the research results, conclusions, and implications for future research.

CHAPTER SIX METHODOLOGY

6.1 *Introduction*

Cooper and Hedges (1994) define methodology as the “items related to the general conduct of a study. They portray research design, details of sampling, and presence and absence of threats to validity” (p 537).

The purpose of this chapter is to address three broad questions regarding this research - “why?”, “what?”, and “how?”. The chapter begins by highlighting “why” this research was conducted, and “what” it sets out to achieve. The methodology for achieving these ends is clarified and reasons for the choices made provided. The questionnaire structure is also explained in context of the research outcomes. Having addressed the “why” and the “what” for both the research and the particular methodology chosen, the “how” is then addressed covering the processes used to implement the chosen methodology and to conduct the analysis.

To answer these three broad questions, this chapter will specifically address the nine key steps of survey design, adapted from the work of McNeil (1985) and Gill and Johnson (1991). Table 6.1 outlines this chapter’s structure.

Table 6.1
Methodology Chapter Outline

Why?	1. Selection of the Research Topic (Section 6.2)
What?	2. Identification of the Population to be Surveyed (Section 6.3)
	3. Preparatory Investigations and Conceptualisation of Research Outcomes (Section 6.4)
	4. Selection of the Research Methodology (Section 6.5)
	5. Drafting the Questionnaire (Section 6.6)
How?	6. Conducting a Pilot Survey and Finalising the Questionnaire (Section 6.7)
	7. Selecting a Sample of the Population and Collecting the Data (Section 6.8)
	8. Processing the Data and Analysing the Results (Section 6.9)

This chapter will review each of these key steps, beginning with the selection of the research topic.

6.2 *Selection of the Research Topic*

Chapter One provided an in-depth rationale for the selection of this research topic, and is summarised here to provide the necessary context. Chapter One highlighted that a research topic is determined by many factors. The two most important being the values and interests of the researcher and the current context both in academic and practitioner circles (McNeil, 1985; Graziano and Raulin, 1993). It was seen that the convergence of personal interest, growing national and international interest by theorists and practitioners (Rost, 1991), and growing concern with the quality and quantity of leadership available (Time, 1993), led to the selection of leadership and leadership development as the research topic. The decision to focus on both leadership and leadership development was made as both were considered important for addressing the growing concern with regards to the quality and quantity of leadership available.

Having made this decision, attention then turned to the “What?” questions. Specifically, four important issues are addressed. The first issue is the identification of the population to be surveyed. This determines on whom the research will broadly focus. The second issue conceptualises the broad research outcomes and the issues to be explored. Thirdly, the selection of the research methodology itself is addressed. This determines the way in which the research is to be conducted. The fourth section reviews the drafting of the questionnaire, describing in more detail the approach taken, and the rationale for each research question. The following section begins with the first issue of identifying the population to be surveyed.

6.3 Identification of the Population to Be Surveyed.

It became apparent early in the research that, due to the extensive amount of literature on leadership and the breadth of the leadership field, a decision had to be made with respect to the focus of this research. Specifically, in which domain would this research focus and from whose perspective?

The decision was made to address organisational leadership, from an executive, particularly a senior executive, perspective. Organisational leadership, as opposed to political or other forms of leadership, was selected as it represents the major focus within the leadership literature (Rost, 1991) and therefore has a strong research and literature foundation. Most of this organisational research is American based; with little work having been conducted in Australasia. This provided a literature gap for this research to address.

The senior executive perspective was selected for four main reasons. The first is that the views of executives and more especially, senior executives, are under-represented in the leadership research (Hunt, 1991). This research aimed to address this imbalance. The second was that executives’ understanding of leadership influence the quality of the leadership they personally provide; and thirdly, as the key decision makers, they also strongly impact on the quality of leadership development provided within organisations via the amount of executive attention and resources allocated to leadership issues. Finally,

executives are often the recipients of leadership development, therefore clarifying their understanding of leadership should enable leadership development practitioners to develop more effective strategies for moving executives from where they are, to where they need to be as leaders.

Because the focus was on leadership and leadership development, it was decided to concentrate on Directors, Chief Executives and Human Resource/Organisational Development executives. It was felt that these positions have the greatest impact on leadership and leadership development issues. The decision was also made to include New Zealand and Australian executives to provide an Australasian, as opposed to simply a national, perspective.

In summary, the population to be surveyed is senior executives, particularly Directors, Chief Executives, and Senior HR/OD executives, in organisations within New Zealand and Australia. The following section highlights the broad research outcomes identified.

6.4 Preparatory Investigations and the Conceptualisation of Research Outcomes

Outcomes, as opposed to hypotheses, were used to provide the structure, purpose and meaning for this research project (Labaw, 1980). McNeil (1985) states that sometimes a researcher will present explicit hypotheses and set out to test them. Often, however, a survey is more exploratory, and therefore the ideas are not firm enough to generate specific hypotheses. In such research, outcomes provide a similar function to hypotheses in that they help guide the nature of the research and determine the methodology to be used. The exploratory nature of this research did not lend itself to the development of hypotheses, therefore research outcomes were created.

Outcomes and hypotheses can come from four main sources - past research, personal experience, request from clients, and focus group interviewing (Labaw, 1980). The last two refer to professional/business based approaches which were not applicable to this research. The primary method for developing this research's outcomes was building on past research.

Preparatory investigations involved the reviewing the current state of knowledge and assessing the various resources available. As a result of these initial investigations, three broad outcomes were determined to be important in the leadership and leadership development area from the point of view of executives in organisations. The outcomes were to establish executive's perceptions on three key dimensions. The first was, "*Is leadership important?*"; the second was to understand "*what is leadership?*"; and thirdly, "*how to develop leadership*". The following subsections outline each of these dimensions in more detail.

6.4.1 Is Leadership Important?

This issue addresses the importance of leadership for organisations. Rost (1991) argues that the importance of leadership is taken for granted by management theorists, yet is contested in other disciplines. Rather than make this assumption, it was decided to elicit executives' thoughts on this point.

6.4.2 What is Leadership?

The issue of "what is leadership" is clearly fundamental to leadership research. This issue has yet to be definitively resolved in leadership literature, with Burns (1978) commenting that "leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth" (p 2). It was therefore deemed important to assess the clarity of executives' understanding of what leadership is.

In establishing executives' understandings of the nature of leadership, two important dimensions were identified. The first was the perceived differences, if any, between leaders and managers. Rost (1991) and Kotter (1990a) argue strongly that leadership and management are fundamentally distinct in terms of the nature of the relationships developed, the processes used, and the outcomes sought, and further that the inability to clearly make this distinction has been important in organisations. Rost (1991) particularly

sees the differentiation of leadership and management as a key factor in the development of a post-industrial understanding of leadership. Thus, executives' perceptions of the difference between leaders and managers were seen to be the most significant conceptual and definitional issue of leadership within organisations (for a full discussion of the issue of the difference between leadership and management see Chapter Four).

The second dimension was establishing what executives believed the essence of leadership to be. To establish the definition or understanding that executives hold about leadership, it was thought important to ask executives what they believed the essence of leadership to be. By seeking a perspective on this it was hoped that executives would provide the essential nature of leadership as they see it.

6.4.3 How to Develop Leadership?

The primary assumption within leadership development is that it is possible to develop leaders. While widely accepted as being true within organisational leadership literature, it is more widely debated in other disciplines (Rost, 1991). Traditionally this issue has been an area of considerable debate, often taking the form, "Are leaders born or made?" The assumptions executives make regarding the possibility of developing leaders will impact on their efforts to develop leaders. It was therefore deemed important to explore this issue.

Having established this foundation, two main developmental thrusts were selected for further analysis. The first were leadership development principles. A principle is defined in the Concise Oxford dictionary as a "general law as guide to action" (Sykes, 1984, p. 817). The research would both focus on the principles on which executives felt leadership should be developed; and test executives' agreement with some key current and emerging leadership development principles. Additional prompting, via the testing of these principles, was considered desirable as the underlying development principles were seen to be more difficult for executive respondents to identify.

The second thrust was to establish executives' perceptions of their leadership development processes. This included the actual human resource processes used in organisations, and the broader issues that either facilitated and/or inhibited the development of leaders.

The combination of an understanding of the underlying principles as well as the explicit and implicit development processes was deemed to provide a richer understanding of the issues surrounding leadership development within organisations.

Thus, the three key research outcomes were to assess executives perceptions of 1. whether leadership is important; 2. what leadership is; and 3. how leaders should be developed. The following section looks at the methodology selected to attain these research outcomes.

6.5 *Selection of the Research Methodology*

In selecting the methodology, theoretical and practical considerations had to be taken into account. The theoretical issues relate to the ability of the research method to adequately address the research outcomes (Leedy, 1989). The practical considerations relate to matters such as cost, size of sample, and access to sample. Ghauri, Grønhaug, and Kristianslund (1995) state it well:

“The choice of research design is ... made with the purpose of coming up with an approach that allows for answering the research problem [or outcomes] in the best possible way - within the given constraints” (p 26 - parenthesis added).

6.5.1 *Theoretical Considerations*

Leedy (1989) states that the information being sought and the methodology chosen are "inextricably interdependent". In reviewing research textbooks, he identified four kinds of

data and four kinds of methodologies. While simplified, it provides a context for the choice of methodology used. The four methodologies highlighted are:

1. *Historical Method*: used primarily for data that is documentary in nature or in a literary form.
2. *Descriptive Survey Method*: appropriate for data derived from observational situations, including situations where data is directly observed and/or through the use of questionnaire.
3. *Analytical Survey Method*: appropriate for data that is quantitative in nature and that needs statistical assistance to extract the meaning.
4. *Experimental Method*: appropriate for data derived from either an experimental control group (two separate groups) or from a pretest-posttest design (one group from which data is collected on two separate occasions).

(Leedy, 1989, p 89).

As there are no documented accounts of executives' perceptions of leadership and leadership development within New Zealand and Australia, the historical method could not be used. The internalised nature of perceptions made it difficult to develop an experimental design. The analytical survey method was ruled out on the basis that providing a highly structured, analytical framework at the exploratory phase of this research would be inappropriate (Schuman and Presser, 1979; Labaw, 1980; Foddy, 1993). Thus, given the research perspective and outcomes, the descriptive survey method, in particular through the use of a questionnaire, was seen to be the most appropriate. Relative to other methodologies, descriptive surveys do not require the researcher to guess the most relevant variables during the initial design, but rather allows the research to discover these important variables (Babbie, 1973). For this reason, this approach was considered the most appropriate method of delivering the desired research outcomes.

While the “descriptive survey” best describes the methodological approach taken, three additional categorisations of survey approaches are outlined below to provide a greater sense of the intention of this research questionnaire.

Labaw (1980) states that surveys are generally designed to be either descriptive or predictive. Descriptive surveys look to provide information on what is currently felt, believed, or known. Predictive surveys look to predict future behaviour. This research is descriptive in that it seeks to identify what executives currently think about leadership and leadership development.

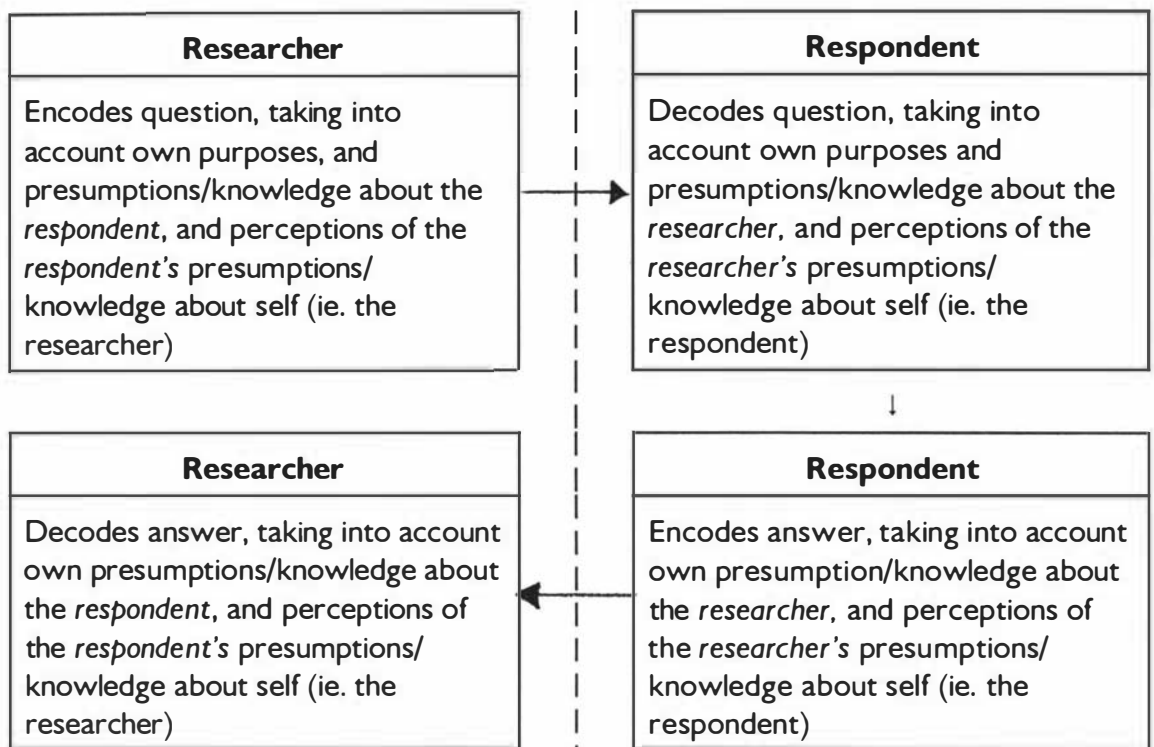
Ackroyd and Hughes (1981) distinguish “descriptive” from “explanation” and “theory-testing” surveys. Under this conceptualisation, this research is a combination of descriptive and theory-testing in that it aims to describe what executives currently think, and also to explore executives’ thinking in the context of some key leadership theories, in particular, Kotter’s (1990a) work on the importance of leadership and the differences between leadership and management; and Koestenbaum’s (1991) leadership development principles.

Babbie (1973) also distinguishes between three types of surveys. The first is “description”, where research is conducted to make descriptive assertions about the distribution of certain traits or abilities. In such research, the focus is on “what”, not “why”. The second research category is “explanation” which goes beyond “what” to ask and answer the “why” questions and explain the reasons for the behaviour. The third basic objective is “exploration”. This type of research is used at the beginning of an inquiry into a particular topic and acts as “search device”. Within Babbie’s (1973) framework, this research is exploratory, as the intention is to make an initial exploration into the perceptions and mindset that executives have about leadership and leadership development. Babbie (1973) states that one of the major advantages of this type of research is that it can raise new possibilities which can be followed up in a more controlled survey.

Before assessing the practical considerations for selecting the research instrument, it is important to acknowledge some limitations inherent within all survey research. Labaw (1980) argues that the complexities of research can be best understood when it is seen as

a two way "conversation" between the respondent and researcher. Foddy (1993) builds on this metaphor and identifies four pertinent issues to the success of this "conversation", highlighting the fact that respondents should not be seen as passive agents, but rather as agents engaged in a joint sense-making activity with the researcher. Figure 6.1 provides the basic model.

Figure 6.1
Conversational Model of Survey Research



(adapted from Foddy, 1993, p 22)

This model identifies that for a "perfect research conversation", each of the following must occur. Firstly, the researcher must be clear about the nature of the information required and encode a request for this information. Secondly, the respondent must decode this request in the way the researcher intends it to be decoded. The respondent must then encode an answer that contains the information the researcher has requested; and finally, the researcher must decode the answer as the respondent intended it to be decoded. Clearly there is a great deal of scope, at each step, for the sequence to break down. The extent to which these breakdowns occurs is the extent to which variability is introduced into the

research. Foddy (1993) notes these problems are exacerbated by the fact that topics are multi-dimensional; that observations can be made in individual or collective terms; that there are many levels of explanations; and that evaluations can be made in terms of different standards of comparison. These complexities “ensure that different respondent’s can make *many different kinds* of interpretations of, and thus give different kinds of answers to, the same question” (Foddy, 1993, p 23). While impossible to quantify the extent to which this occurs, the nature and complexity of survey interaction must be kept in mind when assessing the research results.

It should be noted that these shortcomings do not only apply to questionnaire research. Babbie (1973) states that questionnaires are open to more criticism because their shortcomings are made clearer than in other research methods. Since a questionnaire format requires specificity with regards to the questions being asked, it becomes easy to be critical and document disagreements with questionnaire design. Thus, like a crustacean with all the bones on the outside, survey research shortcomings are clear and open to view (Babbie, 1973). In short, Babbie (1973) states that, “the superficiality and approximations involved in all scientific research are simply more apparent in surveys” (p 48).

In summary, the decision to explore executives’ perceptions of leadership required a methodology that could achieve this. The descriptive survey method (Leedy, 1989) was considered the most appropriate method for collecting the desired information. This research is designed to be descriptive (Labaw, 1980) and exploratory (Babbie, 1973) as opposed to predictive (Labaw, 1980) or explanatory (Ackroyd and Hughes, 1981; Babbie, 1973). It also has some theory-testing components (Ackroyd and Hughes, 1981). The complexity of the survey interaction and hence the variability of response that can occur was also highlighted. The “conversational” dynamics of survey research indicate the potential for different kinds of interpretations at each stage of the encoding and decoding process, and thus the potential for research error.

However, theoretical issues were not the only determinants of the research methodology. The next section highlights the practical dimensions that impacted on the selection of the research methodology.

6.5.2 Practical Considerations

Practical considerations also played a part in selecting descriptive questionnaires as the most appropriate research instrument. Table 6.2 adapts work conducted by Jobber (1991) and highlights the relative merits of each of the three main survey techniques: face-to-face, telephone and mail.

Table 6.2
A Comparison of Face-to-Face, Telephone, and Mail Surveys

<i>Factor</i>	<i>Method</i>		
	<i>Face-to-Face</i>	<i>Telephone</i>	<i>Mail</i>
<i>Resources</i>			
1. Time	Poor	Medium	Good
2. Cost	High	Medium	Low
<i>Sampling</i>			
1. Widely dispersed populations	Poor	Good	Good
2. Access to executive sample	Poor	Medium	Good
3. Response rates	High	Medium	Low
<i>Interviewing</i>			
1. Control of who completes	High	High	Low
2. Interviewer bias	Possible	Possible	Not Possible
<i>Questionnaire</i>			
1. Complex Issues	Good	Medium	Poor
2. Use of open questions	Good	Medium	Poor
3. Flexibility	Good	Medium	Poor
4. Ability to probe	Good	Medium	Poor
5. Use of visual aids	Good	Poor	Good

(Adapted from Jobber, 1991, p 178)

In selecting the appropriate method, it can be seen that trade-offs must always be made. To facilitate a trans-Tasman survey, the mail questionnaire was chosen as it provided the greatest breadth and quantity of responses (sampling), for a relatively low cost in time and resources. Working through other elements listed in Table 6.2 provides a framework for evaluating the other factors that influenced the decision to use a mail questionnaire.

Given the relatively extensive nature of the issues to be addressed, a telephone or personal interview would have required considerable pre-planning and scheduling. It would also have required a significant amount of the executives' time, a factor that would have had a strong impact on the response rate. A mail questionnaire based approach allowed executives to complete the survey instrument in their own time and at a time convenient to them (Berdie, Anderson and Niebuhr, 1986).

Access to executive sample was not part of Jobber's (1991) original framework but was added by the author, as securing access to senior executives was seen to be a key factor in this research. Securing access and maximising the response rate was addressed by using the mailing lists of credible associations such as the Institute of Management and the Institute of Directors. Sensitivity to the privacy of members lists meant that while most associations were willing to provide a set of labels to apply to questionnaire envelopes, they were reluctant to provide telephone lists, or other hard copies of members' details.

Control of who completes the questionnaire was not seen to be critical to the outcomes of this research, and selecting the mail survey overcame any possibility of interviewer bias. Face-to-face and telephone surveys provide a greater ability to clarify meanings, explore unexpected responses, and elicit a greater depth of response. The poor flexibility and ability to probe through mail questionnaire is a significant limitation of this approach. However, this ability to be flexible and probe deeper had to be traded off with the mail questionnaire's ability to provide points of view of senior executives from a widely dispersed population. For the exploratory and descriptive purposes of this research, this trade-off was felt to be acceptable. The lack of flexibility also increases the degree of comparability and generalisability of the responses.

Jobber's (1991) "poor" rating on the mail questionnaire's ability to address complex issues was not seen to apply as strongly to this research, for although the leadership literature is complex, the nature of the "why", "what" and "how" research outcomes were not deemed complex. The use of open questions to elicit executives' perspectives allowed respondents to answer at the level of complexity that they were willing or able to provide. The "good" ability of the mail questionnaires to display visual aids was useful for formatting some of the information and questions necessary to explore the research outcomes.

The "poor" rating on the use of open questions attributed to the mail survey by Jobber (1991) is contested by this research. Jobber (1991) states the potential for using open-ended question is poor since their presence reduces response rates. He claims that the cardinal rule of mail questionnaire design is to make the questionnaire appear simple to complete. Thus, wherever possible, questionnaires must be pre-coded so that the respondent only has to tick a box or ring a number to record an answer; and if open-ended questions are necessary, they must be kept to a minimum, and appear at the end of the questionnaire (Jobber, 1991). This position represents the traditional methodological perspective taken to mail questionnaires and to organisational behaviour research in general. It is a position that is challenged in this research, and the following section explores this issue in more detail.

6.5.3 The Quantitative Methodology Debate

Lawler (1985) notes that as research on organisational behaviour has developed and increased, a relatively well codified set of principles about what constitutes "good" research has emerged. This agreement is exemplified by the increasing use of quantitative methods, and by more rigorous research with better designs, larger samples, and more sophisticated statistical analysis. The danger Lawler (1985) identifies, is that in organisational behaviour, of which leadership is a part, the research is becoming more a product of the methodology than of the phenomenon being studied. It has been assumed that if a research project is methodologically sound, that is quantitatively sound, it will contribute to scientific

knowledge and ultimately to practice. This belief, Lawler (1985) states, is “naive and misleading”.

Dewe (1992) also notes that current research methods have assumed an identity of their own; one that is increasingly divorced from the phenomena purported to be measured. He argues that this has led to the questioning of the structured reality imposed by such quantitative measures (Van Maanen, 1979; Jick, 1979; Payne, Jick, and Burke, 1982). Using quantitative measures, the responsibility for controlling the question-answer process is entirely exercised by the researcher. Not only does the researcher try to formulate questions that have standardised meanings for all respondents, but the researcher tries to prescribe the ways in which the questions can be answered (Foddy, 1993). An underlying assumption within this traditional research is that expertise about the phenomenon being studied rests with the researcher, not with the respondent. Lawler (1985) argues that this is not a sound assumption within organisations, as organisational members are often astute observers of the situation they are in. Further, the fundamental questioning of quantitative approaches is seen to be particularly applicable where the research focuses on the more cognitive aspects, as opposed to the concrete, observable and measurable aspects of reality (Pfeffer, 1990). As this research focuses on executive perceptions, it clearly falls into this cognitive category.

Quantitative methodologies may not always be appropriate to the task because they only offer partial analysis (Morgan and Smircich, 1980), and support a convenient, standard statistical application in contrast to creative and imaginative research design (Bhagat and Beehr, 1985). Once the concrete structured view of reality as imposed by quantitative methodology is relaxed, alternative methodological strategies can be evaluated that seek to let the respondents identify what they mean and prevent them from becoming an instrument of the researcher’s perceptions, values and language “inflicted” on the respondent (Labaw, 1980).

The issues raised with respect to quantitative methodologies are not intended to answer the question, “are quantitative or qualitative methodologies best?” Rather they are intended to question where current methodologies are taking research, and providing a platform to

explore other options. The challenge, therefore, is not in deciding which methodology is best, but rather in overcoming the “disinterested hostility” between qualitative and quantitative methodologies (Dewe, 1992).

Morey and Luthans (1984) summarise the main strategies being used to bridge the quantitative and qualitative approaches. These include: both approaches being used at once; researchers proceeding sequentially from one methodology to another, and developing specific research tools to support the qualitative approach.

This research addresses the challenge by using both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. Rather than arguing that one methodology is better than the other, both are used such that the qualitative is used to capture what Morey and Luthans (1984) describe as the emic perspective, that is the participant’s own view of reality, and the quantitative to provide the framework for exploring such views (Dewe, 1992). The use of open and closed questions throughout this research was the primary method for combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies.

In summary, the questionnaire was chosen because it matched the descriptive and exploratory nature of the research outcomes. To best explore executives’ perceptions, a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches was used. This was achieved by using as many open questions as possible. As the use of open questions is central to the methodology employed in this research, the nature of open and closed questions is assessed more fully in the next section.

6.5.4 An Assessment of Open and Closed Questions

The two sides of the debate between open and closed questions are presented by Foddy (1993), who notes that those theorists favouring open questions argue that these allow respondents to “say what is really on their minds” without being influenced by the researcher. They see closed questions as distorting respondents’ answers by using a closed, and often incomplete and arbitrary set of responses. The theorists that favour closed

questions argue that open questions produce material that is extremely variable, of low reliability and difficult to code.

Foddy (1993) provides a summary table of the most important claims that have been made regarding open and closed questions (see Table 6.3).

Table 6.3
Summary of the Claims Made Regarding Open and Closed Questions

Open Questions	Closed Questions
1. Allow respondents to express themselves in their own words.	1. Ensures all respondents answer the same question so that answers can be meaningfully compared.
2. Do not suggest answers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - indicate respondent's level of information - indicate what is salient in the respondent's mind - indicate strength of respondent's feelings 	2. Produce less variable answers.
3. Avoid format effects	3. Present a recognition, as opposed to a recall, task to respondents making them much easier to answer.
4. Allow complex motivational influences and frames of reference to be identified.	4. Produce answers that are much easier to computerise and analyse.
5. Are a necessary prerequisite for the proper development of sets of response options for closed questions.	
6. Aid in the interpretation of deviant responses to closed questions.	

(Foddy, 1993, p 128).

Exploring the issues raised in this table will explain the rationale for combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies through the combination of open and closed questions.

6.5.4.1 Evaluation of the Assumptions Underlying Closed Questions

Collectively, the assumptions underlying closed questions infer that because all respondents answer the question in the same way, less variable answers are produced, the questions are easier to answer and analyse, and the results can be more meaningfully compared. Closed questions are used within this research questionnaire to achieve these results.

It is undoubtedly the case that closed questions go a long way towards limiting the kinds of answers respondents give because they require respondents to select from sets of response options; they help respondents decide what sort of responses are appropriate; and they provide prompts which help respondents to recall information that they might have otherwise forgotten (Foddy, 1993). However, just because every respondent has been exposed to the same words is no guarantee that they have *understood* the question in the same way. Closed questions can disguise the fact that there may be no communication going on at all, but rather only an exchange of questions and answers. With closed questions, the focus is primarily on how the researcher communicates to the respondent. Little or no attempt is made to assess what the respondent means when communicating to the researcher.

Thus a major disadvantage of closed questions is that the researcher does not know what the answers actually meant to the respondent. Babbie (1973) argues that this is where open questions can be useful. Open questions can make sense of the responses elicited by closed questions. Closed questions, by themselves, would fail to adequately capture the variety and depth of response necessary to meet the research outcomes. Hence, open questions are seen to be central to the integration of quantitative and qualitative methodologies. Attention will now focus on the assumptions underlying open questions.

6.5.4.2 Evaluation of the Assumptions Underlying Open Questions

One of the most persistent criticisms of closed questions is that pre-set response options are likely to cause respondents to give answers they would not give if they had to provide them for themselves (Foddy, 1993). Schuman and Presser (1979) in their analysis of open and closed questions concluded that almost all respondents work within the survey framework provided by the researcher, *whether it fits their own framework or not*. Therefore, closed questions impose a reality that may or may not exist. Foddy (1993) notes that:

“it is all too easy to formulate inappropriate categories for use with closed questions. It is also very easy to fail to properly list a complete set of appropriate response options” (Foddy, 1993, p 143).

Thus, the primary benefit of open questions, and their major contribution to this research, is their ability to allow respondents to express themselves in their own words. Labaw (1980) states that open questions are “indispensable” to a thorough understanding of complex issues as they are the only way the researcher can allow respondents to “have their own say”. When closed questions are used to the exclusion of open questions, Labaw (1980) believes that this communicates that “I don’t want to know what my respondent thinks,” or that “I want to know what my respondent thinks, but I can do a better job of phrasing their statements and thoughts that they can”; both of which suggest poor research behaviour. Open questions are also less likely to provoke easy, glib, or unthoughtful answers from the respondent as readily as do pre-coded answers (Labaw, 1980).

Labaw (1980) states that open questions are useful for clarifying the meaning of respondents’ answers; discerning influences on opinions; and clarifying the nature of the relationship between variables. In particular, open questions are good at allowing the respondent to clarify their answer to the preceding closed question. For example, if they answer a question on the energy crisis with “very serious”, open questions allow the researcher to probe further and assess what they mean by “very serious” and/or assess the basis on which they make this assessment. The ability of open questions to provide well

defined information makes them a crucial element in the assessment of executives' perceptions of leadership and leadership development.

Open questions are also useful for assessing the degree to which the respondent's are involved or concerned with an issue. Such questions can provide valuable insights into the depth of feelings that people hold with respect to a particular issue. This cannot be achieved with closed questions, where intensity and meaningfulness are very difficult to assess (Labaw, 1980). Open questions provide indispensable insights into complex, multi-faceted issues, such as leadership (Labaw, 1980). They are also very good for providing the groundwork for more quantitative research by ensuring that all the major elements and issues are identified.

Open questions also avoid many of the format effects that have been associated with closed questions. For example, closed questions have been seen to suffer format effects such as the tendency to select the first response item seen, the tendency to tick in the middle of rating scales and the tendency for judgements to be affected by end items or anchor points (Foddy, 1993).

Open questions are not without criticism. Foddy (1993) notes that while open questions give respondents the opportunity to speak their own minds, the validity of these responses is still largely dependent on the degree to which the respondent has accurately interpreted the question. There is little guarantee of such accuracy of interpretation. Further, he notes that respondents can forget appropriate answers in the heat of the moment; choose not to put down what is most important to them as they find the issue threatening or embarrassing; or overlook what is important because it seems too obvious to mention. The last issue in particular is likely to have occurred in this research on leadership.

Given the benefits and drawbacks of both open and closed questions, perhaps the strongest conclusion that can be made is that:

“Open and closed versions of the same questions have been found to typically generate quite different response distributions and it is not obvious which format produces the most valid data” (Foddy, 1993, p 151).

As a consequence, there is value in utilising both types of questions.

In summary, Jobber's (1991) contention that the potential for using open-ended questions in questionnaires is poor was seen to represent the traditional and limiting methodological perspective taken to mail questionnaires, and to organisational behaviour research in general. The underlying assumption that contributes to this position is that research is methodologically sound if it is quantitatively sound. This assumption was challenged on the basis that quantitative methodologies may not always be appropriate as they only offer partial analysis (Morgan and Smircich, 1980), and support a convenient, standard statistical application in contrast to creative and imaginative research design (Bhagat and Beehr, 1985). This research moves away from the purely quantitative, or concrete, structured view of reality, and instead uses both quantitative and qualitative methodologies, primarily through the use of open and closed questions. The qualitative is used to capture the participant's own view of reality, and the quantitative is used to provide the framework for exploring these views (Dewe, 1992).

Therefore, rather than asking whether quantitative and qualitative are best, this research works to integrate qualitative and quantitative approaches through the use of open and closed questions. The use of closed questions provides a framework that encourages all respondents to answer the same question in the same way. Closed questions are easier to answer and analyse, provide less variable answers, and consequently provide results that can be more meaningfully compared. Open questions are used to overcome the major disadvantage of closed questions, namely the difficulty in knowing what the answers actually meant to the respondent. This problem is exacerbated by respondents' tendency to work within the survey framework provided by the researcher *whether it fits their own framework or not* (Schuman and Presser, 1979). Therefore, closed questions can impose a reality that may not exist. Overcoming this limitation is the primary benefit of using open

questions. Open questions allow respondents to express themselves in their own words, and can be used to make sense of, or clarify, responses elicited by closed questions.

In short, a purely quantitative approach, using only closed questions, was deemed inadequate to capture the variety and depth of executive responses required to meet the research outcomes. Hence, both closed and open questions were used to integrate quantitative and qualitative methodologies, thereby maximising the benefits of both.

Summarising the main points thus far, it can be seen that the three key research outcomes are to assess executives perceptions of 1. whether leadership is important; 2. what leadership is; and 3. how leaders should be developed. The research methodology was selected to deliver these research outcomes in the best possible way, within the given constraints. The descriptive survey method (Leedy, 1989), in particular through the medium of a mail questionnaire, was considered the most appropriate method for collecting the desired information as it provides the greatest breadth and quantity of responses, for a relatively low time and resource cost. To maximise the ability to assess executives' point of view, this research integrates qualitative and quantitative approaches through the use of open and closed questions. This overcomes many of the issues surrounding "which approach is best?" and works to maximise the benefits of both.

The following section describes the questionnaire format and the rationale for its design.

6.6 Drafting the Questionnaire

Three major research outcomes were highlighted earlier: Is leadership important?; What is leadership?; and How to develop leaders? These outcomes form the basic framework and structure for the research questionnaire. Questions were formulated to address each of these three outcomes. The questions and questionnaire went through several iterations of writing, checking, and rewriting before being finalised. The following sections provide the rationale for each question included in the final questionnaire as well as a verbatim reproduction of the actual questions as incorporated into the final questionnaire.

6.6.1 *The Importance of Leadership*

It was stated earlier that the importance of leadership is taken for granted by management theorists, yet is contested in other disciplines (Rost, 1991). Rather than make this assumption, it was decided to elicit executive's views on the importance of leadership.

It was argued in Chapter Two that two approaches to establishing the importance of leadership were necessary. The first assessing the "felt" need for leadership; the second assessing the "real" need.

The "felt" need for leadership can be readily assessed by directly asking executives. However, identifying the "real" need for leadership is more difficult. No existing research instrument was found for establishing the "real" need for leadership within organisations. Existing instruments focused on diagnosing an individual's leadership development needs, or more specifically the individual's performance on key leadership dimensions.

In developing a measure of the real need for leadership, the researcher adapted Kotter's (1990a) descriptive framework into a diagnostic tool. Kotter's (1990a) research indicated that the greater the amount of change (due to environmental pressure, competitive intensity, and rapid growth), the greater the need for leadership. He also indicated the greater the degree of complexity, the greater the need for management. Figure 6.2 shows the dynamics of his framework.

Figure 6.2
The Relationship of Change and Complexity to the
Amount of Leadership and Management Needed in an Organisation

Amount of change needed in the organisation (due to environmental instability, rapid growth, etc)	High	Considerable leadership but not much management required (start-up businesses)	Considerable leadership and management required (most organisations today)
	Low	Little management or leadership required (most organisations until this century)	Considerable management but little leadership required (many successful organisations in the 1950s and 1960s)
		Low	High

The complexity of the organisation
 (due to size, technology, geographic dispersion,
 the number of products or services, etc.)

(Kotter, 1990a, p 13)

Based on this model, the first two questions in the questionnaire asked executives to rate their perception of the amount of change required in their organisation, and the degree of complexity expected in their operation, over the next 5-15 years. Assuming that Kotter's (1990a) hypothesis is correct, the answers to these questions will, on this basis, indicate the "real" need for leadership (and management) within organisations. Together the two questions can be plotted to provide a schematic indication of the need for leadership and management.

Kotter's (1990a) framework was selected for four reasons. The first is that his fundamental premise is that leadership is important. This premise is consistent with the conclusion established in the literature review. The second is that his analysis encapsulates many of reasons identified in the literature as to why leadership is important (see Section 2.2.2 for a full description of these reasons). Thirdly, Kotter's (1990a) analysis has a strong research base, and fourthly, his analysis could be operationalised simply in a questionnaire format. As the research questionnaire began by evaluating this theme, this was important.

Providing simple, easily understandable and non-threatening questions at the start of the questionnaire increases the likelihood that respondents will continue the questionnaire (Berdie, Anderson, and Niebuhr, 1986).

The questions assessing the “real” need for leadership were supplemented by a question which assessed the “felt” need for leadership. This measure indicated the extent to which executives explicitly, rather than implicitly, believed that leadership was important to their organisations. This was gained by directly asking executives - “how important is leadership to your organisation’s future success? and why?” Figure 6.3 represents these research questions as they appeared in the questionnaire.

Figure 6.3
Need for Leadership Questions

I. THE NEED FOR LEADERSHIP

Please circle the number that best represents your view.

	Very Low		Very High
I.1. For your organisation's success over the next 5-15 years the amount of change needed in your organisation will be	1	2	3
	4	5	6
	7		
I.2. Over the next 5-15 years, the degree of complexity in your operation (due to size, technology, number of products, services, clients etc) will be	1	2	3
	4	5	6
	7		
I.3. The importance of leadership to your organisation's future success is	1	2	3
	4	5	6
	7		

Please explain your answer to Q I.3 in the space below:

In summary, Kotter's (1990a) descriptive model showing the relationship between the degree of change and the need for leadership, and the degree of complexity and the need for management, was adapted to provide an assessment of the "real" need for leadership and management. These questions were combined with an assessment of the "felt" or perceived need for leadership.

6.6.2 *What is Leadership?*

Two questions were developed to address the two key definitional issues outlined in section 6.4.2. The first relates to the difference between leaders and managers, and the second relates to the essence of leadership. Question 2.1 asked executives, “Are leaders different from managers?”. They could indicate either a “yes” or “no” answer. Those answering “yes” were asked to explain what they believed were the critical differences, and were prompted to consider the ways in which leaders and managers think, feel, and act. The prompt was provided to broaden executives’ thinking to include both character and behavioural aspects of leadership. Those answering “no” were asked to explain their reasoning in the space provided.

The second question asked executives to write a short statement which captures the essence of leadership for them. The emphasis was placed on “short” and “essence” so as to prompt executives to clarify the most important factor(s) of leadership for them. The combination of open response and focusing on the essence was used to provoke thoughtful, considered responses as opposed to easy, glib or unthoughtful answers (Labaw, 1980).

Fig 6.4 shows the questions as they appeared in the questionnaire.

Figure 6.4
 “What is Leadership?” Questions

2. LEADERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Please **tick** the appropriate box, and **comment** where prompted.

2.1 Are leaders **different** from managers?

Yes → What do you believe are the **critical differences?** (You may wish to consider the way they **think, feel, and act**). Please write in the space below.

No → Please **explain** in the space below.

2.2 Please write a **short statement** which for you captures the **essence of leadership**.

6.6.3 *How to Develop Leadership?*

Section 6.4.3 identified the three major leadership development areas that the research questionnaire would address. The first was the fundamental issue of whether leaders can be developed. The second was the principles of leadership development; and the third, executives’ perceptions of their organisations’ leadership development processes.

To address the first issue, respondents were asked “Can leaders be developed?” A “yes” or “no” response was provided. Those that answered “Yes” were prompted to move to question 2.4 which asked, “On what principles do you believe leadership development should be based?” This question aimed to elicit executives’ own principles for the development of leaders. This question came before the testing of the key current and emerging leadership development principles as identified by Koestenbaum (1991).

Those that answered “no” were prompted to explain their answer in the space provided and then go directly to question 2.5. Question 2.5 began the assessment of executives’ agreement with the leadership development principles provided by Koestenbaum (1991). Those that answered “no” were asked to skip question 2.4 which asked for their personal leadership development principles as it was assumed to be incongruent with their belief that leadership could not be developed.

Respondents were then asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with Koestenbaum’s (1991) leadership development principles. The instructions read:

“Please indicate the **extent** to which you **agree** with the following statements by **circling** the appropriate **number**. Please add any **comments** you would like to make about these statements.”

The term “statements”, rather than “principles” was used so as to avoid respondents going back and changing their answers to question 2.4. It also aimed to avoid non-response from those who answered “no, leaders cannot be developed”.

Six questions (2.5-2.10) explored the five current and emerging leadership development principles highlighted by Koestenbaum (1991). The action and reflection principle was assessed via two question so as to more distinctly plot the polarity that existed between the two. Respondents could rate their response on a seven point Likert scale where “1” indicated strongly disagree and “7” strongly agree. After each principle, space for comments was provided. A consolidating question was used at the end of this section to

capture any further thoughts that respondents had about leadership and/or leadership development. The questions asked are reproduced below.

2.3 Can leaders be **developed**?

Yes →

Please **move** to question **2.4**.

No →

Please **explain below**; then **go directly** to question **2.5** on page 3.

2.4 On what **principles** do you believe leadership development should be based?

Please indicate the **extent** to which you **agree** with the following statements by **circling** the appropriate **number**. Please add any **comments** you would like to make about these statements.

2.5 Leaders **cannot** be developed on a week long course. **Strongly Disagree** **Strongly Agree**
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Comments:

- | | Strongly
Disagree | | | | | | | Strongly
Agree |
|--|------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| 2.6 Leadership cannot be taught in the traditional sense, it must be learned through personal experience, experimentation and feedback. | | | | | | | | |

Comments:

- | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 2.7 Leaders must be able to take sustained, decisive action . | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|

Comments:

- | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 2.8 Leaders must be reflective i.e. think carefully and deeply about what they do, how they do it, and why they do it. | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|

Comments:

- | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 2.9 Becoming a leader is about personal transformation i.e. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts. | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|

Comments:

- | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 2.10 Leadership is about being, not just doing , therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one's values, motives, and assumptions. | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|

Comments:

- 2.11 Please add any further **comments** you have about **leadership** and/or **leadership development**.
-
-

In summary, these questions assessed executives' perceptions of: 1. whether leaders can be developed; 2. executives' own principles of leadership development; and 3. executives' agreement with Koestenbaum's (1991) development principles, identified in Chapter Five as forming the core of a new paradigm of leadership development.

6.6.3.1 Leadership Development Processes

The focus of this section is to explore the extent to which executives are satisfied with their leadership development processes. This perspective puts leadership development in its wider context by including the other HR systems that impact on the quality and quantity of leadership. As was noted in Chapter Five, formal leadership development programmes only make up a small percentage of the effort required to improve the quality of leadership.

The intention was not to elicit the details of the practices employed, but rather to gauge executives' perceptions of their organisations' ability in each of the key areas. This research could form the basis for further research into the actual practices employed in each of these areas.

This section differs from the previous sections in that an attempt was made to clarify the nature of leadership. Kotter's (1990a) distinction between leadership and management was included in the introduction to this section and respondent's were asked to put aside their own views and, for the purposes of this section, assume Kotter's (1990a) definition of leadership. By providing a greater consistency in the definition of leadership, the intent was to provide a stronger basis on which to compare assessments made of the leadership processes used within organisations.

The systems included in the questionnaire were similar to those employed in Kotter's (1988) research into leadership practices. Kotter (1988) surveyed executives on their ability to "recruit and hire", "develop", and "retain and motivate" high potential employees. This research explored the five key leadership systems of attracting, recognising, developing, retaining, and sustaining leaders. These five processes were selected by integrating Kotter's

(1988); Fombrun, Tichy, and Devanna's (1984); and Boxall and Sisley's (1990) frameworks and by broadening the concept of "motivating" leaders to "sustaining". The intention of the selection was to encompass the systems involved from the leaders' initial entry into an organisation (attract) through to their long-term sustenance (retain and sustain).

Executives rated their organisations' ability for each of these processes on a five point scale which was comprised of "poor", "fair", "good", "very good", and "excellent". Following these questions was a more general question which asked executives to rate the "amount of time and effort spent ensuring your organisation has the necessary leadership". A five point rating scale was used where "1" was labelled "inadequate" and "5" "more than adequate". This question aimed to provide additional insight into the attention that leadership received in organisations.

The questions used can be found in Fig 6.5

Figure 6.5
Leadership Development Processes Questions

4. LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROCESSES

Please **circle** the letter that best represents your answer, where
 P = Poor; F = Fair; G = Good; VG = Very Good; Ex = Excellent.
 Please add any **comments**.

**Using Professor Kotter's description of leadership (on page 4),
 PLEASE RATE YOUR ORGANISATION'S ABILITY TO:**

4.1 **Attract** (i.e. recruit and select) leaders: P / F / G / VG / Ex
 Comments: _____

4.2 **Recognise** leadership potential: P / F / G / VG / Ex
 Comments: _____

4.3 **Develop** leaders: P / F / G / VG / Ex
 Comments: _____

4.4 **Retain** leaders: P / F / G / VG / Ex
 Comments: _____

4.5 **Sustain** leaders: P / F / G / VG / Ex
 Comments: _____

Please **circle** the appropriate number, and **comment** where prompted.

	Inadequate				More than Adequate
4.6 The amount of time and effort spent ensuring your organisation has the necessary leadership is:	1	2	3	4	5
Please Comment:	_____				

The final four questions in the questionnaire moved beyond the leadership systems to explore the perceptions of the wider leadership processes within organisations. In particular, these questions aimed to elicit executives' thoughts on what organisations were doing that facilitated the development of leaders, what was hindering organisations from developing leaders, and the significant challenges their organisation faced in developing leaders. The closing question provided executives with the opportunity to add any additional thoughts that they may have had. The questions, as expressed in the questionnaire are found in Fig 6.6.

Figure 6.6
Wider Leadership Processes Questions

4.7	How can organisations facilitate the development of leaders?
<hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	
4.8	How do organisations hinder the development of leaders?
<hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	
4.9.	What do you believe are your organisation's most significant challenges for developing leaders ?
<hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	
4.10	Please add any further comments or ideas you would like to make about leadership development practices, processes, and challenges :
<hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	

In summary, the section on leadership processes explored executives' perceptions of their organisations' ability to attract, select, develop, retain, and sustain leaders. It also explored the amount of time and effort organisations were spending on ensure the necessary leadership; the ways in which organisations facilitated and hindered the development of leaders; and the challenges that their organisations faced in developing leaders. These questions put leadership development in the context of the broader human resource systems and the wider organisational systems.

Having addressed the rationale for the questions asked in each of the three major areas of: 1. Is leadership important?; 2. What is leadership?; and 3. How to develop leaders?, attention will now turn to the methods employed to ensure an appropriate response rate. The quality of the questions becomes irrelevant if respondents do not complete and return the questionnaire. The following section highlights the methods employed to ensure an appropriate response rate.

6.6.4 Methods Used to Ensure an Appropriate Response Rate

A combination of many factors were used to prompt executives to respond to this questionnaire. The single most important method used was the covering letter. Berdie, Anderson and Niebuhr (1986) state that covering letters are essential in mail questionnaires to introduce and legitimise interviewers. The covering letter identified the purpose of the study, "to get to the heart of executive perceptions of leadership and leadership development in New Zealand and Australian organisations"; worked to encourage participation by stating, "the size of the sample is crucial to the accuracy of my research; and your participation is therefore important ... Please take this opportunity to contribute to Australasia's knowledge of organisational leadership and leadership development"; and mentioned the endorsement of the Association or Institute of which the executive was a member, promising to make the research results available to the respondents both through their association journals or personally if requested. The time commitment required was addressed and assurances of the anonymity and confidentiality of response were also made. Further, the cost of returning the questionnaire was minimised through the use of a reply-

paid envelope (Cragg, 1991; Leedy, 1989). All of these methods to increase the response rate were addressed in a one page letter that was incorporated into the front of the questionnaire booklet itself (see Fig 6.7 for a copy of the letter).

Figure 6.7
Covering Letter

September 1993

Dear

EXECUTIVE PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP

"Where have all the leaders gone?", asks *Time* magazine (July, 1993). My name is Peter Blyde, I am a Ph.D Student at Massey University, New Zealand. *Time* was concerned with political leadership, my research is concerned with leadership in organisations - yet the concern remains the same. Specifically, my research aims to get to the heart of **executive perceptions of leadership** and **leadership development** in Australian and New Zealand organisations.

The size of the sample is crucial to the accuracy of my research; your help is therefore critical. Your Council supports the aims of this survey and has kindly sent this questionnaire to you on my behalf. Please take this opportunity to contribute to Australasia's knowledge of organisational leadership and leadership development.

I appreciate that you are very busy, but having field-tested this questionnaire, I can assure you it will not require much of your time.

Your answers will be completely **anonymous** and **confidential**. I have no record of your details or any means of identifying your questionnaire. The information you provide will be reported only in summary form; no data will be presented in a manner that could identify an individual or organisation. The findings of my research will be reported in your Council's publication. More detailed information can be provided on request.

Please return the questionnaire in the reply paid envelope provided by **(date 2-3 weeks from receiving questionnaire)**. I look forward to receiving your reply as soon as possible.

Thank you in advance for your help.

Regards

Peter Blyde
Ph.D Student
Department of Human Resource Management
MASSEY UNIVERSITY

P.S. If you have any questions or would like to talk about the survey, please feel free to contact me on 64-6-356-9099 Ext 8102 (phone) or 64-6-350-5608 (fax).

Other methods to increase the response rate included the title page which included the logo of Massey University and the sponsoring organisation. It was felt that university research would receive a more favourable response than commercial research, as would research endorsed by an association of which the recipient was a member (Berdie, Anderson and Niebuhr, 1986). Buff/yellow paper with black print was selected for the questionnaire to increase legibility (Paterson and Tinker, 1940), increase the appeal of a questionnaire (Berdie, Anderson and Niebuhr, 1986), distinguish the questionnaire from other correspondence and papers on an executive's desk, and consequently increase the response rate. The questionnaire began with easy, non-threatening questions; asked for personal details last; used an A3 booklet format to minimise the impression of size (Babbie, 1973); and used a layout that maximised "white space" and avoided the impression of clutter (Babbie, 1973). The layout also aimed to make completion easy (Labaw, 1980). This included attending to factors such as placing Kotter's (1990a) diagram of the page facing the questions requiring its use, using headings to indicate new sections and transitions, and emphasising instructions for completing in shadow boxes (Berdie, Anderson and Niebuhr, 1986). All of these methods were designed to maximise the response rate.

One method for increasing the response rate not employed was a follow-up letter or letters (Babbie, 1973; Berdie, Anderson and Niebuhr, 1986; Leedy, 1989). Reminder letters were not used as the associations providing the mail labels were reluctant to have the researcher do so. Many of the associations wanted to avoid being seen to be harassing their members to complete the questionnaire by sending follow-up letters.

In summary, the covering letter was the major method for increasing the response, although a variety of factors were employed to maximise the response rate of this research. This concludes the "What" section of the methodology. Attention will now be turned to the "How", beginning with the description of the pilot survey, and finalising of the questionnaire.

6.7 *Conducting a Pilot Survey and Finalising the Questionnaire*

Early drafts of the questionnaire were screened by an external expert panel including a leadership development consultant, three human resource and organisational development managers from the insurance, banking and postal industries and the Chief Executives of the New Zealand Institute of Management and Institute of Directors (NZ). The panel was asked to comment on design, interest, importance, applicability and coverage. As a result of the screening, some minor changes to questionnaire wording were suggested and incorporated.

After the suggested changes had been made, the questionnaire was field tested by eight members of the senior management team of a provincial newspaper organisation. The full team was included to provide a cross section of organisational roles and perspectives. In addition to completing the questionnaire, respondents completed a one page feedback form. The feedback form asked participants to rate the questionnaire in terms of its efficiency and effectiveness. From an efficiency point of view, participants were asked to rate the clarity of instructions, the ease of understanding and completing the questionnaire, whether sufficient space was provided to answer the questions, and the time taken to complete. In terms of effectiveness, participants were asked to indicate any important areas they believed were omitted; to rate their level of interest in completing the questionnaire; and to rate how seriously it made them think about the issues. Space was also provided to make other comments. The feedback and questionnaire completion were anonymous to promote honesty of responses.

All respondents rated the questionnaire highly in terms of efficiency. Instructions were seen to be clear and sufficient space was provided to complete each question. The time taken to complete ranged from 15-35 minutes with an average time to complete of 25 minutes.

With respect to the effectiveness of the questionnaire, 100% of the respondents said that the questionnaire made them think seriously about the issues. The average response to the question, "How interesting was the questionnaire?" was 5.125. Answers were rated on a

seven point Likert scale where “1” was labelled “not at all interesting” and “7” was labelled “extremely interesting”. Seventy-five percent of respondents rated the interest of the questionnaire higher than 4. There was one comment with regards to an important issue neglected, with this respondent feeling that the “people handling” skills of leadership were neglected. No amendments were made based on this comment as the intention of the questionnaire was to elicit responses from the respondent and not be directive in providing categories. It was felt that question 2.2 which asked executives to “write a short statement which for you captures the essence of leadership” provided an opportunity to capture this aspect.

The test highlighted potential difficulties with respect to the biographical details collected, therefore more predetermined categories were included to minimise the variety of responses received.

