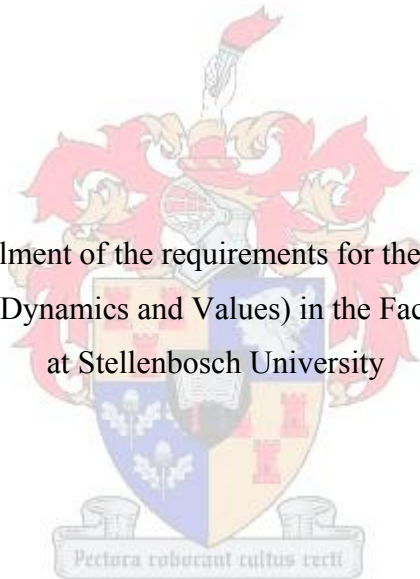# LEADERSHIP PLACEMENT IN ORGANISATIONS: A DRATHIAN PERSPECTIVE

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Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Philosophy (Decision Making, Knowledge Dynamics and Values) in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University

Supervisor: Professor Hans Peter Müller

March 2013

DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously, in its entirety or in part, submitted this thesis for obtaining any qualification.

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i

ABSTRACT

One school of thought on leadership propounds the idea that the individual leader is the source of leadership through personal dominance and intellectual influence. However, organisations are operating in an ever-changing environment and leaders face increasingly complex challenges. Drath proposes that there should be a rethinking of leadership and suggests that broader social meaning-making processes of accomplishing leadership tasks are required, and that good leaders are the end product of good processes of leadership.

This research is an assessment of the leadership criteria used by an Executive Placement Company in the selection of senior leaders in organisations, and whether Drath's theory on organisational leadership, or something approaching this, is present in practice. Following from that, Drath's theory is evaluated as an alternative means of approaching current leadership issues.

The study will attempt to give a better understanding of the criteria that could be applied in placing leaders in organisations, in order to meet the complex challenges faced by leaders in organisations.

A qualitative research method with limited triangulation was used. This involved a case study of an Executive Placement Company in Johannesburg. Data collection was in the form of semi-structured interviews and the completion of a questionnaire by the five senior employees of the Executive Placement Company involved in the placement of senior leaders. The questionnaire contained open and closed ended questions. A quantitative method was applied as questionnaires were completed by five employees, as well as a qualitative method, which involved conducting semi-structured interviews with five employees. However, as a limited number of questionnaires were used, the research is predominantly qualitative research.

The criteria used by the Executive Placement Company, as well as changes in organisational leadership criteria and organisational leadership factors, were identified. Key criteria include the culture, management style and dynamics of the organisations in which the leaders are to be placed. The personal attributes of the leader, such as experience, technical skills and, in particular, behavioural competencies are also important. It is suggested that there have been changes in the criteria used for placement, with organisations appearing to prefer more

empowering, participating, engaged, connected and relationship focused leaders. There also seems to be a move away from an autocratic style of leadership towards one that is more holistic and integrated. Various elements of Drath's theory are present in practice and it is thus suggested that this theory provides an alternative perspective with which to approach leadership issues.

The value of the present research is that it gives an indication of actual leadership processes and the criteria that are and should be applied in the placement of leaders in organisations. This research also indicates that difficulties exist in leadership processes due to the application of affirmative action policies in the placement of leaders in organisations. Further research is required in regard to the effect of affirmative action policies in the placement of leaders in organisations.

ABSTRAK

'n Belangrike en invloedryke skool van denke oor leierskap voer aan dat die individuele leier, deur persoonlike dominansie en intellektuele invloed, die bron van leierskap is. Organisasies bevind hulself egter in omgewings wat voortdurend aan die verander is en hierdeur staar leiers toenemend komplekse uitdagings in die gesig. Gevolglik voer Drath aan dat leierskap herdink moet word en stel voor dat breër sosiale betekenisprosesse, wat ten doel het om leierskapstake te vorm, benodig word en dat goeie leiers dus die eindprodukte van goeie leierskapsprosesse is.

Hierdie navorsing behels eerstens 'n assessering van leierskapskriteria, soos aangewend deur die Executive Placement Company in die seleksie van seniorleiers in organisasies en daarmee saam die vraag of Drath se teorie oor organisatoriese leierskap (of iets soortgelyk aan sy teorie) in praktyk voorkom. Tweedens, ondersoek dit die vraag of Drath se teorie 'n alternatiewe manier bied om huidige leierskapskwessies te benader.