In short, some minor changes to increase the clarity and brevity of some of the instructions and questions, and changes to the biographical responses were incorporated as a result of the questionnaire screening and testing.

6.8 Selecting a Sample of the Population and Collecting the Data

Due to the difficulty in accessing senior executives, it was decided that the strategy for selecting the sample would be to use the mailing lists of Associations and Institutes of which senior executives and human resource executives would be members. Therefore, Associations were selected that would provide a mixed sample comprising male and female senior or human resource executives; from New Zealand and Australian profit and not for profit organisations across different industries. In addition to the ease of access, this strategy had the potential to increase the response rate via the Association’s or Institute’s endorsement of this research.

The disadvantage of this strategy was that control over who completed the questionnaire was low. There is also a strong possibility that executives belonged to more than one

association and may have received more than one questionnaire. It is not known how often this occurred or whether this increased or decreased these people's willingness to complete the questionnaire. There is the potential for bias in that the characteristics of the people who join these organisations may be different from those of the population of executives. No attempt to assess this bias has been made, however it is likely that the use of more than one association will have offset this effect.

A total of nineteen institutions were contacted via phone and fax requesting support for this research. Face to face meetings with two of the larger New Zealand organisations, the New Zealand Institute of Management and the Institute of Directors, were conducted as their support in particular was regarded as important to the success of this research.

As a result of these efforts, the generous support of the following nine institutions was secured:

- New Zealand Institute of Management
- New Zealand Association for Training and Development
- Institute for Personnel Management (NZ)
- Special Education Services
- New Zealand Institute of Directors
- Australian Institute of Management
- Business Professional Women
- Australian Management Institute for Non-Profit Organisations (AMINO)
- Business Council of Australia

The institutions either provided a copy of their member labels, or included the questionnaire within material being sent to members. A total of three thousand, five hundred and thirty four questionnaires were distributed. The next section highlights the resulting response rates.

6.8.1 Response Rates

Table 6.4 summarises the response rates for each of the associations:

Table 6.4
Association Response Rates

Institution	Sent	Returned	Response Rate
Australian Institute of Management	1100	222	20.18%
Australian Management Institute for Non-Profit Organisations	100	26	26.00%
Business Council of Australia	80	12	15.00%
Business Professional Women	388	46	18.35%
Institute of Directors (NZ)	115	32	27.83%
Institute of Personnel Management (NZ)	348	65	18.68%
New Zealand Association for Training and Development	550	119	21.64%
New Zealand Institute of Management	783	207	26.44%
Special Education Services	70	38	54.29%
Unknown		3	
TOTAL	3534	770	21.79%

While there are no figures on what a good response rate is, this response rate was higher than expected given the executive level of respondents, the length of the questionnaire (six pages), and the large number of open questions. The next section describes the characteristics of this sample.

6.8.2 Sample Description

This section provides the bibliographic details of the respondents as indicated on the questionnaire. Table 6.5 indicates the categories for the “nature of the business”. No pre-

selected categories were provided, respondents were asked to write in the nature of their business. The coding frame used is a combination of the major industry divisions consistent with the New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification and the particular needs of the sample. For example, the high percentage of education and training organisations necessitated a specific category even though one is not provided by the New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification divisions. As a consequence of the unique categorisation, it is difficult to assess how representativeness this sample is of the total population.

Table 6.5
Nature of Business

Nature of Business	% of Total Responses
Building & Construction & Mining	3.4
Manufacturing	9.7
Banking, Finance, Insurance & Property	12.7
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing & Hunting	4.3
Community, Social & Personal (law etc)	13.1
Education and Training	15.4
Wholesale, Retail & Restaurant	10.3
Communications & Transport	4.5
Armed Forces	1.2
Consultants	10.9
Government	8.2
Other	6.3
n = 741	100

It can be seen that the majority of respondents come from the service industries, in particular “education and training”, “community, social and personal”, and “banking, finance, insurance and property”. Of these organisations, 64.3% were “Profit” and 35.7% “Not for Profit”. Further, well over half (58.8%) the respondents came from organisations

with 100 or more employees. 25.4% had between 11-99 employees and the remaining 15.8% had between 1-10 employees.

37.4% of executives indicated that they were either the CEO/COO/Chairperson, 9% were “Board Members”, 26.1% “Line Executives”, and 27.5% “Staff Executives”. Nearly half (46.5%) of the respondents are from the very senior ranks from within the organisation (CEO/COO/Chairperson or Board).

The seniority is also reflected in the average number of years in the present position and with the organisation. The average “number of years in present position” is 6.42 years with an average “number of years with the organisation” being 10.61 years. This indicates that, on average, the executives have a good working knowledge of their organisations, and therefore it can be implied that their assessment of their leadership processes and challenges are not ill informed. Table 6.6 provides the frequency distribution for the number of years in both present position, and with the organisation.

Table 6.6
Number of Years in Present Position and With Organisation

Number of Years	In Present Position	With Organisation
	% of Total Responses	% of Total Responses
1	16.9	10.1
2	12.9	7.4
3	13.6	11.7
4	11.9	8.3
5	8.0	6.5
6-10	21.4	21.3
11-20	10.7	18.5
21-30	3.7	11.5
31-40	0.9	3.8
41-50	0	0.9
	100	100

76.1% of the respondents were male, and 23.9% female; with the average age being 49.18. Table 6.7 highlights the age distribution of the sample and it can be seen that the largest percentage (38.3%) of executives were between the ages of 41 and 50.

Table 6.7
Age of Respondents

Age	% of Total Responses
21-30	3
31-40	15.8
41-50	38.3
51-60	29.9
61-70	11.1
71+	1.9
n = 747	100

In summary, the majority of respondents come from the service industries, in particular “education and training”, “community, social and personal”, and “banking, finance, insurance and property”. Of these organisations, nearly two thirds are “profit” organisations and just over a third “not for profit”. The majority of respondents came from large organisations, with well over half of the respondents working for organisations employing more than 100 employees.

The respondents were predominantly male (76.1%), with nearly half (46.5%) being from the very senior ranks from within the organisation (CEO/COO/Chairperson or Board). The average age of respondents was 49.18, with an average of 10.61 years with the organisation and an average of 6.42 years in their present position.

6.9 *Processing the Data and Analysing the Results*

Leedy (1989) notes that “the nature of the data governs the method that is appropriate to interpret the data and the tool of research that is required to process this data” (p 185). The quantitative and qualitative data required different forms of analysis. The quantitative data was analysed using descriptive statistics, in particular, measures of central tendency and variability. The key methods used to process the qualitative data were coding and inter-rater reliability. Each of these processes is described in more detail in the following sections.

6.9.1 *Analysis of Quantitative Data (Closed Questions)*

The descriptive nature of the research, the nature of the research outcomes, and the high proportion of open questions employed in the questionnaire predisposed the analysis to descriptive as opposed to inferential statistics.

Inferential statistics permits the researcher to draw conclusions from the sample data to apply to the population (Babbie, 1973), and provides statistics involving inferences, estimations, predictions, and hypothesis testing (Leedy, 1989). Descriptive statistics, on the other hand, simplify and organise survey data (Graziano and Raulin, 1993) and provide statistics that involve measures of central tendency, variation, and correlation (Leedy, 1989).

The descriptive statistics employed in this research included frequency distributions and summary statistics. All data was analysed using the computer package SPSS-X.

6.9.1.1 *Frequency Distributions*

For most kinds of nominal or ordinal data, statistical simplification involves computing frequencies, that is, the number of respondents falling into each response category. The

sum of all frequencies equals the total number of respondents, or if expressed as a percentage, one hundred percent (Graziano and Raulin, 1993).

Frequency distributions, particularly percentage frequency distributions, are used extensively within the research to provide an overview of the responses received. Percentage frequency distributions are useful for comparing two or more frequency distributions that have a different number of total responses (Dominowski, 1980).

An alternative to presenting frequency distributions in tabular form is to construct a graphic display of the distribution. As all of the data in this research is discrete, that is only certain values are possible, bar graphs are the method employed (Dominowski, 1980).

The categorisation of respondents on the basis of more than one variable at the same time is known as cross-tabulation. Cross-tabulation highlights the relationships between nominal measures by providing a table that shows the number of cases for each specified combination of values (Graziano and Raulin, 1993). Cross-tabulations are used in this research to provide further insights into the results by providing an additional method for understanding the descriptions provided by executives.

6.9.1.2 Summary Statistics

In this research, a combination of a measure of the central tendency and a measure of variability are predominantly employed to provide a summary of the data (Graziano and Raulin, 1993).

6.9.1.2.1 Measures of Central Tendency

Measures of central tendency describe the typical or average score. They are called measures of central tendency because they provide an indication of the centre of the

distribution where most of the ratings tend to cluster. The three major measures of central tendency are the mode, median, and mean (Graziano and Raulin, 1993)

The *mode* is the most frequently occurring score in the distribution. The mode has the advantage of being easily computed, but the disadvantage of being unstable in that it can be affected by a change in only one or two scores, and a distribution may also have more than one mode. The mode can appropriately be used with all scales of measurement and is best used with distributions that contain a large number of ratings (Graziano and Raulin, 1993; Dominowski, 1980).

The *median* is the middle score in a distribution where the scores have been arranged in order from lowest to highest. The median is also the fiftieth percentile, which means that half the scores fall below, and half above, the median. The median can be appropriately used with ordered and score data, but not with nominal data. The median can give a more representative indication of central tendency with distributions that have very deviant or skewed scores (Graziano and Raulin, 1993).

The *mean*, or arithmetic mean, is the most commonly used central tendency measure in this research. The mean is calculated by summing the scores and dividing by the number of scores. Mathematically it is expressed as:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x}{n}$$

Of the three measures of central tendency, the mean is the only one that directly reflects the value of every rating. Its ability to make the greatest use of the information available makes it the preferred measure of central tendency when it can be sensibly calculated (Dominowski, 1980).

6.9.1.2.2 Measures of Variability

In addition to measures of central tendency, it is often also important to determine how variable the scores are distributed around this centre. Measures of variability give an idea of how spread a set of data is.

While there are several measures of variability including the range, interquartile range, average deviation and variance (Dominowski, 1980), the *standard deviation* is the measure of variability most often used in statistical operations and is the accepted measure of dispersion in modern statistical practice (Leedy, 1989). For this reason, it is the preferred measure of variability employed in this research. The standard deviation is calculated by dividing the summed squared deviations by the total number of deviations from the mean, then square rooting the resulting quotient.

6.9.2 Analysis of Qualitative Data (Open Questions)

To provide statistics on open questions, a semantic coding process was necessary. Coding is an attempt to reduce a "complex, messy, context-laden and quantification-resistant reality to a matrix of numbers" (Cooper and Hedges, 1994, p 140).

No pre-determined coding sheet was developed or applied to the research results. Therefore the coding process included reading all responses for each question, at least twice, and identifying the major themes emerging. A code was then assigned to each theme. Thus the coding framework for each question emerged from the results themselves.

This coding framework was applied to twenty randomly selected questionnaires. The sample of twenty questionnaires was selected by shuffling the pages of typewritten responses on the floor, selecting twenty sheets at random and then selecting one response at random from each sheet of paper. The coding of these twenty questionnaires was conducted by three people independently - a process known as inter-rater reliability.

6.9.2.1 *Inter-Rater Reliability*

Inter-rater reliability is a method used to overcome some of the error inherent in the process of coding. Such errors can be the result of coder bias, such as where the coder has an agenda that strongly influences the coding judgements made, or where the coder fails to code an item at all, or codes the item in the wrong category (Cooper and Hedges, 1994).

Graziano and Raulin (1993) state that at least two observers need to code the material independently of one another, that is, "blind" to the ratings of the other. In this research, three people independently coded the random sample of twenty questionnaires. If any of the randomly selected questionnaires had a non-response for a question, the answer from the next available questionnaire was used so that twenty responses for each question were coded. For each question, a maximum of four codes was permitted to allow for the multi-dimensionality of responses.

A comparison of the coding for each question was conducted to provide a measure of inter-rater reliability. The method of inter-rater reliability used is known as the agreement rate (AR). The formula for AR is as follows:

$$AR = \frac{\text{number of observations agreed upon}}{\text{total number of observations}}$$

(Cooper and Hedges, 1994, p 147).

All questions were checked, resulting in agreement rates ranging from 80-95%. That is, a minimum inter-rater reliability factor of .8 exists for each question.

A further outcome of the inter-rater reliability check, was the decision to increase the maximum number of codable responses from four to six for Question 2.1 which asked executives to identify the differences between leaders and managers. This reflected the greater variety of responses found for this question and allowed the richest picture possible of this important dimension.

Having established an acceptable level of inter-rater reliability, the author coded all questions. Having a single coder reduces the coding bias that can occur with multiple raters and at worst, standardises the researcher's bias across all responses.

The coding sheets were inputted by the university data processing unit, and the frequency tables from the resulting data file printed and checked for anomalies. All results that fell outside the pre-determined categories were checked and re-coded as necessary, and any obvious data entry errors were corrected. While not guaranteeing all data input errors were corrected, this process increased the integrity of the data file.

In summary, the analysis selected conforms to the "descriptive" nature of this research's methodology. That is the intention of the analysis is to explore and describe executive's views. The quantitative and qualitative data required different forms of descriptive analysis with the primary methods used for the quantitative data being measures of central tendency and variability (mean and standard deviation). The key methods used to process the qualitative data were coding and inter-rater reliability.

6.10 Summary

This chapter addressed the three broad research questions of "why?", "what" and "how" as shown in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8
Methodology Chapter Outline

Why?	1. Selection of the Research Topic (Section 6.2)
What?	2. Identification of the Population to be Surveyed (Section 6.3)
	3. Preparatory Investigations and Conceptualisation of Research Outcomes (Section 6.4)
	4. Selection of the Research Methodology (Section 6.5)
	5. Drafting the Questionnaire (Section 6.6)
How?	6. Conducting a Pilot Survey and Finalising the Questionnaire (Section 6.7)
	7. Selecting a Sample of the Population and Collecting the Data (Section 6.8)
	8. Processing the Data and Analysing the Results (Section 6.9)

It was shown that the convergence of personal interest, growing national and international interest by theorists and practitioners, and growing concern with the quality and quantity of leadership available led to the selection of leadership and leadership development as the research topic. To explore this topic, it was decided to survey senior executives, particularly Directors, Chief Executives, and Senior HR/OD executives, in organisations within New Zealand and Australia.

Outcomes, as opposed to hypotheses, were used to provide the structure, purpose and framework for this research project. As a result of an initial literature review, three key research outcomes were identified. They were to assess executives perceptions of 1. whether leadership is important; 2. what leadership is; and 3. how leaders should be developed.

Given the decision to explore executives' perceptions of the three key outcomes, the research methodology was selected to deliver these research outcomes in the best possible way, within the given constraints. The descriptive survey method (Leedy, 1989), in particular through the medium of a mail questionnaire, was considered the most appropriate

method for collecting the desired information as it provided the greatest breadth and quantity of responses, for a relatively low cost in time and resources.

The advantages and disadvantages of various descriptive survey methods were explored, which prompted a critique of quantitative and qualitative approaches. The decision was made to integrate qualitative and quantitative approaches through the use of open and closed questions. This overcomes many of the issues surrounding “which is best?” and works to maximise the benefits of both. The rationale for the questionnaire design and questions included was then provided, identifying how each contributed to the three key research outcomes.

Having addressed the “why” and “what” questions, attention turned to the “how” of this research. It was shown that early drafts of the questionnaire were screened by an external expert panel, as well as being field tested by eight members of the senior management team of a provincial newspaper organisation. Some minor changes to increase the clarity and brevity of some of the instructions and questions, and changes to the biographical responses were incorporated as a result of the screening and testing.

Due to the difficulty in accessing senior executives, it was decided that a good strategy for selecting the sample would be to use the mailing lists of Associations and Institutes of which senior executives and human resource executives would be members of. The generous support of the following nine institutions was secured: New Zealand Institute of Management; New Zealand Association for Training and Development; Institute for Personnel Management (NZ); Special Education Services; New Zealand Institute of Directors; Australian Institute of Management; Business Professional Women; Australian Management Institute for Non-Profit Organisations (AMINO); and the Business Council of Australia. A total of three thousand, five hundred and thirty four questionnaires were distributed, with seven hundred and seventy questionnaires returned - a response rate of 21.79%.

The majority of respondents came from the service industries, in particular “education and training”, “community, social and personal”, and “banking, finance, insurance and

property”. Of these organisations, nearly two thirds are “profit” organisations and just over a third “not for profit”. The majority of respondents came from large organisations, with well over half of the respondents working for organisations employing more than 100 employees. The respondents were predominantly male (76.1%), with nearly half (46.5%) being from the very senior ranks within the organisation (CEO/COO/Chairperson or Board). The average age was 49.18, with an average of 10.61 years with the organisation, and an average of 6.42 years in their present position.

The analysis conducted was selected for its ability to explore and describe executive’s views. The quantitative and qualitative data required different forms of descriptive analysis with the primary methods used for the quantitative data being measures of central tendency and variability (mean and standard deviation). The key methods used to process the qualitative data were coding and inter-rater reliability. Advanced statistical analysis was deemed to be beyond the scope of the descriptive intent of this research.

This section concludes the description of the research methodology. The next chapter begins the description of the results. Rather than treat the questionnaire as a single unit, the results will be provided in separate chapters, each corresponding to a key research outcome. Table 6.9 identifies how the results will be presented, making the connections between the results chapters, the questionnaire, and the relevant literature review chapters.

Table 6.9
The Relationship Between Results, Questionnaire Items and Literature Review

RESULTS	QUESTIONNAIRE	LITERATURE REVIEW
CHAPTER SEVEN The Importance of Leadership	Q1.1 - Q1.3 Q3.1	CHAPTER TWO The Importance of Leadership
CHAPTER EIGHT What Is Leadership?	Q2.1 - Q2.2	CHAPTER THREE What is Leadership? CHAPTER FOUR Leadership and Management - Are They Different?
CHAPTER NINE Leadership Development Principles	Q2.3 - Q2.11	CHAPTER FIVE Leadership Development Sections 5.1 - 5.3.6
CHAPTER TEN Leadership Development Processes	Q4.1 - Q4.10	CHAPTER FIVE Leadership Development Sections 5.4 - 5.6

Note that question 3.1 is described out of sequence. Question 3.1 assesses the current stock of leadership and management, and as such, has no logical “home” in the framework. The results are provided in the importance of leadership as they provide an interesting juxtaposition between the future need for leadership and the current stocks available.

As the nature and type of questions varies for each section, each chapter will begin by providing the context for, and overview of, the approach taken in that section. Chapter Seven begins by presenting the results of executives’ perceptions of the importance of leadership.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESULTS

THE IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP

7.1 Introduction

It was argued in Chapter Two that two approaches to establishing the importance of leadership were necessary: the “real” and “felt” need for leadership. No existing research instrument was found for establishing the “real” need for leadership within organisations, therefore Kotter’s (1990a) framework which posited a relationship between the expected degree change and the need for leadership was adopted. Fig 7.1 shows the dynamics of his framework.

Figure 7.1
The Relationship of Change and Complexity to the
Amount of Leadership and Management Needed in an Organisation

Amount of change needed in the organisation (due to environmental instability, rapid growth, etc)	High	Considerable leadership but not much management required (start-up businesses)	Considerable leadership and management required (most organisations today)
	Low	Little management or leadership required (most organisations until this century)	Considerable management but little leadership required (many successful organisations in the 1950s and 1960s)
		Low	High

The complexity of the organisation
(due to size, technology, geographic dispersion,
the number of products or services, etc.)

(Kotter, 1990a, p 13)

Thus, the questionnaire began by diagnosing the “real” need for leadership using two questions that related to each dimension of the model, namely change and complexity. The “felt” need for leadership was then established by directly asking executives to indicate the, “importance of leadership to your organisation’s future success”. The results for these questions are provided in sections 7.2 and 7.3 respectively.

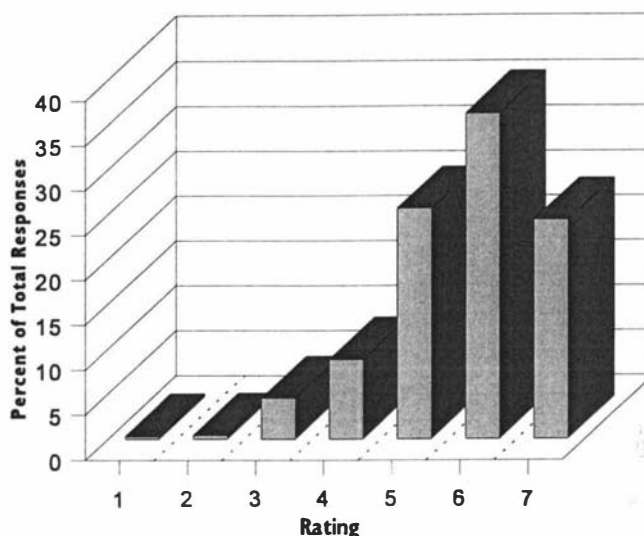
7.2 The “Real” Need for Leadership

Two questions formed the basis for assessing the “real” need for leadership. Both questions were answered on a seven point Likert scale, where “1” was labelled as very low, and “7” as very high.

The first question (Q1.1) asked executives, “For your organisation's success over the next 5-15 years, the **amount of change** needed in your organisation will be?”

Well over half (60.5%) of the 762 respondents believe that their organisations will require a very high amount of change (6-7) to succeed in the future. With 86.1% rating the amount of change needed as a five or more. The mean rating was 5.65, with a standard deviation of 1.12. Figure 7.2 provides the spread of responses for this question.

Figure 7.2
The Amount of Change Needed

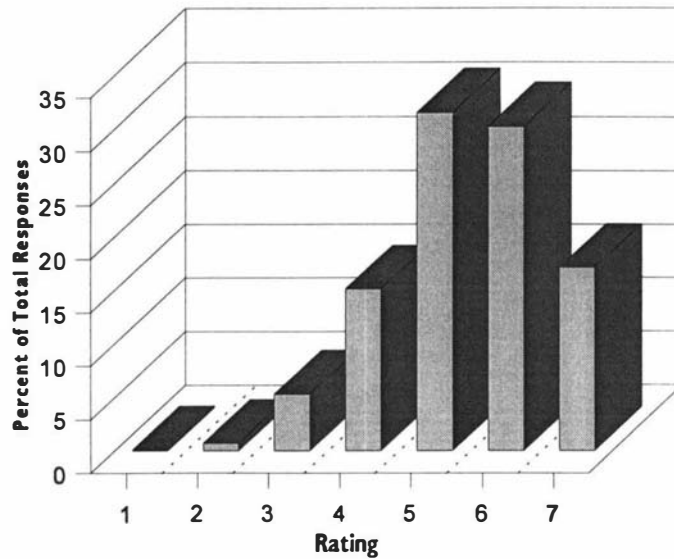


Kotter (1990a) argues that the higher the degree of change, the greater the need for leadership. If we assume that Kotter's (1990a) analysis is correct, then the results could be interpreted as indicating that 86.1% of executives surveyed imply a high to very high real need for leadership in their organisations.

The second question (Q1.2) asked executives, "Over the next 5-15 years, the **degree of complexity** in your operation (due to size, technology, number of products, services, clients, etc) will be?"

Nearly half (47.3%) of the 761 respondents believe that over the next 5-15 years, the degree of complexity will be very high (6-7), with the mean rating being 5.36, and a standard deviation of 1.14. When compared to the amount of change expected, there is a greater concentration around the middle ratings (3-5), and a lower concentration at the very high end (6-7). Figure 7.3 indicates the distribution of results for this question.

Figure 7.3
Degree of Complexity



Kotter (1990a) argues that the higher the degree of complexity, the greater the need for management. Again, assuming that Kotter's (1990a) analysis is correct, the results suggest that 78.8% of executives surveyed imply a high to very high (5-7) future need for management. This is a little less than the future need indicated for leadership, but still represents a substantial percentage of the total responses.

Before looking at the felt need for leadership, it is interesting to bring the results of these first two questions together. In doing so, a framework similar to that devised by Kotter (1990a) is developed using executive responses. Table 7.1 provides the results of the cross-tabulation of the two questions.

Table 7.1
Results of Cross-tabulation of Q1.1 and Q1.2

Q1.1 Amount of change needed for your organisations success over the next 5-15 years	7			.4	2.1	4.9	6.4	10.5
	6		.3	.8	4.9	11.4	14.7	4.2
	5		.1	2.1	4.1	10.9	6.7	1.6
	4			.8	3	2.6	1.8	.5
	3		.3	1.2	.8	1.4	.5	.3
	2				.3	.1		
	1	.1				.1		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q1.2 The degree of complexity in your operation over the next 5-15 years

It can be seen that responses are strongly clustered towards the very high end of both questions. This pattern is further highlighted by splitting the results at the middle rating of four, and ignoring the 20.9% of responses that fall in this rating (as represented by the shaded areas). In doing so, a clearer picture of the four extreme positions (very low-very low, very low-very high, very high-very low, and very high-very high) can be established, and a framework similar to Kotter's (1990a) developed (see Figure 7.4). However, it is also acknowledged that in doing so, that one fifth of executive responses are omitted, and therefore conclusions drawn from this analysis are tentative.

Figure 7.4
 “Real” Future Need for Leadership and Management
 Executive Results in Kotter’s (1990a) Framework

<i>Amount of change needed for your organisations success over the next 5-15 years</i>	Very High	3.7%	71.3%
	Very Low	1.6%	2.4%
		Very Low	Very High

The degree of complexity in your operation over the next 5-15 years

Percentages in the table do not add to one hundred, as the figures represent the percentage of total responses used, the missing 20.9% are all responses that included the rating of four.

Nearly three quarters of the executives surveyed fall into the quadrant that Kotter (1990a) indicates requires considerable leadership and management. This result is consistent with his assertion that most businesses and other organisations fall into this category. Only 3.7% fall into the quadrant identified by Kotter (1990a) as requiring considerable leadership but not much management; 2.4% indicate that they require considerable management but not much leadership; and as would be expected, only 1.6% indicate that little leadership or management is required.

Thus it can be seen that the real future need for *both* leadership and management, as indicated by the dimensions of Kotter’s (1990a) model, is very high. The real need for leadership is more strongly expressed than the real need for management, particularly when only ratings of 6-7 are included (with 13.2% more executives rating very high on the need for leadership). However, this trend is less strong, falling to 7.3% difference, when all

ratings between 5-7 are considered. It is interesting that the expressed need for leadership only, or for management only, is very low.

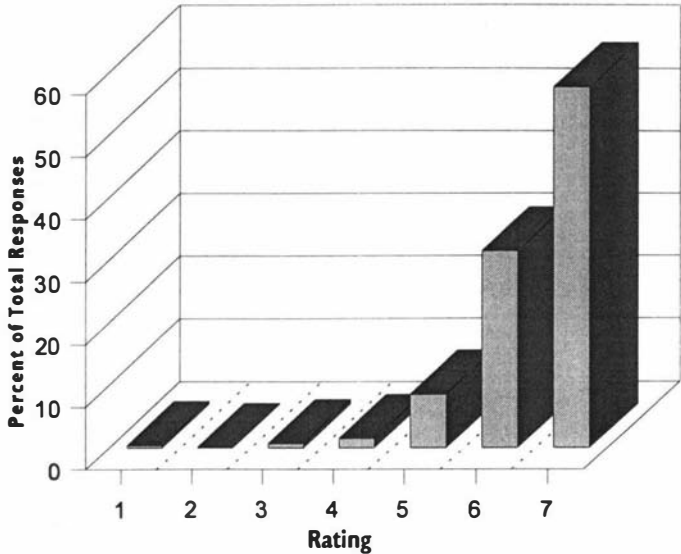
Having considered the “real” need for leadership using Kotter’s (1990a) model, the following section highlights the results for the “felt” need for leadership.

7.3 The “Felt” Need for Leadership

Whereas the real need for leadership was evaluated indirectly via the amount of change expected, the felt need for leadership was assessed by asking executives directly, "how important is leadership to your organisation’s future success?" The question had two parts, the first part was answered on a seven point Likert scale, where “1” was labelled as very low, and “7” as very high; the second part was an open question which asked executives to explain their rating, and thereby identify the rationale for their evaluation of the importance of leadership.

The overwhelming majority (88.9%) of the 755 executive respondents rated the importance of leadership as being very high (6-7). The percentage increases to include nearly all executives (97.4%) when all ratings between 5-7 are considered. The mean response is 6.42, with a standard deviation of .85. The spread of responses is indicated by Figure 7.5.

Figure 7.5
The Importance of Leadership



The felt need for leadership is very strong, considerably stronger than that indicated by the real need for leadership (with 28.4% more executives rating a 6-7). Both the real and felt need for leadership, as expressed by executives in this survey, concur with the literature review conclusion that leadership is of substantive importance.

When asked why leadership is important, a number of reasons were put forward. Table 7.2 provides the complete set of coded categories for the reasons why executives believe leadership is important. As there is only one respondent who rated a three or less on the importance of leadership and made a comment, Table 7.2 can be considered the responses given for why leadership is important. The respondent who rated the importance of leadership low indicated that “no/poor leadership at present”.

Table 7.2
Reasons Given For the Importance of Leadership
to your Organisation's Future Success

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Environmental Factors		19.5
General	0.9	
Change	8.4	
Complexity	3.4	
Technology	2.9	
Competition/Internationalisation	3.9	
Vision		11.2
General	3.1	
Provide Vision	5.4	
Achieve Vision	1.3	
Communicate Vision	1.4	
Bring About Change		18.5
Make Change Happen	10.3	
Encourage/Foster Change in Others	5.0	
Culture Change	1.7	
Innovation/Risks	1.5	
Organisation's Future		25.5
General	1.1	
Success/Results/Growth	9.9	
Survival	2.9	
Direction/Focus	8.1	
Strategies/Goals/Objectives	3.5	

People		20.3
General	2.0	
Motivate/Inspire/Confidence	7.6	
Develop/Support	2.4	
Empower	1.8	
Commitment of	1.3	
Role model/Coach/Mentor	2.0	
Team Building/Team Orientation	3.2	
Customer/Service Orientation	4.1	4.1
No/Poor Leadership At Present	0.9	0.9
	100	100
646 Respondents	n = 1271	

Grouping response categories together, the following pattern emerges in terms of the reasons offered as to why leadership is important. The three major reasons are:

1. *Handle and Bring About Change:* This includes the two categories of "environmental factors" and "bring about change", and accounts for 38% of executive responses. Leadership is important to deal with the increasing amount and speed of change, and to bring about the necessary changes within organisations that this level of competitive intensity requires. Representative comments include: "Leadership is critical during the periods of change in the industry"; "Leadership can bring about the changes that are vital to ongoing success"; "Change is now a permanent feature of our lives. For change to be properly managed, its rationale must be sold and people must become committed to it. That requires leadership"; and "Leadership, as captain on the bridge to steer the institution through internal changes and the external environment".

This response category reinforces Kotter's (1990a) framework, and provides some justification for using his model as a measure of the "real" need for leadership.

2. *Provide Future Direction for the Organisation:* This includes the two categories of "organisation's future" and "vision". Providing direction accounts for 36.7% of executive's responses and is only fractionally smaller than the first response referring to the ability to handle and bring about change. The ability to provide, achieve and communicate a vision rated strongly relative to other factors (11.2%). Representative comments for providing direction include: "Leadership will provide the vision and direction"; "Leadership is necessary to provide direction, to establish targets and to develop, share and sustain a vision for the enterprise"; "Need for a clear vision - future functioning of organisation"; and "Strong sensitive leadership required to set direction, provide vision, communicate it clearly, and enthuse others to translate that into effective transformation of the organisation."

This is clearly related to the first category, "when all things around us seem to be changing, we need a strong sense of where we are heading".

3. *Handle the People Side of the Organisation:* This category accounts for 20.3% of executive responses, with the largest single factor being the need to motivate and inspire others (7.6%). Leadership is seen to have a strong inter-personal role and component. Representative comments include: "We are in the 'people business'. We are people. Our customers are people. In order to sell our products we must motivate our people to generate sales to 'people'. This requires leadership and motivation at all levels in the company structure"; "Leadership is, in simple terms being out in front to give by example the inspiration, support and purpose within the organisation; to be the success which most employees seek and enjoy in their work; agreed mission objectives must be attainable - leadership will give the encouragement and praise; set the tone; give the confidence and obtain the rewards - what fun!"; and "... provide interpersonal/group constancy".

The “motivate and inspire” function is clearly related to the second category of providing future direction. To achieve the direction, followers must be inspired, motivated, committed, supported, developed and empowered. One of the leader's primary role is to ensure that this happens.

Clearly these three major reasons are interconnected. Leadership is important because of the need to handle and bring about change. One way of doing this is to provide a strong sense of direction, which in turn requires the ability to handle people, particularly the ability to motivate and inspire others.

7.4 Summary

In answer to the question, “Is leadership important?”, executives surveyed in this research answer a resounding yes. Both the “real” and “felt” measures indicate a strong need and importance for leadership in the future, with the measurement for the “felt” need for leadership being stronger than the measurement for the “real” need. These results are consistent with the literature conclusion established in Chapter Two that leadership is of substantive, not imagined, importance. These responses imply organisations must develop and nurture leadership in order to handle and bring about change; have a strong sense of direction; and have the people side of the organisation well handled.

It is interesting to compare the future need for leadership with the perceptions executives hold regarding existing levels of the leadership and management within their organisations. This is addressed in the following section.

7.5 Future Need Versus Current Reality

Question 3.1 asked executives to rate their organisation's current supply of people with various management/leadership combinations. Results from this question are presented here out of sequence because they provide an interesting juxtaposition between the future

need and current reality. Prior to answering this question, executives had completed the need for leadership section, and had provided their evaluations of the differences between leadership and management and on the principles of leadership development.

Given that there is much debate over whether there is a difference between management and leadership, all respondents were asked to put aside their own view on this matter, which had already been assessed by this stage, and assume Kotter's (1990a) distinction between management and leadership to be true. The table with which they were provided is reproduced in Table 7.3. This approach ensures that the aggregation of the ratings and the comparisons made are more meaningful, by creating a greater similarity of understanding as to what leadership and management are than otherwise would have existed.

Table 7.3
Differences Between Leadership and Management
Provided to Respondents in the Questionnaire

	MANAGEMENT	LEADERSHIP
<i>Creating an Agenda</i>	Planning and Budgeting: establishes detailed steps and timetables for achieving results and allocates the necessary resources.	Establishing Direction: develops a vision of the future, and the needed change strategies.
<i>Developing a human network for achieving the agenda</i>	Organising and Staffing: establishes structure, staffs it, delegates responsibility and authority, provides policies, procedures and systems.	Aligning People: communicates the direction by words and deeds to all who need to understand and accept the vision and strategies.
<i>Execution</i>	Controlling and Problem Solving: monitors results, identifies deviations, plans and organises actions.	Motivating and Inspiring: energises people to overcome major barriers to change.
<i>Outcomes</i>	Produces a degree of predictability and order , and has the potential of consistently producing key results expected by various stakeholders.	Produces change , often to a dramatic degree, and has the potential of producing extremely useful change.

Using Kotter's (1990a) distinction between management and leadership, respondents were asked to place a tick next to the statement that best reflected their organisation's current

status (excluding themselves) in each of the four quadrants. The instruction to “exclude yourself” was included to avoid self-bias in the reporting, and to overcome any potential threat the respondent may have felt answering this question.

Table 7.4
Format of Question 3.1
Measuring the Current Stocks of Leadership and Management

<p>People with Weak Management/ Strong Leadership</p> <p>Too few <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>About right <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Too many <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<p>People with Strong Management/ Strong Leadership</p> <p>Too few <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>About right <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Too many <input type="checkbox"/></p>
<p>People with Weak Management/ Weak Leadership</p> <p>Too few <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>About right <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Too many <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<p>People with Strong Management/ Weak Leadership</p> <p>Too few <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>About right <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Too many <input type="checkbox"/></p>

Table 7.5 provides the results of executive responses to Question 3.1.

Table 7.5
Results - Question 3.1
Current Stocks of Leadership and Management

People with Weak Management/ Strong Leadership		People with Strong Management/ Strong Leadership	
Too few	52.1%	Too few	75.6%
About right	38.6%	About right	23.2%
Too many	9.3%	Too many	1.2%
People with Weak Management/ Weak Leadership		People with Strong Management/ Weak Leadership	
Too few	10.7%	Too few	25.5%
About right	27.2%	About right	39.1%
Too many	62.2%	Too many	35.4%

Just over three quarters (75.6%) of executives indicate that they have too few people with strong management *and* strong leadership ability. The fact that this combination has the greatest percentage of “too few” responses highlights the difficulty, outlined in Chapter Four, of bringing together high levels of competence in both leadership and management.

As would be expected, the majority (62.2%) indicate that they have too many of the opposite combination, that is too many people with weak management and weak leadership. The relatively high percentage of too few (10.7%) responses is puzzling as it is unlikely that 10.7% of organisation’s would like more people with weak management and leadership ability. A possible explanation is that executives believe that they have a need for compliant followers.

Over half (52.1%) of the executives surveyed believe that they have too few people with strong leadership and weak management, with 38.6% indicating that they have about the right number. The spread for the final category, people with strong management and weak

leadership, is much more even with approximately a third of executives placing their organisations in each response. Thus, unlike other combinations, there is not a position that accounts for more than fifty percent of executives.

In summary, executives indicate that their organisations currently have too few people with strong management and strong leadership ability. This combination is clearly a scarce resource in New Zealand and Australian organisations. The second most needed combination, as measured by the “too few” response, is for strong leadership and weak management. This indicates that, on the whole, executives believe that the lack of leaders is greater than the lack of managers, and provides some indication that the majority of executives feel their organisations are underled. There is also a sizable proportion (35.4%) that believe their organisations are overmanaged, which is akin to Bennis’ (1989a) and Kotter’s (1990b) conclusions that organisations are overmanaged and underled.

With respect to the polarity management principles highlighted in Chapter Four, these results could indicate that organisations are experiencing the downsides of management and therefore should begin the next “polarity two-step” moving towards leadership. However, such a move needs to be made recognising both the upsides and downsides of leadership and acknowledging that, in the future, there will need to be a “two step” movement back towards management.

The results in Table 7.5 provide an indication of the current stock of executives with the different combinations of leadership and management ability. The results emerging from the combination of questions 1.1 and 1.2 (Figure 7.4) provide an indication of the “real” future need for the same combinations of leadership and management. While these results are not statistically comparable, their shared framework (which is based on Kotter’s (1990a) model) makes it possible to provide some comparison between executives’ perceptions of the *future need* for leadership and management, and their *current stocks*. All conclusions drawn should be considered cautiously.

Table 7.6 presents this comparison. The “future need” figures are taken from the results from Fig 7.4. The “current stock” figures represent the category that received the *majority* of responses from Table 7.5. Because there are three category ratings in each quadrant from Table 7.5, only the category that received the greatest percentage of executive responses is highlighted. In doing this, the current stock category indicated in the table can change from quadrant to quadrant.

When reading Table 7.6, it is important to note that while the framework is shared, the methodology for establishing the “future need” was different for that of the “current stock”. Therefore the percentages are not directly comparable. In particular, an executive’s rating of the “future need” for leadership could only fall into one quadrant, consequently the sum of the percentages for the *whole table* equals one hundred (the missing 20.9% represent those responses that included a middle rating of four). Whereas executives rated *each* quadrant when indicating their “current stocks”, such that the sum of the percentages within *each quadrant* equals one hundred.

Table 7.6
Comparing “Future Need” for Leadership with “Current Stock”

<p>People with Weak Management/ Strong Leadership</p> <p>Future Need 3.7%</p> <p>Current Stock</p> <p> Too few 52.1%</p>	<p>People with Strong Management/ Strong Leadership</p> <p>Future Need 71.3%</p> <p>Current Stock</p> <p> Too few 75.6%</p>
<p>People with Weak Management/ Weak Leadership</p> <p>Future Need 1.6%</p> <p>Current Stock</p> <p> Too many 62.2%</p>	<p>People with Strong Management/ Weak Leadership</p> <p>Future Need 2.4%</p> <p>Current Stock</p> <p> About right 39.1%</p>

The low percentages for “future need” in three of the quadrants makes drawing conclusions in these areas less conclusive. It can be seen from Table 7.6 that the expressed “future need” for people with weak management and weak leadership skills is very low (1.6%), with over three-fifths of executives stating they currently have too many already. The challenge in this quadrant is to develop these people such that they make a greater contribution, or to remove them from the organisation.

There is a small perceived “future need” for people with strong management and weak leadership (2.4%), with well over a third of executives believing that they currently have the right number of these people. This is a relatively good situation to be in, with a low future need being matched by an acceptable current situation, as expressed by the majority of executives. This indicates that future executive attention and organisational resources in the *majority* of organisations need not be directed into developing only strong managers; and could indicate that the majority of organisations are proficient at either selecting or developing such people. It must be noted, however, that over a quarter of executives indicate that they currently have too few people with this combination, and these organisations could therefore usefully employ future resources to address this current lack of ability.

The “future need” for people with strong leadership and weak management is greater than that for people with strong management and weak leadership, but is still small (3.7%). Over half of executives surveyed believe that they currently have too few people like this, indicating a shortage of people of this calibre. However, the low perceived “future need” could indicate that this situation is unlikely to significantly worsen.

The most interesting, and concerning result is highlighted in the top right hand quadrant where 71.3% of executives indicate a “future need” for strong leadership and strong management, and 75.6% indicate that they have too few people currently in this quadrant. That is, executives believe that their organisations have too few of these people to meet *current* demands, let alone meet their growing *future* demands. This could pose serious problems for organisations. There appears to be a strong need to address the lack of people

with strong leadership and management ability, and in particular, to develop strong leadership.

Overall, this chapter has highlighted that executives perceive a high need for leadership, and that currently they believe that their organisations have too few within their executive ranks. One of the starting points to developing the necessary leadership is to clarify executive's perceptions of what leadership is. The following chapter outlines what executives believe leadership is, and its relationship to management.

CHAPTER EIGHT

RESULTS - WHAT IS LEADERSHIP?

8.1 Introduction

The results chapters have been divided into four sections. The sections are:

1. The Importance of Leadership - Chapter Seven.
2. What Is Leadership? - Chapter Eight
3. Leadership Development Principles - Chapter Nine
4. Leadership Development Processes - Chapter Ten

Chapter Seven highlighted two themes from executive responses to the “Importance of Leadership”. The first is that leadership is seen to be very important to organisations, particularly with respect to handling and bringing about change; having a strong sense of direction; and ensuring that the people side of the organisation is well handled. Secondly, executives believe that their organisations currently have too few people with strong leadership ability, and in particular, there is a perceived lack of people with both strong leadership and strong management ability.

In assessing the importance of leadership, no definition of leadership was provided. Therefore, each executive used their own definition and understanding of leadership to answer the questions relating to the importance of leadership. To fully understand both why leadership is important, and to understand what executives mean by leadership, this chapter explores executives’ perceptions of what leadership is.

To assess executives’ perceptions of leadership, this section addresses two major areas. The first looks at whether executives feel that there is a difference between leaders and managers. As was shown in Chapter Four, this issue is fundamental to the understanding of leadership within organisations. The second addresses what executives believe the essence of leadership to be. For each section, descriptive results are provided.

8.2 *Are Leaders Different from Managers?*

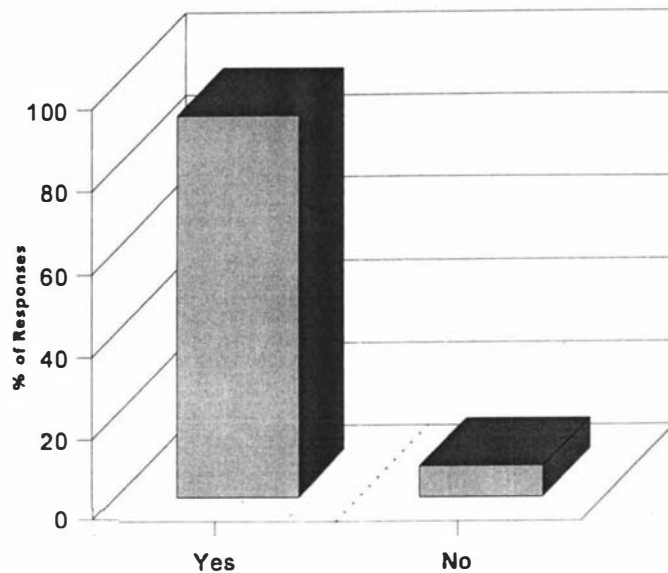
Chapter Four showed that the issue of whether leadership is different from management is pivotal to the understanding of leadership within organisations. Rost (1991) asserts that the fundamental underlying assumption of the leadership literature has been that leadership is equal to good management. If this assumption is true then, for reasons of clarity, it would be useful to discard one of the concepts altogether. However, if leadership and management are different, organisations need to be clear on the differences so that they can effectively identify, select, develop and sustain both leaders and managers.

At present, within the literature there appears to be confusion rather than clarity. Some argue that leaders and managers are the same; some claim that they are different; and others *say* they are different while *acting* as though they are the same (Rost, 1991). Chapter Four explored this issue, starting with the traditional position which asserted that leadership is a subset of, or synonymous with, management. It then addressed and critiqued more recent arguments that distinguished leadership from management, and concluded by applying the polarity management (Johnson, 1992) framework to the debate. The overall conclusion drawn was that leadership and management are different, complete, and yet interdependent, action systems.

This section explores executives' views on the differences between leaders and managers. There were two parts to the question asked. The first part was a closed "yes" or "no" response to the question, "Are leaders different from managers?" The second part was an open question which asked executives to identify why they believe leaders and managers are different, or alternatively, why they believe leaders and managers are the same.

92.5% of executives surveyed believe that leaders are different from managers (see Figure 8.1). This is notable in that only 16 years earlier Zaleznik (1977) commented that many executives found it "wrong, if not offensive" to think that leaders and managers are different. These results indicate that there has been a complete turn around in thinking in less than two decades.

Figure 8.1
Are Leaders Different From Managers?



n = 751

Chapter Four highlighted that the issue of whether leadership and management are different is contested in the literature. While the issue may still divide theorists, Australasian executives in this research appear to be in agreement, with the overwhelming majority stating that leaders are different from managers.

To provide insight into the distinctions that executives' make between leadership and management, their responses to the open part of the question are examined. The description begins by providing the context through the presentation of the table of total responses (Table 8.1). However, the discussion focuses on describing the results of those who answered "yes" and those who answered "no" to the question: "Are leaders different from managers?"

Having addressed the "yes" and "no" responses, further insights into the perceived differences between leaders and managers are provided through additional analysis exploring those responses that compared leaders with managers.

Table 8.1 shows the results for the explanations provided as to why leaders and managers are different. Due to the length and detail of responses to this question, the number of responses that could be coded for this question was increased from four to six. That is, each individual response could receive multiple codes, up to a maximum of six.

The coding frame emerged from the responses to this question and it was decided to code the responses into three main categories. The first category of codes represented those comments made specifically about leadership (codes 1-27); the second were those made specifically about management (codes 28-44); and the third captured specific comments that identified the nature of the relationship between leadership and management (codes 45-52).

Table 8.1
Q 2.1. Are Leaders Different From Managers?
If Yes - What Do You Believe Are the Critical Differences? If No - Please Explain.

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Future Focused		24
1. Future Direction	6.2	
2. Vision	2.0	
3. Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision	8.4	
4. Communicate Vision	1.4	
5. Gain Commitment to Vision	0.9	
6. Goals	1.4	
7. Planning (Strategic)	1.2	
8. Big Picture	1.4	
9. Proactive	1.1	
10. Culture/Values/Environment	1.7	1.7
11. Ideas/Creativity/Innovative/Intuitive	3.9	3.9
Change		3.8
12. Bring About Change	3.1	
13. Risks	0.7	

People Focused		20.3
14. People Oriented	4.0	
15. Inspire/Motivate/Energy	9.3	
16. Grow/Develop/Empower Others	2.1	
17. Heart/Feeling etc	1.2	
18. Team Orientated/Participative	2.3	
19. Communicate/Listen	1.4	
20. Role Model/Set Example	2.7	2.7
Character		5.2
21. General Character Traits	3.1	
22. "X" Factor	0.1	
23. Charisma	1.3	
24. Respect	0.5	
25. Courage	0.2	
26. Make Things Happen	1.6	1.6
27. Make Tough Decisions	0.7	0.7
28. Plan	1.7	1.7
29. Organise/Co-ordinate	2.3	2.3
30. Control/Direct	3.2	3.2
31. Reactive	0.5	0.5
32. "Manage"/Administer	1.9	1.9

Implementers		6
33. Of Leaders Directions/Ideas	3.0	
34. Of Visions/Goals set by Leaders	3.0	
Status Quo		7.8
35. Within Boundaries and Rules	3.8	
36. Day-to-Day/Shorter Time Frames	1.4	
37. Attend to Details	1.2	
38. Efficient (Do Things Right)	0.9	
39. Routine	0.5	
40. "Things" Not People	1.2	1.2
41. Processes/Systems/Resources	2.2	2.2
42. Lack Vision	0.2	0.2
43. People Skills	0.8	0.8
44. Position/Job	1.9	1.9
Leadership = Management		1
45. General Statement	0.8	
46. Getting Things Done Through People	0.2	
Leadership is More Than Management		2
47. General Statement	1.3	
48. A Leader can be a Manager but not Necessarily Vice Versa	0.7	
Leadership is A Subset of Management		2.5
49. General Statement	1.3	
50. A Good Manager Must be a Good Leader	0.6	
51. Leadership is the People Side of Management	0.6	
52. Management is A Necessary Part of Leadership	0.9	0.9
	100	100
691 Respondents	n = 2037	

This table provides the distribution of all responses. The following description of the results will distinguish between those who rated “no” and those who rated “yes” to the closed part of the question, “Are leaders different from managers”.

8.2.1 “No” Responses

The sample size of those stating that leaders are *not* different from managers is small. It includes a total of 46 respondents, and 66 responses. While the sample size is small, it is important to get an understanding of the point of view taken by this minority of executives. The “no” responses are outlined in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2
Q 2.1. Are Leaders Different From Managers?
If No - Please Explain.

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Future Focused		10.7
1. Future Direction	6.2	
2. Vision	1.5	
3. Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision	0	
4. Communicate Vision	0	
5. Gain Commitment to Vision	0	
6. Goals	3.0	
7. Planning (Strategic)	0	
8. Big Picture	0	
9. Proactive	0	
10. Culture/Values/Environment	1.5	1.5
11. Ideas/Creativity/Innovative/Intuitive	0	0

Change		1.5
12. Bring About Change	1.5	
13. Risks	0	
People Focused		7.6
14. People Oriented	0	
15. Inspire/Motivate/Energy	6.1	
16. Grow/Develop/Empower Others	1.5	
17. Heart/Feeling etc	0	
18. Team Orientated/Participative	0	
19. Communicate/Listen	0	
20. Role Model/Set Example	0	0
Character		0
21. General Character Traits	0	
22. "X" Factor	0	
23. Charisma	0	
24. Respect	0	
25. Courage	0	
26. Make Things Happen	0	0
27. Make Tough Decisions	0	0
28. Plan	0	0
29. Organise/Co-ordinate	0	0
30. Control/Direct	0	0
31. Reactive	0	0
32. "Manage"/Administer	0	0
Implementers		1.5
33. Of Leaders Directions/Ideas	1.5	
34. Of Visions/Goals set by Leaders	0	

Status Quo		1.5
35. Within Boundaries and Rules	1.5	
36. Day-to-Day/Shorter Time Frames	0	
37. Attend to Details	0	
38. Efficient (Do Things Right)	0	
39. Routine	0	
40. "Things" Not People	0	0
41. Processes/Systems/Resources	0	0
42. Lack Vision	0	0
43. People Skills	1.5	1.5
44. Position/Job	1.5	1.5
Leadership = Management		28.8
45. General Statement	22.7	
46. Getting Things Done Through People	6.1	
Leadership is More Than Management		4.5
47. General Statement	0	
48. A Leader can be a Manager but not Necessarily Vice Versa	4.5	
Leadership is A Subset of Management		33.3
49. General Statement	13.6	
50. A Good Manager Must be a Good Leader	12.1	
51. Leadership is the People Side of Management	7.6	
52. Management is A Necessary Part of Leadership	6.1	6.1
	100	100
46 Respondents	n = 66	

Only three responses received more than 10% of the total of those who rated “no, leaders are not different from managers”. The largest single response is a “general statement” that stated or implied that leadership equals management (22.7% of responses). That is, leaders and managers are synonymous. The second largest response was a “general statement” that stated or implied that “leadership is a subset of management”(13.6%). This is very similar to the third largest response which stated that “a good manager must be a good leader” (12.1%). The last two categories indicate that being a leader is only one function of being a manager. That is, leaders and managers are not different as leadership is a part of the wider management framework.

Taking the bolded groups from Table 8.2, in essence, there are two major explanations provided by executives as to why leaders are *not* different from managers. These two categories account for 62.1% of the “no” responses. The categories are that *leadership equals management* (28.8%), and that *leadership is a subset of management* (33.3%). These responses closely resemble the positions taken by the traditional PLOC framework, outlined in Chapter Four, which posits leadership as a subset of management, and Rost’s (1991) claim that the fundamental, yet misplaced, assumption in the leadership literature is that leadership equals management. Both of these themes come through clearly in the executive responses of those who believe that leaders are *not* different to managers.

Interestingly, a number of responses identify specific characteristics of leaders, yet do not believe that leaders and managers are different (these are identified by those rating a code between 1-27 in Table 8.2). These comments include: “The efficient leader needs to know where he/she is going and why. A leader by implication is leading others so he/she needs to “manage” those under his/her leadership to ensure that they all get to wherever they are being led”; “A good manager can improve how things are done today. A leader looks ahead to tomorrows needs and inspires others to respond. A leader can be a manager with an extra factor, but a manager may not be a leader”; “Leaders create the environment within which managers operate”; “Managers (and directors) can be leaders in creating a shared vision, inspiring and motivating others to develop strategies, plans and policies to achieve needed change”; “All managers should be leaders. The degree to which one is a successful leader depends on the strategic sense of direction”.

While some of these responses identify leadership as the direction or people aspect of management, other responses would appear to be differentiating leaders and managers. Therefore some executives appear to be claiming that leaders and managers are the same, yet differentiate them in their explanation. One possible explanation for this situation is provided by one executive:

“A manager must be a leader. If you mean are “traditional managers” different from leaders then yes they are. There are more people skills involved, leadership is about motivating the staff to perform at high levels - to empower them to do their jobs by allowing them to make decisions. However good project control, goal setting and regular appraisal are essential so staff know whether they are on the correct path”.

That is, it is possible that some executives believe that the changing “management” or governance role in organisations requires greater “leadership” ability, thus a manager *should* be a leader. This could indicate a confusion between the *process* of leadership and management as opposed to the *person* who is a manager or leader. The implications chapter (Chapter 11) will explore this issue further.

In summary, there are two major reasons provided by executives as to why leaders are *not* different from managers. They are that “leadership equals management” and that “leadership is a subset of management”. Having explored the “no” responses, attention will now be focused on those executives who stated that “yes” leaders *are* different to managers.

8.2.2 “Yes Responses

Table 8.3 outlines the responses provided by those who believe that leaders *are* different from managers.

Table 8.3
Q 2.1. Are Leaders Different From Managers?
If Yes - What Do You Believe Are the Critical Differences?

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Future Focused		24.4
1. Future Direction	6.3	
2. Vision	1.9	
3. Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision	8.6	
4. Communicate Vision	1.5	
5. Gain Commitment to Vision	0.9	
6. Goals	1.3	
7. Planning (Strategic)	1.3	
8. Big Picture	1.5	
9. Proactive	1.1	
10. Culture/Values/Environment	1.7	1.7
11. Ideas/Creativity/Innovative/Intuitive	4.1	4.1
Change		4
12. Bring About Change	3.2	
13. Risks	0.8	
People Focused		20.7
14. People Oriented	4.1	
15. Inspire/Motivate/Energy	9.4	
16. Grow/Develop/Empower Others	2.2	
17. Heart/Feeling etc	1.2	
18. Team Orientated/Participative	2.4	
19. Communicate/Listen	1.4	
20. Role Model/Set Example	2.9	2.9

Character		5.4
21. General Character Traits	3.2	
22. "X" Factor	0.2	
23. Charisma	1.3	
24. Respect	0.5	
25. Courage	0.2	
26. Make Things Happen	1.6	1.6
27. Make Tough Decisions	0.7	0.7
28. Plan	1.8	1.8
29. Organise/Co-ordinate	2.4	2.4
30. Control/Direct	3.4	3.4
31. Reactive	0.5	0.5
32. "Manage"/Administer	1.9	1.9
Implementers		6.1
33. Of Leaders Directions/Ideas	3.0	
34. Of Visions/Goals set by Leaders	3.1	
Status Quo		8.2
35. Within Boundaries and Rules	4.0	
36. Day-to-Day/Shorter Time Frames	1.5	
37. Attend to Details	1.2	
38. Efficient (Do Things Right)	1.0	
39. Routine	0.5	
40. "Things" Not People	1.2	1.2
41. Processes/Systems/Resources	2.3	2.3
42. Lack Vision	0.2	0.2
43. People Skills	0.8	0.8
44. Position/Job	1.7	1.7

Leadership = Management		0.1
45. General Statement	0.1	
46. Getting Things Done Through People	0	
Leadership is More Than Management		1.9
47. General Statement	1.4	
48. A Leader can be a Manager but not Necessarily Vice Versa	0.5	
Leadership is A Subset of Management		1.3
49. General Statement	.8	
50. A Good Manager Must be a Good Leader	0.2	
51. Leadership is the People Side of Management	0.3	
52. Management is A Necessary Part of Leadership	0.7	0.7
	100	100
629 Respondents	n = 1918	

As there are a wide range of “yes” responses, it is useful to identify the major themes. Looking at the major category groups (given in bold), the three most frequently provided reasons for differentiating leaders from managers were that leaders are:

1. *Future focused.* In essence, leaders provide a sense of future direction. This theme featured strongly in the earlier question regarding the importance of leadership. Making up 24.4% of executive responses, this category included looking at the big picture, strategic planning, setting goals and being proactive. However, the largest single component was “provide/create/keeper of vision” (8.6%).
2. *People Focused:* This theme also featured strongly in the importance question. Accounting for 20.7% of responses, this category included inspiring and

motivating others, growing and developing others, empowering others, and being team oriented. The single largest component was “inspiring, motivating and energising” others which received 9.4% of executives’ responses. That leaders inspired and motivated others was the most frequently coded item for this question.

3. *Character Based*: This category is a distant third, making up only 5.4% of executive responses. The largest component was charisma which made up 1.3% of responses. Given the current literature dominance of the transformational and charismatic school of leadership, it is surprising that charisma accounts for such a small percentage of total responses. The other factors included courage, respect from others and the "X" factor.

Unlike the responses for those who believe that leadership is *not* different from management, it appears the traditional PLOC view of leadership is not as strong. In the PLOC framework, leadership is seen to be a subset of management, more particularly, the people part of management. In this conceptualisation, leadership has no planning or future direction role, no organising, or control role. However, nearly a quarter of executives in this research believe that leadership has its own direction setting function. Further this function is distinct from planning, being primarily a function of vision. Thus, the dominant theme in the “yes leaders are different” responses may indicate a break with the PLOC framework.

In summary, the factors that were most frequently highlighted by executives as differentiating leaders from managers are that leaders provide a strong sense of vision and direction; they grow and motivate others to achieve that direction; and there is something about their character which distinguishes them from managers.

Exploring responses 45-52, it can be seen that 1.9% believe leaders and managers are different as leadership is more than management, while 1.3% argue the opposite, stating that leadership is a subset of management. 0.3% of the latter category take the traditional PLOC position that leadership is the people side of management. One executive stated that

leaders and managers are different, and yet indicated in their comment that they are the same. They stated: “They tend to be [different] but can both be in the same ‘body’”. This response highlights the confusion that can exist between leadership and management, and leaders and managers. As has been noted earlier, the confusion between the person of the leader and the leadership process will be explored fully in Chapter Eleven.

The following section explores those executives responses that included a response for leadership *and* a response for management. By providing the contrast, it can be seen the ways in which executives compare leaders with managers.

8.2.3 *Comparisons Made Between Leaders and Managers*

Of those respondents that provided a comment explaining their answer regarding the differences between leaders and managers, 218 respondents provided an explanation that only contained references to leaders; 42 respondents provided an explanation that only contained references to managers; 54 respondents provided an explanation that solely focused on the nature of the relationship between leaders and managers; and 377 respondents provided an explanation that only contained references to *both* leaders and managers. It is the later group of respondents that this section will focus, as they provide insight into the ways in which executives compare or contrast leaders and managers.

To facilitate this analysis, the results were re-coded such that all respondents that indicated a leadership response (1-27) *and* a management response (28-44) were “flagged”. Having selected these respondents, their results were saved in two separate files so that the results could be cross-tabulated against themselves. That is, all responses rating between 1-27 were cross-tabulated with those rating 28-44. Table 8.4 provides the results of this cross-tabulation.

Table 8.4
Cross-Tabulation Between Executives' Leader and Manager Responses

	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44
1	.8	.8	.9	.3	1.2	1.4	1.9	1.8	.8	.3	.5	.1	.1	1.0	0	.6	.3
2	.3	.2	.3	0	.4	.7	.3	.3	.2	.1	.1	.2	0	.2	.1	.1	0
3	.6	1.0	1.3	.3	.4	1.2	2.3	2.2	.8	.7	.2	.2	.2	.9	.2	.4	.2
4	.1	.4	0	0	.1	.1	.3	.3	.2	0	.1	0	.1	0	0	0	.1
5	.1	.1	0	0	.1	.1	.2	.2	0	0	0	0	0	.2	0	0	0
6	0	.2	.3	0	.1	.4	.5	.3	.2	.2	.2	0	0	.1	0	0	0
7	.1	0	.1	0	.1	.3	.2	.1	.3	.2	0	0	0	.3	0	.2	0
8	0	.1	.1	0	.2	.3	.3	.3	.4	.3	0	0	0	.1	0	.1	0
9	0	.1	0	.4	.1	.5	.2	.4	.1	.1	0	0	0	.1	0	0	0
10	0	.1	.5	0	0	.4	.4	.4	0	0	.2	0	.2	.4	0	0	0
11	.1	.4	.2	0	.9	.8	.6	.6	.4	.3	.4	.4	.2	.6	0	.1	.1
12	.3	.5	.4	.2	.4	.5	.1	1.8	.2	.4	.1	.1	.1	.4	0	.2	.1
13	0	.1	0	0	.1	.1	.1	.4	.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	.1
14	.4	.4	1.0	0	.4	.7	.2	.7	.3	.1	0	.1	1.1	1.2	0	.4	.4
15	1.3	1.6	2.6	.1	.9	1.3	1.1	2.2	.5	.7	.4	.4	.2	.8	.1	.4	.7
16	.4	.4	1.1	0	.1	0	0	.3	.1	.1	.2	0	.2	.4	0	0	.1
17	0	.1	.2	0	.1	0	.1	.1	.1	0	0	0	.4	.2	0	0	.2
18	.3	.4	.7	0	0	.2	.2	.4	.1	.1	.2	0	.4	.1	0	.1	.3
19	.1	0	.1	0	0	.2	.2	.2	0	.1	0	0	.1	0	0	.1	.1
20	.6	.4	.9	0	.4	.3	.2	.4	0	.3	0	0	.1	.3	0	.1	.3
21	.2	.4	.3	.1	.2	.2	0	.1	.1	.1	.4	.2	.3	.4	0	0	.9
22	0	0	.1	0	0	0	.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
23	.3	.4	.2	0	.2	.2	.2	.1	.1	0	0	.1	.1	.1	0	0	.1
24	0	0	0	.1	.2	.2	0	.2	.2	.1	0	0	0	.1	0	0	.2
25	0	0	0	0	.1	0	0	.1	0	0	0	.1	0	0	0	0	0
26	.3	.3	.1	0	.2	.3	.1	.2	.1	.1	.1	0	.1	.2	0	.2	.2
27	0	0	0	0	.1	.2	.1	0	.1	0	0	0	0	.1	0	.2	.3

It can be seen that the results in Table 8.4 are widely distributed. To provide some insight into the results, all responses that received one percent of the table's responses or greater were highlighted (shaded boxes). There is no real significance to the "one percent" other than the fact that it identifies a small group of the highest ranking results. These results are rank ordered in Table 8.5. In addition, some of grouped (bolded) responses were selected, (shown in bold lines). Only those groups whose combinations received greater than the

largest single cross-tabulated results, (i.e 2.6%) were selected. These results are ranked ordered in Table 8.6. The discussion of these results will begin with the general and move to the more specific.

Table 8.5
Highest Ranking Individual Cross-Tabulated Results

Table %	Leaders	Managers
2.6	Inspire/Motivate/Energy	Control/Direct
2.3	Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision	Implementers of Vision/Goals Set by Leader
2.2	Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision	Within Boundaries and Rules
2.2	Inspire/Motivate/Energy	Within Boundaries and Rules
1.9	Future Direction	Implementers of Vision/Goals Set by Leader
1.8	Future Direction	Within Boundaries and Rules
1.8	Bring About Change	Within Boundaries and Rules
1.6	Inspire/Motivate/Energy	Organise/Co-ordinate
1.4	Future Direction	Implementers of Leaders Direction/Ideas
1.3	Inspire/Motivate/Energy	Plan
1.3	Inspire/Motivate/Energy	Implementers of Leaders Direction/Ideas
1.3	Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision	Control/Direct
1.2	Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision	Implementers of Leaders Direction/Ideas
1.2	Future Direction	"Manage"/Administer
1.2	People Oriented	Processes/Systems/Resources
1.1	People Oriented	Things Not People
1.1	Inspire/Motivate/Energy	Implementers of Vision/Goals Set by Leader
1.1	Grow/Develop/Empower Others	Control/Direct
1.0	Future Direction	Processes/Systems/Resources
1.0	Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision	Organise/Co-ordinate
1.0	People Oriented	Control/Direct

Table 8.6
Highest Ranking Cross-tabulated Groups

Table %	Leaders	Managers
12.4	Future Focused (1-9)	Status Quo (35-39)
11.2	Future Focused (1-9)	Implementers (33-34)
7.4	People Focused (14-19)	Status Quo (35-39)
5.7	People Focused (14-19)	Control/Direct (30)
4.2	People Focused (14-19)	Implementers (33-34)
3.1	People Focused (14-19)	Organise/Co-ordinate (29)
3.0	Future Focused (1-9)	Control/Direct (30)
2.9	Future Focused (1-9)	Organise/Co-ordinate (29)
2.9	Future Focused (1-9)	Processes/Systems/Resources (41)
2.9	Change (12-13)	Status Quo (35-39)

The top five grouped cross-tabulations all received more than 5% of Table 8.6's responses. The largest cross-tabulated group received 12.4% of the total cross-tabulated responses and indicates that leaders are "future focused", while managers focus on the "status quo". Consolidating the results from Table 8.6, it can be seen that in broad terms, the largest percentage of executive's believe that leaders are future focused and provide vision, whereas managers implement vision, are interested in the status quo, and focus on control and processes/systems/resources. Leaders are also people focused, whereas managers focus on the status quo, control, and tend to focus on processes/systems/resources or "things" not people. In short, the two responses that dominate the leader results are "future focused" and "people focused", and the response that dominates the manager responses is "status quo".

These group themes are reinforced by the individual responses with vision/direction and inspire/motivate dominating the leaders' individual cross-tabulated results whereas

implementing the chosen direction, controlling and acting in the interests of the status quo tend to dominate the notions of managers.

In executives' minds, leaders provide vision and direction, whereas managers implement this vision or direction, and act within current boundaries. Implied in these responses is the notion that managers are more constrained and conservative, whereas leaders are seen to be more expansive and less limited by the current situation.

The results highlighted in Table 8.5 show some similarity with Kotter's (1990a) framework. Table 8.7 places executives' responses in a framework similar to Kotter's (1990a), but adapting his work to more accurately reflect executive responses. In particular, Kotter's (1990a) category of "develop a human network for achieving the agenda" has been changed to "focus for achieving the agenda".

Table 8.7
Executive Responses in Adapted Kotter (1990a) Framework

	Leaders	Managers
<i>Creating an Agenda</i>	Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision Future Direction	Implementers of Vision/Goals Set by Leaders Act Within Boundaries and Rules
<i>Representative Executive Comments</i> “Leaders have one vision. Managers implement the resulting tactics.” “Leaders have vision and deal in broad strategic outlines. Managers are responsible for operationalising leadership visions”		
<i>Focus for Achieving the Agenda</i>	People Oriented	Processes, Systems, and Resource Oriented
<i>Representative Executive Comments</i> “Leaders are primarily concerned with people - their desires, aspirations, fears and their motivation. Managers are concerned with control of assets, including people, and the effectiveness of systems.” “A manager focuses on systems and structures - a leader on people ...”		
<i>Execution</i>	Inspire, Motivate, Energise Grow/Develop/Empower Others	Organise/Co-ordinate and Control/Direct
<i>Representative Executive Comments</i> “Leaders coach, co-ordinate, facilitate, empower others, and motivate. Managers plan, control and delegate. They tend to operate in a more autocratic and hierarchical way than leaders” “Leaders inspire, managers co-ordinate inspiration”.		
<i>Outcomes</i>	Bring About Change	Work Within Boundaries and Rules
<i>Representative Executive Comments</i> “A leader can change, develop, and innovate, and also has a major role in sponsoring staff, and ensuring the organisation relates well to clients. A manager manages the current systems.” “Managers are nuts and bolts merchants. They maintain the status quo. Leaders develop and adapt the organisation”.		

While not capturing each individual cross-tabulated response, it does capture the majority of the most frequently rated comparisons executives’ make between leaders and managers.

Table 8.8 provides an abbreviated form of Kotter's (1990a) framework by way of comparison.

Table 8.8
Kotter's Distinction Between Management and Leadership

	LEADERSHIP	MANAGEMENT
<i>Creating an Agenda</i>	Establishing Direction and Providing a Vision of the Future.	Planning and Budgeting
<i>Developing a Human Network for Achieving the Agenda</i>	Aligning People	Organising and Staffing:
<i>Execution</i>	Motivating and Inspiring Others	Controlling and Problem Solving
<i>Outcomes</i>	Produces Change.	Produces a Degree of Predictability and Order.

(adapted from Kotter, 1990a, p 6)

It can be seen from Tables 8.7 and 8.8 that executives' responses comparing leaders and managers fit closely with Kotter's (1990a) framework. However, executive responses tend to be less favourable toward managers than Kotter (1990a), with executives seeing managers as implementers of leaders vision and direction, rather than having an agenda setting process of their own; and with managers focusing on things (processes, systems and resources) rather than people, as opposed to both having processes for developing a human network for achieving the agenda.

While it is difficult to say with certainty, the general tone of executive responses indicates that leaders are seen to be of greater value, or make a more significant contribution, than managers. The "flavour" of responses could indicate that managers are denigrated when compared with leaders, thus raising the possibility that the underlying assumption is that leaders are good managers (Rost, 1991). This issue will be explored in more detail in Chapter Eleven.

In summary, it has been shown that the overwhelming majority (92.5%) of executives surveyed believe that leaders and managers are different. As has been stated, this is a significant turn of events, in that only sixteen years earlier, Zaleznik (1977) commented that the notion that leaders and managers are different was seen to be “wrong, if not offensive”. The major components that executives believe distinguish leaders from managers is that leaders provide a sense of future direction, in particular a vision; that they are people focused, in particular inspiring and motivating others; and that they have a strong character base, of which charisma is the largest single contributing factor. In comparing managers and leaders, the most frequently provided comparison was that leaders are “future focused”, while managers focus on the “status quo”. Overall, the largest percentage of executives make two types of comparisons between leaders and managers. The first is that leaders are future focused and provide vision, whereas managers implement vision, are interested in the status quo, and focus on control and processes/systems/resources. The second is that leaders are people focused, whereas managers focus on the status quo, control, and tend to focus on processes/systems/resources or “things” not people.

Having explored executives’ perceptions as to the differences between leaders and managers, the next section will focus on what executives believe the “essence” of leadership to be.

8.3 The Essence of Leadership

This open question asked executives to, “Please write a short statement which for you captures the essence of leadership.” In doing so, the intent was to elicit the essential nature or qualities of leadership as perceived by executives. Table 8.9 provides a summary of executive responses for this question.

Table 8.9
Q 2.2. Please Write A Short Statement Which for You
Captures the Essence of Leadership.

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
People Skills		18.6
1. General People Skills	0.4	
2. Understands People's Needs/Compassionate	3.5	
3. Empowering	5.1	
4. People Focused	2.6	
5. Communicate/Listening	3.3	
6. Achieve Through Others	3.7	
Future Focused		18.4
7. Future Oriented	3.6	
8. Provide Direction	6.1	
9. Big Picture	0.7	
10. Goals	8.0	
Vision		19.4
11. Create Vision	13.2	
12. Create and Achieve Vision	3.3	
13. Communicate Vision	2.9	
Change		3.2
14. Handle Change	0.6	
15. Bring about Change	2.6	
Innovativeness		3.1
16. Innovative Thinking and Ideas	3.1	
Inspire and Motivate		19
17. Inspire and Motivate Others	15.6	
18. Towards Vision	3.4	

Role Model		11.3
19. Provide Role Model	3.6	
20. Respect of Others/Confidence in You	7.7	
Character		7
21. Key Set of Character Traits	4.3	
22. Charisma/Presence	2.7	
	100	100
650 Respondents	n = 1122	

The single largest individual category of response was that the essence of leadership is the ability to “inspire and motivate others”. This accounted for 15.6% of executive responses. This was closely followed by the related concept of “creating a vision” (13.2%). The third highest individual response category was “goals” (8.0%). Visions and goals are very closely related, and it is unclear whether executives distinguish clearly between the two categories.

A broader picture of executive responses can be attained by exploring the major categories that are represented in bold in Table 8.9. It can be seen that collectively executives believe that the essence of leadership includes five major components: vision (19.4%), inspiration and motivation (19.0%), people skills (18.6%), future focus (18.4%), and role modelling (13%). These five components account for 88.4% of executive responses.

Grouping similar categories together provides the following summary of what executives identify as being the essence of leadership. Four key themes emerge that account for 95.4% of executive responses. These four essential leadership themes are:

1. *Provide Future Direction*: Incorporating the two categories of “vision” and “future focused”, this new category accounts for 37.8% of executive responses and is the largest identified theme. It incorporates the ability to create, achieve,

and communicate a vision, provide direction, set goals, be future oriented and see the big picture.

2. *Respected Character*: This combines the two categories of “character” and “role model”. This theme accounts for exactly one fifth of the responses and includes the variety of character traits, but predominantly the characteristic of “charisma” or a presence that engenders the respect of others, and generates a willingness to follow and imitate. In essence, the leader is someone that others respect for who they are and what they do.

3. *Inspire and Motivate*: This theme retains its title as identified in Table 8.9., and accounts for 19% of responses. It is a very close third to the respected character theme, and includes a small percentage (3.4%) of executives who specifically mentioned the ability to inspire and motivate people towards the vision.

4. *People Skills*: As with “inspire and motivate”, this theme is unchanged from the original framework. Accounting for 18.6% of executive responses, the theme includes the dimensions of empowering others and achieving through others. It describes a leader that is compassionate, understands peoples’ needs, and can listen to and communicate with people. In essence, the leader is someone that not only cares for others, but is able to effectively interact with and empower and grow people.

While treated separately, the themes are clearly related. The ability to inspire and motivate others is likely to be determined, in some measure, by the vision, the character and the people skills that the leader has. The people skills theme and the ability to inspire and motivate are also likely to be closely related.

In summary, the essence of leadership as collectively attributed by the executives in this research is that leaders provide future direction, they have respected characters, inspire and motivate others, and have strong people skills. There is both a personal and interpersonal flavour to the descriptions of the essence of leadership. The leader is not aloof and

uncaring, but is rather caring and worthy of respect, has a vision, inspires, motivates, and empowers/develops others to achieve the vision.

What is remarkable is the consistency with which these themes have emerged. Table 8.10 highlights the results from the previous three questions: Why is leadership important? (1.3); Are leaders are different from managers? (2.1); and What is the essence of leadership? (2.2).

Table 8.10
Comparison of Result Themes for Questions 1.3, 2.1, and 2.2

Question 1.3 Explain why leadership is important	Question 2.1 Explain the difference between leaders and managers	Question 2.2 What is the essence of leadership?
1. <i>Handle and Bring About Change</i> - 38%	1. <i>Future Focused</i> - 24%	1. <i>Provide Future Direction</i> - 37.8%
2. <i>Provide Future Direction for the Organisation</i> -36.7%	2. <i>People Focused</i> - 20.3%	2. <i>Respected Character</i> - 20%
3. <i>Handle the People Side of the Organisation</i> - 20.3%	3. <i>Character</i> - 5.2%	3. <i>Inspire and Motivate</i> - 19%
		4. <i>People Skills</i> - 18.6%
Note: Percentages refer to % of total responses for that particular question.		

The ability of leaders to provide future direction has formed the top response for two of the questions, and is a close second on the other question. This indicates that the majority of executives in this research believe that leaders are responsible for providing a sense of future direction. Interestingly, the subcategories within each of these themes has also remained remarkably consistent. Responses to question 1.3 included the “two categories of "organisation's future" and "vision". The ability to provide, achieve and communicate a vision rated strongly relative to other factors (11.2%)”. Responses to question 2.1 included the following components: “big picture, strategic planning, setting goals and being

proactive. However, the largest single component was providing a vision (8.6%)". Question 2.2 incorporated the "the ability to create, achieve and communicate a vision, provide direction, set goals, be future oriented and see the big picture." The ability to provide, achieve and communicate a vision consistently rates as the largest major component within this theme; with the ability to set goals coming through in more than one case. Thus in executives mind, leaders are concerned with direction, the future and, in particular, visions.

A people focus is also seen to be essential to leadership. This response also rated strongly in all three questions. Labelled differently, these "people" categories reflect a similar characteristic in that leaders have a strong inter-personal role and ability. They relate well to others and work to develop and empower others. It is interesting to note that in the first two questions, the ability to inspire and motivate others rated as the largest single component of the "people" themes. In question 2.2, however, it was a sufficiently large category so as to warrant a separate listing. If inspire and motivate and people skills were incorporated in question 2.2, it would account for 37.6% of question 2.2's responses, falling just .2% under the first category of providing future direction. While it is accurate to say that future direction has rated higher than people skills in all three questions, the difference between them is not large and both themes should be seen as integral to executives' understanding of the nature of leadership.

The character of the leader is mentioned in two of the questions (2.1 and 2.2). It only makes up a small percentage in the first question (5.4%) yet accounts for one fifth of the responses in the second question. That character is explicitly captured in both questions is noteworthy, however it would appear that executives believe that a respected character base has a greater contribution to the essential nature of leadership, than it does to distinguishing leaders from managers. That is, character is essential to leadership, but is not the main distinguishing characteristic of leaders and managers.

The ability to "handle and bring about change" only appears in the question relating to the importance of leadership. While it is not possible to assess from the results why this is the case, it is suspected that the reason is the confusion between the person and process of

leadership. It would appear that when asked to distinguish between leaders and managers, and to capture the essence of leadership, the focus is on the nature of the person of the leader. However, when assessing leadership's importance, the focus is broader and includes factors beyond the person of the leader. This confusion between the person and process of leadership will be explored in detail in the implications section.

In summary, there are three major themes that feature strongly in all previous questions (1.3, 2.1, 2.2). They are that leaders provide direction, are people focused, and are character based. The consistency of these themes across a variety of questions provides some indication of the importance of these themes to executives' understanding of leadership.

In the results reviewed thus far, it has been shown that executives believe very strongly that leadership is important, and further that their organisations do not have very many strong leaders at present. Leadership is seen by executives to be a function of four key themes: providing direction (vision), people skills, inspiring and motivating, and having a strong character base. Given this context, leadership development has a critical role to play in providing the quantity and quality of leadership required in organisations. The next chapter begins the exploration of executives' perceptions of leadership development. Chapter Nine focuses on "can leaders be developed?" and elicits executives' own leadership development principles as well as their agreement, or otherwise, with the five key leadership development principles highlighted in Chapter Five. Chapter Ten focuses on executives' perceptions of the wider leadership development processes within organisations.

CHAPTER NINE

RESULTS

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PRINCIPLES

9.1 Introduction

The literature review in Chapter Five established that there were three major issues within the leadership development domain. This research addresses all three. The first relates to the primary issue of whether leaders can be developed. The prevailing assumption within organisational leadership literature is that it is possible to develop leaders, yet in other disciplines, such as sociology and anthropology, this assumption is not always held (Rost, 1991). Therefore, rather than take the assumption for granted, it was decided to explore executives' assumptions regarding the development of leaders.

The second issue relates to leadership development principles that underlie leadership development processes and practices. In this sense, a principle is defined as a "general law as guide to action" (Sykes, 1984, p. 817). This research focuses on both the principles on which executives feel leadership should be developed; as well as testing executives' agreement with the five key current and emerging leadership development principles identified by Koestenbaum (1991).

Thirdly, the issue of the leadership development systems was highlighted. This includes the actual human resource processes used in organisations, and the broader forces that either facilitate and/or inhibit the development of leaders.

This chapter is the first of two on leadership development, and provides the results for the first two issues of "can leaders be developed" and "leadership development principles". The results from the questions relating to the leadership development processes can be found in Chapter Ten.

The following section begins by addressing executives' perceptions of whether leaders can be developed.

9.2 *Can Leaders Be Developed?*

In the literature, the issue of whether leaders can be developed is closely interwoven with the debate on whether leaders are “born” or “made”. It was argued in Chapter Five that the position taken on the born versus made debate varied as different leadership schools of thought took precedence. Table 9.1 provides a summary of the various historical positions taken by the major schools of thought.

Table 9.1
Historical Positions on the “Born versus Made” Debate

Schools of Thought	Born vs Made Position
Great Man/ Trait Approach	One is born a leader. No amount of later training or development can substitute for innate characteristics.
Behaviourist Approach	Leadership is a set of skills and behaviours that, like all skills, can be developed.
Situational/ Contingency Approach	The majority of situationalist theorists adopt the behaviourist position. A notable exception is Fiedler (1967) who argues that a leader's character is innate and fixed, but that the skills for changing the situation to fit the leader's personality can be developed. In short, there is a mixture of born and made positions.
Transformational/ Charismatic Approach	Encompasses the range of perspectives from being born (particularly with reference to charisma) to being made. However, the emerging consensus attributes leadership ability to many factors including inborn capacity, early childhood, formal education and career experiences (Kotter, 1988).

Rost (1991) argues that within current organisational literature the answer to whether leaders can be developed is unequivocally “yes, they can be”. He goes on to argue that this

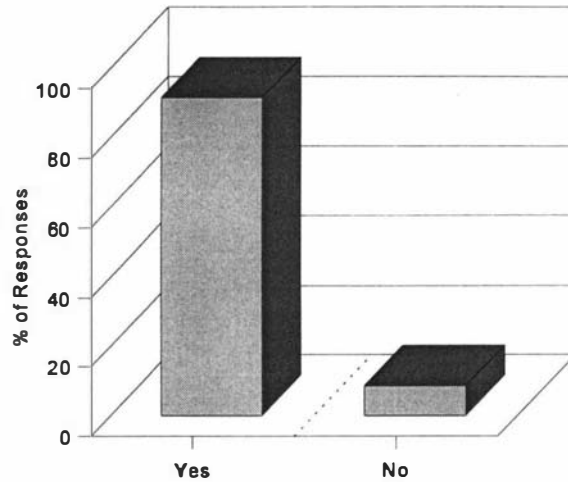
position is more widely debated in other fields of study such as sociology and anthropology. Rather than take this assumption for granted, this research sought to elicit executives' perceptions on whether leaders can be developed. This was deemed important as the assumptions executives make regarding the possibility of developing leaders will impact on their attempts and efforts to develop both themselves and others (Kotter, 1990a).

The question assessing executives' perceptions on this issue was comprised of two parts. The first consisted of a closed "yes" or "no" response to the question, "Can leaders be developed?". The second part differed depending on the answer to the first. Those respondents who answered, "yes", were asked to move to the question which asked them to identify the principles of leadership development on which they believed leadership should be developed. Those respondents who answered "no" were asked to explain their answer, then move to the section that assessed their agreement with the provided leadership development principles.

While not prompted to do so, 80 executives who answered "yes leaders can be developed" provided an explanation. This created a valuable opportunity to compare the differences in the reasons provided by those who answered "yes" and those who answered "no". On reflection, it would have been preferable to have had both groups of respondents prompted to provide explanations.

When asked, "Can leaders be developed?", 91.4% of executives stated "yes", with 8.6% saying "no". See Figure 9.1 over:

Figure 9.1
Can Leaders Be Developed?



This result indicates that the overwhelming majority of executives believe that something can be done to develop leadership within their organisations. On the surface, these results imply that executives believe that they have some control over the quantity and quality of leadership within their organisations via their efforts to develop leaders. However, examining explanations to the question “can leaders be developed?” highlights some interesting results.

In exploring these results, the context will be provided through the presentation of the table of total responses (Table 9.2). However, the discussion focuses on describing the results of those who answered “yes” and those who answered “no” to the question: “Can leaders be developed?” Having addressed the “yes” and “no” responses, further insights are provided by comparing these two groups. It should be noted that 25 respondents provided an explanation without indicating either a “yes” or “no” answer. Their responses are addressed in section 9.2.3.

Table 9.2 outlines the total responses received for this question. The total number of respondents for this question is 157. This is small when compared to other questions, yet is considerably larger than the questionnaire instructions would account for. It should be noted that a maximum of four codes could be assigned to each response.

Table 9.2
Total Responses for Question 2.3
Can Leaders Be Developed?

Response Category	% of Responses
General "Yes" Statement	10.3
Experience Best	9.8
With Training	6.3
Given Personal Choice/Desire	3.4
Born, Innate but Improvable by Training and/or Experience	50.0
General "No" Statement	4.0
Born, Innate	12.6
Don't Know	3.6
	100
157 Respondents	n = 174

9.2.1 "Yes" Responses

The "yes" responses are outlined in Table 9.3.

Table 9.3
 “Yes” Responses for Question 2.3
 Can Leaders Be Developed?

Response Category	% of Responses
General “Yes” Statement	17.9
Experience Best	17.9
With Training	11.6
Given Personal Choice/Desire	4.2
Born, Innate but Improvable by Training and/or Experience	47.4
General “No” Statement	0
Born, Innate	0
Don’t Know	1.0
	100
80 Respondents	n = 95

Of those that answered “yes, leaders can be developed”, the largest single category of response indicated that some innate characteristics of leadership had to already exist. This accounted for nearly half (47.4%) of the “yes” responses. Representative comments include: “Yes, a potential leader must have as part of her or his ‘raw material’ certain personal characteristics. These personal characteristics can then be built upon with a view to developing the leader”; “Yes, I believe a basic potential must exist first to be developed. I don’t believe leadership can be taught”; “... Leadership involves some inherent intellectual and character qualities which can be developed and enhanced by training but must be inherently present in the first place ...”. This result suggests that leadership can be enhanced, but not created. These executives believe that leadership development is dependent upon a high quality of “raw material”.

The majority of the other “yes” responses moved from the issue of whether leaders could be developed to address the best methods of developing them. 17.9% indicated that experience was the best way to develop, 11.6% stated that leaders could be developed with

training, and 4.2% noted that leaders could be developed give the personal choice or desire to do so. 17.9% merely reiterated that leaders could be developed

9.2.2 “No” Responses

The “no” responses are outlined in Table 9.4.

Table 9.4
“No” Responses for Question 2.3
Can Leaders Be Developed?

Response Category	% of Responses
General “Yes” Statement	0
Experience Best	0
With Training	0
Given Personal Choice/Desire	0
Born, Innate but Improvable by Training and/or Experience	46.2
General “No” Statement	13.4
Born, Innate	40.4
Don’t Know	0
	100
52 Respondents	n = 52

Of those that answered “no, leaders cannot be developed”, nearly half (46.2%) indicated that leadership was born or innate, but could be improved with training or experience. 40.4% indicated that leadership was born or innate and therefore could not be developed, and the rest re-stated that leadership could not be developed (13.4%). It can be seen that while the majority of the “no” respondents agree that leadership is born/innate, two groups draw different conclusions from this point. One group argues that as a consequence of the innate origins of leadership, leaders cannot be developed. Such comments include: “No,

you either have it or you don't"; "No, leaders are born with in-built drives to succeed"; and "No, leaders are basically naturally balanced people who are allowed to lead because of this harmony". The other group argues that while leadership's origins are innate, leaders can improve or develop their innate ability. Their comments include, "No. Well - yes and no. They must have the basic material first. Enthusiasm, positive mental attitude, ability to get things done through others. Then they can be developed" and "No, some people want to lead and have the personal attributes necessary - these attributes can be further developed so leadership can be improved but you can't create leaders or people who don't want to lead or who do not have an inherent base attitude".

9.2.3 *Comparison Between "Yes" and "No" Responses*

Comparing the "yes" and "no" explanations, a similarity exists between approximately half of those responses who said "yes" and of those who said "no". It is likely that the issue of whether leaders are born or made is contributing to the similarity of responses. This conclusion is supported by the analysis of those executives who did not indicate a "yes" or "no" answer, but who provided an explanation anyway. 70.4% of these respondents indicated that leaders could be developed or improved, but that there were born or innate characteristics. In short, while drawing different conclusions about whether leaders can be developed, approximately half of the respondents are saying the same thing, namely that leadership is innate, but that this potential can be developed or improved.

This similarity of explanations between those who answered "yes" and those who answered "no" reinforces the benefit of using a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies. If only one of the methodologies had been used, it would not have been possible to see that executives using the same argument draw completely opposite conclusions. Such paradoxical results would not have surfaced and consequently the results would have overstated the notion that leaders can be developed.

Taking the responses as a whole, and viewing them from a "born versus made" perspective, it can be seen that 12.6% of respondents believe that leadership is born and cannot be

developed. 4% state that leaders cannot be developed but give no specific reasons for this view. 29.8% believe that leadership is made, and make no mention of innate characteristics. Exactly half believe that there are leadership characteristics that you are born with, but that these can be developed and honed through various forms of development. 3.6% were unsure of their reasoning.

Thus, while it is clear then that the overwhelming majority believe that leaders can be developed, for 50% of executives, this statement is a qualified “yes”. It is qualified in the sense that there are born/innate factors to leadership, and by implication, not all people have the same innate ability to lead, and consequently they will not all realise a high level of leadership ability. Less than a third of executives argued that leaders are made in the pure sense of the word. It would appear that the majority view is that leadership can be improved, but not created. It is also clear that the development and born versus made issues are tightly interwoven in executives’ thinking.

That 91.4% believe leadership can be developed or improved is encouraging when it is considered that these executives also believe that leadership is important, and further, that their organisations do not have very many strong leaders at present. These results indicate that executives believe there are factors within their control that can develop more leaders, or more effective leaders, in their organisations. The next section establishes the principles on which they believe leaders should be developed.

9.3 Leadership Development Principles

A principle is “an underlying or guiding theory or belief” (Collins Dictionary of the English Language, 1990). Leadership development principles form the foundation for leadership development practices. In exploring executives’ perceptions of leadership development principles, two approaches are taken. The first asks executives to indicate the principles on which they believe leadership should be developed. Only those respondents who answered “yes” to the previous question, “can leaders be developed?” answered this

question. The second part tests executives' reactions to the five key leadership development principles identified by Koestenbaum (1991).

9.3.1 Executives' Own Principles

Table 9.5 highlights the responses to the question: "On what principles do you believe leadership development should be based?". A maximum of four responses per respondent could be coded.

Table 9.5
Total Responses for Question 2.4
On What Principles Do You Believe Leadership Development Should Be Based?

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Experience		6.2
General	0.2	
Early Opportunities	0.2	
Practical, Hands On Experiences	5.8	
Training Needed	6.0	6.0
Processes		10.3
General	0.3	
Role Model/Mentor	3.9	
Encouragement/Support/Feedback	3.0	
Mistakes/Failing Not Punished	1.3	
Accountability/Responsibility	1.8	
Innate		2.7
Leadership is Innate	2.6	
Can't be Developed	0.1	
Leadership Style	1.0	1.0

Skills		44.1
General Skills	1.6	
People/Team Skills	12.1	
Business Skills	2.1	
Vision	4.2	
Strategic Planning/Goals	3.8	
Trend Analysis	0.4	
Communication (including listening)	7.0	
Motivation	2.7	
Thinking Skills	3.9	
Knowledge of the Job	2.4	
Handle and Facilitate Change	0.9	
Decision Making	1.9	
Problem Solving	1.1	
Character Traits		27.3
General Character Traits	1.3	
Integrity	5.3	
Honesty	3.3	
Morals/Ethics	4.3	
Self-confidence/Knowledge	5.2	
Charisma	0.4	
Trust/Respect	2.8	
Empathy	1.7	
Enthusiasm, Energy	1.0	
Performance/Results Oriented	0.9	
Commitment	1.1	
Combination of Skills/Experiences/ Character	2.4	2.4
	100	100
618 Respondents	n = 1597	

Executives' answers to this question indicate that they found this question difficult. Rather than providing underlying principles, executives' answers tended to fall into two broad categories. The first category highlighted the "how", or methods, of leadership development. The second category identified the "what" of leadership, reinforcing the skills and character traits that they believe are necessary for effective leadership. These categories will be used to explore executive responses to this question.

References to the "how" of leadership development formed the minority of responses (22.5%). There were five broad methods of development highlighted. The most popular method was experience (6.2%), which included references to having practical, hands-on experience as well as having early opportunities. The need for some sort of training in the development of leadership came a close second, making up 6.0% of the total responses. The need for "encouragement, support and feedback" and for a culture that didn't "punish mistakes or failing" was expressed by a total of 4.3% of respondents, followed by the importance of a "role model or mentor" in the development process (3.9%). Being given accountability and responsibility accounted for 1.8% of responses. On the whole, these executives appear to almost equally favour experience and training with support and encouragement, particularly through the medium of a mentor.

The majority of responses (73.8%) identified either skills or character traits that they believed were necessary in developing leadership. 44.1% identified a skill of one type, 27.3% highlighted a character trait. Grouping similar skills together, the following three major skill groups were identified:

1. *People Skills*: This category accounted for 21.8% of executive responses, by far the greatest single component. It includes references to people or team references generally (12.1%), to communication and listening skills (7.0%), and to the ability to motivate others (2.7%).
2. *Knowledge/Thinking Skills*: This included general references to thinking skills (3.9%), to strong knowledge of the job (2.4); decision making (1.9%); and

problem solving ability (1.1). Overall, this category accounted for 9.3% of responses.

3. *Direction Setting*: Making up 8.4% of responses, this skill set included vision (4.2%), strategic planning and goals (3.8%) and trend analysis (0.4%).

The three main “character” groups identified were:

1. *Credibility*: This accounted for 15.7% of responses. This credibility category is comprised of integrity (5.3%), morals and ethics (4.3%), honesty (3.3%) and trust and respect (2.8%).
2. *Positive and Confident*: Confidence included self confident and confident in their knowledge of what to do and where to go (5.2%), and the enthusiasm and energy that often results from such confidence (1.0%).
3. *Empathetic*: The need for empathy in a leader was highlighted by 1.7% of respondents.

As Table 9.6 highlights, the above themes show strong consistency with the themes identified in Questions 1.3, 2.1, and 2.2. Table 9.6 reconfigures Table 8.10 to highlight the similarities and differences.

Table 9.6
Comparison of Result Themes for Questions 1.3, 2.1, 2.2 and 2.4

Question 1.3 Explain why leadership is important	Question 2.1 Explain the difference between leaders and managers	Question 2.2 What is the essence of leadership?	Question 2.4 On what principles should leadership be developed?
<i>Handle the People Side -20.3%</i>	<i>People Focused - 20.3%</i>	<i>People Skills - 18.6%</i>	<i>People Skills - 21.8%</i>
<i>Provide Future Direction for the Organisation - 36.7%</i>	<i>Future focused- 24%</i>	<i>Provide Future Direction - 37.8%</i>	<i>Direction Setting - 8.4%</i>
<i>Handle and Bring About Change - 38%</i>			
	<i>Character - 5.2%</i>	<i>Respected Character - 20%</i>	<i>Character - 27.3%</i>
		<i>Inspire and Motivate - 19%</i>	
Note: Percentages refer to % of total responses for that particular question.			

It can be seen that future direction, people skills and character are seen to be important characteristics of leadership, as well as being important elements of leadership development. This consistency may indicate the strength to which these factors are related to leadership in executives' minds. It is certainly reinforcing that the same characteristics used to describe leadership are seen to be important as principles upon which leadership should be developed.

It is interesting that thinking skills are considered important for the development of leadership, but do not rate significantly as descriptors of leadership. However, it is possible that these skills are implied or contribute to some of the descriptors, such as the ability to handle and bring about change and provide future direction. It is also interesting that few (2.7%) mention the need to develop motivation, when the ability to motivate and inspire

comes through strongly in executives' conceptualisations of leadership. It is not clear why these differences exist.

In summary, this question regarding the principles upon which leaders should be developed was approached in two major ways. The first described the processes that should be used, with the major themes including experience, training, and support and encouragement, particularly through the medium of a mentor. The second described the essential skills or character traits that leadership development should address. These included people skills, knowledge and thinking skills and direction setting abilities. Character traits included credibility, positiveness and confidence, and empathy. Collectively executives indicate that effective leadership development would comprise various learning methodologies incorporating mentors, training, and actual experience as well as blend the development of skills and character.

Having explored executives' own leadership development principles, the following sections highlight the level of executive agreement with Koestenbaum's (1991) leadership development principles.

9.3.2 Testing Key Leadership Development Principles

In Chapter Five, five principles were identified as forming the core of the current and emerging leadership development principles. The majority of these principles emerged from Koestenbaum (1991) as his work recognises the need for leadership development that has a qualitatively different approach from management development; focuses on leadership development specifically and not executive or management development generally; and his principles are consistent with many of the leadership development principles found in other leadership literature.

The following six questions were used in the questionnaire to assess executives' agreement with Koestenbaum's (1991) five principles:

1. Leaders cannot be developed on a week long course.
2. Leadership cannot be taught in the traditional sense, it must be learned through personal experience, experimentation, and feedback.
3. Leaders must be able to take sustained, decisive action.
4. Leaders must be reflective ie. think carefully and deeply about what they do, how they do it, and why they do it.
5. Becoming a leader is about personal transformation ie. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts.
6. Leadership is about being, not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one's values, motives, and assumptions.

Each question comprised of two parts. The first part was a closed question which asked executives to rate their level of agreement with the stated principle. A seven point Likert scale was used where "1" indicated that respondent's "strongly disagree", and "7" indicating that they "strongly agree". The second part of the question consisted of a "comments" section, where respondents could comment on, or explain, their rating.

This section describes the level of executives' agreement with these principles. For each principle, the mean and standard deviation are provided as well as some indication of the frequency distribution for each question. All results are rounded to two decimal places.

The comments made are then described and explored. The format for this description is that the context is provided through the presentation of the table of total responses. However, the discussion focuses on comparing and contrasting those who disagreed (rating between 1-3) and those who agreed (rating between 5-7). By focusing on these two groups, the explanations of those who rated "4" are not described, however a sense of these responses can be gleaned from the table of total responses. As a consequence of comparing those who agree and disagree, some response categories will have "0" responses.

Chapter Five drew attention to the polarities or dilemmas that exist within the development principles used in this research, in particular the polarities of "taught-learned", "action-reflection", and "being-doing". The ability to handle polarity and ambiguity is increasingly

being seen as a key leadership skill (Zaleznik, 1977; Tichy and Devanna, 1986a; Hunt, 1991; Kaplan, Drath and Kofodimos, 1991; Johnson, 1992; Starratt, 1993a), therefore in describing the results, recognition or otherwise of the polarity within the principles will also be explored.

Results for each of the principles are provided in the following sections (9.3.2.1 - 9.3.2.6), beginning with “leaders cannot be developed on a week long course”.

9.3.2.1 Leaders cannot be developed on a week long course.

The mean response to this principle was 5.47, with a standard deviation of 1.93. 64.2% of respondents strongly agreed (6-7) that leaders cannot be developed in a week, with nearly three quarters (73%) of respondents rating between 5-7. 11.7% strongly disagreed (1-2) with the statement that leaders cannot be developed in a week, with 18.9% rating between 1-3. That is, nearly three quarters do not believe that leaders can be developed in a week, with nearly a fifth stating that they can be developed in a week.

Table 9.7 provides the summary responses for the comments section of this principle.

Table 9.7
Total Responses for Question 2.5
Leaders Cannot Be Developed On A Week-Long Course

Response Categories	% of Responses	Total Group %
Cannot Be Developed in this Time		36.2
Not Developable in a Week	14	
Long Term/Takes A Life Time	22.2	
Principles/Concepts Can Be Instilled But Not Practice	15.9	15.9
More to Development Than Courses	15.7	15.7
Helps/Enhances/Contributes	17.3	17.3
Depends on Person	9.5	9.5
Depends on External Factors		2.1
General	1.7	
Development Programme	0.4	
Can Be Developed in this Time	1.6	1.6
Can't Develop Leaders	1.7	1.7
	100	100
432 Respondents	n = 706	

9.3.2.1.1 "Agree" Responses

Table 9.8 outlines the "agree" responses.

Table 9.8
 Agree (5-7) Responses for Question 2.5
 Leaders Cannot Be Developed On A Week-Long Course

Response Categories	% of Responses	Total Group %
Cannot Be Developed in this Time		44.2
Not Developable in a Week	17.9	
Long Term/Takes A Life Time	26.3	
Principles/Concepts Can Be Instilled But Not Practice	16.7	16.7
More to Development Than Courses	16.7	16.7
Helps/Enhances/Contributes	12.5	12.5
Depends on Person	6.2	6.2
Depends on External Factors		1.9
General	1.5	
Development Programme	0.4	
Can Be Developed in this Time	0	0
Can't Develop Leaders	1.8	1.8
	100	100
291 Respondents	n = 480	

Of those that rated between 5-7, 44.2% stated that it could not be developed in a week, or that it takes a long-term approach, and often a life-time to develop. 16.7% argued that the principles or concepts of leadership could be instilled, but not the practice; and 16.7% said that there is more to leadership development than courses. Of those who stated that there is more to leadership development than courses, the majority mentioned the importance of experience, and the need for follow-up. Other responses included the need for nurturing and coaching; that a new attitude is required for leadership hence more than a course is needed to make the change; and that some of the skills and abilities are inherent. 12.5% of those who agreed (5-7) felt that while leaders could not be developed on a week long course, that it certainly helped, enhanced or contributed to the development of leadership.

9.3.2.1.2 “Disagree Responses”

Table 9.9 outlines the “disagree” responses.

Table 9.9
Disagree (1-3) Responses for Question 2.5
Leaders Cannot Be Developed On A Week-Long Course

Response Categories	% of Responses	Total Group %
Cannot Be Developed in this Time		17.6
Not Developable in a Week	4.4	
Long Term/Takes A Life Time	13.2	
Principles/Concepts Can Be Instilled But Not Practice	15.4	15.4
More to Development Than Courses	14.7	14.7
Helps/Enhances/Contributes	26.5	26.5
Depends on Person	17.6	17.6
Depends on External Factors		2.3
General	1.5	
Development Programme	0.8	
Can Be Developed in this Time	5.1	5.1
Can't Develop Leaders	.8	0.8
	100	100
432 Respondents	n = 706	

Rather than describe these results as those who “disagreed that leaders *cannot* be developed in a week”, this section will remove the double negative and express them as those responses that “believe leaders can be developed in a week”.

The highest percentage of those who believe that leaders can be developed in a week stated that a week long course helped, enhanced or contributed to the development of leaders

(26.5%). Representative comments include: “Any training in leadership is worthwhile”; “Short-term courses have their place in that they contribute to incremental development” and “Of course any programme for one week will develop leadership skills. But if you are asking if a leader who is at zero on a scale of 0-10, and ten being full competence, then one week is just a start. More development is required”.

The second highest rating category stated that it “depends on the person”. This accounted for 17.6% of “disagree” responses and included comments such as: “some could who are strong in some elements”; “not everyone can be developed as a leader in a week, but some people can”; and “depends on the potential of the person”.

That the “principles, but not the practice of leadership can be instilled in this time” accounted for 15.4% of responses and was the third highest ranking category. Representative comments include: “the ‘science’ of leadership can be introduced on a course, the ‘art’ comes after practice”; “Awareness only can be created. The skills need to practised”; and “attributes of leadership may be able to be identified on a short course, but application cannot”.

It is interesting to note that 13.2% of those who rated 1-3 (that is, leaders can be developed in a week) indicated in their comments that leadership development occurs over the long term, and 4.4% stated that leaders could not be developed in this time. These responses are clearly incongruent with their ratings and may indicate some confusion with the negative wording of the question, that is “*cannot* be developed”. If it is assumed that the comments are more representative of the executive’s intent than their rating, then it would indicate that a larger percentage of respondents intended to rate between 5-7.