Dié studie het ten doel om 'n beter verstandhouding daar te stel van die kriteria wat gebruik kan word om leiers in organisasies te plaas ten einde die komplekse uitdagings, wat deur leiers in organisasies ervaar word, die hoof te bied.

'n Kwalitatiewe navorsingsmetode met beperkte triangulering is gebruik. Dit sluit in 'n gevallestudie op 'n Executive Placement Company in Johannesburg. Dataversameling het die vorm aangeneem van semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude en die voltooiing van 'n vraelys deur vyf senior werknemers van die Executive Placement Company, betrokke by die plasing van senior leiers. Die vraelys bevat beide oop- en geslote vrae. Kwantitatiewe- (in die vorm van vraelyste voltooi) en kwalitatiewe metodes (in die vorm van semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude gevoer) is gebruik. Aangesien slegs 'n beperkte getal vraelyste gebruik kon word, is die navorsing hoofsaaklik kwalitatief van aard.

Kriteria deur die Executive Placement Company gebruik, sowel as veranderinge in organisatoriese leierskapskriteria en –leierskapsfaktore, is geïdentifiseer. Sleutelkriteria sluit in die kultuur, bestuurstyl en dinamika van die organisasie waar leiers geplaas word. Die persoonlike eienskappe van die leier, soos ervaring, tegniese vaardighede en veral gedragsbevoegdhede, is ook as belangrik geag. Daar word voorgestel dat daar veranderinge

aangebring word ten opsige van die kriteria gebruik vir plasing; organisasies toon 'n voorkeur vir leiers wat meer gefokus is op bemagtiging, deelneming, betrokkenheid, verbondenheid en verhoudings. Dit wil verder voorkom of daar wegbeweeg word van 'n outokratiese styl van leierskap na een wat meer holisties en geïntegreerd is. Verskeie elemente van Drath se teorie is teenwoordig en daarom word daar voorgestel dat hierdie teorie 'n alternatiewe perspektief bied om leierskapskwessies te benader.

Die waarde van die navorsing lê daarin dat dit 'n indikasie gee van die werklike leierskapprosesse wat gebruik word. Die navorsing dui verder daarop dat daar probleme bestaan in leierskapsprosesse, teweeggebring deur die toepassing van regstellende aksie beleid in die plasing van leiers in organisasies. Toekomstige navorsing word benodig om die invloed van regstellende aksie op leierskaps prosesse in organisasies te bepaal.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABBREVIATIONS

CEO: Chief Executive Officer

DAC: Direction Alignment Commitment

DI: Dominance and Influence view

EPC: Executive Placement Company

IT: Information Technology

CHAPTER 1

Background and Rationale for the Study

1.1   Introduction and problem statement

This research is an assessment and interpretation of the criteria for leadership used by an Executive Placement Company (EPC, real name withheld) in the selection of leaders for organisations. EPC is a Johannesburg-based executive search company specialising in the placement of senior executives in organisations.

One view of organisational leadership is that the individual leader is the source of leadership through personal dominance or intellectual influence; this is the concept of leadership as constituted by a leader. For the purposes of this study, this view will be referred to as the dominance and influence (DI) view. Obviously, different authors emphasise different aspects of this view but these differences are clustered as the views constitute an important and influential point of departure that has played an important historical role and continues to orient much of the leadership debate. Organisations and leaders are, however, facing increasingly complex challenges, impacting on how we view leadership.

Wilfred Drath is group director of New Lenses on Leadership and a senior fellow at the Centre for Creative Leadership in Greensboro, Northern Carolina. His current research and educational work focuses on the evolution of leadership in the knowledge age. He suggests that the approach to organisational leadership be reframed. He proposes that individuals in an organisation wish to be part of a bigger picture that connects them to a larger purpose. The individuals expect leadership to create the direction, alignment and commitment that will enable them to work together, to achieve organisational success (Drath, 2001).

This requires creating richer and broader social meaning-making processes to accomplish leadership tasks. Good leaders are thus the end-product of good processes of leadership. Drath is not in opposition to and does not oppose and does not state that there is no place for the DI view of leadership, but he reframes the leadership debate in terms of the socially constructed nature of

1

leadership as a social phenomenon. The question arises as to whether individuals in organisations are developing new ways for people to work together, and whether practice is ahead of theory, as is often the case. Further questions which arise are whether Drath's theory, or something approaching this, is present in practice, and whether this provides an alternative perspective with which to approach current leadership issues.