9.3.2.1.3 Comparing “Agree” with “Disagree” Responses

Taking the responses as a whole, both those who agree and disagree tend to have a similar perspective, but expressed from different positions. These results further reinforce the value of the combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Those who agree that leadership *cannot* be developed in a week appear to be saying something like, “it is a long road to effective leadership, do not kid yourself that a week is going to take you there - it requires a combination of courses, ongoing experience, support and feedback. A course may be the start, but it’s definitely not *it*”. Those who agreed that leadership *can* be developed in a week appear to be saying something like, “a one week course can provide a useful contribution to the development of leaders, and often provides very powerful insights. A course can be a good way to take someone further down their development as a leader.”

1.8% of those who agreed (5-7) that leaders cannot be developed in a week did so because they believe that leaders cannot be developed at all. This position that leaders cannot be developed at all was taken by 1.7% of total responses. There was also a small percentage of total respondents (9.5%) that qualified their answer stating that it depended on the person. This category contained a large number of people who stated that the raw material had to be there, and that in some cases, no amount of development would succeed in making some people a leader. This position accounted for 6.2% of those who agreed (5-7) and 17.6% of those who disagreed (1-3). It can be seen that the respondents who believe that leadership is innate, are split in two categories. The first disagree with the principle and argue that because of the inherent nature of leadership it takes much longer than a week to develop. The second argue that because it is inherent, those with it can benefit from a week’s worth of development, as development is about honing what is already there.

In summary, the comment made by one respondent that, “you cannot develop a leader in a week, but you can contribute to the ongoing development of a leader in one week” provides a good overall summary of the responses to this principle.

9.3.2.2 *Leadership cannot be taught in the traditional sense, it must be learned through personal experience, experimentation, and feedback.*

This principle received a slightly lower mean response than the previous one, with a mean value of 5.2, and a standard deviation of 1.56. Nearly half (48.1%) of surveyed executives strongly agreed that leadership must be learned, with 68% rating between 5-7. Only 6.1% strongly disagreed (1-2) with this principle, with 13.8% rating between 1-3.

Table 9.10 provides the total responses for the comments section of this principle.

Table 9.10
Total Responses for Question 2.6
Leadership Cannot Be Taught in the Traditional Sense, It Must Be Learned
Through Personal Experience, Experimentation, and Feedback

Response Categories	% of Responses	Total Group %
Agree	9.7	9.7
Teaching A Necessary Part of Development	14.9	17.3
Principles can be taught	2.4	
Provides Direction/Framework/Context	1.8	1.8
"Both/And"		60.8
Taught and Learned	29.5	
Principles Taught Then Applied	13.7	
Experience Only Not Enough	2.0	
Teaching Only Not Enough	15.6	
Innate		10.4
General Innate Statement	3.8	
Innate, Enhanced by Training and/or Experience	6.6	
	100	100
391 Respondents	n= 424	

9.3.2.2.1 "Agree" Responses

Table 9.11 highlights the "agree" responses for this principle.

Table 9.11
Agree (5-7) Responses for Question 2.6
Leadership Cannot Be Taught in the Traditional Sense, It Must Be Learned
Through Personal Experience, Experimentation, and Feedback

Response Categories	% of Responses	Total Group %
Agree	15.8	15.8
Teaching A Necessary Part of Development	15	16.7
Principles Can Be Taught	1.7	
Provides Direction/Framework/Context	2.0	2.0
"Both/And"		54.6
Taught and Learned	15.8	
Principles Taught Then Applied	12.9	
Experience Only Not Enough	1.3	
Teaching Only Not Enough	24.6	
Innate		10.9
General Innate Statement	4.6	
Innate, Enhanced by Training and/or Experience	6.3	
	100	100
221 Respondents	n= 240	

Nearly a quarter (24.6%) of those rating between 5-7 stated that "teaching only is not enough". This included a range of responses including comments such as "it is a personal development experience"; "all theory and no 'hands on practice' has not demonstrated leadership to me"; and "leaders don't necessarily need a good academic record". 15.8%

made some comment that affirmed the principle without any additional reasoning; 15.8% argued that leadership development required *both* teaching *and* learning. “Teaching and learning are a two way street”, “there has to be a balance between the two”, and “a bit of both, some things can be taught but application comes later through experience, experimentation, etc.” are representative of the comments made.

15% agreed with the principle but stated that teaching was also a necessary part of development. This included comments such as “you can through teaching point them in the right direction”; “teaching is a part of a development process”; and “appropriate teaching can raise the level of leadership”.

9.3.2.2.2 “Disagree” Responses

Table 9.12 provides the “disagree” responses for this principle.

Table 9.12
Disagree (1-3) Responses for Question 2.6
Leadership Cannot Be Taught in the Traditional Sense, It Must Be Learned
Through Personal Experience, Experimentation, and Feedback

Response Categories	% of Responses	Total Group %
Agree	2.7	2.7
Teaching A Necessary Part of Development	21.9	24.6
Principles Can Be Taught	2.7	
Provides Direction/Framework/Context	2.9	2.9
"Both/And"		61.6
Taught and Learned	47.9	
Principles Taught Then Applied	8.2	
Experience Only Not Enough	5.5	
Teaching Only Not Enough	0	
Innate		8.2
General Innate Statement	2.7	
Innate, Enhanced by Training and/or Experience	5.5	
	100	100
72 Respondents	n= 73	

Taking those who disagreed (1-3) with the principle, those indicating that leadership is “taught and learned” dominated these responses, accounting for 47.9%. The next largest category of responses accounted for 21.9% of the “disagree” responses and indicated that “teaching is a necessary part of leadership”. All other responses received less than 10% of the total that disagreed.

9.3.2.2.3 Comparing “Agree” and “Disagree” Responses

What is interesting is that the top response categories for both those who agree and those who disagree with the principle are similar. That is, the same reasoning by executives is used to explain apparently opposite positions. These results can, in part, be explained using the polarity framework. It would appear from the comments, that rather than choosing learning over teaching, executives believe that *both learning and teaching* are necessary.

Five response categories could be considered polarity positions. These categories are “teaching is a necessary part of development”, “taught and learned”, “experience only not enough”, “principles taught then applied”, and “teaching only not enough”. Implied, or directly stated, in all these responses is that either pole on its own is insufficient. Of those who agreed that leadership cannot be taught, but must be learned, nearly seven-tenths (69.6%) clarified their rating with one of these polarity statements. Interestingly, 83.5% of those who disagreed (rated between 1-3) did so because of a polarity position. In fact, the three highest ranking responses were all polarity responses. These results indicate that executives, explicitly or implicitly, recognise the polarity. While forced to choose between the two in their ratings, the majority of respondents for both those who agreed and those who disagreed, choose to qualify their answers with a polarity statement.

In summary, taking the responses as a whole, three quarters (75.7%) of respondents indicate a polarity position. Therefore, while 68% agreed with the statement that “leadership cannot be taught in the traditional sense, but must be learned through personal experience, experimentation, and feedback”, this result does not accurately reflect the position held by executives. It is possibly more accurate to state that 75.7% of all executives surveyed believe that leadership must be *both taught and learned*. As one executive stated, “teaching and learning are not mutually exclusive - they are complementary”, thus a “combination of both is essential”.

9.3.2.3 *Leaders must be able to take sustained, decisive action.*

This is the first of two questions which explore the polarity between action and reflection. The polarity will be explored after the description of the reflection results in section 9.3.2.4.3.

The mean responses for “leaders must be able to take sustained, decisive action” was 5.89, with a standard deviation of 1.28. 71.2% strongly agreed (6-7) that leaders take sustained, decisive action, with 86.4% rating between 5-7. A very small percentage (2.4%) strongly disagreed (1-2) that leaders take sustained, decisive action. The percentage raising only slightly to 6.4% when those rating between 1-3 are considered. These results shows a high degree of agreement amongst executives with regard to leaders taking action.

Table 9.13 provides a summary of the total responses for the comments made for this principle.

Table 9.13
 Total Responses for Question 2.7
 Leaders Must Be Able to Take Sustained, Decisive Action

Response Categories	% of Responses	Total Group %
Situational		14.9
When Appropriate	9.6	
Sometimes Not Taking Action is Best	5.3	
After Consultation/Listening	11.4	11.4
Agree		34.6
Yes, Agree	30.1	
Key/Essence of Leadership	4.5	
Considered Action - Not From the Hip	9.4	9.4
Yes, But Able to Change	5.1	5.1
Encourage Others To Take Action		15.1
Inspire Others to Take Action	10.2	
Provide Environment	0.7	
Take Others with Them	2.4	
Make Decision, Others Implement	1.8	
Not Sustained	0.4	0.4
Consistent Action	3.1	3.1
Persevere/Handling Setbacks/ Failings/ Mistakes	2.7	2.7
Provide Example	3.3	3.3
	100	100
348 Respondents	n = 449	

9.3.2.3.1 Agree Responses

Table 9.14 highlights the responses of those who rated their agreement between 5-7.

Table 9.14
 Agree (5-7) Comments for Question 2.7
 Leaders Must Be Able to Take Sustained, Decisive Action

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Situational		11.7
When Appropriate	8.3	
Sometimes not taking action is best	3.4	
After Consultation/ Listening	10.3	10.3
Agree		41.6
Yes, Agree	35.9	
Key/Essence of Leadership	5.7	
Considered Action - Not From the Hip	10.0	10
Yes, But Able to Change	4.0	4
Encourage Others to Take Action		11.5
Inspire Others to Take Action	7.7	
Provide environment	0.3	
Take Others with Them	2.6	
Make Decision, Others Implement	0.9	
Not Sustained	0.2	0.2
Consistent Action	3.6	3.6
Persevere/Handling Setbacks/ Failings/ Mistakes	3.1	3.1
Provide Example	4	4
	100	100
269 Respondents	n = 351	

Exploring those who agreed (5-7), 41.6% reinforced the principle without elaborating further; either simply reinforcing their agreement with the principle or highlighting that taking action is the “key/essence” of leadership.

The second largest agreement response was that leaders take action when appropriate, which also includes the category of response that highlights that “sometimes not taking action is best.” These respondents are, in effect, qualifying their agreement by indicating that “taking sustained, decisive action” is not always appropriate or necessary as a leader. The third, fourth and fifth highest ranking response also provide qualifying statements. They qualify their agreement with the principle by stating that “leaders encourage others to take action”(11.5%); that leaders take decisive action “after consultation/listening with others” (10.3%) and that they take “considered action, not from the hip” (10%).

That leaders encourage others to take action seems, on the surface, to contradict the principle. However, in this context, the response could act as a qualifying statement as the following responses indicate: “As and when necessary, but it may be delegated to others by the leader”; “others may take the action”; and “they must also be prepared to delegate and encourage others to take actions”. In short, these executives agree with the principle but believe that it is incomplete in that the leader need not take the action themselves, however it is the leader’s responsibility to ensure that action occurs.

9.3.2.3.2 Disagree Responses

Exploring the comments of those that disagreed (1-3) that “leaders take sustained, decisive, action” it must be noted that the sample size is very small ($n = 32$). Table 9.15 provides the responses outlined by these executives.

Table 9.15
Disagree (1-3) Comments for Question 2.7
Leaders Must Be Able to Take Sustained, Decisive Action

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Situational		10.2
When Appropriate	5.1	
Sometimes not taking action is best	5.1	
After Consultation/ Listening	5.0	5.0
Agree		0
Yes, Agree	0	
Key/Essence of Leadership	0	
Considered Action - Not From the Hip	10.3	10.3
Yes, But Able to Change	10.3	10.3
Encourage Others to Take Action		59
Inspire Others to Take Action	38.5	
Provide environment	5.1	
Take Others with them	2.6	
Make Decision, Others Implement	12.8	
Not Sustained	2.6	2.6
Consistent Action	2.6	2.6
Persevere/Handling Setbacks/ Failings/ Mistakes	0	0
Provide Example	0	0
	100	100
32 Respondents	n = 39	

The largest category of responses (as highlighted in bold) accounts for well over half of those who rated between 1-3 on the “leaders must take sustained, decisive action” principle. These executives indicate that rather than leaders taking action, leaders should have the

ability to *encourage others to take action*. In particular, this includes the ability to *inspire* others to take action, which was the largest single individual response category (38.5%). This includes comments which directly state that leaders should inspire others such as, “They must inspire action”, but also includes similar concepts such as “empower”, “motivate”, “encourage”, and “enable” others to take sustained, decisive action. One respondent provides an interesting metaphor, “The leader is the flint that sparks the management action”. As well as capturing the tone of these responses well, the comment also highlights a leadership/management polarity where leaders create the vision and inspire others towards it, while managers implement this vision. A similar comment was made by another respondent in this category who said, - “No, leave that to managers. Leaders must create the vision - be inspirational”.

The category of encouraging others to take action also includes the notion that leaders make the decisions, but that others take the action (12.8%). This clearly has the focus on others taking action, although instead of the emphasis being on inspiring others to action, the focus is on making decisions that others implement. This category includes comments such as “Leaders don’t necessarily need to act at all - but I consider that many are decisive”, and “at the end of the day the buck stops with them - but a good leader will take the group with them”. The other responses within the category of encouraging others to take action include providing the environment for taking action, and that leaders carry others with them in the actions they take.

Two categories share second place, each receiving 10.3% of the responses. These categories are that “leaders take considered action, not from the hip” and “yes, leaders take sustained, decisive action, but they are able to change their minds”. The latter response includes comments such as, “A leader in a war may have to do this. Other leaders may need to be more flexible in terms of the sustained”; and “Leaders become good by taking action and then recognising when it was incorrect and then learning from that decision”. These comments indicate that these executives believe that the words “consistent” and “sustained” connote rigidity and inflexibility of action. As a consequence they qualify the stated principle and reduce their agreement accordingly.

That leaders take considered action, shows some recognition of the polarity between action and reflection. The following comments indicate that these executives are conscious of the interdependence between action and reflection: “not necessarily, they must be flexible, test the possible consequences, demonstrate evaluative analysis before decisive action”; “Think more”; and “Usually - although at times a leader will need to weigh up options within the context of overall strategic direction”.

The fourth largest group of response is that leaders take sustained, decisive action only when appropriate. That is, this ability to take action is not a defining characteristic of leaders, in fact, “to decide not to take quick and decisive action may, in some circumstances, be the sign of a good leader”.

In summary, the reasons most often put forward by those who disagree with the principle that leaders take sustained, decisive action are that leaders should inspire others to take action; that they should take considered action; that they be open to changing their actions rather than sustaining bad decisions; and that sometimes not taking action shows more leadership.

9.3.2.3.3 Comparing “Agree” and “Disagree” Responses

Comparing the responses of those who disagreed with those who agreed with this principle, it is interesting that 59% of those who disagreed, did so as they believe that leaders should encourage others to take action. Only 11.5% of those who agreed indicated this response. While it is difficult to draw any definitive conclusions due to the small sample size, this category shows the greatest differential, and may indicate the major difference in thinking between those who agree and disagree.

One possible reason for this difference can be provided by further analysis of the size of organisations from which these executives come. Analysis of those who disagreed because leaders should inspire others to action shows that 72.1% of these respondents come from organisations with 100+ employees. This is larger than the 59.9% of those who agreed, and

the 58.8% of organisations in the total sample that have 100+ employees. This could, in part explain the difference, as in larger organisations the leaders role may be seen to be more indirect, that is through others, whereas in smaller organisations, a more “hands-on” approach is required.

Despite the action-reflection polarity being separated across two questions, there are some responses which could be considered polarity responses. These included the categories of “when appropriate/situational”; “sometimes not taking action is best”; “after consultation/listening” and “considered action - not from the hip”. These categories accounted for 32% of the those who agreed (5-7), and 25.5% of those who disagreed (1-3) that leaders must be able to take sustained, decisive action.

In summary, the majority of executives (86.4%) believe that leaders take sustained, decisive action. Nearly half of those agreeing simply reinforced that this aspect was important. The rest qualified their agreement with statements such as, “take action when appropriate”, “sometimes not taking action is best”, “leaders inspire others to take action”, “after consultation with others” and take “considered action, not shooting from the hip”. Those that disagreed with this principle mainly did so on the basis that leaders should have the ability to encourage *others to take action*. In particular, leaders should have the ability to *inspire* others to take action (38.5% of disagree responses).

9.3.2.4 *Leaders must be reflective ie. think carefully and deeply about what they do, how they do it, and why they do it.*

Rating the second part of the action-reflection polarity, the mean response is lower than that for the action principle, having a mean value of 5.5 and a standard deviation of 1.5. 58.9% strongly agreed (6,7) that leaders must be reflective. This figure increases to 76.5% when all responses between 5 and 7 are considered. These figures are lower than the equivalent action ratings by 12.3% and 9.9% respectively. This indicates that while both action and reflection are well regarded, action is more strongly associated with leadership.

Table 9.16 highlights the total responses for this question.

Table 9.16
Total Responses for Question 2.8
Leaders Must Be Reflective ie. Think Carefully and Deeply
About what They Do, How They Do It, and Why They Do It

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
General “Yes” Statement	9.2	9.2
Not at the Expense of Action		27.5
Combined with Action	8.2	
Not if it Delays Decision/Action	15.6	
Not too Deeply/Introspectively	3.7	
Instinctively/Intuitively	13.9	13.9
But Not Always Possible	4.4	4.4
Necessary To See The “Big Picture”		10
Vision/Strategy Require It	4	
To See Implications and Effects	6	
Human Considerations Require It		9.2
Moral/Ethical Considerations Require It	6.2	
And Listen to Staff/Colleagues	3	
Positive Impact on Decisions		6.9
Essential to Making Good/Right Decisions	6.2	
Provides Confidence in Decision/Direction	.7	
Need to Be Self Aware/ Confident	2.2	2.2
Facilitates Learning	4.5	4.5
Sometimes/Depends on Situation/ Within Limits	7.7	7.7
No, Not Necessary	4.5	4.5
	100	100
337 Respondents	n = 403	

9.3.2.4.1 “Agree” Responses

Table 9.17 outlines the “agree” responses for this principle.

Table 9.17
Agree (5-7) Responses for Question 2.8
Leaders Must Be Reflective ie. Think Carefully and Deeply
About what They Do, How They Do It, and Why They Do It

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
General “Yes” Statement	12.7	12.7
Not at the Expense of Action		25.3
Combined with Action	7.3	
Not if it Delays Decision/Action	13.8	
Not too Deeply/Introspectively	4.2	
Instinctively/Intuitively	10	10
But Not Always Possible	4.2	4.2
Necessary To See The “Big Picture”		13.5
Vision/Strategy Require It	5.4	
To See Implications and Effects	8.1	
Human Considerations Require It		12.3
Moral/Ethical Considerations Require It	9.2	
And Listen to Staff/Colleagues	3.1	
Positive Impact on Decisions		9.3
Essential to Making Good/Right Decisions	8.5	
Provides Confidence in Decision/Direction	.8	
Need to Be Self Aware/ Confident	3.1	3.1
Facilitates Learning	5.8	5.8
Sometimes/Depends on Situation/ Within Limits	3.8	3.8
No, Not Necessary	0	0
	100	100
221 Respondents	n = 260	

Of those who rated between 5-7, the largest group of responses qualify their agree statement by noting, “not if it delays decision/action” or as long as it is “combined with action” and “not too deeply/introspectively”. Together these responses account for just over a quarter (25.3) of the “agree” statements. Representative statements include, “Reflection to be within bounds but not at the expense of taking action”; “Not too deeply, that’s pondering”; “But this is not to say they should take a long time to make a decision”; “It is sometimes better to make a wrong decision than to make no decision at all (Paralysis by Analysis)”; “As long as the thinking doesn’t replace the doing”; and “Provided this does not lead to procrastination and delays in action”. In essence, these executives are highlighting the polarity between reflection and action by stating their agreement with reflection, but noting its interdependence with, yet subordination to, action. The polarity will be discussed in more detail later.

There is also a time dimension which is important in these responses. This is particularly apparent in the category “not if it delays decisions/actions”. This includes a number of responses which indicate that timeliness of decisions, or speed of action, can be critical for the effectiveness of leadership. Therefore, reflection has its place but not if it delays decisions or actions. One executive provides a possible explanation for these comments when stating that a leader “must be able to balance quick decision making with quality of the decision”. It is possible that reflection is seen to enhance the quality of the decision, while also taking precious time and jeopardising quick, decisive action. This trade-off between quality and speed may explain why executives qualify their agreement with this principle by acknowledging the interdependence of reflection and action.

The second largest group of responses provide an indication as to why reflection is important. They explain their agree rating by commenting on the contribution reflection has to seeing the “big picture”, including the development of the “vision and strategy”, and understanding long term implications and effects. Comments include: “A leader must be able to project ahead 1-5 years”; “Need to be able to sum up the whole situation and grasp broad picture”; “The ability to stand back and look at the woods is very important”; and “Vision, values and strategy are the result of reflection and decision and action”. From these comments it can be seen that these executives believe that reflection “develops the

strategic perspective”. Understanding the “long term implications” is related to these comments to the extent that it is about the future of the organisation and the leader’s actions. It possibly also extends the principle in that, not only do leaders think carefully and deeply about the “what”, “how” and “why” of their actions, they also assess the long term implications of these actions. The following comments are illustrative of this: “One must always consider the likely implication of any decision”; “... need to be aware of the possible repercussions of actions”; “Plus the implications of their actions”. In summary, 13.5% of executives who agree that leaders must be reflective explain the efficacy of reflection as being its contribution to the big picture and future direction within an organisation.

The third largest category of responses provides another perceived benefit of reflection, in that reflection is important for the human, moral, and ethical aspects of leadership. Included in this category is the ability to “listen to staff and colleagues”. Together, these responses account for 12.3% of the responses. Within this group of responses there are three main thrusts. The first highlights that reflection contributes to the ability of the leader to work interpersonally and ethically - “This is getting closer to how a leader operates. He knows himself well enough to ‘assess’ human nature in differing circumstances”; “Knowing oneself is an important element in inspiring others to adopt your aims”; “The moral and ethical considerations are becoming even more important”; and “Ethically, they must be accountable”. The human and ethical issues are seen to be important because, as one executive put it, “we are dealing with people’s lives”. The second aspect adds the human dimension to the principle such that leaders not only think carefully about what *they* do, they must be “sensitive to *others* needs too”. This is reflected in comments such as: “And the effects on colleagues and clients”; and “they also need to think about how what they do affects their people.” Reflection should not only be focused on one’s own actions; as a leader there is the responsibility to consider others’ needs. The third theme relates to the role modelling aspect, evident in comments such as: “lead by example”; “set example”; “essential part of any coaching role which is directed at improving ... performance of others”. Collectively, these responses highlight that reflection is important because of its contribution to the “softer” issues of ethics, morals, and the people dimensions of work.

The fourth largest response group consists of only one category - “instinctively/intuitively” - and it accounts for 10% of the “agree” responses. Comments include: “Yes, but they also act instinctively sometimes, and successfully so”; “Some situations require reflection, others instinctive action”; “Not too reflective, play the hunches sometimes”; “Quick reactions, quick decisions, instinct, intuition are important”; “Often time does not permit this, intuition plays a vital role”; and “Sometimes it must be instinctive and risk taking. Not too much navel gazing.” It can be seen from these comments that, in many ways, they are related to the first category of “not if it delays decision/action”. It is possible that intuition or instinct are seen to complement reflection, or may even be the result of past reflection, that allows leaders to make effective decisions quickly, without the need for time-consuming reflection. In this sense, this category provides another qualification or extension to the agreement of this principle.

The fifth largest category highlights that reflection has a positive impact on decisions. This includes contributing towards the confidence in such decisions. These responses account for 9.3% of the agree responses. Representative comments include, “It helps focusing on the clarity of decisions”; “must make the right decision”; and “otherwise they could easily make incorrect and possibly disastrous decisions”.

In short, the majority of the agree responses qualified their agreement with statements that highlight the need to balance reflection with action, and in particular, timely action. The principle was also extended by executives to note that intuition and instinct play an important role. The other responses indicated that reflection contributes to the longer term perspective required of leaders; to the moral, ethical and people dimensions of leadership; and increases the quality of decisions made.

9.3.2.4.2 “Disagree” Responses

Table 9.18 summarises the “disagree” responses.

Table 9.18
 Disagree (1-3) Responses for Question 2.8
 Leaders Must Be Reflective ie. Think Carefully and Deeply
 About what They Do, How They Do It, and Why They Do It

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
General "Yes" Statement	0	0
Not at the Expense of Action		28.2
Combined with Action	6.3	
Not if it Delays Decision/Action	18.8	
Not too Deeply/Introspectively	3.1	
Instinctively/Intuitively	29.7	29.7
But Not Always Possible	3.0	3.0
Necessary To See The "Big Picture"		3.2
Vision/Strategy Require It	1.6	
To See Implications and Effects	1.6	
Human Considerations Require It		3.0
Moral/Ethical Considerations Require It	0	
And Listen to Staff/Colleagues	3.0	
Positive Impact on Decisions		1.6
Essential to Making Good/Right Decisions	1.6	
Provides Confidence in Decision/Direction	0	
Need to Be Self Aware/ Confident	0	0
Facilitates Learning	1.6	1.6
Sometimes/Depends on Situation/ Within Limits	9.4	9.4
No, Not Necessary	20.3	20.3
	100	100
55 Respondents	n = 64	

Of those who disagreed (rating between 1-3), the largest group said that leaders are more intuitive and instinctive, than reflective (29.7%). Representative comments include, “Successful leaders already know”; “Not necessarily so, many leaders are intuitive, with great charisma”; “Most of the best leadership is intuitive and based upon ability to relate to others”; and “They may act totally instinctively or intuitively”. Some of these responses are similar in intent to the “agree” responses in the same category. However, rather than qualify their agreement with the principle, these executives have chosen to disagree with the principle and use “intuition/instinct” as the explanation for such a rating. There is another theme within these responses that is different in intent from the corresponding “agree” responses. This relates to those comments that imply that leadership is innate - “Not necessarily, some have a flair for assessing quickly and deciding accurately”; and “many good leaders are naturally intuitive”. This implies that there is a naturalness to leadership, that does not require reflective effort. Reflection is therefore, not as important, as natural leaders already have an innate ability to make effective, timely decisions and/or take the necessary action.

28.2% of executives disagreed with this principle as a result of the polarity dimensions of “combined with action”, “not if it delays action” and “not too deeply/introspectively”. These responses are often similar to the corresponding “agree” statements, but sometimes reflect a stronger position such that reflection is rated low as it inhibits action. In essence, these executives are stating that the leaders primary job is to act, not reflect. As noted earlier, the polarity perspective will be explored in more detail later.

The third largest group of responses made some general comment which reinforced the fact that “no, reflection was not necessary”. This accounted for 20.3% of disagree responses.

9.3.2.4.3 Comparing “Agree” and “Disagree” Responses

Given the small sample size of the disagree (1-3) group, exploring the differences between those that agree and those that disagree must be made cautiously. What is striking about the two groups of responses is that two of the categories appear strongly in both the

responses of those who agree and those who disagree. The two categories are “instinctive/intuitive” and “combined with, or not at the expense of action”. The different use of instinctive/intuitive within the “agree” and “disagree” responses has already been highlighted in that a stronger innate theme to leadership is apparent in the disagree responses. The “combined with action” statements can be best explored by addressing the polarity between action and reflection.

The polarity between action and reflection was apparent during the design phase of the questionnaire and thus exploring the polarity was intended from the outset. It is interesting that the comments executives make, indicate that executives are aware, at least implicitly, of the interdependence between action and reflection. This in part, accounts for its strong representation on both the “agree” and “disagree” responses. In exploring the polarity between action and reflection further, a cross tabulation of the Likert scale ratings for both the action and reflection questions will be presented.

Table 9.19 shows the results of the cross-tabulation of action with reflection.

Table 9.19
Cross-tabulation of Action and Reflection Ratings

Reflection	7	.1	.5	.7	1.3	3.4	5.3	21.8
	6	0	.8	1.1	1.3	4	13.5	5
	5	0	.1	.7	.8	4.4	5.5	6.1
	4	0	.1	.9	2.5	1.5	3	2.6
	3	.1	0	.3	.5	1.7	2.6	3.3
	2	0	.1	.3	.8	.1	.9	.7
	1	.4	0	.1	0	.1	.1	.7
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Action								

Combining the responses at the extremes, provides a clearer sense of the nature of the polarity. Four positions were established (highlighted with bold lines). The first were those who thought that ‘neither’ action ‘nor’ reflection were important (rating 1 or 2 on both); the second were those who had an ‘action only’ mindset (rating 6 or 7 on action and a 1 or 2 on reflection). The third were those who held a ‘reflection only’ mindset (rating a 6 or 7 on reflection and a 1 or 2 on action). The final position is those who rated a 6 or 7 on both dimensions. These responses were considered to have a ‘both/and’ mindset. Table 9.20 provides a summary of these four positions.

Table 9.20
Extreme Polarity Positions Extracted from Action-Reflection Cross-Tabulation

	Reflection Only Mindset 1.4%		Both/And Mindset 45.6%
REFLECTION			
	Neither/Nor Mindset .5%		Action Only Mindset 2.4%
		ACTION	

In creating the extreme polarity positions it is acknowledged that just over half (50.1%) of the responses are not included. While reducing the representativeness of the total data, the framework does highlight clearly the extreme polarity positions. It is apparent from Table 9.20 that the ‘both/and’ position makes up the majority of the extreme positions. 45.6% of the total respondents rated high for both ‘leaders must be able to take sustained decisive action’ *and* that ‘leaders must be reflective ie. think carefully and deeply about what they do, how they do it, and why they do it.’ Less than 5% of total responses fall into the ‘only’

(action only and reflection only) or “neither/nor” mindsets. From this perspective, it can be seen that the “both/and” position is recognised by a sizable proportion of executives.

Looking at the two “only” positions, it appears that action is more strongly associated with leadership than reflection. However, as both percentages are small, a decisive trend one way or the other is difficult to assess. Taking a different perspective by using the full data from the cross-tabulation and calculating all ratings that favour action over reflection (to the right of the shaded boxes in Table 9.19), it can be seen that 35.6% of respondents have a higher rating for action than for reflection, whereas only 21.4% have a higher rating for reflection over action. This indicates a stronger connection between action and leadership, than reflection and leadership. However, both those who favour action over reflection, and those who favour reflection over action make up a smaller percentage than those who rate action and reflection equally (the shaded boxes). 43% of respondents have the same ratings for both action and reflection. The 7,7 combination and the 6,6 combination were the two highest single combinations accounting for 21.8% and 13.5% to the total responses respectively. The next highest single combination accounts was 5,7 (reflection/action) which accounted for 6.1% of total responses - 7.4% lower than the second combination of 6,6.

In summary, there is strong agreement with the principle that “leaders must be reflective ie. think carefully and deeply about what they do, how they do it, and why they do it”. The major reasons put forward are that reflection contributes to the longer term perspective required of leaders; to the moral, ethical and people dimensions of leadership; and increases the quality of decisions made. However, the largest category of agree responses qualified their agreement with statements that highlight the need to balance reflection with action, and in particular, timely action. The principle was also extended by executives to note that intuition and instinct play a role.

Of those who disagreed, the largest group said that leaders are more intuitive and instinctive, than reflective. While some of these responses captured a similar intent to the “agree” responses in the same category, others pointed towards the belief that reflection was not necessary as leaders are innately endowed with the ability to make effective decisions

and take effective action. That is, there is a naturalness to leadership, that does not require reflective effort. The second largest group of “disagree” responses highlighted the polarity dimensions of “combined with action”, “not if it delays action” and “not too deeply”. As the polarity statements featured strongly in both agree and disagree statements, the cross-tabulation of the action and reflection ratings was explored to provide additional insights. It was shown that the interdependence between action and reflection, or the requirement for both action and reflection, is recognised by the largest percentage of executives. It was also shown that action is the currently preferred, or currently dominant, pole.

9.3.2.5 Becoming a leader is about personal transformation ie. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts.

Of all the principles, this received the least support. This principle had a mean value of 4.53 and a standard deviation of 1.89. 37.7% strongly agreed (6-7) with this principle, with just over half (53.9%) rating between 5-7. 19.7% strongly disagreed that becoming a leader is about personal transformation, with 29.9% rating between 1-3.

Table 9.21 outlines the total responses for the comments made on this question.

Table 9.21
 Total Responses for Question 2.9
 Becoming A Leader is About Personal Transformation
 I.e. Fundamental Changes in the Way One Thinks, Feels, and Acts

Response Categories	% of Responses
General “Yes” Statement	9.9
General “No” Statement	4.6
Need to Change with Changing Circumstances	3.8
Develop What is Already There/ Have the Qualities Already in us	18
Developing/Growing Not Transformation	10.7
Self-awareness Important	6.2
From Self-focus to Focus on Others	4
Lifetime Journey	4
Where Transformation = Experience	2.1
Varies with Individual/Depends on Where You Start	17.4
Natural/Born/Instinctive Qualities	19.3
	100
342 Respondents	n = 373

Approximately equal numbers of agreeing (5-7) and disagreeing (1-3) respondents gave reasons for their answers. While the numbers are approximately equal, it should be kept in mind that this indicates that only 39.7% of those who rated between 5-7 provided a reason, while 61.9% of those who rated between 1-3 provided further explanation. However, relative to the other principles, this approximately equal split provides a stronger basis for the conclusions made regarding the differences between those who agree and disagree with this principle.

9.3.2.5.1 “Agree” Responses

Table 9.22 provides a summary of the “agree” responses.

Table 9.22
Agree (5-7) Responses for Question 2.9
Becoming A Leader is About Personal Transformation
I.e. Fundamental Changes in the Way One Thinks, Feels, and Acts

Response Categories	% of Responses
General “Yes” Statement	23.7
General “No” Statement	.7
Need to Change with Changing Circumstances	7.9
Develop What is Already There/ Have the Qualities Already in us	11.5
Developing/Growing Not Transformation	3.0
Self-awareness Important	7.9
From Self-focus to Focus on Others	6.5
Lifetime Journey	7.9
Where Transformation = Experience	4.3
Varies with Individual/Depends on Where You Start	16.5
Natural/Born/Instinctive Qualities	10.1
	100
133 Respondents	n = 139

23.7% of those who agreed (5-7) that becoming a leader is about personal transformation reinforced this principle with their explanation, but provided little further clarification. The next largest category of responses highlighted that the extent to which this principle applied “varied with the individual”, and depended to a large extent, on where the person was starting from (16.5%). Representative comments in this category include, “This depends on where one is starting from. A leader needs to understand where they are coming from,

this need not mean a change!"; "Depends on the base from which you are becoming a leader i.e. not much change may be necessary"; and "Depends where you're coming from. If you can't be trusted, then I agree. If you're a reasonable sort of guy with integrity and intelligence, less so". It is clear from these responses that executives are qualifying their agreement to this principle. Sometimes transformation is necessary, other times the person is already made of the "right stuff". The statement by one executive, "assuming you're not already a leader ..." sums it up well. Within these responses a few executives mention experience, cultural experiences, and early childhood as possible factors that may have already had an impact. However, on the whole, the rationale tends to be that leaders are born, and more pertinently, that people have, or are born with, differing capacities for leadership. Therefore, some require a significant transformation to become leaders, others are already there. It should not be overlooked that at least some executives imply that it is possible to transform those without natural abilities. However, responses to answers provided in the earlier question regarding "can leaders be developed" (Question 2.3) would indicate that this percentage is likely to be small.

11.5% clarified their answer by stating that while there is a personal transformation, it is transforming the qualities that already exist in the leader - those natural, born, instinctive qualities that leaders have. Such comments include: "Leaders are developed from people who have the natural charisma - all people do not possess leadership qualities"; "Some have innate ability that's to be developed; others fail"; and "Much of this would have to be lying dormant and ready to come to the surface". The fourth highest ranking category is closely related to this category as it states that leadership has "natural, born, instinctive qualities" (10.1%). Representative comments include: "To some people, leadership is a natural ability"; "Not necessarily - some people are natural leaders"; "Not necessarily. There are many examples of natural leaders". The difference between the two categories of responses is small. In the first category, executives are saying that the potential is inherent but needs to be developed whereas in the second category executives appear to be saying that leadership is natural and make no mention of the need for any development.

Taking these response categories as a whole, 38.3% of those respondents who agreed with this principle show a strong inclination to the "leader is born" school. To provide some

indication of the reasons why executives believe transformation is important, it is necessary to explore beyond the top three categories. Table 9.22 shows the responses for those that agree, and it can be seen that three categories receive 7.9% of executive responses, the fourth largest reasons for agreeing with this principle. Each of these themes will be explored.

The first category is that personal transformation is necessary so that leaders can “change with the changing circumstances”. Two themes are apparent with these responses. The first is that as things change, the leader must also change. This is evidenced in the following executives’ comments: “Must be self aware and willing to change if necessary, in a changing world”; “As leadership reflects society this is necessary. Leaders today are not necessarily leaders tomorrow”; and “People change, you change, the circumstances change. The leader must be constantly changing in order to keep up with current thinking”. The second theme is related, but is more future focused in that “becoming a leader is about personal transformation” because the leader needs to see new possibilities and move the organisation into the future. “Thinking within changing parameters - laterally and visionary. A change agent and people interactor”; “Must be able to identify/predict accurately new directions to take his followers to reflect/satisfy corporate goals”; and “Departure from traditional ways to future results” are comments that reflect this theme. Thus, personal transformation is important for both responding to the changing environment, as well as for moving the organisation forward in such an environment. Interestingly no “disagree” respondents indicated this category, thus it appears to be particular to those who agree that “becoming a leader is about personal transformation”.

“Self-awareness” is another reason put forward for agreeing that becoming a leader is about personal transformation. This includes comments such as: “Self awareness is important”; “Since the leader develops and communicates the vision, he/she must be very self aware to prevent too great a level of personal bias/filter operating”; and “Need to know yourself before you can effectively know and lead others”. These responses highlight some connection between transformation, personal self-awareness and effectiveness as a leader. This self awareness category also includes responses that indicate that confidence and awareness of one’s own ability to lead are important pre-requisites to leadership. “Unless

one feels a leader, they are not able to lead”; “A leader must be secure in his/her attitudes and aspirations”; and “We recognise leadership qualities in ourselves first” are representative of this theme. Thus, “personal transformation ie. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts” is seen to lead to increased self-awareness, which enhances one’s effectiveness as a leader, and is also important for raising an individual’s awareness of their leadership ability which consequently provides an increased confidence in their ability to lead.

Thirdly, executives agree that becoming a leader is about personal transformation as becoming a leader is a “lifetime journey”. These comments recognise that such a transformation is not a “one-shot deal” but rather a commitment to personal change and development. “A lifetime task”; “the transformation process never stops - even the best leaders learn from themselves and others”; and “it is one of the most difficult things to do well and it requires constant refining” are indicative of such a viewpoint. These comments also act as a qualifying statement; that the transformational process is not instant, but rather takes time. Representative comments of this point include: “It is a slow process of personal development”; “This is not an instant transformation but develops with experience, maturity, and training”; “It may be a slow process”; and “Yes, but probably a very gradual one”. Therefore, these executives agree that becoming a leader is about personal transformation and note that this transformation is both long-term and ongoing, as well as gradual.

In summary, of those that agreed that “becoming a leader is about personal transformation ie. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts”, the majority clarified their agreement by noting that the degree of transformation depended on the person, and on the qualities that the individual already possessed. That is, the transformation depended on the born or innate qualities of the individuals. The personal transformation was also seen to be important for assisting leaders to change with changing circumstances, and to develop an increased self-awareness. This transformation was not necessarily instant, but rather gradual and was not a single event but rather a lifetime process.

9.3.2.5.2 “Disagree” Responses

Table 9.23 outlines the responses of those who disagreed with this principle.

Table 9.23
Disagree (1-3) Responses for Question 2.9
Becoming A Leader is About Personal Transformation
I.e. Fundamental Changes in the Way One Thinks, Feels, and Acts

Response Categories	% of Responses
General “Yes” Statement	0
General “No” Statement	11.7
Need to Change with Changing Circumstances	0
Develop What is Already There/ Have the Qualities Already in us	22.6
Developing/Growing Not Transformation	19
Self-awareness Important	3.6
From Self-focus to Focus on Others	1.5
Lifetime Journey	2.9
Where Transformation = Experience	0
Varies with Individual/Depends on Where You Start	10.2
Natural/Born/Instinctive Qualities	28.5
	100
122 Respondents	n = 137

The reasons provided by those who disagreed (1-3) that becoming a leader is about personal transformation, are closely linked. 28.5% argued that it is not a transformation as the leadership qualities are natural, in-born or instinctive. 22.6% stated that rather than transformation, it is the development of the qualities that already exist, and 19% stated that becoming a leader is more about developing and growing than it is about transformation. A further 10.2% stated that it “varies with the individual”. It could be said that just over

four-fifths (80.3%) disagree because they believe that leaders are born or have innate characteristics, and that transformation is too strong a word as it implies that leaders can be created.

Most of these categories have been explored in the “agree” responses with the exception of “developing/growing, not transformation”. Representative comments include: “Transformation is a bit strong - if the skill is there it is an evolution or awakening”; “Whilst leaders can be developed, certain personal characteristics must already be present i.e. it is about development NOT transformation”; “Very few people will transform. They can modify their performance but not transform”; “A leader doesn’t change - he/she develops!”; “It’s more about developing than changing”; and “I think transformation is a little strong - there is personal development but not necessarily a personal transformation”. These comments show that this category of response is similar in nature to the above mentioned categories of “natural, born, instinctive” and “develop what is already there”. For these executives, transformation portrays a depth and nature of change that is too strong, and therefore “develop” and “grow” are more appropriate descriptions.

While it is not clear from the tables, the strength of reaction was stronger for this principle than for others. For example, the general “no” category included comments such as, “Bullshit”, “Impossible”, and “Absolute rubbish”. This question appears to have struck a chord in executives and has revealed that more executives believe that there is an innate component to leadership than indicated by the earlier question which asked “can leaders be developed?” This statement is supported by the fact that thirty-five executives made no mention of innate characteristics in their comments to “can leaders be developed” (question 2.3) and commented on this question (2.9). Of these 35 executives, 37.1% specifically highlighted the innate characteristics of leadership. From this small sample, it can be seen that the strength of the word “transformation” has elicited additional executives who believe that while leadership can be improved or developed, some innate characteristics must already exist.

9.3.2.5.3 Comparing “Agree” and “Disagree” Responses

Comparing the responses of those who agreed and those who disagreed with this principle, it is interesting to note the similarities between the two. The categories of “develop what is already there”, “depends on the individual”, and “natural/born/instinctive qualities” are amongst the highest mentioned categories for both. As with the “can leaders be developed” question, this principle has highlighted the innate characteristics of leadership, with executives taking similar explanatory positions for different agreement ratings. The general thrust of both are similar, in that some innate characteristics of leadership are necessary, therefore transformation is impossible for some, and not necessary for others.

The major distinguishing reasons between those who “agree” and those who “disagree” with this principle are that those who agree see personal transformation as being important for assisting leaders to “change with changing circumstances”, to develop an increased “self-awareness” and because developing as a leader is a “life-time journey”. Those who disagree did not rate these factors highly.

Two categories are highlighted by those who “agree” but are not mentioned by those who “disagree”. These categories are that personal transformation helps leaders “change with changing circumstances”, and that yes becoming a leader is about personal transformation, if “transformation = experience”.

In summary, the majority of those who agreed that “becoming a leader is about personal transformation ie. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts”, clarified their agreement by noting that the degree of transformation depended on the person, and on the qualities that the individual already possessed. The personal transformation was also seen to be important for assisting leaders to change with changing circumstances, and to develop an increased self-awareness. This transformation was not necessarily instant, but rather gradual and was not a single event but rather a lifetime process. For those executives that disagreed, transformation expressed too strong a change, and therefore “develop” and “grow” were considered more appropriate descriptions.

9.3.2.6 *Leadership is about being, not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one's values, motives, and assumptions.*

This principle received the highest level of support with a mean value of 6.05 and a standard deviation of 1.21. 78.9% strongly agreed (6-7) that leadership is about being, not just doing, with that percentage increasing to 90.7% when ratings between 5-7 are considered. In contrast, only 2.4% strongly disagreed with this principle, with 4.5% rating between 1-3.

Table 9.24 outlines the total responses for the comments made with this question.

Table 9.24
 Total Responses for Question 2.10
 Leadership is About Being Not Just Doing,
 Therefore Developing As a Leader Starts On the Inside
 With Ones Values, Motives and Assumptions

Response Categories	% of Responses	Total Group %
General “Yes” Statement	30.3	30.3
Effectiveness		10.5
Effectiveness with Other Requires it	6.0	
Effective Leadership Skills/Action Stems From it	4.5	
Credibility		16
Credibility Statements	5.2	
Congruency - Walk the Talk	5.6	
Set Example	5.2	
Self Knowledge Important	9.0	9
Character/Values/Personal Qualities Are the Foundation of Leadership	10.9	10.9
Born/Inherent	4.9	4.9
Being and Doing	7.9	7.9
Depends on Where Start From	6.4	6.4
General “No” Statement	1.9	1.9
Action is What Counts	1.9	1.9
Focus on Self is Detrimental	0.3	0.3
	100	100
248 Respondents	n = 267	

The number of respondents providing a reason for their rating is much lower than any other question (89 fewer respondents than the next lowest, and 184 fewer than the highest). This could be a reflection of the high agreement with the principle, which is evidenced by the

fact that over a third (34.5%) of those who agreed with the principle (5-7) put a comment that merely reinforced the principle. This being the last principle may have contributed to the low responses, with respondents becoming less inclined to comment.

9.3.2.6.1 "Agree" Responses

Table 9.25 outlines the responses of those who agreed with this principle.

Table 9.25
 Agree (5-7) Responses for Question 2.10
 Leadership is About Being Not Just Doing,
 Therefore Developing As a Leader Starts On the Inside
 With Ones Values, Motives and Assumptions

Response Categories	% of Responses	Total Group %
General “Yes” Statement	34.5	34.5
Effectiveness		12.8
Effectiveness with Others Requires it	7.3	
Effective Leadership Skills/Action Stems From it	5.5	
Credibility		18.2
Credibility Statements	5.9	
Congruency - Walk the Talk	6.4	
Set Example	5.9	
Self Knowledge Important	9.5	9.5
Character/Values/Personal Qualities Are the Foundation of Leadership	12.7	12.7
Born/Inherent	3.6	3.6
Being and Doing	5	5
Depends on Where Start From	2.3	2.3
General “No” Statement	.5	0.5
Action is What Counts	.9	0.9
Focus on Self is Detrimental	0	0
	100	100
203 Respondents	n = 220	

Exploring the comments of those who agreed that “leadership is about being, not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with ones values, motives, and assumptions”, the largest category of response was the “general ‘Yes’ statement” (34.5%).

The second highest ranking group of responses is the “credibility” group that includes general “credibility statements”, “congruency - walk the talk” and “set example”. Collectively these responses account for 18.2% of the “agree” responses and highlight that an inside-out approach to development is important as leaders must personally set an example, and live out their leadership. Representative comments from this group of responses include: “This helps give credibility to a leader - exhibits a sense of calm assurance, perhaps even charismatic qualities”; “A leader to be convincing and to sustain a particular direction must believe in and be comfortable to do that job”; “Doing without believing is hollow, people see it as ‘skin deep’”; “Cannot be a role - has to be genuine”; “Congruency is essential when you need people to trust you”; “Doing is shallow and transparent without being”; “the best leaders set high examples”; and “leaders set example”. Collectively, these responses allude to the fact that by focusing on one’s values, motives and assumptions helps a leader to set an example, and to be genuine and authentic, therefore increasing their credibility. This theme relates very closely to the third and fourth group of responses outlined below.

The third and fourth groups received a similar percentage of the “agree” responses (12.8% and 12.7% respectively). The third category of responses imply that *effectiveness* as a leader is a result of the being, not just doing nature of leadership. Developing one’s values, motives and assumptions increases both the effectiveness with others and the effectiveness of actions. The effectiveness with others accounts for the greatest proportion of these “effectiveness” responses (7.3%). Representative comments include, “Unless you have ‘got it right’ yourself, you can’t expect others to follow”; “leaders must be people oriented and enjoy achievement through and development of people”; “personal values to set a good example along with a essence to motivate self and then followers onto the right course”; “people do not follow where cross purposes are delivered. Won’t stay a leader very long”.

The fourth overall category is the second highest single category, accounting for 12.7% of “agree responses”. This category states that “character, values and personal qualities are the foundation of leadership”. Representative comments include: “There must be much depth to the character”; “one’s own character is an important determinant of leadership skills”; “many people are happy to be followers, therefore the motives of any leader are

important”; and “attitude, integrity, ability and personal qualities are a pre-requisite to leadership”. Put simply, as one executive did, these responses highlight that “the characteristics of the individual are important”.

The boundaries between the previously mentioned three groups are not as defined as the categories would suggest. In essence, these categories collectively imply that “leadership is about being, not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one’s values, motives, and assumptions” because the leader’s character has an impact on others and on the actions that the leader takes. In particular, the “others” dimension is important as expressed in “effectiveness with others”, “credibility” and “set an example”. One executive summarises it well, “leadership is only given if deserved”. A leader must therefore “have personal qualities that are respected by those who follow” explains another executive. Collectively, these themes account for the general thrust of the responses.

It is interesting to note that only 5% of those who agreed (5-7) made a polarity comment which highlighted that being and doing are necessary. This is perhaps a function of principle’s wording, such that “being not just doing” implies the polarity position already.

9.3.2.6.2 “Disagree” Responses

Table 9.26 summarises the “disagree” responses.

Table 9.26
Disagree (1-3) Responses for Question 2.10
Leadership is About Being Not Just Doing,
Therefore Developing As a Leader Starts On the Inside
With Ones Values, Motives and Assumptions

Response Categories	% of Responses	Total Group %
General “Yes” Statement	10.5	10.5
Effectiveness		0
Effectiveness with Others Requires it	0	
Effective Leadership Skills/Action Stems From it	0	
Credibility		0
Credibility Statements	0	
Congruency - Walk the Talk	0	
Set Example	0	
Self Knowledge Important	0	0
Character/Values/Personal Qualities Are the Foundation of Leadership	0	0
Born/Inherent	0	0
Being and Doing	10.5	10.5
Depends on Where Start From	10.5	10.5
General “No” Statement	26.3	26.3
Action is What Counts	26.3	26.3
Focus on Self is Detrimental	15.9	15.9
	100	100
19 Respondents	n = 19	

The very low number of respondents who rated between 1-3, and the even smaller number that commented, makes the generalisability and comparison with “agree” comments very difficult. Of those who disagreed (1-3), the two most frequently given reasons were “action

is what counts” and “general ‘No’ statement”. The “action is what counts” included statements such as “behaviour change results in attitude and value change, not the other way around”; “No, leaders are judged by their actions (we are not the thought police!)”; and “It is more important to do the right thing than to do the thing right - leadership is about learning from experience”; and “it is only by doing that you acquire values”. These executives believe that the principle is back to front, that is, outside-in development is what is required, as the doing or action component is what others assess, not the being (values, motives, or assumptions). Unlike the general “no” response categories in the previous principles, this category included the following variety of statements: “It is part of it but not all of it”; “maybe true for politicians/clergy who examine values/motives, for most leaders the inside is psychological - dominate the herd and animal values”; “More bullshit”; “I don’t believe anyone is a leader - they take it on as they would a suit in certain circumstances. How well they handle it depends on many of the above values, motives, and assumptions.” This variety of responses makes it difficult to generalise.

The third highest ranking response was that “focus on self is detrimental”. The comments made were, “but not just for the leader, the leadership must consider everyone concerned”; “Crap, the person who focuses on himself is lost before he starts”; and “leadership is about leading and therefore involves others”. These responses point to the relationship nature of leadership and indicate that, for these executives, this principle is too personally focused.

Two respondents rated between 1-3 and had a response that falls into the “general Yes statement”. Their comments were “Totally agree” and “Yes, and a whole host of other things”. The first comment is difficult to reconcile and may indicate a misreading of the principle, the second could highlight that while agreeing, “Yes”, the executive believes there are a host of factors, not just “being” that are important.

In summary, the few responses provided for those disagreeing have made it difficult to identify any strong patterns. The two strongest themes that emerge are that doing or action has an influence on being, not the other way around, and that this principle is too self focused for leadership, as leadership necessarily involves others.

Before summarising all the principles in Section 2.5, the following sections explore the differences in ratings between those who, in Question 2.3, indicated that “Yes leaders can be developed” (referred to as “developers”) and those who indicated that “No, leaders cannot be developed” (referred to as “non-developers”).

9.4 Exploring the Differences Between Those Who Stated “Yes Leaders Can Be Developed” and Those Who Stated “No, They Cannot”.

To explore the differences and similarities between those who answered question 2.3 with “yes, leaders can be developed” (“developers”) and those who answered “no, leaders cannot be developed” (“non-developers”), cross-tabulations of executives answers to question 2.3 were made against their rating of, and comments for, each of the principles.

The small number of those who indicated that leaders cannot be developed makes in-depth analysis of these comparisons difficult, however it is interesting to highlight possible themes. Conclusions drawn must be regarded as tentative due to the small sample size.

In-depth analysis of the cross-tabulated results was considered unnecessary, therefore aggregated versions of the cross-tabulations are provided such that all those ratings between 1-3 are classified as “disagree”, and all ratings between 5-7 as “agree”. All those rating a “4” are not considered in this analysis. Executives were separated into two categories, “developers” and “non-developers”. Thus the aggregated tables provide percentages for each combination of “disagree” and “agree” for “developers” and “non-developers”. A brief comparison of the comments made is also provided.

9.4.1 Leaders cannot be developed on a week long course.

Table 9.27 shows an abbreviated and aggregated summary of the cross-tabulation.

Table 9.27
Abbreviated Cross-Tabulation of Q2.3 and Q2.5

	Developers	Non-Developers
Disagree	19.6%	19%
Agree	72.1%	81%

Percentages are based on columns
i.e. 19.6% of developers disagreed that leaders cannot be developed on a week long course. Alternatively, 19.6% of developers believe that leaders can be developed in a week.

63.5% of “non-developers” rated 7 on this principle as compared with 45.1% of “developers”. It can be seen from Table 9.27 that the percentages are closer when all ratings between 5-7 are considered. Drawing conclusions from the ratings alone, it is reasonable to conclude that “non-developers” strongly agree with the principle that leaders cannot be developed in a week as they believe that they can not be developed at all. However, exploring the comments provides further insights. While 32.5% of “non-developers” reaffirm that it cannot be developed in this time or that it takes a lifetime to develop, only 10% explicitly mention that leaders cannot be developed; 20% believe that a week long course helps, and 15% argue that it depends on the person. These comments indicate that a third of “non-developers” believe that something can be done to improve the quality of a person’s natural leadership.

A much larger percentage of “developers” indicate that it takes a long time, even a lifetime, to develop. As would be expected, only those who agree that leaders can be developed indicated in their comments that leaders could be developed in this time, however the percentage that identified this is small (1.6%). Interestingly, 1.3% of those who believe that leaders can be developed indicated that “can’t develop” leaders for this principle, and 16.2% indicated that “there is more to development than courses”.

9.4.2 *Leadership cannot be taught in the traditional sense, it must be learned through personal experience, experimentation and feedback.*

Table 9.28 shows an abbreviated and aggregated summary of the cross-tabulation

Table 9.28
Abbreviated Cross-Tabulation of Q2.3 and Q2.6

	Developers	Non-Developers
Disagree	14.4%	8.5%
Agree	66.7%	84.7%
Percentages are based on columns i.e. 14.4% of developers disagree that leadership cannot be taught but must be learned.		

A much greater percentage of “non-developers” agree with this principle than “developers”. This is evidenced at both ends of the agreement scale with “non-developers” having fewer responses at the low end, and more at the high end. It is likely that this is true because the learned aspects highlighted in the principle do not imply a teaching or external component to the development of leadership and is therefore consistent with the view that leaders are innate and improve their ability over time. Whereas, “developers” are more likely to see the efficacy and value of “teaching” development. This is partially confirmed by comparing the comments made. 45.1% of “non-developers” indicated that there are innate aspects to leadership. 16.1% indicated that leadership is totally innate, 29% indicated that it is innate but improvable. Only 7% of “developers” highlighted the innate component, 2.7% indicating innate only, and 4.3% indicating that it is innate but improvable. Interestingly, this is a higher percentage of innate comments from the “developers” than the previous principle elicited. This is possibly brought about by the mention of the teaching aspect.

The next largest difference in comments is that “developers” rated the “both teaching and learning” category much more often than “non-developers”. In fact, by nearly a factor of two (63.6% and 32.2% respectively). It is perhaps more interesting that nearly a third of

“non-developers” place a value on “traditional” teaching. However, one would expect that this is seen only to be of value in enhancing existing leadership capacities.

9.4.3 *Leaders must be able to take sustained, decisive action.*

Table 9.29 shows an abbreviated and aggregated summary of the cross-tabulation

Table 9.29
Abbreviated Cross-Tabulation of Q2.3 and Q2.7

	Developers	Non-Developers
Disagree	6.5%	4.8%
Agree	86%	92%
Percentages are based on columns i.e. 6.5% of developers disagree that leaders must be able to take sustained decisive action		

“Non-developers” have stronger agreement with this principle than “developers”. This is particularly true at the high end where 59.7% of “non-developers” rated “7” as opposed to 38.1% of “developers”. This is also reflected in the comments made. 52% of “non-developers” indicated a “yes/agree” or “key/essence of leadership” comment as opposed to 33% of “developers”.

“Non-developers” had a much smaller range of comments when compared to the “developers” such that the following categories of responses were not indicated by “non-developers”:

- “after consultation/listening”
- “not sustained action”
- “consistent action”
- “persevere/handling setbacks/failings/mistakes”

While it is not possible to definitively explain these differences, the differences indicate that “developers” have more qualifications to their agreement than “non-developers”. These differences could possibly point to a greater awareness of the needs of others by “developers” than “non-developers”. The thinking behind this could be something like, “If leaders are born, then taking the right action is natural, and others need not be consulted. Whereas if leadership is not natural, then leaders must take consideration of others, be seen to be consistent, and make efforts to persevere despite setbacks.”

9.4.4 *Leaders must be reflective, ie think carefully and deeply about what they do, how they do it, and why they do it.*

Table 9.30 shows an abbreviated and aggregated summary of the cross-tabulation.

Table 9.30
Abbreviated Cross-Tabulation of Q2.3 and Q2.8

	Developers	Non-Developers
Disagree	11.8%	29%
Agree	77.4%	58.1%
Percentages are based on columns i.e. 11.8% of developers disagree that leaders must be reflective.		

This is the first principle that “non-developers” have less agreement than “developers”. Nearly two and a half times the number of “non-developers” indicate disagreement with this principle than “developers”. Interestingly, a greater percentage of “non-developers” rated a “7” than “developers” (40.3% and 32.5% respectively) although this changes once all agreement ratings between 5-7 are included.

Exploring the comments, the most likely explanation is that “non-developers” believe that leaders are more instinctive and intuitive than reflective. 26.7% of “non-developers” indicated this category as opposed to 12.7% of “developers”. This is consistent with

previous distinctions between the two groups in that “non-developers” have tended to attribute leadership development success to more natural phenomenon (such as intuition, instinct, and learning) as opposed to those factors requiring effort (such as reflection and teaching). However this is somewhat offset by the fact that a greater percentage of “non-developers” indicated that reflection is “essential to making good/right decisions” (16.7% compared to 5.7%).

Both “developers” and “non-developers” have a roughly equal emphasis on reflection not being at the expense of action (16.4% and 13.3% respectively).

“Developers” include the following categories of responses which “non-developers” do not:

- “provides confidence in the decision/direction”
- “moral/ethical/human considerations require it”
- “need to be self aware/confident”

While it is not possible to definitely explain these differences, it is clear that “developers” see a greater range of benefits to reflection than “non-developers”. The benefits highlighted include increased confidence as a leader, and better personal and interpersonal abilities. It is possible that natural leaders are not seen to require the same personal and interpersonal focus as they are naturally gifted in these areas.

9.4.5 *Becoming a leader is about personal transformation, i.e. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts.*

Table 9.31 shows an abbreviated and aggregated summary of the cross-tabulation.

Table 9.31
Abbreviated Cross-Tabulation of Q2.3 and Q2.9

	Developers	Non-Developers
Disagree	27.3%	52.5%
Agree	56.7%	28.9%
Percentages are based on columns i.e. 27.3% of developers disagree that becoming a leader is about personal transformation		

As would be expected, a much greater percentage of “developers” than “non-developers” agree with this principle. Over half (52.5%) of non-developers disagree, with 42.3% rating either a “1” or “2”. Transformation is clearly too strong a word for ‘non-developers’. However, it is also the principle that received the lowest percentage of agree responses from the “developers”.

Interestingly, the highest ranking comments made by both developers and non-developers are similar (see Table 9.32). These percentages are taken from additional analysis conducted on the cross-tabulated results, and do not relate to the percentages in the earlier tables.

Table 9.32
Highest Ranking Comments for “Developers” and “Non-Developers”

Developers		Non-Developers	
Varies with individual	18.8%	Develop what is already there	18.8%
Develop what is already there	18.8%		
Natural/born/instinctive qualities	17.3%	Natural/born/instinctive qualities	40.6%
Developing/growing not transformation	10.2%	Developing/growing not transformation	15.6%
TOTAL	65.1%	TOTAL	75%

While similar, it is true to say that “non-developers” are much more strongly aligned with the innate point of view than “developers”. The “non-developers” tend to be much more “black and white”, with a large percentage effectively saying that becoming a leader is not about personal transformation, but is rather innate. The “developers” still have a strong innate component, but the degree to which this is expressed is “greyer” in that they recognise some innate characteristics but allow more scope for development. This is inferred from the category, “varies with the individual”. These comments acknowledge a greater level of development than is implied by the “non-developers”.

9.4.6 *Leadership is about being, not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one’s values, motives, and assumptions.*

Table 9.33 shows an abbreviated and aggregated summary of the cross-tabulation.

Table 9.33
Abbreviated Cross-Tabulation of Q2.3 and Q2.10

	Developers	Non-Developers
Disagree	4.7%	3.3%
Agree	91%	91.8%
Percentages are based on columns i.e. 4.7% of “developers” disagree that “leadership is about being, not just doing therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside.		

The overwhelming agreement with this principle is evident from both “developers” and “non-developers” ratings. In fact, no “non-developers” rated either a “1” or “2”. The highest rating comments for both groups was “yes, agree” and “character/values/personal qualities are the foundation”. Thus, both groups acknowledge an important “being” component to leadership and leadership development.

Some differences in the comments did occur however. 9.7% of “developers” highlighted that starting on the inside with one’s values, motives, and assumptions is useful as “self-knowledge” is important, whereas no “non-developers” made such a comment. The same is also true of “effectiveness with others requires it”, “effective leadership action stems from it”, and “action is what counts”. The first two categories (self-knowledge and effectiveness with others) are similar to two of the distinguishing comments made on the reflection principle (self-awareness and moral/ethical/human considerations) . It would appear that “developers” see a greater need for such characteristics. On the whole, the self-knowledge aspect is more strongly valued by “developers”. This is further supported by the fact that no “developers” stated that “focus on self is detrimental” whereas 6.7% of “non-developers” did.

It is also interesting that no “developers” or “non-developers” specifically mentioned that they disagreed because leaders are born, while 3.6% of those who agreed (5-7) did mention that the leaders values, motives, and assumption are born/inherent. In summary, it can be seen this principles aligns with the thinking of both “developers” and “non-developers”.

9.5 Summary

In summary this chapter addressed two major leadership development issues. The first was “Can leaders be developed”. While contested in other disciplines, within current organisational literature the issue of whether leaders can be developed is unequivocally “yes, they can be” (Rost, 1991). On the surface, executives’ responses show a similar strength of conviction that leaders can be developed with 91.4% of executives stating “yes, leaders can be developed”, and 8.6% saying “no”. This result indicates that the overwhelming majority of executives believe that something can be done to develop or improve the quality of leadership within their organisations. However, examining explanations to the question “can leaders be developed?”, highlights that for 50% of executives, this statement is a qualified “yes”. It is qualified in the sense that there are born/innate factors to leadership, and by implication, not all people have the same innate

ability to lead, and consequently they will not all realise a high level of leadership ability. Less than a third of executives argued that leaders are made in the pure sense of the word. It would appear that the majority view is that leadership can be improved, but not created. It is also clear that the development and born versus made issues are tightly interwoven in executives' thinking. These results are important as the assumptions executives make regarding the possibility of developing leaders impact on their attempts and efforts to develop leaders (Kotter, 1990a); and this research has indicated that a large percentage of executives believe that there is something that can be done to develop, or more accurately improve, the quality of leadership within those individuals that have some innate ability.

The second addressed "leadership development principles". In exploring executives' perceptions of leadership development principles, two approaches were taken. The first asked executives to indicate on which principles they believe leadership should be developed. The second examined executives' reactions to the five key leadership development principles identified by Koestenbaum (1991).

The responses to the question regarding the principles upon which leaders should be developed comprised of two themes. The first described the processes that should be used, with the major methods including experience, training, and support and encouragement, particularly through the medium of a mentor. The second described the essential skills or character traits that leadership development should address. These included people skills, knowledge and thinking skills and direction setting abilities. Character traits included credibility, positiveness and confidence, and empathy. Collectively executive's indicated that effective leadership development would comprise various learning methodologies incorporating mentors, training, and actual experience as well as blend the development of skills and character.

Table 9.34 summarises the agreement received by each of Koestenbaum's (1991) leadership development principles.

Table 9.34
Summary of Strength of Agreement with Development Principles

Principle	Mean	Strongly Agree (6-7)	Agree (5-7)	Overall Rank
Cannot be developed in a week	5.467	64.2%	73.0%	4
Cannot be taught, must be learned	5.204	48.1%	68.0%	5
Leaders take sustained, decisive action	5.885	71.2%	86.4%	2
Leaders must be reflective	5.500	58.9%	76.5%	3
Becoming a leader is about personal transformation	4.527	37.7%	53.9%	6
Leadership is being not just doing	6.048	78.9%	90.7%	1

The principle that received the strongest level of agreement was that “leadership is about being not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one’s values, motives, and assumptions”. In essence, these responses collectively implied that the leader’s character is important because it has an impact on others and on the actions that the leader takes. Two executive’s comments summarise the theme well. They state that “leadership is only given if deserved” and therefore the leader must “have personal qualities that are respected by those who follow”.

The second highest rated principle was that “leaders must be able to take sustained, decisive action”. Nearly half of those agreeing simply reinforced that this aspect was important. The rest qualified their agreement with statements such as, “take action when appropriate”, “sometimes not taking action is best”, “leaders inspire others to take action”, “after consultation with others” and take “considered action, not shooting from the hip”. Those that disagreed with this principle mainly did so on the basis that leaders should have the ability to encourage *others to take action*. In particular, leaders should have the ability to *inspire* others to take action.

That “leaders must be reflective ie. Think carefully and deeply about what they do, how they do it, and why they do it” was the third highest ranking principle. The major reasons put forward were that reflection contributes to the longer term perspective required of leaders; contributes to the moral, ethical and people dimensions of leadership; and increases the quality of decisions made. However, the largest category of “agree” responses qualified their agreement with statements that highlighted the need to balance reflection with action, and in particular, timely action. The principle was also extended by executives to note that intuition and instinct play a role. Of those who “disagreed”, the largest group said that leaders are more intuitive and instinctive, than reflective. That is, there is a naturalness to leadership, that does not require reflective effort. The second largest group of “disagree” responses highlighted the polarity dimensions of “combined with action”, “not if it delays action” and “not too deeply”. As the polarity statements featured strongly in both agree and disagree statements, the cross-tabulation of the action and reflection ratings was explored to provide additional insights. It was shown that the interdependence between action and reflection, or the requirement for both action and reflection, is recognised by the largest percentage of executives. It was also shown that action is the currently preferred, or currently dominant, pole. This is also evidenced in the fact that action it is the second highest ranking principle, and reflection the third highest.

The fourth highest ranking principle is that “leaders cannot be developed on a week long course”. Both those who “agreed” and those who “disagreed” tended to have a similar perspective, but expressed from different positions. In essence, those that agreed that leadership *cannot* be developed in a week were indicating that it takes a long time to develop effective leadership and requires a combination of courses, ongoing experience, support and feedback. While one week may help, it is certainly not sufficient to fully develop leaders. Those who disagreed that leadership *cannot* be developed in a week were indicating that one week course can provide a useful contribution to the development of leaders, and often provides very powerful insights. A course can be a good way to take someone further down their development as a leader. Both of these groups are taking a similar perspective. One executive put it well when stating that, “You cannot develop a leader in a week, but you can contribute to the ongoing development of a leader in one week”.

The fifth highest ranking principle is that “leadership cannot be taught in the traditional sense, it must be learned through personal experience, experimentation, and feedback”. This is the first principle not to receive more than 50% “strongly agree” responses. While 68% agreed with the principle, it is possibly more accurate to state that 75.8% of all executives surveyed believe that leadership must be *both taught and learned*. As one executive stated, “teaching and learning are not mutually exclusive - they are complementary”, thus a “combination of both is essential”.

The least supported principle, receiving just over a third of “strongly agree responses” is that “becoming a leader is about personal transformation ie. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts”. The majority of those who “agreed” clarified their agreement by noting that the degree of transformation depended on the person, and on the qualities that the individual already possessed. The personal transformation was also seen to be important for assisting leaders to change with changing circumstances, and to develop an increased self-awareness. This transformation was not necessarily instant, but rather gradual, and was not a single event but rather a lifetime process. For those executives that disagreed, the major reason put forward was that transformation implies too strong a change, and therefore “develop” and “grow” were considered more appropriate descriptions.

These results also reinforced the value of combining quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The combination highlighted that, for some principles, executives’ using the same explanations and reasoning provided ratings at opposite ends of the spectrum. Thus for some principles, there was greater agreement than was indicated by the ratings alone.

Having explored the issues of can leaders be developed and the principles on which leaders should be developed, the following chapter addresses the leadership development processes within organisations.

CHAPTER TEN

RESULTS

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROCESSES

10.1 Introduction

Having addressed the leadership development principles, this chapter explores the leadership processes within organisations. The focus of this section is on exploring the extent to which executives are satisfied with their leadership development processes. The intention was not to elicit the details of the practices employed, but rather to gauge executives' perceptions of their organisations' ability in each of the key areas. This perspective puts leadership development in its wider context by including the other human resource systems that impact on the quality and quantity of leadership. This wider perspective is important as formal leadership development programmes only make up a small percentage of the efforts required to improve the quality of leadership (Bolt, 1996; Kotter, 1988; Ruderman, Ohlett, and McCauley, 1990; Saline, 1977; Sherman, 1995).

The results in this section are divided into two broad sections. The first section addresses what could be called the *mechanics* of leadership development. That is, respondents were asked to rate their organisation's ability to attract, recognise, develop, retain, and sustain leaders. These five leadership processes were established as being the major leadership development processes that should occur within organisations (see Chapter Five). Executives were also asked to indicate the adequacy of the time and effort put into ensuring the necessary leadership.

The second section addresses the *dynamics* of leadership development and covers issues such as the ways in which organisations facilitate and hinder the development of leaders, and the most significant challenges that their organisations face with respect to developing leaders. The combination of "mechanics" and "dynamics" provides a full picture of the current reality with respect to the leadership processes within organisations. Together these

questions highlight executives' perceptions of the efficacy of their leadership processes and the key issues they believe exist with respect to the development of leaders.

The approach taken in this section differs from previous sections in that an attempt was made to clarify the nature of leadership. Kotter's (1990a) distinction between leadership and management was included in the introduction to this section, and respondents were asked to put aside their own view, and for this section assume Kotter's (1990a) definition of leadership (see Table 10.1). Kotter's (1990a) definition was chosen as it was found to be the most directly applicable to organisations; it clearly differentiated leadership from management on the basis of processes and relationship, not in terms of traits or behaviours; it explicitly avoided denigrating management, but rather insists that both are necessary in organisations; and the differences highlighted are qualitatively different in nature and not merely differences in degree. By providing a greater consistency in the definition of leadership, the intent was to provide a stronger basis on which to compare assessments made of the leadership processes used within organisations.

Table 10.1
Kotter's Table on the Differences between Management and Leadership

	MANAGEMENT	LEADERSHIP
<i>Creating an Agenda</i>	Planning and Budgeting: establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving results and allocating the necessary resources.	Establishing Direction: developing a vision of the future, and the needed change strategies.
<i>Developing a human network for achieving the agenda</i>	Organising and Staffing: establishing structure, staffing it, delegating responsibility and authority, providing policies, procedures and systems.	Aligning People: communicating the direction by words and deeds to all who need to understand and accept the vision and strategies.
<i>Execution</i>	Controlling and Problem Solving: monitoring results, identifying deviations, planning and organising actions.	Motivating and Inspiring: energising people to overcome major barriers to change.
	↓	↓
<i>Outcomes</i>	Produces a degree of predictability and order , and has the potential of consistently producing key results expected by various stakeholders.	Produces change , often to a dramatic degree, and has the potential of producing extremely useful change.

(adapted from Kotter, 1990a, p 6)

The following section begins by exploring the “mechanics” of the leadership development processes.

10.2 *The Mechanics of Leadership Development Processes*

While leadership development and leadership succession issues tend to dominate the literature, it is clear that the quality and quantity of leadership within organisations is determined by the full range of human resource management processes. To provide the full

picture of Australasian organisations' ability to increase the quality and quantity of its leadership, executives were asked to rate their whole leadership system.

For each of the five processes (attract, recognise, develop, retain and sustain), a five point rating system was used. Respondents could rate their leadership processes as 1 = poor, 2 = fair, 3 = good, 4 = very good, or 5 = excellent. A space for comments was also provided after each process. A summary question was asked at the end of this section which asked executives to rate the adequacy of "the amount of time and effort spent ensuring your organisation has the necessary leadership". A five point Likert scale was used where "1" was labelled "inadequate" and "5" "more than adequate". Space for comments was also provided for this question.

The results for each of the processes are outlined in the following sections, and considered as a whole in section 10.2.7. For each process, the mean, mode and standard deviation are provided as well as some indication of the frequency distribution for each question. All results are rounded to two decimal places.

The comments made are then described and explored. Up to four codes could be assigned per response. The format for this description is that the context is provided through the presentation of the table of total responses. However, the discussion focuses on comparing and contrasting those who rated poor or fair with those who rated very good or excellent. By focusing on these two groups, the explanations of those who rated "good" are not described, however a sense of these responses can be gleaned from the table of total responses. As a consequence of comparing poor and fair with very or excellent responses, some response categories will have "0" responses.

10.2.1 Ability to attract (i.e. recruit and select) leaders.

The number of executives rating this question totalled 735. The mean response for the ability to attract leaders was 2.61, with a standard deviation of 1.11. That is, on average, executives believe that their ability to attract leaders is good to fair. The mode response

was 2, indicating that the most common executive response was that the ability to attract leaders is fair.

Approximately half (50.1%) rated their ability to attract leaders as “poor” or “fair”, with just over a quarter (25.7%) rating “good”, and just under a quarter (24.2%) rating “very good” or “excellent”.

The full table of responses to the comments made for the ability to attract leaders is provided in Table 10.2. As only 27.35% of those who answered this question provided a comment, all results should be treated cautiously.

Table 10.2
Total Responses for Question 4.1
Ability to Attract (Recruit and Select) Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Negative Nature of Organisation		27.5
General Negative Statements	12.8	
Size	10.4	
Pay/Finance	4.3	
Negative Nature of Industry	4.3	4.3
Positive Nature of Organisation	10.0	10
Positive Nature of Industry	0.9	0.9
Positive Culture		7.1
General Statements	3.8	
Encourage by People at the Top	3.3	
Negative Leadership Culture		14.7
General Comments	8.5	
Stifled by people at the Top	6.2	
Negative Policies/Processes		13.7
General Comments	9.0	
Recruit People like Themselves	4.7	
Positive Policies/Process	10.0	10
Improving	11.8	11.8
	100	100
201 Respondents	n = 211	

10.2.1.1 Poor/Fair Responses

Table 10.3 summarises the “poor-fair” response categories.

Table 10.3
Poor/Fair Responses for Question 4.1
Ability to Attract (Recruit and Select) Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Negative Nature of Organisation		40
General Negative Statements	21.8	
Size	10.9	
Pay/Finance	7.3	
Negative Nature of Industry	7.3	7.3
Positive Nature of Organisation	0	0
Positive Nature of Industry	0	0
Positive Culture		0
General Statements	0	
Encourage by People at the Top	0	
Negative Leadership Culture		23.6
General Comments	12.7	
Stifled by people at the Top	10.9	
Negative Policies/Processes		21.8
General Comments	13.6	
Recruit People like Themselves	8.2	
Positive Policies/Process	0	0
Improving	7.3	7.3
	100	100
105 Respondents	n = 110	

Of those who rated poor-fair, 40% mentioned some negative aspect of the organisation itself. The two largest components of this were “size” (10.9%) and “pay/finance” (7.3%). The “size” comments included statements such as “A small organisation is limited in the number of future leaders it can attract, assimilate and retain”; “Not a large organisation”; and “The organisation is too small to ‘recruit leaders’”. In essence, many of these executives believe that their organisations are too small to attract good leaders. Representative “pay/finance” comments include: “We don’t offer an attractive enough compensation package”; “Inadequate remuneration”; and “Difficult to attract good applicants due to limited finance”. Other factors highlighted in the negative nature of the organisation include poor history of the organisation, less desirable (“country” and “non-metropolitan”) location, few promotion opportunities, lack of professional external image, and the organisation’s lack of vision.

23.6% stated that their organisation had a negative leadership culture, with the largest percentage (10.9%) saying that their ability to attract leaders is stifled by the people at the top of their organisation. The major themes within these responses were that senior executives felt “threatened” by leaders, or were too controlling, either unwilling or unable to pass on responsibility. The effect of these factors was that it was difficult to attract leaders. General comments regarding the “negative leadership culture” included a variety of statements such as: “Leadership qualities tend to be overlooked. The organisation has an egalitarian culture in which leadership tends to be played down”; “We don’t understand or appreciate the special nature or need of leadership”; and “The organisation is growing and experiencing extreme change. It is busy ‘managing’”.

21.8% identified negative attraction processes, of which 8.2% indicated that people at the top tended to recruit people like themselves (“like chooses like”) and therefore attracting non-leaders. Other negative processes included promoting from within: “too great a number of internal promotions” and “we recruit at the lowest level and develop people internally for management”; “insufficient early detection of potential”; “we look for “yes” people, not leaders”; and inadequate or inflexible selection criteria: “poor selection criteria”; “based on exam competence, not personality”; “concrete job descriptions with little room for inspiration”; and “criteria too tight, not enough flexibility”.

10.2.1.2 Very Good/Excellent Responses

Table 10.4 summarises the “very good” and “excellent” response categories.

Table 10.4
Very Good or Excellent Responses for Question 4.1
Ability to Attract (Recruit and Select) Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Negative Nature of Organisation		5.2
General Negative Statements	0	
Size	5.2	
Pay/Finance	0	
Negative Nature of Industry		0
Positive Nature of Organisation		32.8
Positive Nature of Industry		3.5
Positive Culture		20.6
General Statements	10.3	
Encourage by People at the Top	10.3	
Negative Leadership Culture		3.4
General Comments	1.7	
Stifled by people at the Top	1.7	
Negative Policies/Processes		3.4
General Comments	1.7	
Recruit People like Themselves	1.7	
Positive Policies/Process		25.9
Improving		5.2
	100	100
54 Respondents	n = 58	

Of those who rated very good-excellent, 32.8% highlighted positive aspects of their organisation which attracted leaders. This often reflected their belief that their organisation

had a high profile or good reputation which enabled them to attract leaders. Representative comments include: “viewed as a growth organisation”; “our organisation has been a success hence people want to join”; and “good reputation for innovation”. 25.9% indicated that their attraction abilities were strong, with many referring to their focus on leadership within their selection criteria. Representative comments include: “Selection and recruitment is specifically designed to pick out leadership qualities”; “have deliberately set about doing this”; and “Applicants ... are selected predominantly on their demonstrated leadership skills or on their assessed potential to perform as leaders”.

20.6% said their culture supported the attraction of leaders with 10.3% saying that their attraction was enhanced by the people at the top. That is, their organisation had a good CEO or a visionary leader who attracts others: “CEO is strong leader and he attracts others”; and “The current MD is a visionary and excellent leader - people want to join the company”. Interestingly, the response that “like chooses like” was only made by one person on the positive side.

Three negative response categories were indicated by executives rating their ability to attract leaders as very good or excellent. The “negative leadership culture” comment highlighted that “more women and Maori need to be encouraged to apply”. One executive qualified their rating by noting that “so long as the recruits do not become a threat to the leader” (stifled by people at the top). Interestingly, one executive noted that “but then it doesn’t encourage use of their skills” (negative policies/processes). This comment highlights the interdependence of the processes and reinforces the importance of addressing the full human resource system.

In summary, the quality of existing senior executives and the quality of the selection criteria were seen to have a strong influence on an organisation’s ability to attract leaders. If senior executives are too controlling and threatened by leaders, this was seen to have a negative impact on attracting other leaders. Whereas if the existing senior executives are considered leaders, they tended to attract other leaders. Selection criteria which specifically focused on leadership were seen to be important, while rigid and inappropriate criteria were seen to

hinder the attraction of leaders. The organisation's reputation, size, and ability to provide adequate remuneration were also seen to be important factors for attracting leaders.

10.2.2 Ability to recognise leadership potential.

The number of executives rating this question totalled 737. The mean response for the ability to recognise leadership potential was 2.83, with a standard deviation of 1.12. That is, on average, executives believe that their ability to recognise leadership potential is just short of good. The mode response was 3, indicating that the most common executive response was that their ability to recognise leadership potential is good. The mean and mode responses are higher than that for the ability to attract, indicating that executives feel more confident in their ability to recognise, as opposed to attract, leaders.

This greater confidence in the ability to recognise leadership potential is highlighted by the fact that nearly a third (31.1%) of executives rated their ability as very good - excellent. This is the highest very good-excellent rating of all the leadership processes. However, a greater percentage (38.7%) rate their ability as poor-fair, with 30.3% rating their ability to recognise leadership potential as good.

In exploring executives' explanations, it is acknowledged that just under a quarter (24.15%) of those answering this question provide an explanation. This small sample size makes all conclusions less generalisable. The table of total responses to the comments made for the ability to recognise leadership potential is provided in Table 10.5.

Table 10.5
Total Responses for Question 4.2
Ability to Recognise Leadership Potential

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Negative Culture		15.1
General Statement	7.8	
Tall Poppy Syndrome	2.8	
Management Threatened	4.5	
Positive Culture	7.3	7.3
Poor Processes		31.8
General	11.2	
Don't Know How to Recognise	10.6	
Male Based	1.7	
Not Done	2.2	
Not High Priority	6.1	
Good Processes	15.6	15.6
Leaders Stand Out	10.1	10.1
Improving/Working on It	20.1	20.1
	100	100
178 Respondents	n = 179	

10.2.2.1 Poor/Fair Responses

Table 10.6 summarises the “poor” or “fair” response categories.

Table 10.6
 Poor or Fair Responses for Question 4.2
 Ability to Recognise Leadership Potential

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Negative Culture		27.3
General Statement	14.3	
Tall Poppy Syndrome	5.2	
Management Threatened	7.8	
Positive Culture	0	0
Poor Processes		50.6
General	16.9	
Don't Know How to Recognise	15.6	
Male Based	3.9	
Not Done	3.9	
Not High Priority	10.3	
Good Processes	1.3	1.3
Leaders Stand Out	1.3	1.3
Improving/Working on It	19.5	19.5
	100	100
76 Respondents	n = 77	

Of those who rated poor/fair, over half (50.6%) highlighted poor recognition processes. This was comprised of the following responses: “don’t know how to recognise” leadership potential (15.6%); that it was “not a high priority” within their organisations (10.3%); that it was “not done” at all (3.9%) and that the processes were “male based”, or discriminated against women (3.9%). The remaining 16.9% included a variety of responses such as: “no annual reporting or reviewing staff at any level”; “as far as I’m aware it does not bother in any systematic sense”; “leaders are employed by chance, and once recognised ignored into indifference”; and “management is recognised, not necessarily leadership”. The general

theme of these responses is that their organisation's recognition processes are non-systematic and hence ineffective.

27.3% of those who rated poor/fair pointed to the negative culture of the organisation as the main contributor. The two specific reasons most often highlighted were that the "tall poppy" syndrome was adversely affecting their leadership recognition processes (5.2%) and that top management felt threatened by other's leadership potential, and therefore didn't recognise it (7.8%). The comment made by one executive that they "are able to recognise, but unwilling to acknowledge" leadership potential sums up this sentiment well. A variety of responses including the non-cohesive nature of top management and the fact that leadership was not encouraged by the organisation, made up the rest of the "negative culture" responses. In short, these responses highlighted that rather than poor recognition being attributable to a lack of *ability*, it is a result of the organisation's or senior executive's *unwillingness* to acknowledge leadership potential.

Table 10.6 shows that one executive rated "poor/fair" yet commented positively about their recognition process. Their comment was that "leaders are recognised, but not many are required". This low rating could be seen to reflect the perceived importance of, not the perceived ability to, recognise leadership potential.

10.2.2.2 Very Good/Excellent Responses

Table 10.7 summarises the "very good" or "excellent" response categories.

Table 10.7
 Very Good or Excellent Responses for Question 4.2
 Ability to Recognise Leadership Potential

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Negative Culture		2
General Statement	0	
Tall Poppy Syndrome	0	
Management Threatened	2.0	
Positive Culture	18.0	18
Poor Processes		0
General	0	
Don't Know How to Recognise	0	
Male Based	0	
Not Done	0	
Not High Priority	0	
Good Processes	42.0	42
Leaders Stand Out	22.0	22
Improving/Working on It	16.0	16
	100	100
50 Respondents	n = 50	

Of those who believed that their ability to recognise leadership potential was very good-excellent, 42% highlighted their organisation's good practices. No particular practice dominated the responses, however a number of practices were highlighted including assessment centres, appraisal systems that addressed leadership issues, strong selection screening for leadership potential, the use of consultants and testing to identify leadership potential, formal leadership recognition programmes and the fact that leadership potential was a focus for the organisation.

22% of those who rated their ability to recognise leadership potential as very good-excellent did so because they believe that leaders stand out. Representative comments include: “Those with leadership potential usually ‘shine’”; “Those able to demonstrate leadership qualities are readily recognisable”; and “talent stands out”. This implies that recognising leadership potential does not require much effort on the organisation’s part. It is interesting that over a fifth of those who rated their ability to recognise leadership as very good-excellent took no credit themselves, but rather indicated that the nature of leaders themselves makes this task easy. This viewpoint was obviously not shared by those who rated their ability as “poor/fair”, with only 1.3% of these respondents indicating that “leaders stand out”.

18% of those who rated very good-excellent highlighted the positive culture of their organisation. This included a variety of comments including: “this is now more important”; “the culture of the organisation encourages this”; “we try, we don’t always succeed, but are willing to take some risks!”; and “people management is excellent”. These sentiments express the supportive nature of the organisation towards leadership, and indicate that their organisation’s work hard at trying to recognise potential. A further 16% indicated that they were working on this issue now, or that their ability was improving in this area.

One executive that rated very good or excellent indicated a “management threatened” response. Their comment qualified their rating by noting that, “but too scared to utilise it - threatens senior management group”.

In summary, the majority of those who rated their ability to recognise leadership potential as either high or low, cited systematic processes (or the lack thereof) as the major reason for their rating. While, no particular recognition practice dominated the positive ratings, the “tall poppy syndrome” and “management threatened” were highlighted as negative factors that influenced the ability to recognise leadership.

One of the main comments that distinguished between those who rated low and those who rated high on this principle was the comment that “leaders stand out”. As would be expected, a greater percentage of those who rated high indicated this than those who rated

low. Some of these differences are likely to be the result of differences in perceptions regarding the innate characteristics of leadership. Unfortunately, only three respondents have comments for this question and the question which asked “can leaders be developed?”. This makes the conclusions very tentative. Two of the three executives indicated that “leaders could be developed but had to have innate characteristics”. This provides some measure of support to the possibility that those commenting that “leaders stand out” tend to come from executives who believe that leadership is innate.

While the data presented does not reflect the following point clearly, there appears to be two points of view on “recognition”. One sees “recognising” leadership potential as something that only occurs at recruitment, whereas the other sees it as an ongoing process. This could also be related to the born versus made school. If leadership is born, then only the initial assessment would be necessary, whereas for the “made” school, a person may develop their potential over time and therefore ongoing recognition systems become important.

10.2.3 Ability to develop leaders.

The number of executives rating this question totalled 738. The mean response for the ability to develop leaders was 2.48, with a standard deviation of 1.12. That is, on average, executives believe that their ability to develop leaders potential is just under the half-way point between fair and good. The mode response was 2, indicating that the most common executive response was that their ability to develop leaders is fair. This mean response is the lowest of all the leadership processes.

Interestingly, this process received the greatest number of rated responses, and the second highest number of comments provided ($n = 193$; the highest number of explanations (201) were provided for the ability to attract). It could be that the high level of attention given to leadership development in the literature has had an impact on executives, or it could reflect a strong sense of concern amongst executives regarding their organisations’ ability to develop leaders.

The low rating on the ability to develop leaders is reinforced by the fact that over half (53.7%) of executives rated their ability as poor-fair. This is the greatest percentage of low ratings received. Over a quarter (26.6%) rated their ability to develop leaders as good, and only 19.8% rated it as very good-excellent. It appears that executives have the most difficulty coming to terms with how to develop leadership.

The table of total responses is provided in Table 10.8.

Table 10.8
Total Responses for Question 4.3
Ability to Develop Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Positive Culture		12.2
General Positive Culture	6.3	
Good Opportunities	5.9	
Positive Practices		17
General Positive Practices	8.3	
Job Rotation/Cross-Functional Teams	2.4	
On-the-Job Experience	6.3	
Improving	14.7	14.7
Needs to Improve	8.4	8.4
Negative Culture/Industry		20.9
General Negative Statements	6.8	
Not a Priority	6.8	
Inadequate Time/Resources	7.3	
Negative Practices		16.1
General Negative Practices	4.9	
Don't Distinguish Leaders From Managers	5.9	
Technical Based Only	2.9	
Sink or Swim	2.4	
Not Done	10.7	10.7
	100	100
193 Respondents	n = 205	

10.2.3.1 Poor/Fair Responses

Table 10.9 summarises the “poor” and “fair” response categories.

Table 10.9
Poor or Fair Responses for Question 4.3
Ability to Develop Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Positive Culture		1.0
General Positive Culture	0	
Good Opportunities	1.0	
Positive Practices		1.0
General Positive Practices	1.0	
Job Rotation/Cross-Functional Teams	0	
On-the-Job Experience	0	
Improving	9.0	9.0
Needs to Improve	11.0	11.0
Negative Culture/Industry		35.0
General Negative Statements	10	
Not a Priority	12	
Inadequate Time/Resources	13	
Negative Practices		24.0
General Negative Practices	7.0	
Don't Distinguish Leaders From Managers	10.0	
Technical Based Only	6.0	
Sink or Swim	1.0	
Not Done	19.0	19.0
	100	100
94 Respondents	n = 100	

Of those who rated poor/fair, 35% noted the negative nature of the industry or culture. This was comprised of 13% who stated that “inadequate time and resources” were allocated to the development of leaders; 12% who said that it was “not a priority”; and 10% who made general comments which included: “Good leaders get burnt out with work overload/stress/resistance to change”; “some organisational inertia reduces opportunities/acceptance of change and change agents”; “Don’t really want them”; “Tendency for internal cynics to undermine new leaders” and “Not enough commitment and support for doing this”.

A further 24% highlighted negative practices within the organisation, in particular they commented on the inability to distinguish leaders from managers (10%); that training tends to be technical based only, not leadership focused (6%); and that the “sink or swim” approach to development is taken (1.0%). Other responses in this category included the fact that the organisation had a poor pool of leaders, or that the wrong people were promoted thus making development ineffective.

The third largest category of responses overall, and also the largest single response category, was that leadership development was simply not done at all. This response accounted for 18.6% of those who rated their ability to develop leaders as poor/fair.

A small percentage (2.0%) rated low but had positive statements. These statements qualified their rating by noting that “opportunities are there” and that “attempts are made to send on courses, etc”.

In summary, the three major reasons highlighted by executives for the poor/fair ability of their organisations to develop leaders were that, firstly, it is not a priority and therefore does not receive the necessary time and resources; secondly, that their approach to developing them is poor (in particular, not clearly distinguishing leaders from managers); and thirdly that no attempt is made to develop leaders.

10.2.3.2 Very Good/Excellent Responses

Table 10.10 summarises the “very good” or “excellent” response categories.

Table 10.10
Very Good or Excellent Responses for Question 4.3
Ability to Develop Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Positive Culture		33.3
General Positive Culture	20.5	
Good Opportunities	12.8	
Positive Practices		48.7
General Positive Practices	30.8	
Job Rotation/Cross-Functional Teams	5.1	
On-the-Job Experience	12.8	
Improving	12.8	12.8
Needs to Improve	2.6	2.6
Negative Culture/Industry		0
General Negative Statements	0	
Not a Priority	0	
Inadequate Time/Resources	0	
Negative Practices		2.6
General Negative Practices	0	
Don't Distinguish Leaders From Managers	0	
Technical Based Only	0	
Sink or Swim	2.6	
Not Done	0	0
	100	100
38 Respondents	n = 39	

Nearly half (48.7%) of those who rated their organisation's ability to develop leaders as very good/excellent, did so due to the excellent development practices their organisations had in place. 30.8% mentioned some general aspects of their development programmes including statements referring to individualised development programmes; that a good proportion of revenue is set aside for development; and that the small size of the organisation facilitates attention being directed to this issue. 12.8% noted that their on-the-job development and provision of challenging work experiences contributed strongly to their organisation's very good/excellent development ability. Representative comments include: "challenges are put in front of managers to pick up to become leaders"; "Board is giving opportunity to promising staff"; and "All staff are subject to continuous training by example and explanation". A further 5.1% highlighted the practices of job rotation and cross-functional teams as being effective means of developing leaders.

A third (33.3%) identified a positive leadership culture within their organisation, with 12.8% stating that good development opportunities existed. Representative comments include: "opportunities abound"; "staff are given opportunities to do MBA's; Dip Bus. Studies, overseas and internal management/leadership training"; and "Expose all staff to external training and encourage internal participation". The remaining 17.9% made general positive statements about their organisation's development focus and ability. 12.8% rated their organisation's ability to develop leaders as very good-excellent noting that their ability in this area was improving.

In essence, two main reasons were provided by those who highly rated their organisation's ability to develop leaders. The first reason was that they had effective development practices in place, particularly real, on-the-job experiences. The second reason was that leadership and its development were valued by the organisation and hence good opportunities existed to exercise and develop one's leadership.

Overall, two themes can be seen to be emerging. The first is that the degree to which leadership is valued by the organisation is seen to determine the ability to develop leaders. With 35% of those rating poor-fair and 33.3% of those rating very-good excellent highlighting culture (in essence the degree to which leadership is valued) as the primary

reason for their rating. Equally, the quality of the practices employed by the organisations are seen to be a major determinant of the organisation's ability to develop leaders, with 24% of those rating poor/fair and 48.7% of those rating very/good excellent highlighting the organisation's practices as the primary reason for their rating. While not possible to test statistically, it is likely that these two reasons are interconnected and reinforcing. For example, the more leadership is valued, the greater the effort that is likely to be expended in providing and improving leadership development experiences both on the job and through training programmes. Equally, this cycle is reinforcing as the greater the success of development efforts, the more likely leadership and leadership development is going to be valued by organisations.

10.2.4 Ability to retain leaders.

The number of executives rating this question totalled 727. The mean response for the ability to retain leaders was 2.72, with a standard deviation of 1.15. That is, on average, executives believe that their ability to retain leaders is just short of good. The mode response was 3, indicating that the most common executive response was that their ability to retain leaders is good.

42.7% of executives rated their ability to retain leaders as poor-fair; 31.5% rated it as being good and just over a quarter (25.7%) rated their ability as very good-excellent. Table 10.11 provides the full table of responses to the comments made for the ability to retain leaders.

Table 10.11
Total Responses for Question 4.4
Ability to Retain Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Negative		57.9
General Negative	12.4	
Culture/Structure Drives Them Away	14.8	
Don't Pay Enough	5.3	
Too Small to Keep People	5.3	
Lack of Opportunities in Organisation	14.8	
Find Better Conditions Elsewhere	5.3	
Positive		33.7
General Positive	16.0	
Good Conditions (Pay Etc)	7.1	
Always A Challenge	5.9	
Good Reputation/Culture	4.7	
External Environment Makes People Stay	8.4	8.4
	100	100
160 Respondents	n = 169	

10.2.4.1 Poor/Fair Responses

Table 10.12 summarises the “poor” or “fair” response categories.

Table 10.12
 Poor or Fair Responses for Question 4.4
 Ability to Retain Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Negative		92.9
General Negative	18.6	
Culture/Structure Drives Them Away	27.1	
Don't Pay Enough	8.6	
Too Small to Keep People	5.7	
Lack of Opportunities in Organisation	24.3	
Find Better Conditions Elsewhere	8.6	
Positive		0
General Positive	0	
Good Conditions (Pay Etc)	0	
Always A Challenge	0	
Good Reputation/Culture	0	
External Environment Makes People Stay	7.1	7.1
	100	100
69 Respondents	n = 70	

Of those who rated poor-fair, 27.1% stated that the culture or structure drives leaders away. Representative comments include: “Many give up in disgust and go elsewhere where they will be valued”; “Leaders tend to be criticised”; “Its rigid para-military ways does not encourage leaders”; and “frustrations with bureaucratic overlay and the hitting the ‘wall’”. In short, these executives believe that leaders in their organisation are not valued and therefore do not stay for long periods, and that frustrations with the bureaucracy or the overly hierarchical structure drive leaders away.

24.3% indicated that the lack of promotional opportunities, or lack of growth and challenge within their jobs made it difficult to retain leaders. Executives noting that in such situations, “people with initiative and drive often leave” for “greener fields”. A related response made by 5.7% of respondents was that the organisation was simply too small to keep leaders.

16.4% made general comments regarding the organisation’s inability to retain leaders. These included comments such as the efforts to retain leaders are poor at the moment, and that many leaders have left or are leaving. Others noted that their organisation’s have had a history of losing people with leadership potential. A further 8.6% indicated that they don’t pay leaders enough to keep them. Interestingly, only 5.3% of the total responses specifically mention the lack of money as a contributing factor to their rating.

In short, the lack of support and too much bureaucracy; the inability to provide adequate opportunities and challenge; and the lack of financial reward were the three largest reasons why executives believe their organisation’s ability to retain leaders is poor. Collectively, executives believe that to retain leaders, organisations must give leaders freedom to act, as well as provide challenging opportunities to keep their interest and enthusiasm.

10.2.4.2 Very Good/Excellent Responses

Table 10.13 summarises the “very good” or “excellent” response categories.

Table 10.13
Very Good or Excellent Responses for Question 4.4
Ability to Retain Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Negative		2.5
General Negative	2.5	
Culture/Structure Drives Them Away	0	
Don't Pay Enough	0	
Too Small to Keep People	0	
Lack of Opportunities in Organisation	0	
Find Better Conditions Elsewhere	0	
Positive		90
General Positive	42.5	
Good Conditions (Pay Etc)	20.0	
Always A Challenge	12.5	
Good Reputation/Culture	15.0	
Poor External Environment Makes People Stay	7.5	7.5
	100	100
39 Respondents	n = 40	

42.5% of those who rated their organisation's ability to retain leaders as very good-excellent made general, positive statements. The majority of these comments reinforced the low turnover and stable workforce history experienced by their organisations. Representative comments include "Stable, especially at top level. No changes in the top level in the last four years"; "Have not lost anyone we would wish to retain in three years"; and "virtually zero turnover".

The top three specific reasons provided by executives were, firstly, that the organisations had good conditions, including pay. This accounted for 20% of responses. The second was

that the organisation had a good reputation and culture which kept leaders (15%). Thirdly, executives mentioned that the high level of challenge within jobs helped them retain leaders (12.5%).

It can be seen that one executive rated a “negative” response category. Their comment that, “we’re not good enough for our leaders to be recognised and head-hunted - what an indictment” indicates that their rating is probably intended to be lower.

It is interesting that 7.5% of the total responses stated that leaders stayed with their organisation due to the poor external environment. That is, the market is such that it is difficult for leaders to find other jobs, and therefore they have tended to stay put.

In terms of retaining leaders, executive’s responses indicate that the four key issues are the degree of challenge provided, the level of bureaucracy and unnecessary constraints, the value placed on leaders and leadership, and the availability of opportunities for promotion. The presence or absence of these issues were the main determiners of those who rated strongly or poorly on this dimension.

10.2.5 Ability to sustain leaders.

The number of executives rating this question totalled 720. The mean response for the ability to sustain leaders was 2.61, with a standard deviation of 1.1. That is, on average, executives believe that their ability to sustain leaders is good to fair. The mode response was 2, indicating that the most common executive response was that their ability to sustain leaders is fair.

47.6% of executives rated their ability to retain leaders as poor-fair; 28.6% rated it as being good, and 23.8% rated their ability as very good-excellent. Table 10.14 provides the table of total responses to the comments made for the ability to sustain leaders.

Table 10.14
Total Responses for Question 4.5
Ability to Sustain Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses
1. Self Sustaining, No Need	10.7
2. Changing Environment Makes Them Stay	1.9
3. Need Recognition First	6.7
4. Recognised But Inadequate/Inappropriate Action	21.5
5. Structure Too Bureaucratic/Non-supportive	8.1
6. Culture/Management Not Supportive	19.5
7. Challenges and Change Sustain Leaders	16.8
8. Recognition and Good Support Procedures/Practices	14.8
	100
149 Respondents	n = 149

The small number of explanations provided by those who rated poor/fair (n = 65) and those who rated very good-excellent (n = 35) makes generalising from the results difficult.

10.2.5.1 Poor/Fair Responses

Table 10.15 summarises the “poor” or “fair” response categories.

Table 10.15
 Poor or Fair Responses for Question 4.5
 Ability to Sustain Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses
1. Self Sustaining, No Need	9.2
2. Changing Environment Makes Them Stay	3.1
3. Need Recognition First	9.2
4. Recognised But Inadequate/Inappropriate Action	26.2
5. Structure Too Bureaucratic/Non-supportive	18.5
6. Culture/Management Not Supportive	33.8
7. Challenges and Change Sustain Leaders	0
8. Recognition and Good Support Procedures/Practices	0
	100
65 Respondents	n =65

Of those who rated their organisation's ability to sustain leaders as poor-fair, 33.8% stated that the organisation's culture and management were not supportive. This category included a variety of comments such as the existence of the "tall poppy syndrome"; the fear of loss of authority by those at the top; high internal conflicts; an autocratic culture; a strongly status oriented culture; low morale; and limited recognition of leaders. No single response dominated this category.

26.2% stated inadequate or inappropriate actions were being taken to sustain leaders. Inappropriate actions mentioned included being overworked, not rewarding performance, and not providing adequate feedback. These inadequate actions were often attributed to factors such as financial constraints, and the inability to deliver on good intentions. One executive in particular noted that while it was a "nice thought", it was seldom observed in their organisation. Another commented that there is "Too little time. Good intentions but always other pressing priorities".

18.5% highlighted an organisational structure that was too bureaucratic or non-supportive of leaders. Representative comments include: “They kill them off before breakfast by organisational blankets”; “Potential leaders are not given support and encouraged at the executive level in the organisation”; and “more laissez-faire than sustenance”.

10.2.5.2 Very Good/Excellent Responses

Table 10.16 summarises the “very good” and “excellent” response categories.

Table 10.16
Very Good or Excellent Responses for Question 4.5
Ability to Sustain Leaders

Response Category	% of Responses
1. Self Sustaining, No Need	12.5
2. Changing Environment Makes Them Stay	3.1
3. Need Recognition First	3.1
4. Recognised But Inadequate/Inappropriate Action	0
5. Structure Too Bureaucratic/Non-supportive	0
6. Culture/Management Not Supportive	0
7. Challenges and Change Sustain Leaders	46.9
8. Recognition and Good Support Procedures/Practices	34.4
	100
32 Respondents	n = 32

Nearly half (46.9%) of those who rated their organisation’s ability to sustain leaders as very good/excellent stated that challenges and change sustain leaders. Comments include: “New challenges - it’s a bit of a drug”; “the extent of change has not made life easy for managers, but people with leadership ability have typically found rewarding jobs”; and “our best leaders are retained and sustained by ongoing projects and changes - if the latter went we

suspect the leaders would too". In the minds of these executives, there is a strong connection between challenge and change and keeping a leader's interest and motivation high. 34.4% stated that their organisations have good recognition and support practices. These included having sustained development; strong encouragement at all levels; allowing innovation and originality; and a high level of involvement in key aspects of the business.

The third most frequent response group was that there was no need to sustain leaders as "leaders are self-sustaining" (12.5%). Representative comments include: "By definition a leader should not need sustaining"; "Yes we all like to be sustained but a leader can be self-sustaining"; and "Good leaders can often sustain themselves". Interestingly, 10.7% of the responses as a whole believe that leaders are self-sustaining and consequently there is no need for the organisation take action in this area. It is likely that this view is held by those who believe that leaders are born or innate.

In summary, the low number and range of comments to this question could indicate that executives have given little considered thought to sustaining leaders. Approximately 10% believe that such efforts are unnecessary as leaders are self-sustaining, for others it is possibly not considered due to attention being placed on the other processes (in particular recruitment and development). Those that did comment highlight the importance of recognition and support systems that sustain leaders, as well as a supportive culture. The single largest response category differentiating low from high raters is that "challenges and change sustain leaders". Nearly half of those that rate their organisation's ability as very good or excellent indicated this response. This could provide some guidance for those organisations that rated their organisation's ability as poor or fair. The message would seem to be that it is important to make the job challenging and interesting. Overall, it would appear that organisations have much to do in this area, especially if they are to avoid the sustenance of leaders becoming "A nice thought, seldom observed".

The ability to sustain leaders is the last question assessing executives' perceptions of their leadership development processes. The next section explores responses to a question that is intended to act as a summary of the efforts taken within the organisation to increase the quality and quantity of leadership. Executives were asked, "the amount of time and energy

spent ensuring your organisation has the necessary leadership is?” The question was rated on a five point scale with one equalling, “inadequate” and five equalling “more than adequate”. Space for comments was also provided. Section 10.2.6 explores the results for this question.

10.2.6 The amount of time and energy spent ensuring your organisation has the necessary leadership is?

The mean response for the time and effort spent ensuring the necessary leadership was 2.6, with a standard deviation of 1.05. That is, on average, executives believe that the time and energy spent by their organisation to ensure the necessary leadership is just less than adequate. The mode response was 2, indicating that the most common executive response was that the time and effort spent was less than adequate.

Half (50.7%) of the executives rated the amount of time and energy spent as a 1 or 2, that is inadequate or less than adequate. Just over a quarter (27.9%) rated a 3, which implies that the amount of time and energy is adequate, with 21.4% rating a 4 or 5 indicating that more than adequate time and energy is spent securing the necessary leadership.

Table 10.17 provides the table of total responses to the comments made for this question.

Table 10.17
 Total Responses for Question 4.6
 The Amount of Time and Energy Spent Ensuring Your Organisation
 Has the Necessary Leadership Is

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Not Done, Not Seen As Important, Not Valued	11.7	11.7
Lack of Resources	3.9	3.9
Too Busy	12.0	12
Not Doing Enough	5.4	5.4
Recognised But Ineffective/ Inappropriate	9.4	9.4
Not Enough Planning, Training Or Development	5.4	5.4
Focus on Management Not Leadership	6.7	6.7
Too Small	1	1
Negative Culture		11.1
General Negative Culture	7.4	
Bureaucracy — System Against Them	3.7	
Improving	14.7	14.7
A Priority	4.7	4.7
Good Practices		14
General Good Practices	7.0	
Training	2.0	
Management Development	1.7	
Career/ Succession Planning	2.0	
Challenge Is To Keep It Up	1.3	
	100	100
288 Respondents	n = 299	

Taking the responses as a whole, the single largest category of responses were that the organisation was improving the time and effort it was spending on ensuring the necessary leadership (14.7%). This could indicate a growing recognition of the importance of leadership and is promising for the future of leadership within organisations.

The second most frequently rated group of responses highlighted some positive comment regarding the time and effort their organisation was spending. In particular, career and succession planning, training and management development were highlighted:

The third largest group of responses was that the organisation was too busy to give the necessary time and energy. This response accounted for 12% of responses. The next most popular response (11.7%) indicated that spending time and energy on leadership within their organisation's was not valued, not recognised as being important, never thought about, or simply not done.

11.1% indicated that a negative culture, and bureaucracy was negatively impacting on the time and energy spent ensuring the necessary leadership. No other responses received more than 10% of total responses.

The top five responses accounted for nearly two-thirds of the total responses (63.5%), the majority of which, (34.8%) are negative with respect to the time and energy spent ensuring the organisation has the necessary leadership.

To further explore the comments, a comparison between all those that scored 1 or 2 (inadequate) will be made with those that scored 4 or 5 (more than adequate). In doing so, it is acknowledged that nearly a quarter of responses (23.95%) are omitted, and that the sample sizes remaining are 162 and 67 respectively. These smaller sample sizes make generalising from the conclusions difficult.

10.2.6.1 "Inadequate" Responses

Table 10.18 summaries the "inadequate" responses .

Table 10.18
 Inadequate (1 or 2) Responses for Question 4.6
 The Amount of Time and Energy Spent Ensuring Your Organisation
 Has the Necessary Leadership Is

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Not Done, Not Seen As Important, Not Valued	19.1	19.1
Lack of Resources	6.8	6.8
Too Busy	14.8	14.8
Not Doing Enough	7.4	7.4
Recognised But Ineffective/ Inappropriate	8.6	8.6
Not Enough Planning, Training Or Development	7.4	7.4
Focus on Management Not Leadership	9.3	9.3
Too Small	.6	0.6
Negative Culture		18.5
General Negative Culture	11.7	
Bureaucracy — System Against Them	6.8	
Improving	6.8	6.8
A Priority	.7	0.7
Good Practices		0
General Good Practices	0	
Training	0	
Management Development	0	
Career/Succession Planning	0	
Challenge Is To Keep It Up	0	
	100	100
154 Respondents	n = 162	

Of those who rated their time and effort spent ensuring the necessary leadership as inadequate, 19.1% stated that it was not valued or done, 14.8% said their organisations were too busy to give leadership the necessary attention, and 11.7% indicated that the negative culture worked against providing the necessary time and effort. The “negative culture” response included a variety of responses, the greatest proportion indicating that the bureaucracy or system worked against spending time and energy on leadership. Other responses included the lack of encouragement, commitment or support; that change has left their organisation’s feeling lethargic; and that the whole issue is seen as a waste of money.

It can be seen that a number of ratings received around 7-9% of the inadequate responses. In particular, executives note that their organisations “focus on management, not leadership”. Comments include, “high effort going into management. Not clear that it is biased to leadership development”; “There tends to be a concentration on management at the expense of leadership”; and “not a strong enough commitment to leadership as opposed to management technical skill”. 8.6% highlighted that time and effort is “recognised, but ineffective and/or inappropriate”. Representative comments include: “time and effort (and expenditure) are spent but not successfully”; “some of the organisation’s efforts have been misguided and expensive in terms of employing consultants”; and “time and effort may be sufficient - I suspect the kinds of efforts made are often inappropriate (and ineffective)”. These responses are distinguishing between time and effort expended, and effectiveness. 7.6% believe their organisations are “not doing enough” in this area, and an additional 7.6% highlight that “not enough leadership planning, training or development” occurs. Overall, these executives’ comments highlight that not enough is being done, or not enough of the “right” things are being done, to ensure their organisations have the necessary leadership.

10.2.6.2 “More Than Adequate” Responses

Table 10.19 summarises the “more than adequate” responses for this question.

Table 10.19
 More than Adequate (4-5) Responses for Q4.6
 The Amount of Time and Energy Spent Ensuring Your Organisation
 Has the Necessary Leadership Is

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Not Done, Not Seen As Important, Not Valued	0	0
Lack of Resources	0	0
Too Busy	0	0
Not Doing Enough	0	0
Recognised But Ineffective/ Inappropriate	4.5	4.5
Not Enough Planning, Training Or Development	0	0
Focus on Management Not Leadership	1.4	1.4
Too Small	0	0
Negative Culture		1.4
General Negative Culture	1.4	
Bureaucracy — System Against Them	0	
Improving	23.9	23.9
A Priority	16.4	16.4
Good Practices		52.4
General Good Practices	26.9	
Training	7.5	
Management Development	4.5	
Career/ Succession Planning	7.5	
Challenge Is To Keep It Up	6.0	
	100	100
65 Respondents	n = 67	

Exploring the comments of those who rated a 4 or 5, that is more than adequate time and energy spent ensuring the necessary leadership, over half (52.4%) highlighted the positive processes or practices their organisations have in place. In particular, training and career or succession planning each received 7.5% of these responses, with management development receiving 5%. 6% stated that while the time and effort spent is good, the challenge is to sustain it. As one executive stated - “always need more time and effort, an ongoing process - can never rest on laurels”. The other “good practices” highlighted by executives included off-site, facilitated strategy and planning meetings; encouragement to complete tertiary qualifications; good recruitment and development practices; and a strong focus on leadership issues. No particular processes dominated these results.

The second largest response by those who rated a 4 or a 5 was that the time and effort spent ensuring the necessary leadership was improving (23.9%), while 16.4% indicated that leadership was a priority within their organisations. These top three responses account for 92.7% of the “more than adequate” responses.

In summary, the question “the amount of time and energy spent ensuring your organisation has the necessary leadership is ...” was used to provide a “catchall” summary of the efforts expended to increase the quality and quantity of leaders within organisations. As such, it provides a less than rosy picture with just over half of executives rating their time and effort spent as inadequate (1-2), and only 21.4% rating “more than adequate” (4-5). Of those who rated their time and effort spent ensuring the necessary leadership as inadequate, 19.1% stated that it was not valued or done, 14.8% said their organisations were too busy to give leadership the necessary attention, and 11.7% indicated that the negative culture worked against providing the necessary time and effort. Overall, these executives’ comments highlight that not enough is being done, or not enough of the “right” things are being done, to ensure their organisations have the necessary leadership. Of those who rated their time and effort as “more than adequate”, over half highlighted effective organisational processes (in particular training and career succession/planning), with nearly a quarter noting that the amount of time and effort being spent is improving.

Before summarising the “mechanics” of the leadership development systems, the results from this question will be cross-tabulated with the results from “the importance of leadership to your organisation’s future” question (1.3) to provide an indication of the importance-effort connection.

In the introduction, it was stated that senior executive’s views have a strong impact on the development of leadership within organisations through the importance they place on leadership development; and through the resources and executive attention they devote to leadership issues. If leadership is seen to be unimportant to senior executives, the likelihood of leadership development initiatives being encouraged or produced is minimal. If this assumption was true, one would expect to find that a person rating leadership as very important would spend more than adequate time and effort on ensuring the necessary leadership. The following cross-tabulation with respect to the time and effort spent and the rating on how important leadership is to their organisation’s future (Table 10.20) provides some interesting results.

Table 10.20
Cross-Tabulation of Questions 1.3 and 4.6

<i>More Than Adequate Time and effort spent ensuring necessary leadership Inadequate</i>	5					.3	.8	2.5
	4	.1	.1		.3	1.5	4.5	11.3
	3				.4	2.3	9.5	15.5
	2			.5	.3	3.6	12.8	18.8
	1	.1		.1	.3	1.0	3.6	9.8
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Importance of Leadership To Your Organisation’s Future Success							
	<i>Very Low</i>						<i>Very High</i>	

It can be seen that 45% of the total respondents rated leadership as being very important (6-7) to their organisation’s future success, yet rated their organisation’s time and energy as inadequate (shaded boxes). If this state of affairs continues, nearly half of the executives

imply that they will face a worsening leadership situation as a consequence of insufficient investment being made to secure the necessary and important leadership. Taking the major response categories from question 1.3, executives are stating that their organisations are jeopardising their ability to handle and bring about change, provide future direction, and handle the people side of the organisation.

A quarter (25%) rate leadership as being very important and rate the time and energy spent as adequate. Only 19.1% of total respondents rated a 6 or 7 on importance and a 4 or 5 on the time and energy spent (diagonal shading). That is, just under a fifth are more than adequately addressing the self-professed important issue of leadership within their organisations.

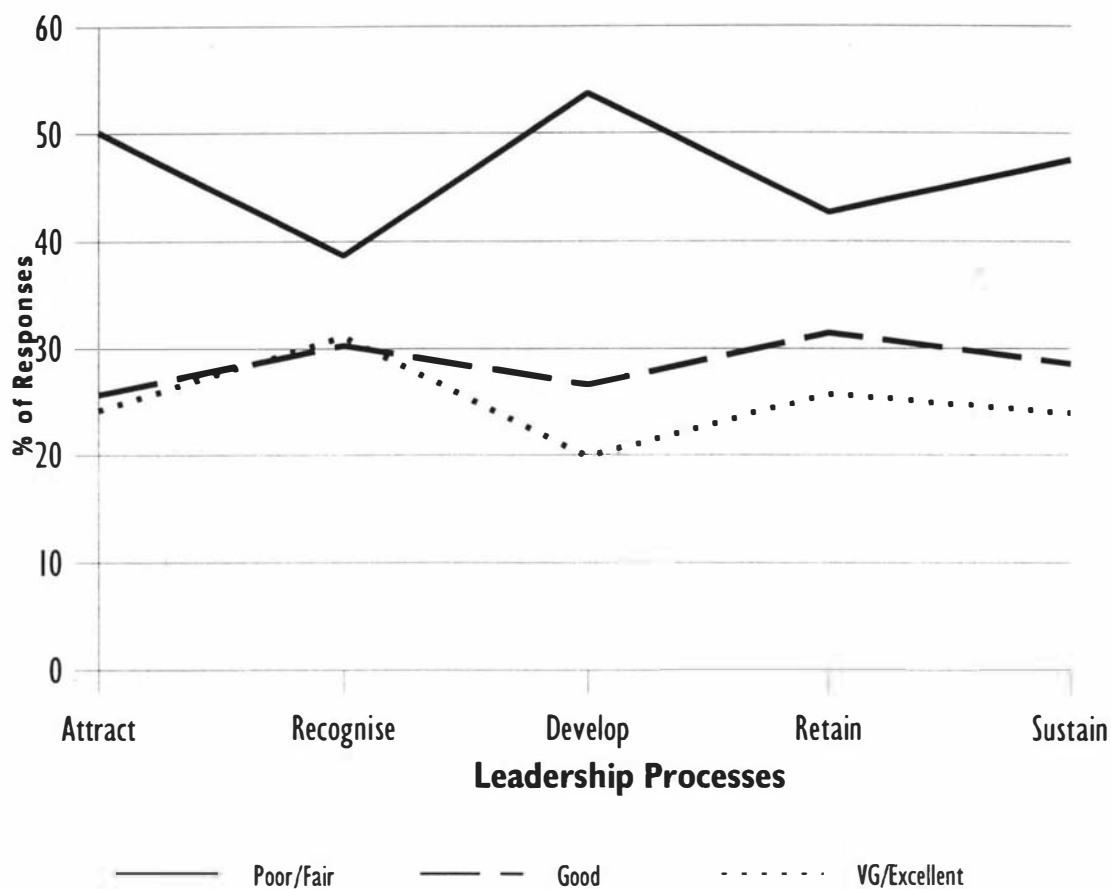
These results indicate that there is not a strong relationship between the perceived importance of leadership and the time and energy spent on leadership issues. This is particularly surprising given that nearly half of these respondents are at the CEO or Board level and therefore have the power to take action on these issues. These results also indicate that the leadership situation within Australasian organisations will worsen unless action is taken.

10.2.7 The Mechanics of Leadership Processes - A Summary

Using the “poor/fair”, “good” and “very good/excellent” categories, Figure 10.1 brings together the percentage responses for each of the five processes surveyed.

Figure 10.1
Leadership Processes

Rating of Organisation's Ability



Looking at the responses across all processes, it can be seen that for each process, approximately half of the executives rate their organisation's ability as poor or fair. Across all processes, a greater percentage of executives rate their processes as poor/fair than any other group of response. Roughly equal percentages rate their organisation's ability as good or very good-excellent. This indicates that the majority of executives believe that there is scope for improvement in the processes that increase the quantity and quality of leadership within their organisations. In particular, the ability to develop leaders requires significant attention. The next greatest deficiencies are attract and then sustain. Executives feel most confident about their organisation's ability to recognise, and retain leaders.

By cross-tabulating the ratings for each process with that of every other process, all possible combinations of ratings were explored. In doing so, it was seen that there was some consistency of results with approximately a third of executives who rated poor or fair on one process, rating poor or fair on all others. While these results must be interpreted cautiously, this roughly indicates that approximately a third of executives rated their organisations ability across all processes as poor/fair.

Table 10.21 provides a sense of the comments themes across all processes by taking all the comment categories rated and displaying them side by side. Similar response categories are grouped together, as are positive and negative positions of the same category. The figures represent the percentage of poor/fair or very good/excellent comments within the process that heads the column. A tick indicates that the theme was highlighted in the analysis (often a general category) but did not rate as a factor in its own right.

Two themes appear consistently through all the leadership processes. The first is the nature of the organisation's culture. In particular, the degree to which leadership is valued, and the support and encouragement it receives, are key factors influencing the ratings provided by executives. The second theme relates to the quality of the processes or practices employed by the organisation. This may appear tautological, however the practices highlighted are different for each of the leadership processes. Competence in one leadership process does not necessarily provide competence in another. It is therefore important to establish systematic practices and processes in each of the processes.

In essence these two themes imply that to have effective leadership processes there must be both a strong willingness (*culture*) and strong competence (*ability*). The organisation must value leadership and be willing to support, encourage and invest in the different leadership processes. This culture needs to be complemented with effective practices and systematic processes that deliver on this intention.

Exploring the "comments" themes, there appears to be a difference in factors highlighted for attract, recognise, and develop as compared with retain and develop. Two large clusters of results (the shaded areas on Table 10.21) highlight the differences.

Can't Recognise/Need to Recognise First			15.6%						9.2%	3.1%
Male Based			3.9%							
Leaders Stand Out			1.3%	22%						
Confuse leadership and mgmt					10%					
Technical based					6%					
Sink or Swim					1%	2.6%				
Job Rotation						5.1%				
On the Job and Experience						12.8%				
Self-sustaining									9.2%	12.5%
Inappropriate Action									26.2%	
Improving/Needs to Improve	7.3%	5.2%	19.5%	16%	20%	15.4%				
Not Done			3.9%		19%					

Executives place a greater emphasis on cultural and process factors for attract, recognise, and develop and a greater emphasis on the organisation and its external environment for retain and sustain. That is, collectively executives believe that the cultural factors, in particular the encouraging or obstructive behaviour and attitude of the senior executives, and the quality of the HR practices, facilitates and/or hinders the attraction, recognition and development of leaders. However, a distinct set of factors are seen to be important for retaining and sustaining leaders. In particular, bureaucracy and hierarchy were seen to drive leaders away and a high degree of challenges and change were seen to be key factors in retaining and sustaining leaders. Many executives noted that the lack of options provided by the market environment had positively impacted on their ability to retain leaders. Working conditions, including pay, were also seen to play an important role in whether leaders stayed with an organisation.

Table 10.22 provides the “Top 12” individual themes across all the processes surveyed. This table was created by selecting those factors that rated more than four times on Table 10.21. The cumulative percentage is calculated by summing the row percentages from Table 10.21. As such it does not measure any particular factor, but it does create a rough weighting factor such that the greater the cumulative percentage, the greater percentage of responses across all processes that factor received. These twelve themes may indicate the key issues that organisations need to address when working to improve their leadership systems.

Table 10.22
Top Twelve Processes Comment Themes

Ranking	Factors	Number of References	Cumulative Percentage
1.	Culture	8	136.3
2.	Policies/Processes	7	138.9
3.	Improving	6	83.4
4.	Resources	6	57.5
5.	Industry/Environment	6	31.5
6.	Encouraged/Stifled by Senior Executives	5	32.7
7.	Nature of Organisation	4	115.7
8.	Size	4	21.8
9.	Challenges/Change	3	59.4
10.	Opportunities	3	38.1
11.	Can't Recognise/Need to Recognise First	3	27.9
12.	Not A Priority	3	22.4

Focusing on the specific practices (4, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12), as opposed to the more general categories, it can be seen that collectively executives are implying that an effective leadership system would:

- spend the time and money necessary
- encourage and support their leaders and potential leaders
- provide challenges and involve the leaders in change
- create leadership opportunities for them
- be clear about what leadership is so that “they know it when they see it” (recognise it).

On the surface, these would appear to be “common-sensical” yet the results from this research indicate that only a quarter of executives are convinced that their organisations are working well across these processes. Thus, while being simple to understand, it would appear that these practices are difficult to implement effectively.

The size of the organisation was also identified as a key factor. For attracting and retaining leaders, size was felt to be a limiting factor, while for developing leaders it was more often seen to be a strength. Given the very high percentage of small organisations in Australasia, the issue of size and the organisation’s ability to provide adequate leadership systems is important. This issue will be explored fully in Chapter Eleven, however, it appears that the majority of executives believe that being small limits their ability to adequately address some of the leadership systems.

In summary, the majority of executives believe that there is scope for improvement in the processes that increase the quality and quantity of leadership within their organisations, with approximately half of the executives rating their organisation’s ability as poor to fair on all processes surveyed (attract, recognise, develop, retain and sustain). The lowest rating process was the ability to develop leaders, followed by attracting and then sustaining leaders. Executives feel most confident about their organisation’s ability to recognise, and retain leaders.

This need for improvement is reinforced by the responses to the “the amount of time and energy spent ensuring your organisation has the necessary leadership is ...” with just over half of executives rating their time and effort spent as inadequate (1-2), and only 21.4% rating “more than adequate” (4-5). Of those who rated their time and effort spent ensuring the necessary leadership as inadequate, the most frequently provided responses were that it was not valued or done; that they were too busy to give leadership the necessary attention; and that the negative culture worked against providing the necessary time and effort. Overall, these executives’ comments highlight that not enough is being done, or not enough of the “right” things are being done, to ensure their organisations have the necessary leadership.

Collectively executives believe that an effective leadership system requires both a strong willingness (*culture*) and strong competence (*ability*). The organisation must value leadership and be willing to support, encourage and invest in the different leadership processes, and must complement this attitude with effective practices. Interestingly, executives placed a greater emphasis on cultural and process factors for attract, recognise, and develop and a greater emphasis on the organisation and its external environment for retain and sustain.

Focusing on the effective practices dimension, collectively executives imply that the “right” things are spending the necessary time and money; encouraging and supporting leaders; providing challenges and involving the leaders in change; creating leadership opportunities; and being clear about what leadership is so that “they know it when they see it”.

Having addressed the *mechanics* of leadership development on the key dimensions of the organisation’s ability to attract, recognise, develop, retain, and sustain leaders, as well as the time and effort spent ensuring the necessary leadership, the following section addresses the *dynamics* of leadership development.

10.3 *The Dynamics of Leadership Development Processes*

The *dynamics* of leadership development covers issues such as the ways in which organisations facilitate and hinder the development of leaders, and the most significant challenges organisations face in developing leaders. The intent is to provide executives with the freedom to express any other relevant issues they feel are pertinent to the development of leadership within organisations.

Three questions were asked:

1. How can organisations facilitate the development of leaders?
2. How do organisations hinder the development of leaders?
3. What do you believe are your organisation's most significant challenges for developing leaders?

All questions were open ended, and the coding framework for each was developed individually to reflect the nature of the responses. The following section begins by addressing the first question in this section.

10.3.1 How can organisations facilitate the development of leaders?

Table 10.23 shows the variety of responses that were received for this question. In essence, the responses fell into the four broad categorisations. Organisations facilitate the development of leaders by implementing good leadership processes; by providing opportunities to, and experiences of, leadership; by developing a supportive leadership culture; and by having competent and supportive senior management that mentor or provide a role model for others, and that provide the necessary organisational direction (mission, vision, and goals).

Table 10.23
 Total Responses for Question 4.7
 How Can Organisation's Facilitate the Development of Leaders?

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Good Leadership Practices		52.4
General Practices	4.1	
Training and Education	14.4	
Personal Development	7.9	
Career Path Management	4.9	
Recognise/Identify Them	10.9	
Recruit Them	2.7	
Reward Them	5	
Communicate With/Get Participation From Staff	2.5	
Top Management/ Board Support	3.6	3.6
Mentor/Role Model	7.7	7.7
Opportunities/ Experience		19.6
Provide Opportunities/Experience to Lead	16.5	
Increase Responsibility/Challenges On The Job	3.1	
Supportive Culture		13.8
General Supportive Culture Statement	7.9	
Encourage Risk-Taking	2.8	
Don't Punish Mistakes	1.2	
Allow Initiative	1.9	
Clear Goals/Vision/Mission	2.9	2.9
	100	100
701 Respondents	n = 1379	

Having good leadership practices accounts for over half (52.4%) of the total respondents. The majority of executives believe that the best way to facilitate the development of leaders is to implement effective training processes and practices. In particular, providing training and education (14.4%), recognising and identifying leaders (10.9%), and providing personal development (7.9%) were highlighted. Other practices highlighted were rewarding leaders adequately, career path management, recruitment, and communicating with and getting participation from staff.

The second most frequently rated category of response relating to how organisations facilitate the development of leaders is “providing both opportunities and experiences in leading” (19.6%). This includes the response of increasing responsibility and challenge on the job (3.1%). Representative comments include: “A variety of difficult jobs and responsibilities, challenging special projects”; “provide opportunities for existing people to lead”; “early delegation of responsibility - provide wide range of job experiences”; and “encourage involvement, create opportunity, provide challenge”.

The third most frequently rated category was that a “supportive culture” facilitates the development of leaders. This included statements regarding creating the right leadership environment, providing nurture and support, and having an empowering culture. Within the category, the three most notable responses included encouraging risk taking (2.8%), allowing initiative (1.9%) and not punishing mistakes (1.2%).

In summary, to facilitate the development of leaders, executives collectively believe that organisations need to invest in leadership practices, in particular providing training and education; provide leadership opportunities and experiences; and be supportive.

10.3.2 How do organisations hinder the development of leaders?

Table 10.24 shows the range of responses received for this question. There are many more types of responses than for those given in the previous question regarding facilitate the development of leaders. Either executives find it easier to think of things that organisations

do poorly, and more difficult to think of what works well, or alternatively, there could be many more factors that hinder, than those that facilitate, the development of leaders.

Table 10.24
Total Responses to Question 4.8
How Do Organisations Hinder the Development of Leaders?

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Over-Control		24.5
General Over-Control Statements	11.4	
Process Not Outcome Oriented	.8	
Adhere to Job Descriptions	.9	
Bureaucracy - Not Enough Responsibility Delegated	11.4	
“Too Much”		8.2
Too Much Trivia/ Admin/ Detail	2.8	
Too Much Management/Confuse Management and Leadership	3.6	
Too Heavy Workload	1.8	
Stifling Initiative		20.1
Stifling Initiative Comments	5.9	
Tall Poppy Syndrome	2.9	
Reluctance to Change/ Preserve Status Quo	7.4	
Fear of Failure/Mistakes/Risks	3.9	
Inadequate Leadership Processes		24.7
General Statement	.9	
Don't Recognise/Value	7.8	
No Opportunities	7.2	
Inadequate Training	5.8	
Don't Reward Them	2.5	
Promote Technical Not People Performance	.5	

Cultural Factors		9.6
General Cultural Factors	1.8	
Lack of Support	5.4	
Politics/Power Games	2.4	
Lack of Top Management/ Board Support and Role Models	5.6	5.6
Poor Communication		2.5
General Poor Communication	1.7	
Don't Listen	.8	
Short-Term Focus		4.8
No Goals - Focused on Short Term	3.8	
Excessive Bottom Line Focus	1	
	100	100
685 Respondents	n = 1117	

It can be seen that the initial coding identified eight broad categories of factors that hindered the development of leaders. These were over-control, too much trivia, stifling initiative, inadequate processes, cultural factors, lack of top management support or role models, poor communication, and a short term focus.

The most frequently rated response category was “inadequate processes”. Given that processes and practices were highlighted as the major factor in facilitating the development of leaders, it is not surprising that the reverse is also be true. Comparing the process results from Tables 10.23 and 10.24 it is interesting to note that good practices or processes accounted for over half of the facilitate responses, yet accounts for just under a quarter of the responses for hindering. In particular training dropped from being 14.4% of facilitate, to account for only 5.8% of hinder. Recognise and value drops from 10.9% as facilitate, to 7.8% as a hindrance, and rewarding drops from 5% in facilitating, to 2.5% in hindering.

While it is not possible from the data to assess why this has occurred, it would appear that executives do not see facilitate and hinder as been purely mirror images as the same factors do not receive an equal percentage of responses under each question.

The second most frequently rated response category was that organisations hinder the development of leaders by “over-controlling”. In particular, this included “having too much bureaucracy” and “not delegating enough responsibility” down the organisation. This accounted for 11.4% of total responses, which was the most frequently rated individual factor. The majority of other responses in this category were captured by the general response of “over-control”. This included a variety of responses which indicated that autocratic managers, centralised control, and head office interference hindered the development of leaders. A number of strong adjectives were used in these descriptions including: “over dominance”, “rigidity”, “inflexibility”, “restrictive”, “strictness”, and “excessive constraints”.

The third most frequently rated category was very similar to the second, and stated that organisations hinder the development of leaders through “stifling initiative”. This included factors such as the “reluctance to change” and the strong desire to “preserve the status quo” (7.4%), as well as the fear of failure or mistakes (3.9%), and the tall poppy syndrome (2.9%). Representative comments included: “Don’t allow enough initiative. Blame for unfair consequences”; “By favouring non-threatening mediocrities”; “Unwilling to accept the failure rate which comes from trying new ideas”; “restrict initiative”; and “no scope to spread their wings, stifled by the collective forces; the need to conform to the whole”.

In essence, it appears that executives believe that the single largest way organisations hinder the development of leaders is by not giving them space. This includes the categories of “over control”, “too much trivia”, and “stifling initiative”. By not giving leaders the opportunity to lead, by constraining them through bureaucratic structures, by losing the bigger picture and focusing on the details, and by fostering norms that inhibit initiative and change, organisations stifle their ability to develop the necessary leadership. One executive sums these ideas up well in the phrase “organisational strait-jackets”.

The other major theme appears to be that organisations hinder the development of leaders by not supporting or valuing them. This includes the majority of responses under the “leadership processes” and “cultural factors” headings. It also includes the dimension of “poor communication”. By not recognising, valuing and nurturing leaders, organisations are hindering their development.

In short, collectively executives are indicating that to avoid hindering the development of leaders, organisations must “give leaders space and acknowledge them”.

10.3.3 *What do you believe are your organisation’s most significant challenges for developing leaders?*

The previous two questions asked executives to identify the factors that they believe *organisations as a whole* do to facilitate and hinder the development of leaders. This question changes the focus back to the executives’ own organisation and asks them to identify *their organisations’* particular challenges in developing leaders. Table 10.25 provides the full listing of responses provided.

Table 10.25
Total Responses for Question 4.9
What Do You Believe Are Your Organisation’s Most Significant Challenges
For Developing Leaders?

Response Category	% of Responses	Total Group %
Getting Leadership Processes Right		27.6
Assorted Process Statements	6.7	
Selecting/Promoting Right People	11.4	
Training/Development	9.5	

Change		21.5
General Change Statement	4.9	
Changing Client Needs	1.2	
Organisational Change	3.3	
Culture	7.3	
Market/Environment/International Competition/Technology/Govt.	4.8	
Providing Space/Challenges/ Opportunities	10.6	10.6
Time and Money (Resources)	7.4	7.4
Small Size of Organisation	1.4	1.4
Surviving	1.5	1.5
EEO Challenges		1.9
Providing Equal Opportunities	.7	
Old Boy Network	.2	
Women	.8	
Other Cultures	.2	
Existing Poor Leadership/Senior Management/Board	6.9	6.9
Recognition/Acceptance of Need/ Benefit	5.8	5.8
Sharing Power		7.5
Sharing Power/Responsibility/Control	7.1	
Flatten Hierarchy	.4	
Gaining Trust	3.3	3.3
Provide Vision/Direction	4.6	4.6
	100	100
614 Respondents	n = 850	

The most frequently rated category of response, as for the previous two questions, was that the most significant challenge executives believed their organisations had was getting their leadership processes right. This accounted for 27.6% of executive responses. In particular, two processes stood out. The first was selecting and promoting the right people (11.4%), and the second was training and developing leaders (9.5%). Other processes mentioned included remuneration, mentoring, and identifying the right competencies.

The second most frequently rated challenge highlighted by executives is broadly described as “change”. This includes two major themes. The first is the challenge of coping with the high degree of change that is occurring. This includes the changing market, environment, technology, customer needs, and increasing competition. The second theme highlights the changes that need to be made in the organisation.

Two response categories straddle both themes. “Organisational change” refers to both the constantly changing structure that makes it difficult to develop leaders, and also points to changes that the organisation needs to make. “Ability to adjust to change” and “introducing the necessary changes” provide representative comments of these two positions. Roughly equal proportions of each exist in this category. Similarly, both aspects are implied with “culture”. The dominant response being that the greatest challenge is changing the culture, or “having the stamina to sustain a culture change” so that it is supportive of leaders. The minority of other responses indicating that the challenge is coping with a changing culture.

The above responses highlight the difficulty that organisations face, and feel, with respect to developing the necessary leadership. That is, the challenge is not only in providing the leadership required in today’s environment, but also in developing the leadership necessary for the future. This is similar to Jack Welch’s metaphor of needing to “change the tyres while the car’s still rolling” (Tichy and Sherman, 1993, p 260). Kotter (1988) identified a similar dynamic when he noted that the greater the degree of change, the greater the need for leadership *and* the more difficult it is to provide leadership. Executives seem to be making a similar point such that the changing environment, and the need for organisational or culture change, makes balancing the “doing” with the “developing” difficult.

The third and fourth most frequently rated response categories are very closely linked. They are “providing challenges and opportunities” (10.6%) and “sharing the power” (7.5%). Both are about giving leaders space, a theme that also came through strongly in the previous question.

This question on challenges highlighted three additional factors not rated on the previous “hinder” question. The “change” and “survival” categories introduce the organisational reality that leadership development needs to occur in times that are rapidly changing, within organisations requiring significant change and often struggling to survive.

The challenge of “providing vision and direction” also did not feature in the previous question yet is highlighted in this question. While not accounting for a large percentage of responses (4.6%), it raises some interesting issues. Representative comments include: “... and define the future direction and pursue that goal”; “to creatively build on tradition, without letting it inhibit the strategies needed to develop new and effective responses to present and future challenges”; “creating a vision of where we want to be so that the leaders can channel their efforts away from the basics of organising and controlling”; “setting them a meaningful organisation objective”; “..forward planning ie. direction”; “encouraging the NZ staff to ‘dream’ new ideas at the same time as following parent directives”; and “daring to have a vision for the next 5-10 years and going for it”. It is not clear from the responses whether the challenge is developing the ability to think long-term and provide vision in leaders, or whether the challenge is clarifying the vision and long-term strategies so that leaders can align their efforts around this future. In either case, it is interesting that vision is seen to be both a central aspect of the definitions of leadership, as well as being one of the central challenges in developing leaders.

Equal opportunity challenges did not feature in the previous question regarding the way in which organisations hinder the development of leaders, yet receives 1.9% of this questions response. It is not clear from the responses why this is the case. However, given the voluminous literature and strong focus this subject has received, particularly in America, it is surprising that this aspect receives such little emphasis overall. The little emphasis

may partially be explained by the relatively small percentage of women completing the questionnaire.

In summary, the four most frequently rated challenges that executives believed their organisations faced, were getting the leadership processes right (particularly selecting, promoting, training and developing leaders); coping with the high degree of change that is occurring and making the necessary changes within the organisation; providing challenges and opportunities; and sharing the power and responsibility.

10.3.4 The Dynamics of Leadership - A Summary

The intent of this section was to provide executives with the freedom to express any relevant issues they felt were pertinent to the development of leadership within organisations. The answers to these questions tended to reinforce the themes emerging from the “mechanics” section. In essence, the key themes regarding the development of leaders that emerge from executives responses are:

- *Invest in leadership practices:* particularly training, development, education and selection and promotion.
- *Provide leadership opportunities, experiences and challenges.*
- *Be supportive.* Recognise, value, and nurture leaders.
- *Give leaders space.* In particular remove the bureaucratic constraints, share the power and responsibility, and foster norms that encourage initiative and change. In short, remove the “organisational strait-jackets”.
- *Have a clear organisational vision.* Provide the bigger picture and relax the focus on the details.
- *Cope with the high degree of change that is occurring and make the necessary organisational changes.*

What becomes clear from these comments is that leadership is required to develop leaders. Many of the above themes (change, future direction, people focus) were the dominant

themes in executives' definitions of leadership. Thus, there appears to be a reinforcing cycle with leadership: ineffective leadership not only affects current performance but also impacts on the development of future leaders and consequently future performance. Conversely, effective leadership provides good performance and an environment that fosters the development of future leaders and consequently positively impacts on future performance.

This description of the “mechanics” and “dynamics” of leadership development systems concludes the results section of this thesis. Having described and explored the results in Chapters Seven through Ten, Chapter Eleven explores the implications of these results on theory and practice. Chapter Twelve highlights possible areas for future research.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

IMPLICATIONS OF RESULTS

11.1 Introduction

The three major research outcomes of this research were to establish executives' perceptions on the key dimensions of: "*Is leadership important?*"; "*What is leadership?*"; and "*How to develop leadership*". Having addressed the results for each of these outcomes in the previous four chapters, this chapter consolidates the results and highlights the major conclusions drawn. Conclusions from this research (often referred to as "executives' conclusions" in this chapter) are compared with relevant conclusions drawn in the literature review, and the implications of the results are explored. Where relevant, the implications will be considered for executives, leadership development practitioners, organisational system designers, and leadership theorists/academics.

To maintain consistency with the earlier chapters, this chapter will explore the conclusions and implications in four sections:

1. The Importance of Leadership (Section 11.2)
2. What is Leadership (Section 11.3)
3. Leadership Development Principles (Section 11.4.1 and 11.4.2)
4. Leadership Development Processes (Section 11.4.3)

Each section begins with a table that compares the literature and executives' conclusions. The implications of the conclusions are then explored. The following section begins with the importance of leadership.

11.2 *The Importance of Leadership*

Table 11.1 provides a summary of the main literature and research conclusions made with regards to the importance of leadership.

Table 11.1
Summary of Literature and Research Conclusions on the Importance of Leadership

Literature Review Conclusions	Research Results Conclusions
<p><i>Importance of Leadership</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership is important but not necessarily in ways traditionally assumed. There is, therefore value in further research and understanding of leadership. 	<p><i>Importance of Leadership</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 88.9% of executives strongly believe that leadership is important. Responses indicate that leadership is important to handle and bring about change; have a strong sense of direction; and have the people side of the organisation well handled.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both the "felt" and "real" importance of leadership needs to addressed. . 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both the "real" and "felt" measures indicate a strong need for, and importance of, leadership. The "felt" need for leadership being stronger than the "real" need.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kotter's (1990a) framework provides the basis for a simple diagnostic tool of "real" importance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No equivalent executive response.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No corresponding literature review statement. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is a high perceived future need for people with strong management and strong leadership, and currently the majority of executives believe their organisations have too few such people.

It can be seen from Table 11.1 that the overwhelming conclusion from both the literature and executives is that leadership is important. It is interesting to explore the similarities and differences between literature and executives' reasons as to why leadership is important.

Table 11.2 provides a comparison of the literature reasons proffered for leadership's importance and those reasons put forward by executives. This table was created by placing the factors identified in section 2.2.2 alongside the comparative executive responses from

Table 7.3. The executive responses identified in bold indicate a category heading with all responses in brackets indicating those factors that are included in the bold category.

Table 11.2
Comparison of Literature and Executive Rationales for the Importance of Leadership

Literature Categories	Executive Responses
Long-term competitiveness (O'Toole, 1995).	No comparative category - "Success/Results/Growth" captures some aspects of this dimension.
Organisational direction, to see the path ahead and take the risks to show the way (Greenleaf, 1977; Gilmore 1988).	Direction/Focus 8.1% Strategies/Goals/Objectives 3.5% Vision 11.2% (General - 3.1%; Provide Vision - 5.4%; Achieve Vision - 1.3%; Communicate Vision - 1.4%).
Organisational survival (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Bass 1990a)	Survival 2.9%
Alignment of various stakeholder's interests (Gilmore, 1988; Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Patterson, Grenny, and McMillan, 1996).	Not addressed by individuals, but collectively two key stakeholders identified - staff and customers.
Handling of internal differences (Gilmore, 1988; Clark and Clark, 1990).	No comparative category.
Provision of meaning (Gilmore, 1988).	No comparative category.
Developing a buffer between the organisation and its wider environment (Gilmore, 1988).	Implied in Environmental Factors 19.4% (General - 0.9%; Change - 8.3%; Complexity - 3.4%; Technology - 2.9%; Competition/ Internationalisation - 3.9%).
Developing the basic culture (character) of the organisation (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Kotter and Heskett, 1992).	Culture Change 1.7% Develop/Support People 2.4% Commitment of People 1.3% Role model/coach/mentor 2.0%
Increasing organisational performance and effectiveness (Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan, 1994; Bass, 1990a).	Success/Results/Growth 9.8%
Success of the organisation (Foster and Helling, 1995).	Success/Results/Growth 9.8%
Providing shared purpose, values and vision (Wall, Solum, and Sobol, 1992; Senge, 1990).	Vision 11.2% (General - 3.1%; Provide Vision - 5.4%; Achieve Vision - 1.3%; Communicate Vision - 1.4%).
Handling the increasing amount and speed of change and to bring about the necessary change in organisations (Kotter, 1988; Kotter 1990a; Locke, Wheeler, Schneider, Niles, Goldstein, Welsh, and Chah, 1991; Clark and Clark, 1990).	Bring About Change 18.4% (Make Change Happen - 10.2%; Encourage Change in Others - 5%; Culture Change - 1.7%; Innovation/ Risks - 1.5%).

Summarising the literature, there are three major themes for why leadership is seen to be important: its impact on future performance and the organisation's culture, and its ability to bring about and handle change. Summarising the executives' point of view, the three major themes are that leadership is seen to be important to handle and bring about change; have a strong sense of direction; and to effectively handle the people side of the organisation. There is an alignment between the literature and executive conclusions.

In general the future performance and direction aspects are similar, although the performance emphasis appears stronger in the literature category. The "culture" and "people" aspects are similar, although the literature tends to have a stronger focus on the values and meaning aspects of culture, whereas executives appear to have a stronger focus on motivating, inspiring, supporting and developing people. The change dimensions are virtually identical. These comparisons need to be interpreted with caution, as the literature categories were designed to indicate the breadth of reasons put forward; they do not provide an indication of the strength of, or extent to which these categories dominate the literature.

The literature review concluded that the majority of theorists were aligned with the voluntarist as opposed to the deterministic school. However, it was suggested that there was truth in both the voluntaristic and deterministic schools. In particular, the theories and research of Senge (1990) and Collins and Porras (1994) were highlighted as providing a level of integration between the two schools, using deterministic arguments to support voluntaristic conclusions. In this integration, the answer to the question, "Is leadership important?" was "Yes, but not necessarily in ways we have traditionally assumed." More specifically, "Yes, leadership is important, but not so much because of what leaders can do, but rather in their ability to establish structures that enable people throughout the organisation to achieve".

This conclusion drawn from the literature has equal relevance to executives. It can be seen that the majority of executives (88.9%) are aligned with the voluntaristic school conclusion that leadership is important. While the reasons executives provide for leadership's importance - handle and bring about change; have a strong sense of direction; and to

effectively handle the people side of the organisation - are also voluntaristic, Senge (1990) describes this view as traditional. He argues that a new view of leadership is required, one that recognises the leader's role as "designer". Collins and Porras (1994) reinforce the importance of the "designer" role arguing that leaders of visionary organisations concentrate on creating enduring organisations. In their own words, leaders are "clock builders" not "time tellers". Instead of concentrating on acquiring the individual personality traits of visionary leadership ("time telling"), "clock builders" take an architectural approach and "concentrate on building the organizational traits of visionary companies ... Their greatest creation is *the company itself* and what it stands for" (Collins and Porras, 1994, p 23 - emphasis in the original). The focus of leadership, under the less traditional model is, therefore, less on the leader and their characteristics, and more on developing an organisation that allows individuals to make their full contribution.

If these authors are correct, the further development of Australasian executives' thinking requires a move towards new views of the importance of leadership. New views that acknowledge that leadership plays a key role in organisations (voluntaristic position), yet characterise this key role more strongly in terms of creating organisational systems that enable the organisation to function effectively without the leaders direct contribution (deterministic position).

11.2.1 Implications of the Importance of Leadership.

The primary implication for executives, leadership development practitioners, organisational system designers, and leadership theorists/academics is that leadership is not something that should be ignored. Executives should invest in leadership development, putting their money in an area they claim to be important. Leadership development practitioners and organisational system designers need to be working on developing effective development programmes and systems that increase the quantity and quality of leadership within organisations. The results also imply that it is worth investing more time

and resources into leadership research. Further, such research and literature in this area should be well received as it is an area that executives believe to be important.

Before addressing the implications of “what is leadership”, the implications of the results for the current stocks of management are explored. As with the results, the implications of this question are presented here out of questionnaire sequence because they provide an interesting juxtaposition between the future importance and current stocks.

11.2.2 *Current Stock of Leaders and Managers*

Question 3.1 asked executives to rate their organisation's current supply of people with various management/leadership combinations. Kotter (1990a) conducted similar research with 200 executives from twelve high performing organisations. Kotter's (1990a) research differs from this research in that he asked executives, “For your corporation to continue to be successful over the next ten years, do you have the right number of people in each of the four quadrants? Or, are there too few people in some quadrants? Or are there too many in some?” Where Kotter (1990a) measured the extent to which organisations believed they had the necessary combinations of leadership and management for the continued *future* success of the organisation, this research asked executives to rate their organisation's as they are *now*.

However, both sets of research aim to provide an indication of the quality of leadership and management within organisations. The similarity of format, with both groups of respondents given three choices for each combination of leadership and management (too few, about right, too many), and the similarity of intention, counterbalance the differences in question wording. However, some caution should be exercised in interpreting the comparisons between the two groups of research.

Kotter (1990a) only provides the results for the category receiving the *largest number* of responses. Table 11.3 provides a comparison by putting this research's results into a format similar to Kotter's (1990a).

Table 11.3
Comparison of US and Australasian Results

<p style="text-align: center;">People with Weak Management/Strong Leadership</p> <p><i>Blyde:</i> Over half say they have “too few” people like this.</p> <p><i>Kotter:</i> Nearly half say they have “too few” people like this.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">People with Strong Management/Strong Leadership</p> <p><i>Blyde:</i> Three quarters report “too few” people in this quadrant.</p> <p><i>Kotter:</i> Virtually all report “too few” people in this quadrant.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">People with Weak Management/Weak Leadership</p> <p><i>Blyde:</i> Nearly two-thirds say they have “too many” people like this.</p> <p><i>Kotter:</i> Half say they have “too many” people like this.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">People with Strong Management/Weak Leadership</p> <p><i>Blyde:</i> Nearly two-fifths report state they have about the right amount of people here.</p> <p><i>Kotter:</i> Nearly two-thirds report “too many” people here.</p>

It can be seen from Table 11.3 that the results from both sets of research are similar. In particular results for the weak management, strong leadership quadrant are almost identical with approximately half of Australasian and US executives believing that they have too few people with this combination.

Australasian executives had a higher percentage of people indicating “too many” for the weak management and weak leadership quadrant. This could indicate that Australasian organisations have more people of this combination than the twelve high performing US organisations.

With respect to the number of people with strong management and leadership, Kotter's (1990a) "virtually all report too few" response (over 95 percent) is higher than this research's "three quarters report too few" response. While it is clear that the overwhelming majority of both Australasian and US executives surveyed believe that their organisations have too few people of this calibre, it appears that more Australasian executives believe they have "about the right" amount of people in this quadrant. This could indicate that Australasian executives believe they have a better calibre of leadership and management in their organisations than do their US counterparts.

The quadrant with the greatest difference between the two pieces of research is the strong management, weak leadership combination. Kotter (1990a) indicates that the majority (nearly two thirds) of US executives report "too many" in this quadrant, while in this research, the majority response was "about right". Only a third of Australasian executives indicated the "too many" response, approximately half of the US response for the same category. One possible explanation is that management is more highly valued in Australasia than in the US. Rost (1991), writing from the US, notes that management is often denigrated when compared with leadership. It appears that this denigration has occurred to a greater extent in the US.

Kotter (1990a) concludes his research by noting that, "as a whole, the data strongly suggests that most firms today have insufficient leadership, and that many corporations are 'over-managed' and 'under-led'" (p 10). This research's general conclusion is similar, however Australasian executives do not feel their organisations are as "overmanaged" as US executives.

The combination of high future importance of leadership, and low current stocks of leaders indicates a worsening leadership situation within Australasian organisations unless executives, leadership development practitioners, organisational system designers, and leadership theorists/academics invest further time and resources into addressing leadership issues.

One of the starting points for addressing this worsening leadership situation is clarifying further the nature of leadership. The implications of the results exploring “What is leadership?” are addressed in the following section.

11.3 What is Leadership?

Table 11.4 provides a summary of the main literature and research conclusions made with regards to what leadership is.

Table 11.4
Summary of Literature and Research Conclusions Regarding “What is Leadership?”

Literature Review Conclusions	Research Results Conclusions
<p><i>What is Leadership?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Two main approaches are taken to describing leadership - <i>definitions</i> and <i>Schools of Thought</i>. 	<p><i>What is Leadership?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> No equivalent executive responses.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dictionary definitions do not reflect the complexity of the leadership field. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No equivalent executive responses.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Scholarly theorists have failed to provide a single, agreed upon definition of leadership. This has hindered the development of leadership studies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No equivalent executive responses.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The following three broad areas (role, property, and process) and thirteen themes emerge from literature definitions: ROLE: Leadership as a Differentiated Role; Leadership as One Person in Charge of a Group; Leadership as Collective Leaders Who Are In Office PROPERTY: Leadership as Personality Traits; Leadership as Behaviour or Pattern of Behaviour; PROCESS: Leadership as an Initiation of Structure; Leadership as Management; Leadership as “Do As the Leader Wishes”; Leadership as Influence; Leadership as a Relationship; Leadership as a Power Relation; Leadership as Transformation; Leadership as an Instrument of Vision and Goal Achievement; Miscellaneous or Combination Definitions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Collectively executives believe the essence of leadership is that leaders provide future direction, they have respected characters, they inspire and motivate others, and have strong people skills. In short, leadership has strong personal and interpersonal elements.

Literature Review Conclusions	Research Results Conclusions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Schools of Thought approach has been the preferred method for understanding leadership. Four major schools of leadership thought exist - great man/trait, behavioural, situational/contingency, and transformational/charismatic leadership. The early Great Man and Trait approaches emphasised natural skills and characteristics, but could not agree or isolate key characteristics that distinguished leaders from non-leaders. Therefore, the emphasis moved to what the leader does (behaviours) as opposed to who the leader is. The inability of the behaviourist schools to provide a definitive set of behaviours led to the development of the situationalist schools where the appropriate characteristics or behaviour were deemed to be determined by the different situations within which leaders found themselves. This broke the long held notion that there was one best way to lead. More recently, the idea that leadership is about transforming followers to higher levels of performance has dominated. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No equivalent executive responses.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> While the Schools of Thought is the most popular approach, a recent critique by Rost (1991) suggests that the Schools of Thought provide a "ritualised" historical analysis of leadership thought. This ritualised account is inaccurate and misrepresentative in that: 1. only the views of the dominant social psychology and management paradigm are represented; 2. rather than distinct, separate leadership movements existing throughout history, the Schools of Thought have been overlapping and intermingled; and 3. a false sense of progress is created when in fact leadership studies are not reflecting the understanding of leadership required in the post-industrial age. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No equivalent executive responses.

Literature Review Conclusions	Research Results Conclusions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Leadership and management are different, complete, and yet interdependent, action systems. The inability to recognise this has resulted in confusion regarding the relationship between leadership and management, with the traditional “solution” being that leadership is a subset of management, and the more recent “solution” claiming that leadership is good management. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 92.5% of executives surveyed believe that leaders are different from managers The two most frequently provided explanations by executives for why leaders are <i>not</i> different from managers are that <i>leadership equals management</i> and that <i>leadership is a subset of management</i>. These categories account for 62.1% of the “no” responses. The majority of executive responses do not fit the traditional PLOC framework in that leadership is seen to have its own direction setting function (vision) that is distinct from planning.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kotter’s (1990a) framework provides the best organisational summary of the differences between leadership and management. His model clearly differentiates on the basis of essential processes and relationship; highlights substantive differences, not differences in degree; and insists that both are necessary in organisations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The three most frequently provided explanations by executives for why leaders <i>are</i> different from managers are that leaders provide a strong sense of vision and direction; they grow and motivate others to achieve that direction; and there is something about their character which distinguishes them from managers. These categories account for 50.5% of the “yes” responses.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Johnson (1992) provides an understanding of the dynamics of the interdependent relationship between leadership and management. Together, Kotter’s (1990a) and Johnson’s (1992) models represent a strong and cohesive framework for viewing leadership as substantively different from, yet dynamically interdependent with, management. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No equivalent executive responses.

As Table 11.4 highlights, the conclusions from “What is leadership” include a variety of dimensions. This section will address these in three broad areas. The first takes the literature definitions and Schools of Thought and compares them with executive responses, as well as addressing the implications of these comparisons.

The second area addresses the differences between leaders and managers. This includes contrasting this research’s conclusion that leaders and managers are different with Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin’s (1995) conclusion that the “lay managers” believe that

they are the same. In exploring the reasons for the opposing conclusions, many of the key issues that contribute to the confusion between leaders and managers are elicited, as well as possible frameworks for overcoming these issues. As such, these two pieces of New Zealand research provide a good example of the dynamics that occur in the wider leadership versus management debate. In addition, executives' explanations for the differences between leaders and managers will be retrospectively compared with the frameworks developed by Zaleznik (1977); Bennis (1989b); Rost (1991) and Kotter (1990a).

The third area addresses the relationship nature of leadership. This section is included as the author strongly believes that this aspect of leadership will be fundamental to future conceptualisations of leadership. It is also an aspect of leadership that did not feature strongly in executive responses. The implications of understanding leadership as a relationship are also considered.

The following section begins by comparing the definitional and Schools of Thought themes with executive responses.

11.3.1 Comparing Executive Responses with Literature Definitions and Schools of Thought

The first conclusion in Table 11.4 states that the literature review identified two main approaches to answering the question, "What is leadership?": the *definitional* and *Schools of Thought* approach. As the coding system for executives' responses emerged from their responses, and not from the frameworks developed in the literature review, this section will compare executive responses with the "Emergent Framework of Leadership Definitions" developed in the literature, as well as providing an indication of the Schools of Thought that are implied in executive responses.

All comparisons are made retrospectively, and must therefore be interpreted with caution. The data for these comparisons is collected from the results to the questions “Are leaders different from managers?” (Question 2.1 - Table 8.1); “What is the essence of leadership?” (Question 2.2. - Table 8.9); and “On what principles do you believe leadership should be developed?” (Question 2.4 - Table 9.5). Question 2.4 is included as executives provided a number of responses to this question that highlight their perception of the nature of leadership.

11.3.1.1 Comparison between Literature Definitions and Executive Responses

Table 11.5 provides a comparison between literature definitions and executive responses. The executive responses identified in bold indicate a category heading, with all responses in brackets indicating those factors that are included in the bold category.

Table 11.5
Comparison of Literature Definition Themes with Executive Responses

Literature Definition Themes	Executives Response Themes		
	Question 2.1	Question 2.2	Question 2.4
ROLE			
<i>Leadership as a Differentiated Role</i>	Role Model/Set Example (2.7%)	Role Model 11.3% (Provide Role Model - 3.6%; Respect of others/confidence in you - 7.7%)	Decision Making 1.9%
<i>Leadership as One Person in Charge of a Group</i>	No corresponding category	No corresponding category	No corresponding category
<i>Leadership as Collective Leaders Who Are In Office</i>	No corresponding category	No corresponding category	No corresponding category
PROPERTY			
<i>Leadership as Personality Traits</i>	Character 5.2% (General Character Traits - 3.1%; "X" Factor - 0.1%; Charisma - 1.3%; Respect - 0.5%; Courage - 0.2%)	Character 7% (Key Set of Character Traits - 4.3%; Charisma/Presence - 2.7%)	Character Traits 27.3% (General - 1.3%; Integrity - 5.3%; Honesty - 3.3%; Morals/Ethics - 4.3%; Self confidence/knowledge - 5.2%; Charisma - 0.4%; Trust/ Respect - 2.8%; Empathy - 1.7%; Enthusiasm/Energy - 1.0%; Performance/Results Oriented - 0.9%; Commitment - 1.1%)

Literature Definition Themes	Executives Response Themes		
	Question 2.1	Question 2.2	Question 2.4
<i>Leadership as Behaviour or Pattern of Behaviour</i>	Difficult to Determine	Difficult to Determine	Skills 44.1% (General - 1.6%; People/Team Skills - 12.1%; Business Skills - 2.1%; Vision - 4.2%; Strategic Planning/Goals - 3.8%; Trend Analysis - 0.4%; Communication (including listening) - 7.0%; Motivation - 2.7%; Thinking Skills - 3.9%; Knowledge of the Job - 2.4%; Handle and Facilitate Change - 0.9%; Decision Making - 1.9%; Problem Solving - 1.1%)
PROCESS			
<i>Leadership as an Initiation of Structure</i>	Indirectly through Vision, Empower/Inspire and Motivate	Indirectly through Vision , Inspire and Motivate	Indirectly through Vision.
<i>Leadership as Management</i>	Leadership = Management 1.0% (General Statement - 0.8%; Getting Things Done Through People - 0.2%) Leadership as a Subset of Management 2.5% (General Statement - 1.3%; A Good Manager Must Be a Good Leader - 0.6%; Leadership is the People Side of Management - 0.6%)	No corresponding category	No corresponding category

Literature Definition Themes	Executives Response Themes		
	Question 2.1	Question 2.2	Question 2.4
Leadership as "Do As the Leader Wishes"	Implementers 6% (Of leaders directions/actions - 3.0%; Of vision/goals set by leaders - 3.0%) A Few Vision responses ¹	No corresponding category	No corresponding category
Leadership as Influence	Inspire/Motivate/Energy 9.3%	Inspire and Motivate 19% (Inspire and Motivate Others - 15.6%; Towards Vision - 3.4%) Understands People's Needs/ Compassionate 3.5% Empowering 5.1% People Focused 2.6%	Motivation 2.7%
Leadership as a Relationship	Team Oriented/Participative 2.3%	No corresponding category	No corresponding category
Leadership as a Power Relation	No corresponding category	No corresponding category	No corresponding category
Leadership as Transformation	Change 3.8% (Bring about change - 3.1%; Risks - 0.7%) Inspire/Motivate/Energy 9.3%	Bring About Change 2.6% Inspire and Motivate Others 15.6%	Handle and Facilitate Change .9%
Leadership as an Instrument of Vision and Goal Achievement	Vision 2.0% Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision 8.4% Communicate Vision 1.4% Gain Commitment to Vision 0.9% Goals 1.4%	Vision 19.4% (Create Vision - 13.2%; Create/Achieve Vision - 3.3%; Communicate Vision - 2.9%) Goals 8.0%	Vision 4.2% Strategic Planning/Goals 3.8%

¹ A few vision responses: Some of the vision and direction statements have overtones of "do as the leader wishes". The following executive statements are representative of such comments: "Leaders create and articulate a vision, passionately own it and *relentlessly drive to completion*" (emphasis added); "Leaders have a responsibility for selecting the direction of an enterprise and *inducing others* to follow them" (emphasis added); "Leaders set direction, they are looking for better ways to do things. They are innovative, *sometimes undemocratic* in their approach as they have a vision which needs to be implemented" (emphasis added).

Summarising Table 11.5, it can be seen that four of the literature themes received the greatest percentage of executive responses across all three questions. These themes are “Leadership as an Instrument of Vision and Goal Achievement”; “Leadership as Influence”; “Leadership as Personality Traits”; and “Leadership as Transformation”.

“Leadership as an Instrument of Vision and Goal Achievement” is very strongly associated with executives’ perceptions of leadership, and has consistently received a large percentage of executive responses in the questions addressing the nature of leadership. It is interesting that executive responses indicate a “direction setting” and “big picture” contribution that the literature framework does not explicitly address.

“Leadership as Personality Traits” is apparent in all three questions, but features most strongly in the question that addresses leadership development principles. The category of “Leadership as Behaviour or Pattern of Behaviour” also rates highly for this question (44.1% of executive responses), but was more difficult to determine for questions 2.1 and 2.2. The stronger focus on traits and behaviours when addressing development is natural, although it is unclear how strongly executives define leadership explicitly in these terms. From the earlier questions, it can be seen that defining leadership purely in character or behaviour terms is small (5-7%), however their strong presence in question 2.3 may indicate that this view is held by a greater number of executives than is indicated by these earlier questions.

In the literature categorisation of “leadership as transformation”, two aspects are identified. The first refers to the “fundamental changes” leaders initiate. This aspect is captured to a limited extent by the “change” or “bring about change” responses. The second aspect refers to “getting people to do things over and above what is expected”. This theme is captured by “inspire and motivate” statements, and represents the largest proportion of executive responses in this category. While the inclusion of “inspire and motivate” in the transformation category seems reasonable, it is not clear whether executives make this connection. It is more likely that, from the executives’ point of view, “getting people to do things over and above what is expected” is best captured by “inspire and motivate” than by

“leadership as transformation”. The executive response “inspire and motivate” is also included in the “leadership as influence” category as it has a strong similarity to this category as well. As a result, one or both of the “leadership as transformation” and “leadership as influence” categories are overstated.

The “leadership as influence” category is a theme that appears to be strong in executive answers but is implicitly, rather than explicitly stated. The evidence of this can be found in two major areas. The first can be implied from the very few responses that could be categorised the “Leadership as One Person in Charge of a Group”, “Power Relation”, or “Do as the leader wishes” responses. The second comes from the responses to the differences between leaders and managers. The characteristics attributed to managers tend to have stronger overtones in the areas of “control”, “dominance”, “authority” and are more strongly associated with positional power. Leadership, on the other hand, appears to be more strongly associated with influence. The following executive comments are representative of this feeling: “A good leader always gives the impression he is working for and with the team. A manager is seen by his subordinates as being “in charge” of a team - there is a subtle difference”; “[Leaders] want to achieve success in a way that is felt good by the majority of people in the organisation. It is the opposite to ‘making people do as they are told’ which is the way some managers act”; “Managers direct and control organisations to achieve agreed business plans and budgets. Leaders set personal example and motivate, coach, and encourage other people to follow and accept and action their ideas”; and “Leader does not rely on conferred authority of a bureaucratic nature”.

From these responses it can be seen that the primary source of this influence is interpersonal. That is, the leader cares for others and engenders the respect of others. The following executive comments are representative: “... strong human concern, has no fear of developing strong people ...”; “Leaders bring people together, ... able to positively influence human emotions and work behaviour”; “[Leaders] also have a developed sense of interpersonal relationships which are important to carry the enterprise forward and have the ability to motivate others”; and “have ability to make all employees at all levels feel that they are important and that their contribution is important”. These sensitivity and caring

aspects of leadership are much stronger in executive responses, than in the literature. That is, the so-called “softer” aspects of leadership appear to be more significant for executives than for theorists.

Rost’s (1991) examination of literature definitions highlighted that:

“If there are few other unifying elements to our collective thought about leadership, the notion of leadership as influence is one that clearly stands out ... the notion of influence transcends several conceptual frameworks of leadership” (p 79).

While not explicitly identified in the results chapters of executive responses, the retrospective application of literature categorisations has highlighted that the influence nature of leadership is implicit in many executive responses and, as Rost (1991) indicates, may form one of the unifying themes in a collective understanding of leadership.

Interestingly, the “initiation of structure” category did not feature strongly in executives’ responses. This category is very similar to the leader as “designer” role identified in the importance of leadership literature review, and reinforces the absence of such thought in executives’ perceptions. If Senge (1990) and Collins and Porras (1994) are correct, it also reinforces the need to further develop executives’ thinking in this direction.

The “leadership as management” category was explicitly mentioned by few executives, however, as this aspect is central to an understanding of leadership within organisations, it will be more fully explored in section 11.3.2.

In summary, comparing executive responses with the literature definition themes, the greatest degree of overlap occurred with “Leadership as an Instrument of Vision and Goal Achievement”; “Leadership as Influence”; “Leadership as Personality Traits”; and “Leadership as Transformation”. It was also shown that executives have a stronger sense of the “direction setting” and “people focused” aspects of leadership than the Emerging

Literature Definition Framework. The four themes are a good starting point for, and could form the foundation of, a definition of leadership that is shared (agreed upon), consistent, clear and easily identifiable, precise/accurate, concise, easily understandable, researchable (able to be used by scholars), and practical (able to be used by practitioners) (Rost, 1991; Clark and Clark, 1990). Movement towards such a definition will enable leadership studies to progress, and will improve our ability to develop leaders (Rost, 1991; Clark and Clark, 1990).

Before moving to the next section, it is important to note that past and present attempts to define leadership have increasingly been challenged, particularly by “new science” leadership theorists (Wheatley 1992, Blank, 1995). The “new science” school argues that the focus of the definitions is misplaced, and further, attempts to provide a single definition of leadership may be misguided.

The focus in the majority of leadership definitions is solely on the leader. Blank (1995) argues that this reflects “Newtonian” assumptions where it is believed that describing the parts is an effective method for describing the whole. In leadership, this has led to leadership being defined as the composite qualities (in particular, the characteristics and behaviours) of individual leaders. In short, “leadership” refers to the characteristics of an individual person. “New science” approaches reject the notion that the whole can be described by analysing the parts. Applied to leadership, the “new science” approach identifies leadership as a “field of interaction”, or a relationship between leaders and followers. In this sense, leadership is interpersonal, not personal. Thus, the focus in defining leadership is in defining the nature of the interaction, not the separate parts. This assumption is very important and will be addressed in more detail in section 11.3.3.

Providing a definition of a relationship is more complicated than defining the characteristics of an individual as leadership becomes more “subjective” than “objective”. In the “new science” approaches, there is not a predictable “out there” aspect of leadership that is independent of our attempts to define it. Rather leadership emerges from the

multiple interactions between leaders and followers. To a large extent then, leadership is unpredictable, and therefore perhaps undefinable.

Writing about the process of creating, Fritz (1991) makes a distinction between *form* and *formula* which is useful to this discussion of leadership definitions. Using an analogy of the blues form in music, he notes that the form in blues is not a formula. Although each artist uses a consistent and fixed order of events (I-IV-I, V-IV-I), each will approach their music in a unique way. The form does not limit artistic expression, rather it allows originality, innovativeness, and personal expressiveness by helping the blues player to *focus* their music.

Thus, rather than trying to provide a single definition of leadership that will lead to success, effort should turn to determining the “form” of leadership. For the new science school of leadership, this form is relationship, not individually, based. This form will enable leaders to focus their time and energy in the right areas, rather than force them into “nine steps” or “ten traits” for leadership success. In this new science conceptualisation, leadership will be “both predictable and unpredictable ... Each [leader] has his or her own personal rhythms. The process is individually developed and personally tailored to take into account such variables as temperament, personality, idiosyncrasies, strengths, weaknesses, tastes, aspirations, and interests” (Fritz, 1991, p 8 - parenthesis added).

In summary, the “new science” approaches challenge the traditional focus of leadership definitions and indicate that the essential “form” of leadership is relational, not personal. Further, they imply that attempts to provide a single definition “formula”, with a set of character traits or behaviours that consistently characterise leaders, has been unsuccessful simply because it is not possible. In defining the parts, one does not capture the whole. In short, the form of leadership may be definable (however at present, the focus is misplaced), however, a leadership formula is not attainable.

Having compared executive responses to literature definitions, attention will now focus on comparing executive responses with the literature Schools of Thought identified in Chapter Three.

11.3.1.2 *Comparison between Literature Schools of Thought and Executive Responses*

Table 11.6 provides a comparison between literature Schools of Thought and executive responses. As with Table 11.5, executive responses are taken from Tables 8.1; 8.9; and 9.5. The executive responses identified in bold indicate a category heading, with all responses in brackets indicating those factors that are included in the bold category.

Table 11.6
Schools of Thought

	Great Man/Trait	Behaviour	Situational/Contingency	Transformational/Charismatic
Question 2.1	General Character 3.1% Respect 0.5% Courage 0.2%	Difficult to Assess	Difficult to Assess	Change 3.8% (Bring About Change - 3.1%; Risks - 0.7%) Vision 2.0% Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision 8.4% Communicate Vision 1.4% Gain Commitment to Vision 0.9% Goals 1.4% "X factor" 0.1% Charisma 1.3% People Focused 20.3% (People Oriented - 4.0%; Inspire/Motivate/Energy - 9.3%; Grow/Develop/ Empower Others - 2.1%; Heart/Feeling etc - 1.2%; Team Oriented/Participative - 2.3%; Communicate/Listen - 1.4%).

	Great Man/Trait	Behaviour	Situational/Contingency	Transformational/Charismatic
Question 2.2	Key Set of Character Traits 4.3%	Difficult to Assess	Difficult to Assess	<p>People Skills 18.6% (General People Skills - 0.4%; Understands People's Needs/ Compassionate - 3.5%; Empowering - 5.1%; People Focused - 2.6%; Communi- cate/Listening - 3.3%; Achieve Through Others - 3.7%)</p> <p>Goals 8.0%</p> <p>Vision 19.4% (Create Vision - 13.2%; Create and Achieve Vision - 3.3%; Communicate Vision - 2.9%)</p> <p>Bring About Change 2.6%</p> <p>Inspire and Motivate 19% (Inspire and Motivate Others - 15.6%; Towards Vision - 3.4%)</p> <p>Charisma/Presence 2.7%</p>

	Great Man/Trait	Behaviour	Situational/Contingency	Transformational/Charismatic
Question 2.4	General Character Traits 1.3% Integrity 5.3% Honesty 3.3% Morals/Ethics 4.3% Self confidence/ knowledge 5.2% Trust/Respect 2.8% Empathy 1.7% Enthusiasm/Energy 1.0% Performance/Results Oriented 0.9% Commitment 1.1%	Skills 44.1% (General Skills - 1.6%; People/ Team Skills - 12.1%; Business Skills - 2.1%; Vision - 4.2%; Strategic Planning/ Goals -3.8%; Trend Analysis - 0.4%; Communication (including listening) - 7.0%; Motivation - 2.7%; Thinking Skills - 3.9%; Knowledge of the Job - 2.4%; Handle and Facilitate Change - 0.9%; Decision Making - 1.9%; Problem Solving - 1.1%)	Leadership Style 1.0% Decision Making 1.9%	Bring About Change 2.6% Inspire and Motivate Others 15.6% Vision 4.2% Strategic Planning/Goals 3.8% Charisma 0.4%

The major conclusion that can be drawn from Table 11.6 is that the Transformational School of Leadership is most strongly apparent in executives' responses. While transformational and charismatic schools were grouped together in the literature review, it is interesting to note how little mention "charisma" receives. Thus, executives responses are more accurately characterised by "Transformational" than "Charismatic". In particular, Roeche, Baker and Rose's (1989) five transformational themes of "vision", "influence orientation", "people orientation", "motivational orientation", and "values orientation" are closely aligned with executives "vision", "people skills", "inspire and motivate", and "character" dimensions.

The other Schools of Thought did not feature strongly. It is unlikely that all of the character responses are Great Man/Trait adherents, and thus this category is potentially overstated. Roeche, Baker and Rose (1989) identify a "values orientation" to transformational leadership, and given the apparent dominance of this school in executives' thinking, it is likely that the majority of executives indicating character traits may be considered "transformational" rather than "great man/trait". Thus, the percentage of responses in Table 11.6 covered by the transformational/charismatic school may be slightly understated.

The behavioural and situational/contingency Schools of Thought were difficult to assess from executive responses, and therefore definitive conclusions regarding their presence or absence in executives' thinking are not possible. However, very few comments overall could be considered explicitly behavioural or situational/ contingency.

Thus the literature conclusion that transformational leadership is the prevailing paradigm is confirmed, or reflected, in executive responses. This conclusion is also consistent with the conclusions drawn from Table 11.5 where "Leadership as an Instrument of Vision and Goal Achievement"; "Leadership as Influence"; "Leadership as Personality Traits"; and "Leadership as Transformation" were identified as being central to executives' conceptualisations of leadership.

11.3.1.3 Implications of Executives' Conceptualisations of Leadership

For executives, the implications are to value, encourage, and develop in themselves and others, the dimensions of “Vision and Goal Achievement”; “Influence”; “Personality Traits”; and “Transformation” as identified in this research. Equally, leadership system designers should work to explicitly attract, recognise, develop, retain and sustain these identified characteristics.

In leadership development, there are two broad outcomes: increasing the *understanding* of leadership and increasing the ability to “do” leadership. This research provides a “short-cut” to understanding executives’ current models and indicates that the majority of executives have a “transformational” model. Armed with this information, developers can customise and adapt their development strategies accordingly. For example, if the developer’s model and the participant’s model are aligned, then the development should focus on “doing”, not “understanding”. As both have similar mindsets, the development challenge is applying and living the understanding more effectively. However, if the developer’s and participant’s models are different, then the developer must reinforce the mindset aspects that are the same, and challenge those aspects that are different before addressing the “doing” aspects. The nature and strategy for development is different in each of these situations. While an individual assessment of mindset is desirable, it is not always possible or economical. Therefore, to save time and development costs, this research has shown that the developer can reasonably assume that executives’ hold transformational views of leadership, and develop their training interventions on this basis. In doing so, the effectiveness of the development should be enhanced.

From the executives’ point of view, theorists and academics are justified in continuing their focus on transformational leadership. As there is currently high alignment between executives’ and theorists/academics’ understanding of leadership, a continued emphasis on transformational leadership can potentially improve both the theory and practice of leadership. Theorists and academics should therefore develop further understanding of transformational leadership, in particular the vision, direction, inspire and motivate, people

focused, and character dimensions that executives have identified as being important. Future theoretical contributions should also focus on the potential short-comings of transformational leadership, as it was noted in the literature review that there are few critiques or criticisms of transformational leadership. Given that transformational leadership appears to dominate both the literature and practitioners' views, this non-critical and one-sided perspective needs to be addressed.

An important dimension of executive's understanding of leadership is their perceptions of the difference between leaders and managers. This is explored in the next section.

11.3.2 Leaders and Managers

As has been noted earlier, two perspectives will be provided on the differences between leaders and managers. The first contrasts this research's conclusion that leaders and managers are different with Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin's (1995) conclusion that the "lay managers" believe that they are the same. In exploring the reasons for the opposing conclusions, many of the key issues that contribute to the confusion between leaders and managers are elicited, as well as possible frameworks for overcoming these issues. As such, these two pieces of New Zealand research provide a good example of the dynamics that occur in the wider leadership versus management debate. The second retrospectively compares executives' explanations for the differences between leaders and managers with the frameworks developed by Zaleznik (1977); Bennis (1989b); Rost (1991) and Kotter (1990a).

11.3.2.1 Leaders and Managers - Are They Different?

Chapter Four highlighted recent New Zealand research conducted in a large public sector organisation, which looked to develop a 'lay' theory of managerial effectiveness. The focus of their research was on the way in which people within one organisation defined "effective

management". They found that the profile of effective management offered by respondents contained dimensions that matched categorisations of both leadership and management. For example, direction setting and future orientation, which are often categorised as leadership dimensions, were grouped with factors such as problem solving and managing, which are often categorised as management dimensions. They conclude from this that:

"the "lay" description of effective management is an "amalgam of both leadership and management reposed in the same individuals ... The effectiveness definitions of the respondents in this study provide no support for the development of a separate concept or discipline of leadership. By contrast, the implications are that the *practising managers* in this study *might be better served if the term leadership were either dropped altogether or clearly subsumed under the broader ambit of effective management*" (Cammock, Nilakant and Dakin, 1995, p 461 - emphasis added).

Their conclusion is clearly contradictory to this research where the overwhelming majority (92.5%) of executives stated that leaders and managers are different. Exploring the reasons for the different conclusions made will be used as a means to explore the wider dynamics and implications of this research on the difference between leaders and managers.

Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin's (1995) smaller sample, both in terms of numbers and breadth of industries, may account for some of the differences, however this alone seems inadequate to explain the significantly different conclusions drawn.

At the outset, it is important to note that the conclusion that executives see leadership and management as being the same is a conclusion *drawn by the researchers*, not made by the *executives* themselves. The strength of this research is that it explicitly asks executives if they believe that leaders and managers are different. It does not impose a point of view based on executive comments. As such, Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin's (1995) research conclusion may reflect their own assumptions more than that of executives.

This research has concluded that for 92.5% of executives surveyed, there is something that differentiates leaders from managers. While they may not be able to articulate this difference clearly, they believe there is a difference. There are two possible explanations for this position that will be explored. The first is that the “internal consistency” of executives’ perceptions, or mental models, of leadership is low. The second is that the *person* and *process* of leadership are confused.

By low internal consistency of mental models, it is meant that it is possible that executives believe that leaders and managers are different, yet provide explanations that do not, from an outsider’s perspective, distinguish leaders from managers. That is, it is a distinction that executives cannot effectively articulate or conceptualise. Rost (1991) argues that many leadership theorists that distinguish leadership and management fail to do so in meaningful or substantive ways. Given that most executives do not spend as much time as leadership theorists thinking about these issues, it should not be surprising that executives have difficulty clearly articulating the difference between leaders and managers.

Further, it is possible to believe that something is different, and not be able to express clearly why this is so. The “X” factor approach to leadership is a good example of such a response and represents the view that “there is something unique, extra or different about leadership, but I can’t quite put my finger on it”.

If this internal inconsistency exists, it is possible to see how research focusing at different levels could draw different conclusions, all the while missing the contradiction that exists within executives’ own minds. For example, Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin (1995) have taken executives’ descriptions of effective management and inferred from their responses that leadership and management are considered the same. The assumption made is that if executives comments do not clearly distinguish, then executives do not believe that leaders and managers are different. While the assumption that executives have logically consistent thinking is reasonable, this research has shown that it is a flawed assumption.

This research's combination of closed (quantitative) and open (qualitative) questions has elicited the apparent internal inconsistency in executives' minds. If one was to *only* read the explanations provided by executives in this research as to the difference between leaders and managers, one would find a mixture of unclear distinctions. Taking only this information, it could be logically inferred that in executives' minds, leaders and managers are not different. However, this research unequivocally asks executives for their view, and the overwhelming conclusion is that leaders and managers are different. It is therefore argued that the direct focus on this issue, and the combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies, makes this research's conclusions more representative of executives' perceptions than Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin's (1995).

The assumption that leaders and managers are the same is further reinforced by the nature of the question asked in Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin's (1995) research. If Rost (1991) is correct in stating that a fundamental assumption is that leadership is equal to good management, then research exploring management, particularly good management, is likely to identify leadership dimensions. This is what appears to have occurred in Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin's (1995) research. In seeking comments on "effective management", they have elicited leadership responses. In contrast, research that focuses on leadership specifically is more likely to identify factors that are seen to be different from management, even if these differences are only differences in kind. Thus, this research can be seen to provide a more representative description of executives' perceptions of leadership.

The second possible reason for the different conclusions drawn is the confusion between the *process of leadership with the person who is the leader*. This issue is akin to the one raised during the comparison with literature definitions, where it was shown that the focus in the majority of leadership definitions is solely on the leader. That is, leadership has been defined as the qualities (in particular, the characteristics and behaviours) of individual leaders. "New science" approaches identify leadership as a "field of interaction", or a relationship between leaders and followers. In this sense, leadership is more a process than a person.

A major conclusion of this research is that it is useful to distinguish the process of *leadership* from the person of the *leader*. For this section in particular, the use of leadership and leader are used very deliberately and specifically, with leadership referring to a process, and leader referring to an individual. Equating leadership with the leader is so ingrained, that it is difficult to separate the two. The confusion between “leadership” and “leader” existed in the author’s own mind at the time of developing the questionnaire, and is hopelessly entangled in the questionnaire design. For example, question 2.1 distinguishes leaders from managers (person), while question 2.2 asked for the essence of leadership (process). In designing the questionnaire, these questions were assumed to be asking about the same thing, that is, the leader. Executive responses indicate that this is their assumption also.

However, if the person and process are distinguished, conceptually we can explain the different conclusions drawn from this and Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin’s (1995) research. If we separate the processes of management and leadership and the position or role of manager in an organisation, it becomes conceivable that a person who is in the position of a manager can engage the processes of *both* management and leadership. By way of analogy, writing and speaking are both communication processes. They are separate, distinct, yet often interdependent methods of communication. Writing and speaking are clearly not the same, and it is not assumed that because someone’s job is a “writer” (author) that they do not speak, or if they are a professional “speaker” that they do not write. Equally, the fact that people can write and speak does not lead us to conclude that writing and speaking are the same. Both are different forms of communication requiring different skills. One person may be more naturally gifted and inclined to writing, and may prefer written communication over speaking. Alternatively, another person may be more naturally gifted and inclined to speaking, and may prefer speaking to written communication. However, it is taken for granted, that any given individual can do both, and can to some extent, improve their natural capacities in both. In fact, it is considered necessary to do so.

If we see leadership and management as separate, distinct, yet interdependent processes of organisational governance, then just because an executive’s job is called a manager, does

not mean they do not or can not engage in the process of leadership. Equally, the fact that one individual can engage in management and leadership should not cause us to conclude that management and leadership are the same. Both are very different forms of organisational governance requiring different skills. One person may be more naturally gifted and inclined to management, and may prefer management over leadership. Alternatively, another person may be more naturally gifted and inclined to leadership, and may prefer leadership to management. However, it should be possible for any given individual to do both, and to some extent, improve their natural capacities in both. In fact, it should be considered necessary to do so.

The necessity of senior executives to provide both management and leadership is, the author believes, what executives in both groups of research are trying to express, but do not have the conceptual clarity to convey. Given the use of leader and leadership as synonyms, to express that a senior executive is no longer able to just use management, but must combine the processes of leadership and management is difficult to express without saying one must be a leader and a manager.

However, if leadership and management are distinguished as processes then some of the confusion is avoided. If Kotter's (1990a) distinction between leadership and management is used, executives are in effect saying that it is no longer possible for executives to only plan and budget, they must also establish vision and direction; it is no longer possible only to organise staff, they must also align people; it is no longer possible to only control and problem solve, they must also motivate and inspire; and it is no longer possible only to produce a degree of predictability and order, they must also produce change, often dramatic change.

In describing effective management, it is likely that executives have confused the person of the manager with management and have therefore identified leadership and management dimensions. From this description, Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin (1995) have concluded that leadership and management are the same. However, this research has shown that

92.5% of executives conclude that they are different, even though collectively their explanations indicate confusion regarding the nature of such differences.

In summary, the different conclusions drawn by this research and Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin's (1995) research are possibly attributable to two errors that are commonly made in the leadership domain. The first is assuming, as the researcher, that because executives cannot clearly articulate the difference between leadership and management, that they do not believe a difference exists. This is an assumption proven to be inaccurate by this research. The second is the confusion that exists between "leadership" and "leader" and "management" and "manager". Using the terms interchangeably has contributed to the confusion that exists in the leadership field, and it has been shown that distinguishing the leadership process from the person of the leader can overcome much of the confusion that exists.

11.3.2.2 Implications of the Difference Between Leaders and Managers

The fundamental, but easily overlooked, implication of this research, is that for executives the real issue in terms of leaders and managers is not, "are they different?", but rather, "in what ways are they different?" Before this research, there was no indication of the extent to which executives believed there was a difference. This research concludes that the majority of executives do believe that leaders and managers are different. This in itself is notable in that only 16 years earlier, Zaleznik (1977) commented that many executives found it "wrong, if not offensive" to think that leaders and managers are different. In less than two decades, there has been a complete turnaround in thinking.

The challenge is to now capitalise on, and clarify further the differences. That is, greater education as to the differences between leadership and management are required so that executives can differentiate the two in ways that are substantively different. In particular, distinguishing the processes of leadership and management from the person, has been shown to be useful in helping clarify the differences. The literature review concluded that

Kotter's (1990a) model provides a useful organisational framework that can act as a foundation for such education.

This clarity on the differences, and distinguishing the process from the person is crucial as the results on the importance of leadership and management indicated a high need for people who can combine both. By distinguishing the process of leadership from the person of the leader, theorists and practitioners should be able to better explore whether an individual can successfully bring together both leadership and management. It can also help executives select the most appropriate action system to meet their needs. Assessment of the ability to combine leadership and management is particularly important for the large percentage of small organisations where the option of having a “designated leader” and “designated manager” is not possible.

11.3.2.3 Comparing The Factors that the Literature and Executives Identify as Differentiating Leaders from Managers.

The literature review highlighted Rost's (1991) assertion that a fundamental, but flawed assumption of the leadership literature has been that leadership is equal to good management. Executives' comments appear to reflect the current literature in that, at present, there appears to be confusion rather than clarity regarding the nature of the relationship between leaders and managers.

Rost (1991) notes that within the literature, some argue that leaders and managers are the same; some claim that they are different; and others *say* they are different but *act* as though they are the same. The following comments from executives highlight a similar situation.

“You can be both a leader and a manager”; “Fundamentally, a leader must have a vision which he must sell. A manager can be simply an implementer of the vision or a translator of it into a plan. Today's manager, however, must also be a leader as the two roles have merged”; “Leadership and management skills and competencies are

interlinked but management(ers) can be more process oriented”; “Leaders are primarily concerned with people - their desires, aspirations, fears and their motivation. Managers are concerned with control of assets, including people, and the effectiveness of systems. One can, of course, be both”; “Managers should also be leaders. Many are not leaders and survive through their position of influence and power N.B. Leaders need to be managers to lead”; “Managers can be leaders. Leaders may not be managers - often they can’t manage themselves let alone others - they may not want to manage”; “Good leaders are good managers and vice versa. I don’t believe you can separate the two. Perhaps the term “coach” should be applied”; “Good leadership skills are part of good managers but you can be a competent manager without excellent leadership skills (I think?)”; “Leading is a component of management”.

The following sections compare executive results with the frameworks of Zaleznik (1977); Bennis (1989b); Rost (1991); and Kotter (1990a). As with previous tables, the major categories are highlighted in bold. However, as the intent is to provide a broad comparison, the subcategories which make up that category are not listed. As the comparisons are made retrospectively, they should be interpreted cautiously. All figures are percentages of the total responses as indicated by Table 8.1.

Table 11.7 provides a summary of the key differences highlighted by Zaleznik (1977) and the relevant executive responses for each category.

Table 11.7
Comparison Between Zaleznik (1977) and Executive Responses

Managers	Leaders
"Once born" <i>No equivalent executive response</i>	"Twice born" <i>No equivalent executive response</i>
Low emotional involvement "Things, not People" 1.2%	Rich emotional content "Heart, Feeling" 1.2% <i>Inspire/Motivate/Energise</i> 9.3%
"How" Implementers 6.0%	"What" Future Focused 24%
Procedure Processes/Systems/Resources 2.2%	Substance <i>No equivalent executive response</i>
Order and control Status Quo 7.8% Control/Direct 3.2% Organise/Co-ordinate 2.4%	Tolerate chaos Change 3.8% Ideas/Creativity/Innovative/Intuitive 3.9%
Impersonal, passive attitude to goals Lack Vision 0.2% Reactive 0.5% "Manage/Administer" 1.9%	Personal and active attitude toward goals Role model/Set Example 2.7% <i>Goals</i> 1.4%

Table 11.8 provides a summary of the key differences highlighted by Bennis (1989b) and the relevant executive responses for each category:

Table 11.8
Comparison Between Bennis (1989b) and Executive Responses

MANAGER		LEADER	
Administers <i>Manages/Administers</i>	1.9%	Innovates <i>Ideas/Creativity/Innovative/Intuitive</i>	3.9%
Focuses on systems and structure <i>Things not People</i>	1.2%	Focuses on people <i>People focused</i>	20.3%
	<i>Processes/Systems/Resources</i> 2.2%		
Short-range view <i>Day to day/Shorter time frames</i>	1.4%	Long-range perspective <i>Future Focused</i>	24%
Eye on the bottom line <i>Attend to details</i>	1.2%	Eye on the horizon <i>Future Focused</i>	24%
Imitates <i>Reactive</i>	0.5%	Originates Proactive	1.1
		<i>Make Things Happen</i>	1.6
Accepts the status quo <i>Status quo</i>	7.8%	Challenges the status quo <i>Change</i>	3.8%
The classic good soldier <i>Within Boundaries/Rules</i>	3.8	Their own person <i>Role Model/Set Example</i>	2.7%
<i>Implementers</i>	6.0%		

(Alder, 1993, p 178)

Table 11.9 provides a summary of the key differences highlighted by Rost (1991) and the relevant executive responses for each category:

Table 11.9
Comparison Between Rost (1991) and Executive Responses

	MANAGEMENT	LEADERSHIP
Nature of relationship	Authority relationship <i>Position/Job</i> 1.9%	Influence relationship <i>Inspire/Motivate/Energise</i> 9.3%
Relationship roles	Managers and subordinates <i>no equivalent executive response</i>	Leaders and followers <i>no equivalent executive response</i>
Integrating Factor	Co-ordinated activities Organise/Co-ordinate 2.3%	Mutual purposes <i>no equivalent executive response</i>
Outcomes Sought	Produce and sell goods and/or services <i>no equivalent executive response</i>	Real changes Change 3.8%

(adapted from Rost, 1991, p 149)

Table 11.10 provides a summary of the key differences highlighted by Kotter (1990a) and the relevant executive responses for each category:

Table 11.10
Comparison Between Kotter (1990a) and Executive Responses

	MANAGEMENT	LEADERSHIP
<i>Creating an Agenda</i>	<p>Planning and Budgeting: establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving results and allocating the necessary resources.</p> <p>Plan 1.8% <i>Attend to Details</i> 1.2%</p>	<p>Establishing Direction: developing a vision of the future, and the needed change strategies.</p> <p>Vision 2.0% <i>Provide/Create/Keeper of Vision</i> 8.4% <i>Strategic Planning</i> 1.2% <i>Big Picture</i> 1.4%</p>
<i>Developing a human network for achieving the agenda</i>	<p>Organising and Staffing: establishing structure, staffing it, delegating responsibility and authority, providing policies, procedures and systems.</p> <p>Organise/Co-ordinate 2.3% Processes/Systems/Resources 2.2%</p>	<p>Aligning People: communicating the direction by words and deeds to all who need to understand and accept the vision and strategies.</p> <p><i>Communicate Vision</i> 1.4% <i>Gain Commitment to Vision</i> 0.9%</p>
<i>Execution</i>	<p>Controlling and Problem Solving: monitoring results, identifying deviations, planning and organising actions.</p> <p>Control/Direct 3.2% <i>Efficient (do things right)</i> 0.9%</p>	<p>Motivating and Inspiring: energising people to overcome major barriers to change.</p> <p><i>Inspire/motivate/Energise</i> 9.3% <i>Grow/Develop/Empower</i> 2.1% Make Things Happen 1.6%</p>
<i>Outcomes</i>	<p>Produces a degree of predictability and order, and has the potential of consistently producing key results expected by various stakeholders.</p> <p><i>Within Boundaries and Rules</i> 3.8% <i>Routine</i> 0.5%</p>	<p>Produces change, often to a dramatic degree, and has the potential of producing extremely useful change.</p> <p>Change 3.8%</p>

(adapted from Kotter, 1990a, p 6)

Summing the executives percentages within each table (and not double counting any executive response incorporated in more than one category) the totals provide an indication of which frameworks incorporate the greatest percentage of executive responses. This percentage, together with the sum of each combination of cross-tabulated results for each table row (for example, in the outcomes row in the previous table, the cross-tabulated percentage for “within boundaries and rules” and “change” is added with the cross-tabulated percentage of “routine” and “change”, which is added to the total combinations for each of the other rows in the Table) is provided in Table 11.11.

Table 11.11
Percentage of Executive Responses Captured by Literature Frameworks

Literature Framework	% of Executive Responses	% of Cross-Tabbed Executive Responses
Bennis	75.9%	15.3%
Zaleznik	70.3%	19.1%
Kotter	48.0%	9%
Rost	17.3%	0.7%

Table 11.11 indicates that Bennis' (1989b) and Zaleznik's (1977) frameworks provide the “best fit” with executive responses. Rost's (1991) framework represents the lowest percentage of executive responses and Kotter's (1990a) falls somewhere in between.

This situation is at odds with the conclusion drawn in the literature review that Kotter (1990a) and Rost (1991) provide the two most comprehensive and logically consistent frameworks for explicating the differences between leadership and management. In particular, Kotter's (1990a) framework was selected as the basis for the research questionnaire as it directly addresses the leadership and management distinction from an organisational perspective.

If Table 11.11 is an accurate representation, then this would suggest that executives' mindsets share the same criticism that Rost (1991) makes of much of the literature distinctions between leadership and management. Namely that the distinctions "are perfunctory and poorly constructed, and the criteria given to make the distinction are often too general and too ambiguous for people to use with any accuracy in real life or in research" (p 134). However, these criticisms are largely more applicable to the original frameworks into which the results have been forced, rather than applying to executive responses per se. However, it is the author's contention that there is a tendency to denigrate management in executives' responses that needs to change if individuals are to be encouraged to develop both their leadership and management abilities. It is in this area, in particular, that leadership developers and leadership theorists could focus their attention when clarifying the differences between leadership and management. An understanding of polarity principles could assist in reinforcing this point.

While it is argued that a move towards Kotter's (1990a) framework will help overcome much of the confusion that exists in distinguishing leadership from management, Kotter's (1990a) framework fails to capture the essential nature of leadership as a relationship. The author strongly believes that leadership as a relationship will form the foundation of future conceptualisations of leadership. If leadership is a relationship, this fundamentally changes the way in which leadership is defined, practised, and developed. The following section therefore explores this issue further.

11.3.3 *Leadership as a Relationship*

Rost (1991) highlights that the Western world is in transition from an industrial paradigm to a new post-industrial paradigm. Leadership, he argues, needs to change to reflect this new post-industrial society. He states:

“A profound transformation of leadership thought and practice must take place in the 1990s if the needs of the people living in this decade and the twenty-first century are to be well served” (Rost, 1991, p 100).

Rost’s (1991) contention is that the starting point for the new paradigm of leadership is his definition which states that:

“Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (Rost, 1991, p 102).

In essence there are three major aspects to this definition: “an influence relationship among leaders and followers”; “intending real changes”; and “reflecting their mutual purposes”. While all three aspects are worthy of further attention, the results of this research indicate that executives have some conception of the “influence” dimension of leadership; the leaders responsibility for change; and to a limited extent, the dimension of mutual purposes, especially if “vision” or “shared vision” can be considered a suitable substitute for mutual purposes. However, the relationship nature of leadership is noticeably lacking. While it is clear that executives believe that leaders require strong interpersonal skills and are “people focused”, there appears to be little evidence that they see the essence of leadership being a relationship.

It is the author’s contention that this aspect of leadership has the greatest potential for extending executives’ perceptions of leadership. Therefore this section will focus primarily on the relationship dimension of leadership, using Rost’s (1991) argument as a basis for this exploration, and supplementing it with other relevant leadership literature.

The essence of leadership, according to Rost (1991), is that it is an influence relationship among leaders and followers. By influence relationship, Rost (1991) is referring to a relationship where persuasion is used to have an impact on other people in the relationship. This influence has two important characteristics. Firstly, it is “multi-directional”. That is, followers persuade leaders and other followers, as do leaders; and further, anyone can be

a leader and/or a follower in this relationship and these roles can change during the relationship. Followers can become leaders and leaders can become followers *in any one leadership relationship*. People are not stuck in one or the other for the whole duration of the leadership relationship. Blank (1995) notes that “the leadership mantle can jump from one person to another as various leader-follower connections occur in the day-to-day, hour to hour, and minute to minute activities that form the foundation of most people’s experience throughout organisations” (p 36). Leadership is not, therefore, a top-down or unidirectional influence from the leader to the followers.

Secondly, it is “non-coercive”. The influence relationship is not based on authority or power, but rather on persuasion. This allows anyone in the leadership relationship to freely agree, disagree, or leave the relationship. In an organisational context, this means that leadership is not a position and goes beyond the manager-subordinate authority relationship. Followers do not have to be managers to become leaders. The authority and influence relationships are different within organisations.

Having established that leadership is a multi-directional, non-coercive, influence relationship, it is important to explore further the two parties in this relationship: “leaders” and “followers”.

The notion that leadership is a relationship is by no means new, but it appears to be an aspect of leadership that has been the slowest to be integrated into mainstream leadership notions. Kouzes and Posner (1993) argue that any discussion of leadership must attend to the dynamics of the reciprocal relationship between those who choose to lead and those who decide to follow. Beckhard (1996) notes that “a *first principle* of leadership is that it is a relationship between a leader and followers” (p 125 - emphasis added).

If leadership is a relationship, the most fundamental point to be made is that leaders and leadership are not the same (this point was made earlier when it was suggested that leadership is a process, not a person). Leadership encompasses, at a minimum, the leader and the follower. Further, as Blank (1995) notes, “the mistaken idea that leadership power

resides within a single person most frequently occurs in the case of heroic, highly visible leaders” (p 12). Given that the transformational school of leadership dominates executives’ thinking, the shift to a relationship mindset may be particularly difficult for executives.

As leaders and leadership are not the same in this section, extra care has been taken with the use of the words leader and leadership. “Leadership” in this section is always refers to the leadership relationship, and “leader” to a person.

It is interesting to note that in the leadership relationship, leaders and followers are *not equal* in the relationship, but *both are active*. The first part of this statement infers that there is a distinction between leaders and followers. This refutes one of the “solutions” offered in the confusion between leadership and management, namely that all people are leaders (Smith, 1996). Rost (1991) argues that there are many people who are not motivated to be leaders, who do not have the personal development needed to be leaders in a sophisticated and complex society, or who are not willing to exercise significant influence through persuasion. Time and energy constraints also require that people cope with multiple leadership relationships by being leaders in some relationships and followers in others.

The second part of the statement that leaders and followers are *not equal* in the relationship, but *both are active* focuses on the fact that followers are not passive or weak. The passive connotations of followers have caused some theorists to speak of constituents (Rost, 1991; Kouzes and Posner, 1993; Gardner, 1986;1990) rather than followers. In the leadership relationship, followers are not passive or subordinate. Lee (1991) notes that “there’s nothing sheeplike about effective followers. They do more than march lockstep toward fulfilling the vision their leader has laid out for them. Effective followers are partners in creating the vision in the first place. They take responsibility for getting their jobs done. They take the initiative to fix problems or improve processes. They question leaders when they think they’re wrong” (p 28). Chaleff (1995) speaks of the “courageous followership” necessary in the leadership relationship. The most important implication of this is aptly put by Rost (1991) who writes:

“Followers do not do followership, they do leadership ... *In the new paradigm, followers and leaders do leadership.* They are in the leadership relationship together” (p 109 - emphasis in original).

Thus far it has been shown that leadership is a relationship between leaders and followers, it is not just about the leader. In this relationship followers can become leaders, and leaders can become followers. The leadership relationship is influenced based, and this influence is multi-directional and non-coercive. While leaders and followers do not exert equal influence in this relationship, both are active. In this sense, both leaders and followers “do leadership”.

An interesting extension to “leadership is a relationship” is provided by Kouzes and Posner (1993). They argue that “*there is a greater connection between leadership and customer service than there is between leadership and traditional management*” (p 10 - emphasis in original). Consequently there is more to be learned about leadership from reading the customer service literature than from reading most management texts. For example, Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry (1990) highlight three characteristics of service that have useful parallels for leadership. The first is that services are essentially *intangible*. Because they are performances and experiences rather than objects, precise manufacturing specifications concerning uniform quality can rarely be set. Secondly, services are *heterogeneous*: their performance differs from producer to producer, from customer to customer, and from day to day. Thirdly, production and consumption of many services are *inseparable*. The experience of service often occurs during an interaction between the customer and the provider, rather than being manufactured earlier and delivered intact to the customer. Carlzon (1987) refers to these interactions as “moments of truth”. As he explains:

“Last year, each of our 10 million customers came in contact with approximately five SAS employees and this contact lasted an average of 15 seconds each time. Thus, SAS is “created” 50 millions times a year, 15 seconds at a time. These 50

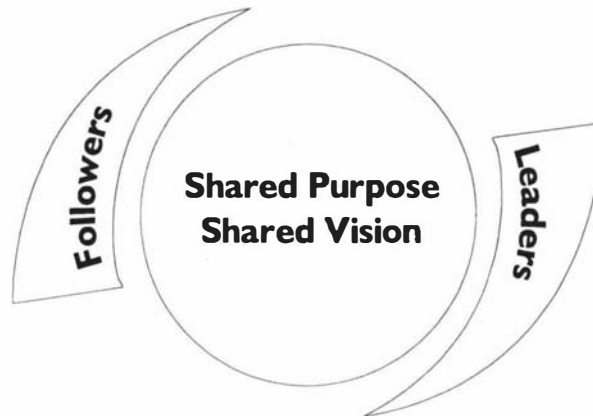
million “moments of truth” are moments that ultimately determine whether SAS will succeed or fail as a company” (Carlzon, 1987, p 3).

In the same way, leadership is intangible. It is often experienced in an interaction with another human being. Leadership is heterogenous because it is personality intensive. Leadership performance varies from leader to leader, from follower to follower, and from day to day. Although the practices of leadership, like those of service, may be definable and can be generalised about at some level, they are distinct and unique at the moment of the encounter. Equally, leader behaviour and reception are often inseparable. Followers most often experience their needs being met or not met at the moment of the encounter, they are not engineered into a tangible good and delivered in a package whole to the constituent (Kouzes and Posner, 1993). In short, leadership is created through a series of leadership “moments of truth”, that are neither predictable nor controllable.

Before exploring the implications of leadership being a relationship, it is useful to further extend the relationship model. In the traditional model, the focus is on the leader, in the relationship model, the focus is on the leaders and followers. While the inclusion of followers into the leadership equation extends popular notions of leadership, it fails to incorporate one important aspect of the relationship - shared purpose and vision. The focus in the leadership relationship should not be the leaders or followers but rather on the shared purpose and vision, or what Rost (1991) refers to as “mutual purposes”.

If the process of leadership is relationship, then the outcome is the shared purpose. Chaleff (1995) proposes the following diagrammatic representation (see Figure 11.1).

Figure 11.1
The Leadership Relationship



(adapted from Chaleff, 1995, p 3)

What becomes clear from Figure 11.1 is that both leaders and followers orbit the shared purpose, *the followers do not orbit the leader(s)*. Without shared purpose or vision, the relationship nature of leadership often ends up maintaining the centrality of the leader. It is the shared purpose that gives meaning to leadership activities, and which catalyses the leader-follower influence relationship. The loyalty of both the leader and the follower is to the shared purpose and vision, not to each other. However, followers and leaders must hold each other accountable to the purpose, and influence each other towards the achievement of the shared purpose and vision.

The focus on the shared purpose and vision also facilitates the changing roles of leader and follower, as the question becomes, "who can best lead this situation towards our purpose and vision?" as opposed to, "which one of us is the leader?". Therefore, rather than mechanically dividing into leaders and followers, the opportunity, value, and contributions of both roles are maximised (Smith, 1996).

The emphasis on shared purpose and vision is as much on the *shared* as it is on the purpose and vision. The strongly held notion that leaders provide the purpose and vision needs to change. To be truly shared, the purpose and vision must be jointly created and agreed. This creates a dilemma for the leader, as this research has shown that many people expect

the leader to provide the vision, yet as Bill O'Brien notes, "My vision is not what's important to you. The only vision that motivates you is your vision" (cited in Senge, 1990, p 211). Therefore, providing a vision may work against securing the commitment necessary to achieve it. Rather, the leadership relationship requires a mindset where, "the origin of the vision is much less important than the process whereby it comes to be shared. It is not truly a "shared vision" until it connects with the personal visions of people throughout the organisation" (Senge, 1990, p 214).

11.3.3.1 Implications of Leadership Being a Relationship

As has been noted earlier, if leadership is a relationship, then there needs to be much more careful use of the words "leader" and "leadership" as they are not synonymous. While this has implications for the way in which we define, research, and identify leadership, the most interesting and least identified implications are on leadership development.

The most fundamental implication for developing leadership is that developing "leadership" is not only about developing "leaders". It is also about developing "followers" and "shared purpose and vision". At present, when people speak of leadership development, they speak about the development of individuals who would like to develop as leaders. As a consequence, there is an over-emphasis on leader behaviours and skills; very little emphasis on the interpersonal and relational skills required of leaders; no emphasis on the development of followers; and any emphasis on shared purpose or vision is not integrated with "leadership" development. If leadership is a relationship, all of this will need to change.

For organisations, such development will clearly require a greater resource (time and money) requirement than "leader" development, as the leadership relationship includes developing leaders and followers.

Those organisations looking to develop “leadership”, should start with the development of the shared purpose and vision, as it this aspect which forms the core of the leadership relationship. In developing this shared purpose and vision, the process is as important as the product. The traditional method of a small team of senior executives locking themselves away in a room for a couple of days, and then emerging with a vision or purpose statement that is “sold” to the organisation does not and cannot generate a sense of *shared* vision and purpose. Alternative processes need to be developed and explored. Further, the initial development of a vision or purpose should indicate the beginning, not the end of the process. Creating shared vision and purpose is not a single effort, rather it is a process of clarifying, continually sharing, and living out the actions required of the vision and purpose.

By clarifying the shared purpose and vision it also becomes clearer how leaders and followers need to develop and grow in order to achieve this shared purpose and vision. That is, the shared purpose and visions provide a context for the development. This will, of necessity, mean that there can be no “one-size fits all” leadership development programme. The organisational issues and the personal development required to achieve each organisation’s vision and purpose will be different.

The nature of “leader” development in the “leadership relationship” model will also need to change. As Kouzes and Posner (1993) state: “Until we begin to address the “interpersonal infrastructure” of leadership - style will continue to succeed over substance, and technique will continue to triumph over truth” (p 2). In particular, a stronger emphasis on interpersonal and relationship skills, the so-called “softer” skills, will become necessary. The principles of leadership development highlighted in this research provide a good foundation for such development, especially the principle that received the greatest percentage of agreement that “leadership is about being, not just doing and therefore leadership development is inside-out”. While skills are useful, it is the development of character (being) that is important for relationships.

Leader development should also prepare people to adjust to the changing leader and follower roles that may need to occur within the leadership relationship, and ultimately across all leadership relationships that exist within an organisation. As Smith (1996) notes: “learning when to follow is a constant challenge that co-exists *simultaneously and in parallel* with knowing when to lead” (pp 204-205). In the language of this section, an important key to leadership is knowing when to be a leader and when to be a follower.

In summary, by addressing the whole leadership relationship, a variety of new development interventions becomes both necessary and possible.

Having addressed the implications of “what is leadership” from the three perspectives of definitional and Schools of Thought, the differences between leaders and managers, and leadership as a relationship; the following section explores the implications of executives’ perceptions of “how to develop leaders”.

11.4 How to Develop Leaders?

This section compares executive responses with the literature, and explores the implications of executives’ perceptions on “can leaders be developed?”, “leadership development principles”, and “leadership systems”. The following section begins by exploring the fundamental assumption, “can leaders be developed?”

11.4.1 Can Leaders Be Developed?

Table 11.12 provides a summary of the main literature and research conclusions made with regards to whether leaders can be developed.

Table 11.12
Summary of Literature and Research Conclusions on Can Leaders Be Developed?

Literature Review Conclusions	Research Results Conclusions
<p><i>Can Leaders Be Developed?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The notion that leaders are born and not made has been dismissed by management scientists and to some extent by social psychologists (Rost, 1991). The issue of whether leadership can be developed is important because our attempts to develop leaders are based on the assumptions we make about the role of heredity and childhood (Kotter, 1990a). 	<p><i>Can Leaders Be Developed?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 91.4% of executives believe that leadership can be developed. It would appear that the majority view is that leadership can be improved, but not created. The development and born vs made issues are tightly interwoven in executives' thinking.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Throughout history, different viewpoints on the nature vs nurture debate have dominated, depending on the leadership school of thought that prevailed at the time. The main current view tends to be that leadership can be improved or developed, but it cannot be created. There is a natural capacity already present which can be polished and honed. Simon's (1977) statement is representative: "A good executive is born when someone with some natural endowment ... by dint of practice, learning, and experience, develops that endowment into a mature skill" (p 44). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 50% of executives provide a qualified "yes" statement. Qualified in the sense that there are born/innate factors to leadership, therefore not all people can lead or have the same innate capacity to lead. Less than a third of executives argue that leaders are made in the pure sense of the word.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kotter (1988) provides the most comprehensive case stating that leadership is developed through a combination of inborn capacity, early childhood, formal education and career experiences. In short, this indicates that leadership is <i>both born and made</i>. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No equivalent executive responses.

The conclusion in the literature review regarding whether leaders can be developed is best summarised by Simon's (1977) statement that:

"A good executive is born when someone with some natural endowment ... by dint of practice, learning, and experience, develops that endowment into a mature skill" (p 44).

Kotter's (1988) research came to a similar conclusion noting that a combination of inborn capacity, early childhood, formal education, and career experiences contributed to the development of leaders. Thus rather than the origins of leadership being *either* born *or* made, they are *both* born *and* made.

These literature conclusions are supported by the majority of executives in this research. This research has shown that the overwhelming majority (91.4%) of executives surveyed believe that "yes, leaders can be developed". However, at best only 29.8% of executives' believe that leaders are made in the pure sense of the word (that is they believe leadership is made and make no mention of innate characteristics). 62.6% mention some innate characteristics of leadership, with 12.6% of these respondents indicating that "leadership is born and cannot be developed".

Rost (1991) asserts that "the notion that leaders are born, not made is summarily dismissed by management scientists and social psychologists" (p 25). Executives' responses do not appear to "summarily dismiss" the notion that leaders are born. Rather it would appear that the notion that leaders are born has been subsumed under the development framework. That is, rather than "born versus made" being the predominant focus, the focus has shifted towards the development of leaders. Figure 11.2 diagrammatically represents this change in focus.

Figure 11.2
From “Born Versus Made” to “Development”



The author contends that this change in focus is largely positive as it places the focus on the factors over which executives, development practitioners and systems designers have some control. The potential outcome is that time and energy is focused on what can be done, rather than debating whether anything can be done which has largely the outcome of the “born versus made” debate. A potential downside of the change is that executives’ expectations as to what can be achieved through leadership development may become unrealistic, due to the diminished focus on “born” or innate characteristics. That is, their expectations may extend beyond an individual’s potential to develop. However, in saying this, this research has shown that the majority of executives’ responses do not infer that all people have the same capacity for leadership, or that all people will realise the same standard of leadership.

It was shown earlier that executives believe that leadership is important. Given that the majority of executives believe that leadership is important, *and* believe that leadership can be developed or improved, this implies that it is worth organisations investing in leadership. Executives in this research do not believe that organisations are powerless with regards to developing leaders.

Given that leadership is both born and made, organisations should not only invest in leadership development, they should also invest in developing systems that select and identify people with a high leadership potential. This dual focus on the recruitment and development systems will enable organisations to maximise the quantity and quality of leadership within organisations.

Leadership developers must also take account of the innate potential of individuals, and develop strategies that enhance . In this respect, the “Serenity Prayer” has a message for leadership developers, as they will need “serenity to accept the things they cannot change, courage to change the things they can, and the wisdom to know the difference”.

Leadership theorists/academics will make a greater contribution to the challenges faced in organisations by moving away from the question of whether leaders are born or made, and rather ask, “what aspects of leadership are born, and what aspects are made?” Armed with such information, executives, leadership developers, and systems designers will be better placed to increase the quantity and quality of leadership within organisations.

Given that something can be done to improve the quality of leadership within organisations, the next section highlights the implications of executives’ responses regarding the principles on which leadership should be developed.

11.4.2 Leadership Development Principles

Table 11.13 provides a summary of the main literature and research conclusions made with regards to leadership development principles.

Table 11.13
 Summary of Literature and Research Conclusions
 on Leadership Development Principles

Literature Review Conclusions	Research Results Conclusions
<p><i>Leadership Development Principles</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> If leadership is fundamentally different from management then the way in which leaders are developed should also be fundamentally different. That is, the principles and processes used to develop leaders should be different than those used for managers. 	<p><i>Leadership Development Principles</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Executives approached the question regarding the principles upon which leaders should be developed in two major ways. The first described the processes that should be used, with the major themes including experience, training, support and encouragement (particularly through the medium of a mentor). The second described the essential skills or character traits that leadership development should address. These included people skills, knowledge and thinking skills and direction setting abilities. Character traits included credibility, positiveness and confidence, and empathy. Collectively executives indicate that effective leadership development would comprise various learning methodologies incorporating mentors, training, and actual experience as well as blend the development of skills and character.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Five principles were identified as forming the core of the current and emerging leadership development principles. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Leadership is about being, not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one's values, motives, and assumptions. Becoming a leader is about personal transformation i.e. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts. Effective leadership development combines action with reflection (results oriented pragmatism with philosophic depth). Leadership cannot be taught, but it can be learned. Leadership cannot be developed in a week, nor a month. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Executives rated the following levels of agreement with the current and emerging leadership development principles: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 78.9% strongly agree that leadership is about being, not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one's values, motives, and assumptions. 37.7% strongly agree that becoming a leader is about personal transformation i.e. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts. 71.2% strongly agree that leadership is about sustained, decisive action; 58.9% strongly agree that leaders must be reflective. 48.1% strongly agree that leadership cannot be taught, but it can be learned. 64.2% strongly agree that leadership cannot be developed in a week, nor a month.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Predicted leadership development trends include the merging of learning and work, with a move towards customised, results-oriented programmes; more action learning projects with measurable results; greater balancing of individual and organisational needs; more customised, strategic programmes; greater global and international focus; shorter, more focused, large-scale cascaded programmes; maximisation of formal and informal learning opportunities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No equivalent executive responses.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are four broad categories of leadership training: conceptual understanding, skill building, feedback, and personal growth with the personal growth approaches offering the greatest levers to developing leadership ability (Conger, 1992). The ideal programme would encompass aspects of all four approaches. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No equivalent executive responses.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • At present, a well-designed leadership programme could expect to produce no behavioural change and little enhanced awareness for 10-20% of participants; an expanded conceptual understanding of leadership for 30-40%; some positive, though incremental, behavioural change (in addition to a conceptual understanding) for 25-30%; and significant positive behavioural change for 10%. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No equivalent executive responses.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New Zealand "leadership" development programmes surveyed by Gray (1993) were best described as management development programmes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No equivalent executive responses.

The underlying premise that, "If leadership and management are different, then the way in which we develop leadership needs to be different", led to the search for current and emerging leadership development principles that recognised the need for a qualitatively different approach from management development, and that also focused on leadership development specifically and not executive or management development generally. This task was made difficult as the emergence of these principles is in the infancy stage and they therefore still show some similarity to the management development principles from which they are emerging. Further, the differences between the two sets of principles are often

subtle and qualitative in nature. In part this is attributable to the relationship (Wheatley, 1992) and “tacit” (Gorey and Dobat, 1996) nature of leadership.

On the whole, executives showed a strong level of agreement with the identified leadership development principles. Table 11.14 highlights the principles as stated by Koestenbaum (1991) and contrasts them with the principles as seen by the majority of executives. Primarily, executives’ responses modified, rather than significantly changed, Koestenbaum’s principles.

Table 11.14
Koestenbaum’s Principles and Principles as Expressed by Executives

Koestenbaum’s (1991) Principles	Principles as Expressed by the Majority of Executives
1. Leadership is about being, not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one’s values, motives, and assumptions.	1. Leadership is about being, not just doing, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one’s values, motives, and assumptions.
2. Becoming a leader is about personal transformation i.e. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts.	2. The change required to become a leader varies with the individual, for some it requires a transformation, for some it is impossible, for others it is the development and growth of potential or skills that already exist.
3. Effective leadership development combines action with reflection (results oriented pragmatism with philosophic depth).	3. Effective leadership development combines action with reflection, with action having primacy.
4. Leadership cannot be taught, but it can be learned.	4. Leadership must be both taught and learned.
5. Leadership cannot be developed on a week long course.	5. You cannot develop a leader in a week, but you can contribute to the ongoing development of a leader in a week.

One of the major implications that Table 11.14 highlights is that understanding polarity is a key to understanding executive perceptions. If this research had only asked executives to rate their agreement or disagreement with Koestenbaum’s (1991) principles, it would not have been possible to assess some of the seemingly contradictory findings where executives using the same reasoning, come to opposite conclusions. The use of open and closed

questions allowed such nuances to surface. The most notable example of this occurring is with the principle that leaders cannot be developed in a week long course. On the whole, both those who agreed and those who disagreed were effectively stating that, “You cannot develop a leader in a week, but you can contribute to the ongoing development of a leader in a week”. However those that agreed that leaders cannot be developed in a week weighted their conclusion on the first part of this sentiment (“you cannot develop a leader in a week”), while those that disagreed weighted their conclusion on the second part (“you can contribute to the ongoing development of a leader in a week”).

The polarities are also seen by executives to be important for the development of leaders, for example, teaching *and* learning, action *and* reflection, being *and* doing were all preferred over the “either/or” possibilities. Having said this, there is evidence that the currently undervalued poles are learning, reflection and being. The implications of this are that, in the short-to-medium term, the greatest returns will come from addressing each of the undervalued poles.

In short, the implications of the polarities are threefold. The first is that there are no simplistic answers to development issues. The statement that, “For every complex situation, there is a simple solution ... and it is usually wrong” captures this sentiment well (Kauffman, 1980). The second is that developmental processes need to incorporate both an *understanding* of polarities as part of curriculum, as well as utilise paradoxical developmental methods - in particular action and reflection, being and doing, and teaching and learning. The third implication is that while one pole of each of the developmental polarities may be currently overemphasised, polarity principles indicate that this situation will change over time. The challenge is that while current development programmes will need to emphasise learning, being, and reflection (the currently undervalued poles), they should not be seen as “solutions” to current leadership problems, but rather as one pole of a polarity that will need to be continually managed.

Addressing the leadership development principles directly, the principle that received the greatest support from executives was that “leadership is about being, not just doing,

therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one's values, motives, and assumptions".

The major implication of this is that leadership development is not primarily about skills or behaviours (Koestenbaum, 1991). The need to move the focus away from skills and behaviour has been identified by other leadership authors. Bolt (1996) notes that executive education has focused primarily on business skills, and is functionally and technically oriented; leadership development, he argues, requires a different approach. Kaplan, Drath, and Kofodimos (1991) concur, noting that executive development has concentrated on task oriented learning and, in particular, skill development, at the expense of personal learning. They argue that:

“The simple truth is that if leadership is in essence a form of self-expression, if it is inescapably personal, then leadership development, must, at least at certain times, also be personal”. (p 151)

These statements support Conger's (1992) conclusion, outlined in the literature review, that “personal growth” programmes offer the greatest potential for leadership growth. The methodologies and focus within personal development programmes being different from the skills and awareness building programmes that currently dominant leadership development. It is clear from these statement that this principle, if applied by leadership developers, will change the nature and focus on developmental efforts.

Shifting focus from the principle that received the greatest level of support, to the principle that received the lowest, it is interesting that while the “transformational” school of leadership best reflects executives' understanding of what leadership is, for the majority, “transformation” is not seen to be an important characteristic of leadership development. From executive responses, it would appear that leaders transform organisation, not themselves.

Using the terms identified by Levy and Merry (1986) in the literature review, executives' notions of leadership development are more akin to "morphostasis" than "morphogenesis". Morphostasis encompasses two types of change. The first type are those changes that enable things to *look different while remaining basically as they have always been*. The second type occurs as a *natural expression of the development sequence*, or the natural maturation process. It is the second meaning of morphostasis that best captures executives' perceptions of the leadership development process. Morphogenesis is defined as development that *changes the very essence, the core*. Morphogenesis, or transformational change is rejected by the majority of executives in this research. This is probably largely due to the fact that many believe that leadership is in part, in-born. "Transform" implies a 'meddling with' or 'creating of' the fundamental antecedents to leadership which is inconsistent with the view that these antecedents are natural and in-born.

Kaplan, Drath, and Kofodimos (1991) state that "character change is paradoxical - the adult's core self changes and remains the same. There is continuity and discontinuity" (p 160). This may partially account for the low transformational rating. Executives may not see the transformation in themselves as the recognition of the transformation may require an external perspective. An illustration of this paradox, and in particular, the way in which different perspectives impact on this can be found in the account of GE's change process, and the leadership of Jack Welch.

"The epiphany that Welch experienced in the helicopter with Baughman was emblematic of his own transformation as a leader ... To some observers, the change was astonishing. As a GE manager told me, 'You know, I've watched the rebirth of Welch, or the renaissance of Welch, or whatever has happened to him. I don't know all the elements that went into his being born again, and I don't even care what they are. But I'm sure glad it's happened. He's a different man than he was in 1981'." (Tichy and Sherman, 1993, p 255).

It is clear from the above, that outsiders saw a transformative change in Welch. Note the use of the words "renaissance", "rebirth", and "born again". However, when it was

suggested to Welch that he had “remade” himself, he challenged such a view strongly stating:

“I haven’t changed a thing! I try to adapt to the environment I’m in. In the seventies, when I was helping grow new business - at Plastics, at Medical - I was a wide-eyed growth guy. And then I got into the bureaucracy and I had to clean it out, so I was different in 1981. And now I’m in another environment. But that’s not being “born again”. The ideas were always the same ... we just got it simpler and more carefully articulated over time ... I think it’s been a steady continuum that finally reached a critical mass” (Tichy and Sherman, 1993, pp 255-256).

Therefore, it can be seen that the *same* change process was ascribed as transformative by outsiders, and as developmental by the person themselves. Such an effect may have reduced the agreement with the principle of leadership being a personal transformation.

Despite executives’ low agreement with this principle, the author believes that “transformation” should be considered a desired outcome of leadership development because in developing leaders to bring about significant change, it is difficult to conceive how this ability could be sustained, particularly over the long term, without some “substantial shifts” or “transformation” in one’s thinking and approach. If leaders are to continually transform and lead their organisations, then it would seem necessary that leaders must transform their own understanding and perceptions. Perhaps an acceptable understanding of the transformation necessary is that it is a transformation of one’s perspective and perceptions, not a transformation from a non-leader to a leader.

Thus, while developers would be prudent to avoid notions of transformational development in their marketing of leadership development, it seems worthwhile to maintain transformation as a working premise for the outcome of leadership development.

The next section addresses the implications of the leadership systems results.

11.4.3 Leadership Systems

Table 11.15 provides a summary of the main literature and research conclusions made with regards to the leadership systems.

Table 11.15
Summary of Literature and Research Conclusions
Regarding Leadership Development Processes

Literature Review Conclusions	Research Results Conclusions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Leadership development programmes only make up a small percentage of the effort required to develop leadership in organisations. Organisational systems provide the most potent levers for the effective development of leadership, yet are largely under-valued and unnoticed. While the selection and development of leaders receives some research attention, greater focus on the full range of leadership systems, including appraising leadership performance, rewarding, motivating and sustaining leaders, is required. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Executives comments imply that to have effective leadership processes there must be both a strong willingness (<i>attitude</i>) and strong competence (<i>ability</i>). The organisation must value leadership and be willing to support, encourage and invest in the different leadership processes, and must complement this attitude with effective practices.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kotter's (1988) US results indicate that it is a rare executive who thinks that their organisation is doing a very good job overall of attracting, developing, retaining, and motivating a sufficient number of people to provide leadership. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Approximately half of all executives rate their organisation's ability as poor or fair on all processes (attract, recognise, develop, retain, sustain). The majority of executives believe that there is scope for improvement in the processes that increase the quantity and quality of leadership within their organisations. In particular, the ability to develop leaders requires significant attention. The next greatest needs are attracting and then sustaining leaders. Executives feel most confident about their organisation's ability to recognise, and retain leaders.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No corresponding literature review reference. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Collectively, executives place a greater emphasis on "cultural" and "process" factors for attract, recognise, and develop (in particular the encouraging or obstructive behaviour and attitude of the senior executives, and the quality of the HR practices); and a greater emphasis on the organisation and its external environment for retain and sustain (in particular, bureaucracy and hierarchy, lack of external options, working conditions, and pay).

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No corresponding literature review reference. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Collectively executives imply that the "right" practices include spending the necessary time and money; encouraging and supporting leaders; providing challenges and involving the leaders in change; creating leadership opportunities; and being clear about what leadership is so that "they know it when they see it".
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No corresponding literature review reference. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Key themes emerging from the "dynamics" of developing leaders are: <i>Invest in leadership practices</i>: particularly training, development, education and selection and promotion; <i>Provide leadership opportunities, experiences and challenges</i>; <i>Be supportive</i>: Recognise, value, and nurture leaders; <i>Give leaders space</i>: Remove bureaucratic constraints, share power and responsibility, and foster norms that encourage initiative and change; <i>Have a clear organisational vision</i>; and <i>cope with the high degree of change that is occurring and make the necessary organisational changes</i>.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No corresponding literature review reference. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There appears to be a reinforcing cycle with leadership such that current leadership ability affects current performance and impacts on the development of future leaders and consequently future performance.

The literature review concluded that organisational systems provide the most potent levers for the effective development of leadership, yet are largely under-valued and unnoticed. The systems are particularly undervalued within the leadership literature. Most of the leadership literature focuses on describing and clarifying the nature of leaders. A small amount of the literature builds on this and focuses on identifying and developing the characteristics they describe. However, very few focus on the organisational practices and systems that effectively contribute to the development of leadership within organisations. A much greater focus on organisation-wide interventions through the human resource systems is required if organisations are to be helped in cultivating leadership.

The research results indicate that it is not only leadership theorists and academics who need to increase their focus on the full range of leadership systems. The majority of executives rate their leadership systems as poor/fair. That is, they do not believe their organisational

systems produce the leadership their organisations need. This could indicate that executives, like leadership theorists, have not recognised the importance of the leadership systems, or it could indicate that current efforts are ineffective on the whole.

These low ratings would not be particularly surprising if they came from a disenfranchised group of lower or middle-level managers, however nearly half of the executives surveyed are senior executives (CEO or Board). It appears that the inability to attract, recruit, develop, retain and sustain leaders is recognised at the highest level within organisations.

It is clear that attention is required on all leadership systems identified. A focus on only one or two systems within an organisation would be insufficient. This need for a full system approach is implied in the following executive responses:

“[Attract] But then doesn’t encourage use of their skills”; “Although sometimes recognised, rarely acted on”; “very good in recognising, but slow to develop”; “recognition is good to very good. The ability to do anything after recognition is poor”; “Have training programme in place - some effective. However, lack of recognition means the right people are not always on the courses”; “without recognition, leaders must be self-sustaining”.

In the ideal system, the attraction and recruitment processes would bring people with a high innate leadership potential into the organisation, while the develop, retain, and sustain systems should ensure that this potential is realised and utilised effectively.

In part, the poor ratings of the organisational leadership systems could be attributable to the challenge of the task. Kotter (1990a) states that:

“All available evidence suggests that finding people with leadership potential and then nurturing that potential is much tougher than finding people with managerial potential and then developing those skills” (p 17).

However, the importance of leadership requires that executives, developers, and systems designers persist despite the challenges. Possible starting points for improvement can be found in the factors identified by executives as contributing and/or detracting from an organisation's ability to increase leadership. Table 11.16 highlights the major practices identified by executives and compares them with similar research conducted by Kotter (1988).

Table 11.16
Practices That Help Create a Leadership Capacity

Practices Found by Kotter (1988) in Firms with Strong Leadership	Practices Identified by Executives in this Research
A sophisticated recruiting effort	Spend the time and money necessary
An attractive work environment	Encourage and support leaders and potential leaders
Challenging Opportunities	Create leadership opportunities
Early Identification (of potential and development needs)	Be clear about what leadership is, so that "they know it when they see it"
Planned development	Provide challenges and involve the leaders in change

Table 11.16 shows a level of similarity between the factors identified by Kotter (1988) and by this research. This provides added support to the use of these factors as a starting point for improving the leadership systems within organisations.

Taking executive responses for the dynamics of the leadership systems, Chapter Ten concluded that the comments indicate that "leadership is required to develop leaders." That is, many of the themes that were seen to facilitate or hinder the development of leaders, for example change, future direction, and people focus, were also the dominant themes in executives' definitions of leadership. Thus, there appears to be a reinforcing leadership cycle such that ineffective leadership not only affects current performance but also impacts on the development of future leaders and consequently future performance. Conversely,

effective leadership provides good performance and an environment that fosters the development of future leaders and consequently positively impacts on future performance.

If this is so, the implication is that if it is left unchecked, the current situation is likely to worsen, creating a bigger problem in the future. On the positive side, a sufficient investment of energy into leadership systems will bring multiplied benefits, with an increase in current leadership creating a positive reinforcing cycle that will positively impact the future. This reinforcing cycle should create an urgency for those whose systems rated as poor or fair,

The overwhelming implication from this section is that much more work needs to go into the leadership systems. If McLeod's (1993) comment that there are only two things you have to manage in an organisation - mindset and process - is true, this research indicates that the leadership challenge in Australasia lies predominantly in the process, not the mindset. This research has shown that executives' mindsets are closely aligned with literature conceptualisations. However, the ability of organisations to deliver on this mindset is seen to be poor/fair by the majority of executives. This should not be surprising given that the majority of literature time and resources have been directed at primarily "mindset" issues (what is leadership, are leaders different from managers) at the expense of "process" issues (leadership development and leadership systems). The net result is that the awareness of what leadership is, outstrips organisations' ability to deliver. Thus, for executives, leadership developers, systems designers and theorist/academics alike, the implication is that the focus can be relaxed on the mindset issues, and considerably more energy and focus needs to be put into "process" - particularly organisational systems.

11.5 *Summary of Implications*

Taking the implications as a whole, it can be seen that the current situation, left unchecked, could result in a leadership crisis within Australasian organisations. Figure 11.3 highlights the implications that lead to this conclusion.

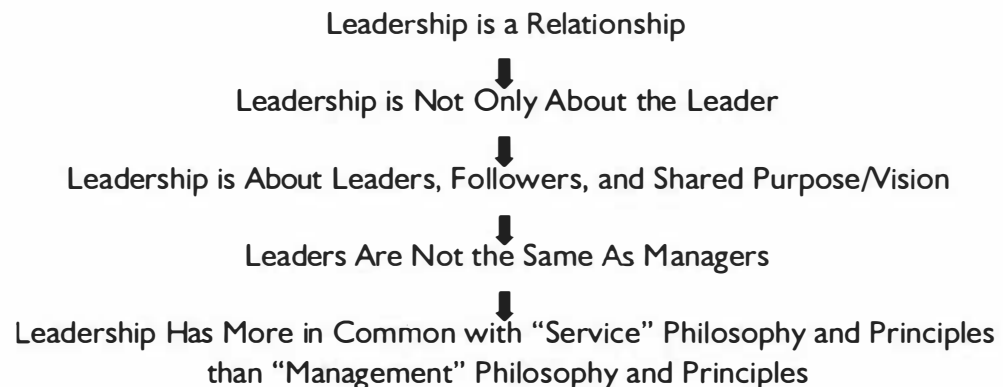
Figure 11.3
Potential Leadership Crisis



Leadership is seen to be important for handling and bringing about change, providing future direction for the organisation, and for handling the people side of the organisation. At present executives believe that their organisations have too few leaders. A situation that is likely to worsen given the poor ability of organisations to do something about it. This combination of importance, particularly for the future of the organisation, and the inability to address these leadership issues indicates a potential leadership crisis.

Executive and literature conclusions offer the following possible actions that could be used to address the potential crisis. Two major areas need to be addressed. The first is the understanding of leadership. The second is the leadership systems and processes. Figure 11.4 summarises the “understanding” conclusions.

Figure 11.4
Understanding Leadership



Leadership as a relationship dramatically changes the nature or form of leadership. Leadership is not about the leader, nor is it a position, nor is it management. It is a relationship - a relationship between leaders, followers and shared purpose/vision. It is influence, not position based; and there are stronger parallels between leadership and service, than there are between leadership and management.

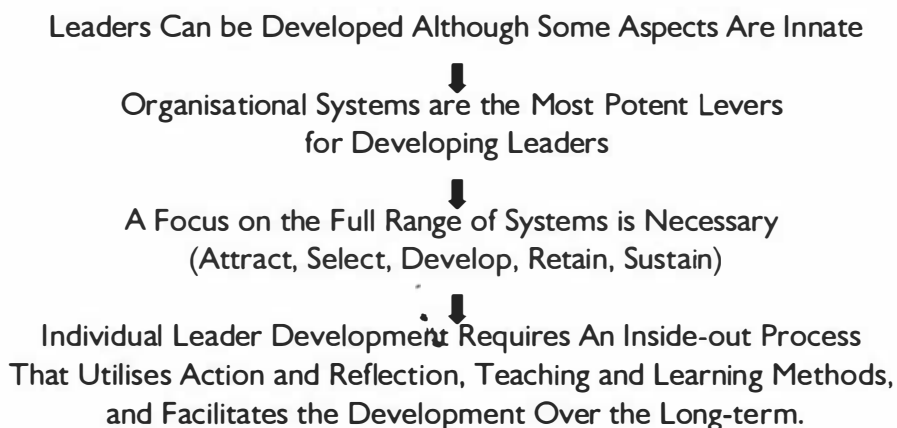
The major implication of the above on leadership development is that developing leadership is not just about developing leaders. Developing leadership also requires developing followers, and shared purpose/vision. Wheatley (1992) quotes the following Sufi teaching:

“You think because you understand *one*, you must understand *two*, because one and one makes two. But you must also understand *and*” (p 9 - emphasis in the original).

In a similar vein, the focus of leadership as “leaders and followers and shared purpose/vision” lies as much in the “and” as it does in the separate components. In short, it is the nature of the “relationship” that becomes important.

Figure 11.5 summarises the implications with regards to the development of leaders.

Figure 11.5
Developing Leaders



If as much as 80% of executive and leader development occurs on the job (Bolt, 1996), then at least 80% of executive and research attention should be focused on these dimensions. Currently, there is much less than this degree of attention on leadership systems. External leadership developers will need to work much more closely with organisations to develop customised programmes that structure development back on the job. The use of self-selected, strategic, real-life projects that both bring about organisational change, and develop leadership competencies, as conducted on the Authentic Leadership Programme, provide a good example of bringing these aspects together (Blyde and Bebb, 1996). As such, this programme works to ensure that leaders increase their strategic contribution *whilst* learning and developing in the important areas for them personally. That is, learning and doing become simultaneous, or at least, parallel processes.

The focus of individual leader development will also need to change to reflect the stronger interpersonal and character dimensions that leadership as a relationship implies. Koestenbaum's (1991) principles provide a good foundation from which to formulate new leader development programmes. In particular, the inside-out development principle highlights the importance of the being, not just doing aspects of leadership that a relationship oriented definition of leadership requires.

In short, unless sufficient action is taken, a leadership shortage appears likely. In order to further our understanding of leadership, leadership should be differentiated from management, and its essential nature should be considered relational. In particular, a relationship between leaders, followers, and shared purpose. To develop leaders, organisational systems need to receive greater attention, while leader development should work to integrate the principles of development as outlined by Koestenbaum (1991). Underlying both the understanding and development of leadership are polarities (interdependent opposites). As a consequence, a greater understanding of polarity principles and dynamics will increase the ability to both understand and develop leadership.

Having addressed the major implications of this research, the final chapter highlights the limitations of this research as well as possible future research directions.

CHAPTER TWELVE

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

12.1 *Introduction*

The intention of this research was to establish executives' perceptions on three key dimensions. The first was, "*Is leadership important?*"; the second, "*what is leadership?*"; and thirdly, "*how to develop leadership*". The previous chapters have highlighted the results and implications of executives' perceptions and indicate that these outcomes have been achieved. To conclude this research, this chapter addresses the limitations of this research, as well as identifying areas for future research.

12.2 *Limitations of this Research*

The aim of this research was to explore executive perceptions of leadership. This necessitated a methodology that allowed executives' understanding and reasoning to emerge, rather than imposing a structure upon them. The qualitative and quantitative combination enabled this research to elicit what executives thought, and the reasons for their thinking. Given the descriptive and exploratory nature of the research and the research objectives, the resulting data did not lend itself to multi-variate analysis. Further, questions of semantic validity, generalisability, and significance testing are necessarily constrained by the data. This research does, however, provide a base upon which these more quantitative approaches can be developed.

12.3 *Future Research*

This research has provided valuable insights into executives' perceptions of leadership and leadership development. It has also raised as many questions as it has answered. Some

of the questions raised were not apparent before conducting the research and are therefore a further outcome of this research. In this section, these questions and possibilities for future research will be highlighted. The future research issues will be highlighted under the headings of “executive perceptions generally” and the three research outcome headings of “is leadership important?”, “what is leadership”, and “how to develop leadership”.

12.3.1 Future Research on Executive Perceptions Generally

This research focused exclusively on describing executives’ perceptions. Future research could address both how these perceptions are formed, and how they can be changed. In assessing how executives’ perceptions are formed, a wide range of factors will need to be explored including, but not limited to, word of mouth, books and literature (including childhood stories and myths), education experiences, observation of others, and the media. If the primary determinants of executives’ perceptions can be determined, strategies for changing perceptions can then be developed.

Identifying antecedents to executives’ perceptions is not the only strategy for changing executives’ perceptions. Future research could also address other methods and strategies for helping executives’ change their perceptions. Related issues such as, “How to identify when perceptions should be changed?” and “How to surface the assumptions and perceptions held so that they can be reinforced and/or changed?” could also be addressed.

Having explored executives’ perceptions of the issues, it would be appropriate for future research to explore executives’ own perceptions of the solutions or methods for addressing these issues. For example, “What methods do executives believe would help them change their perceptions?”. The priority and importance that executives place on each of these identified issues could also provide further insight into their perceptions as well as provide an indication of the most salient issues for executives.

The extent to which perceptions remain stable over time would also be a fruitful area for research. Such research could address questions such as “Are there different perceptions of leadership over time?”; “Do these perceptions vary with age?”; and “Is there are life-cycle of leadership perceptions and consequently different developmental challenges at different stages of the life-cycle?”

As Australasia becomes increasingly multi-cultural, the issue of the extent to which cultural differences impact on the perceptions of leadership becomes increasingly important.

Future research asking executives: “What key questions about leadership would they like answered?” Or alternatively, “If you met a leadership guru, what question would you most want to ask them about leadership? Or what leadership problem would you want a solution to?” would increase the contribution future research could have on issues valued by executives.

Having addressed future research for executive perceptions generally, the following sections address future research possibilities for each of the research outcome areas. The next section begins by addressing future research possibilities for “is leadership important”.

12.3.2 Future Research on Is Leadership Important?

This research assessed the “real” need for leadership and management, however only the “felt” need for leadership was assessed. It would have been interesting to have assessed the “felt” need for management also. The question could ask executives to rate the importance of management to their organisation's future success, and provide an explanation for their rating.

Such a question would enable a stronger assessment of the accuracy of Kotter’s (1990a) framework, and would provide additional insights on the perceived differences between leadership and management.

Research assessing the actual impact of the factors highlighted by executives as substantiating leadership's importance would help determine whether "handling and bringing about change, providing future direction for the organisation, and handling the people side of the organisation" are perceived benefits only, or actually translate into effective leadership performance in organisations. At present there is no research validation that these benefits are attributable to leadership. The strongest conclusion that can be made is that leadership is *seen to be important* because of the aforementioned factors. Therefore, more empirical research which tests the "common-sense" notion that leadership is important is necessary. Increased clarity on the ways in which leadership contributes to individual and organisational effectiveness and performance will prevent "leadership" from being proffered as a panacea, and will also provide a realistic sense of what leadership can and cannot do.

12.3.3 Future Research on What is Leadership?

With regards to developing a leadership definition that is shared (agreed upon), consistent, clear and easily identifiable, precise/accurate, concise, easily understandable, researchable (able to be used by scholars), and practical (able to be used by practitioners) (Rost, 1991; Clark and Clark, 1990), future research could look to bring together themes from three areas. The first is identifying the scholarly definition themes. The Emergent Leadership Framework developed in this literature review could be used as the basis for this research. The second area would be the analysis of the key leadership themes, definitions, and models as provided in the popular literature and media. While it would be very difficult to conduct this analysis across the whole range of "popular" literature, a possible starting point is analysing the themes from the best selling business books, on the assumption that these books are likely to have had the most impact. Such analysis could provide insight into the key messages that executives are receiving about leadership. The third area would be to build on the nature of this research and assess executive's perceptions of what leadership is. Emerging from these three strands could be a shared, agreed upon definition of leadership that could provide a uniformity and common foundation for all future research.

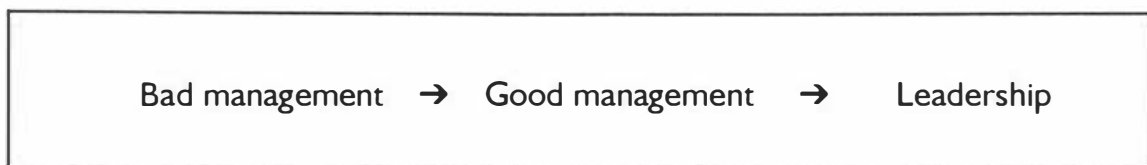
In addition to future research on leadership definitions, this research has highlighted that it would be useful to explore further the exact nature of the relationship between leadership and management. While the question as expressed in this research identifies some key themes associated with leadership and management, greater clarity on the nature of the relationship between the two would help uncover the extent to which the polarity mindset exists. Such a question could ask whether managers and leaders are completely different; somewhat different; slightly different; leaders are a subset of managers; managers are a subset of leaders; or some other combination; as well as explaining the reasoning behind their answer.

To further clarify the nature of relationship between leadership and management, future research could also address what executives' believe the essence of management to be, and contrast this with their statements on the essence of leadership.

In addition to highlighting the major themes within executives' conceptualisations of leadership, some assessment of the completeness or comprehensiveness of their perceptions could be addressed by future research. Leadership is multi-dimensional, therefore the extent to which an individual captures this multi-dimensionality would provide a greater sense of the adequacy of current perceptions.

Rost (1991) highlights that the traditional assumption has been that leadership is very good or excellent management (see Figure 12.1).

Figure 12.1
Leadership as Excellent Management



However, if leadership and management are distinct, yet interdependent processes, a whole research area with regards to ‘bad’ or ‘ineffective’ leadership exists. More research on the downsides of leadership and on what constitutes “good” and “bad” leadership can increase the lessons learnt. At present, by ignoring bad leadership as a field of study, the other side of the leadership coin, and its lessons, are inaccessible.

Research that clarifies whether executives distinguish between leaders (the person) and leadership (the relationship) will become critical for developing future conceptualisations of leadership. As a consequence, more research in the “new science” area would be valuable. The perspective that leadership is a relationship provides some interesting new questions such as: Why do people believe in some leaders but not in others? Why do some people choose to follow one leader while others reject that person? What actions sustain the leadership relationship? and Which destroy it?

Building on Kouzes and Posner’s (1993) statement that “*there is a greater connection between leadership and customer service than there is between leadership and traditional management*” (p 10 - emphasis in original); more research connecting the principles and processes of service to the principles and processes of leadership should bring valuable insights, particularly into the relationship dynamics of leadership.

It was highlighted in Chapter Eleven that shared purpose and shared vision are central to the leadership relationship. As a consequence future research needs to clarify the nature of shared purpose and vision, and its contribution to the leadership relationship. In particular, the differences between purpose, visions, values, plans and goals need to be clarified. Further, how do organisations reconcile individual purpose and vision and shared purpose and vision? and what contribution do the purpose and vision of individuals make to shared purpose and vision?

Social scientists in several fields have recently suggested a common framework for understanding collective behaviour, a concept known as social capital. The relationship between social capital and the leadership relationship could be fruitful area for future

research. “Social capital” refers to features of social organization such as networks, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation toward pursuing shared objectives or realising some mutual benefit (Putnam, 1996) . As physical and human capital are to individual productivity, social capital is to collective productivity. The following quote from Hume is illustrative of a lack of social capital.

“Your corn is ripe today; mine will be so tomorrow. 'Tis profitable for us both, that I should labour with you today, and that you should aid me tomorrow. I have no kindness for you, and know you have as little for me. I will not, therefore, take any pains upon your account; and should I labour with you upon my own account, in expectation of a return, I know I should be disappointed, and that I should in vain depend upon your gratitude. Here then I leave you to labour alone; You treat me in the same manner. The seasons change; and both of us lose our harvests for want of mutual confidence and security”.

(David Hume quoted in Putnam, 1993, p 36)

This quote illustrates the type of behaviour and situation that can occur within, and between organisations. Putnam (1993) argues that “the failure to cooperate for mutual benefit does not necessarily signal ignorance or irrationality or even malevolence ... Hume's farmers were not dumb, or crazy, or evil; they were trapped. Social scientists have lately analysed this fundamental predicament in a variety of guises: the tragedy of the commons; the logic of collective action; public goods; the prisoners' dilemma. In all these situations, as in Hume's rustic anecdote, everyone would be better off if individuals could cooperate. In the absence of coordination and credible mutual commitment, however, everyone defects, ruefully but rationally, confirming one another's melancholy expectations” (p 36). Creating social capital requires leadership as it involves influencing people towards mutual purposes. Leadership provides the starting point for building social capital.

At present, notions of social capital are primarily focused on voluntary and civic associations. However, the creation of social capital, within and outside of organisations is in essence a challenge for the leadership relationship. The ability to build norms and social trust that facilitate co-ordination and co-operation are clearly useful to the leadership

relationship, therefore research linking notions of leadership and social capital could be very productive.

Further, if leadership is a relationship, then methodologies that can accommodate this reality need to be developed. Ackroyd and Hughes (1981) note that while all of the social and organisational sciences are predicated on the notion that individuals are not isolated but interact and relate with others in complex ways, research methodologies observe and gather information primarily from individuals only. Accordingly, they argue, new methodologies need to be developed that overcome this "excessive individualism".

The relationship nature of leadership requires further research on the requirements that this has on the leader. A promising area of research is that of emotional intelligence (EQ) as presented by Goleman (1995). EQ includes the dimensions of emotional self-awareness, managing emotions, harnessing emotions productively, empathy, reading emotions and handling relationships (Goleman, 1995), and has much to do with the qualities "once thought of as 'character'" (Gibbs, 1995). Goleman (1997) also highlights the "contagiousness" of emotions. That is, emotionally expressive people are contagious. Therefore emotional intelligence may also provide insights into the leader's ability to influence and inspire and motivate others. It also highlights the leadership challenges of increasing emotional expressiveness and maintaining a high positive level of emotions. Given the above, emotional intelligence is likely to become a crucial dimension of being a leader in the conceptualisation of leadership as a relationship.

The "personal" domain of the leader also needs to be reconsidered in light of the leadership relationship. This research tended to look at leadership in the abstract and organisational sense. It did not address the personal nature or issues within leadership. A number of future research angles can be taken in the personal realm of leadership.

For example, the impact of others' leadership on the individual could be assessed, including "How has leadership influenced you?". Research could also address the personal costs and rewards of leading. Such research could help answer, "Why do people invest the extra energy in being leaders?" "Do the drives or reasons for leading change over time?" The

personal costs of leading also require further research. Lee Iaccocca, who is often provided as an example of a leader, speaks of “how I flunked retirement”, noting that “you can plan everything in life, and then the roof caves in on you because you haven’t done enough thinking about who you are and what you should do with the rest of your life” (cited in Taylor, 1996, p 47). This reinforces the need to understand and address the personal costs of leadership.

Another interesting area relates to the “self-perception” of leaders. For example, the question “Do you perceive yourself to be a leader. Why or why not?” would elicit the factors that contribute or hinder the self-perception of being a leader. These factors could then be used in the development of leadership. In addressing the self-perception aspects of leadership, it would be interesting to discover how many people believe that “I could never be a leader” because they see leadership in what Kotter (1988) refers to as the “larger than life capital ‘L’ sense”, those handful of leaders who are truly exceptional and influential such as Nelson Mandela and Mahatma Gandhi.

The areas of “bad” or “ineffective” leadership highlight the personal areas of how leaders handle failing. Lapierre (1989) notes that leaders need to balance feelings of impotence and omnipotence. In particular, the ability to mourn and handle failing is critical to balancing such feelings. Much more research on the “dark side” of leading (Kets de Vries, 1993; Lapierre, 1989) needs to be conducted. At present much of this research is psychologically based, therefore more research on a relationship based model is necessary. The work on emotional intelligence could highlight ineffective interpersonal issues, not just psychological ones.

12.3.4 Leadership Development

On the basis of the research results, further research into the relationship between innate/born characteristics and leadership development need to be explored further. In particular, the question: “what aspects of leadership do you believe can be developed, what aspects of leadership do you believe are not able to be developed?” would be particularly illuminating. Added value could be gained by tying this question back to the executive’s own definition of leadership so that the questions become: “what aspects of your definition of leadership can be developed? What aspects are not able to be developed?”

Given this research’s findings that the majority of executives’ rate their leadership processes as poor/fair, future research could focus on the specific practices that organisations employ in each of these areas. By identifying and evaluating the existing practices, those practices which differentiate poor/fair from very good/excellent organisations could be used as a basis for improving the leadership systems within organisations. In exploring these processes, it would be important to assess *what* is being done, *how well* they believe it is working, and *why* they believe it is working or not working. Kotter’s (1988) research into the leadership processes practices could be used as a foundation for the “what” aspect of this analysis.

12.4 Conclusion

This research has clarified and identified a number of issues regarding the importance, nature, and development of leadership. These issues have supported some aspects of leadership literature, and contradicted or refuted others. The practical implications for executives and organisations, as well as suggestions for moving forward, have also been highlighted by this research.

One of the implicit aims of this research is to improve the quantity and quality of leadership within organisations, thereby improving the working lives of those executives that helped make this research possible. The importance of this research will therefore be determined

by its ability to further develop the understanding of leadership within organisations, as well as its ability to increase organisations' willingness and ability to address pertinent leadership issues. It is hoped that these results will provide both a starting point for addressing these issues within organisations, as well as stimulating and challenging others to unravel the complexities of leadership.

**APPENDIX ONE
RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE**

**EXECUTIVE
PERCEPTIONS
OF
LEADERSHIP**





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**FACULTY OF
BUSINESS STUDIES**

DEPARTMENT OF
HUMAN
RESOURCE
MANAGEMENT

December 1993

Dear B.P.W. Member

EXECUTIVE PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP

"Where have all the leaders gone?", asks *Time* magazine (July, 1993). My name is Peter Blyde, I am a Masters Student at Massey University, New Zealand. *Time* was concerned with political leadership, my research is concerned with leadership in organisations - yet the concern remains the same. Specifically, my research aims to get to the heart of **executive perceptions of leadership and leadership development** in Australian and New Zealand organisations.

The size of the sample is crucial to the accuracy of my research; your help is therefore critical. Your Federation supports the aims of this survey and has kindly sent this questionnaire to you on my behalf. Please take this opportunity to contribute to Australasia's knowledge of organisational leadership and leadership development.

I appreciate that you are very busy, but having field-tested this questionnaire, I can assure you it will not require much of your time.

Your answers will be completely **anonymous** and **confidential**. I have no record of your details or any means of identifying your questionnaire. The information you provide will be reported only in summary form; no data will be presented in a manner that could identify an individual or organisation. The findings of my research can be provided at your request.

Please return the questionnaire in the reply paid envelope provided by **17 December**. I look forward to receiving your reply as soon as possible.

Thank you in advance for your help.

Regards

Peter Blyde
Masters Student
Department of Human Resource Management
MASSEY UNIVERSITY

P.S. If you have any questions or would like to talk about the survey, please feel free to contact me on 64-6-356-9099 Ext 8102 (phone) or 64-6-350-5608 (fax).

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire is divided up into four sections. These sections cover the following areas:

1. **The Need for Leadership**
2. **Leadership and Leadership Development**
3. **Your Organisation's Current Stock of Leaders and Managers**
4. **Leadership Development Processes**

Each section is distinctly labelled and numbered, for example, Section 4, Question 2 is numbered 4.2.

Instructions for completing the questionnaire are placed in these shadow boxes - PLEASE READ THESE INSTRUCTIONS CAREFULLY.

If you have any questions about completing the questionnaire, please contact me by phone 64-6-356-9099 Ext 8102 or fax 64-6-350-5608. Thank you once again for your help.

1. THE NEED FOR LEADERSHIP

Please circle the number that best represents your view.

- | | Very Low | Very High |
|--|---------------|-----------|
| 1.1 For your organisation's success over the next 5-15 years, the amount of change needed in your organisation will be | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | |
| 1.2 Over the next 5-15 years, the degree of complexity in your operation (due to size, technology, number of products, services, clients etc) will be | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | |
| 1.3 The importance of leadership to your organisation's future success is | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | |

Please explain your answer to Q 1.3 in the space below.

2. LEADERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Please tick the appropriate box, and comment where prompted.

2.1 Are leaders **different** from managers?

Yes → What do you believe are the **critical differences?** (You may wish to consider the way they **think, feel, and act**). Please write in the space below.

No → Please **explain** in the space below.

2.2 Please write a **short statement** which for you captures the **essence of leadership**.

2.3 Can leaders be **developed**?

Yes → Please **move** to question 2.4.

No → Please **explain below**; then go **directly** to question 2.5. on page 3.

2.4 On what **principles** do you believe leadership **development** should be based?

Please indicate the **extent** to which you **agree** with the following statements by **circling** the appropriate **number**. Please add any **comments** you would like to make about these statements.

2.5 Leaders **cannot** be developed on a week long course. Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Comments:

2.6 Leadership **cannot** be taught in the traditional sense, it must be **learned** through personal experience, experimentation and feedback. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Comments:

2.7 Leaders must be able to take sustained, decisive **action**. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Comments:

2.8 Leaders must be **reflective** i.e. think carefully and deeply about what they do, how they do it, and why they do it. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Comments:

2.9 Becoming a leader is about personal **transformation** i.e. fundamental changes in the way one thinks, feels, and acts. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Comments:

2.10 Leadership is about **being, not just doing**, therefore developing as a leader starts on the inside with one's values, motives, and assumptions. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Comments:

2.11 Please add any further **comments** you have about **leadership** and/or **leadership development**.

3. CURRENT STOCK OF LEADERS AND MANAGERS

There is much debate over whether there is a difference between management and leadership. Putting aside your own view on this matter, please **assume** for the **following questions (3.1 - 4.10)** that the **distinction between management and leadership given in the table below exists.**

Professor Kotter of the Harvard Business School makes the following distinction between management and leadership:

	MANAGEMENT	LEADERSHIP
<i>Creating an Agenda</i>	Planning and Budgeting: establishes detailed steps and timetables for achieving results and allocates the necessary resources.	Establishing Direction: develops a vision of the future, and the needed change strategies.
<i>Developing a human network for achieving the agenda</i>	Organising and Staffing: establishes structure, staffs it, delegates responsibility and authority, provides policies, procedures and systems.	Aligning People: communicates the direction by words and deeds to all who need to understand and accept the vision and strategies.
<i>Execution</i>	Controlling and Problem Solving: monitors results, identifies deviations, plans and organises actions.	Motivating and Inspiring: energises people to overcome major barriers to change.
<i>Outcomes</i>	Produces a degree of predictability and order , and has the potential of consistently producing key results expected by various stakeholders.	Produces change , often to a dramatic degree, and has the potential of producing extremely useful change.

3.1 Using Professor Kotter’s distinction between management and leadership, please place a **tick** next to the statement that best reflects your **organisation’s** current status (excluding yourself) in **each** of the four **quadrants**.

People with Weak Management/Strong Leadership	People with Strong Management/Strong Leadership
Too few <input type="checkbox"/>	Too few <input type="checkbox"/>
About right <input type="checkbox"/>	About right <input type="checkbox"/>
Too many <input type="checkbox"/>	Too many <input type="checkbox"/>
People with Weak Management/Weak Leadership	People with Strong Management/Weak Leadership
Too few <input type="checkbox"/>	Too few <input type="checkbox"/>
About right <input type="checkbox"/>	About right <input type="checkbox"/>
Too many <input type="checkbox"/>	Too many <input type="checkbox"/>

4. LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROCESSES

Please circle the letter that best represents your answer, where
 P = Poor; F = Fair; G = Good; VG = Very Good; Ex = Excellent.
 Please add any comments.

Using Professor Kotter's description of leadership (on page 4),
 PLEASE RATE YOUR ORGANISATION'S ABILITY TO:

4.1 **Attract** (i.e. recruit and select) leaders: P / F / G / VG / Ex

Comments:

4.2 **Recognise** leadership potential: P / F / G / VG / Ex

Comments:

4.3 **Develop** leaders: P / F / G / VG / Ex

Comments:

4.4 **Retain** leaders: P / F / G / VG / Ex

Comments:

4.5 **Sustain** leaders: P / F / G / VG / Ex

Comments:

Please circle the appropriate number, and comment where prompted.

	Inadequate			More than Adequate	
	1	2	3	4	5
4.6 The amount of time and effort spent ensuring your organisation has the necessary leadership is:					

Please Comment:

6

4.7 How can organisations **facilitate** the development of leaders?

4.8 How do organisations **hinder** the development of leaders?

4.9. What do you believe are your organisation's most **significant challenges** for developing **leaders**?

4.10 Please add any further **comments** or ideas you would like to make about leadership development **practices, processes, and challenges**:

BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

Nature of Business: _____
(please specify)

- Profit
- Not for Profit

Position: CEO/COO/Chairperson Board Member
 Line Executive **Staff** Executive

Number of Years in Present Position: _____ (to nearest year)

Number of Years with Organisation: _____ (to nearest year)

Number of Employees in Organisation 1-10 11-99 100+

Sex M / F Age at Last Birthday _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND THOUGHTFUL COMMENTS

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