1.2 Importance of the study

Organisations are operating in an ever-changing environment and are becoming more diverse as they are required to embrace different world views and differing cultures. As organisations develop a global reach, leadership challenges within these organisations become increasingly complex. The question that arises is what the correct approach to leadership should be to overcome these challenges. At present, executive search companies may be placing too much emphasis on assessing the individual's personal criteria, and not enough attention to assessing the social meaning-making processes of leadership within organisations. This study will consider the criteria that should be applied in placing leaders, in order to meet the complex challenges faced by leaders in organisations.

1.3 Research objectives

The objectives of this study are to determine:

(i)   The criteria used by employees of EPC in the placement of leaders in organisations;
(ii)   Whether Drath's theory of organisational leadership, or something approaching this, is present in practice;
(iii)   Whether Drath's theory of organisational leadership is an alternative way of approaching current leadership issues.

1.4 Research design and methodology

The research approach used in this study includes both a literature survey and an empirical component. The literature survey firstly considers definitions and concepts of organisational leadership, leadership within organisations, components central to leadership, leadership and the external environment, and power and leadership. This is followed by an exploration of some key theories of organisational leadership, in particular those of Bass, Zaccaro and Klimonski, Yukl,

2

Northouse and Lakomski. Finally, the literature survey considers Drath's theory of organisational leadership and whether this provides an extended or innovative approach.

The empirical component is case-study research focussed on the criteria for leadership used by EPC in the identification and placement of leaders in high-level positions within organisations. A qualitative research method was used to collect data although triangulation was incorporated to a limited degree. An open- and closed-ended, structured questionnaire was developed by the researcher (see Appendix A), and was completed by five employees during a semi-structured interview. One of the reasons for using a questionnaire was to ensure that participants' responses remained focussed and that information relevant to the study was obtained.

Interviews were conducted with five of EPC's senior employees, namely the President, Chief Executive Officer, Chief Executive, a consultant to the organisation and a Senior Researcher. These individuals were the only employees in the organisation who were involved in leader placements and were experienced in selecting leaders, and were thus chosen as respondents.

1.5   Overview of chapters

A brief overview of the structure of this thesis is presented below.

Chapter 1 Background and rationale for the study: This chapter introduces the research problem and outlines the problem statement, the significance of the study, the research objectives and the methodology that was employed.

Chapter 2 Research design and methodology: This chapter considers the research design that was used and highlights the reasons for the chosen methodology. There is an in-depth analysis of case study as a method of research, and the steps that were followed to ensure that the present study was rigorous. The chapter highlights the research question and hypothesis for the study, as well as the aims of the study.

Chapter 3 Literature Review of Organisational Leadership: This chapter explores definitions of organisational leadership, provides an historical overview of organisational leadership and considers leadership within organisations, components central to leadership, leadership and the external environment and power and leadership. This is followed by a critique of selected theories on organisational leadership. The authors cited in this critique were selected

3

systematically to provide an overview of the DI view of organisational leadership. This provides a basis to consider Drath's theory. The chapter concludes with a discussion summarising the views of these authors.

Chapter 4 The Contribution of Drath: Chapter 4 considers Drath's theory of organisational leadership. Drath's most important works, namely *Making Common Sense: Leadership as a Meaning-making in a Community of Practice*, *Changing Our Minds on Leadership*, *Rethinking the Source of Leadership*, *Leading Together: Complex Challenges Require a New Approach*, *Direction Alignment Commitment* and, lastly, *Leadership Beyond Leaders and Followers*, are discussed. This chapter provides a foundation for the interpretation of the results of the questionnaire from a Drathian perspective.

Chapter 5 Research Results: This chapter presents the results of the research. The questionnaire was divided into three sections, namely *leadership criteria*, *organisational leadership factors* and a *conclusion*. The results of each question are analysed and interpreted. The results of the questionnaire are summarised and presented in tables.

Chapter 6 Interpretation of Research Results: This chapter is an interpretation of the results presented in chapter 5 from the perspective of Drath's theory of organisational leadership. Organisational leadership in practice and whether Drath's theory provides an alternative framework to resolve leadership issues, are also analysed.

The thesis concludes with *chapter 7*, which sets out the limitations of the study and conclusions.

CHAPTER 2

Research Design and Methodology

2.1   Introduction

Methodology is a crucial undertaking and has been highlighted as instrumental in the process of completing successful research by numerous authors, including Kumar (1999), Hart (1998), Hancock & Algozzine (2006), Huberman & Miles (2002) and Yin (2009). Hart (1998:28) describes methodology as,

> *"a system of methods and rules to facilitate the collection and analysis of data. It provides the starting point for choosing an approach made up of theories, ideas, concepts, and the definition of the topic."*

The aim of this chapter is to highlight the methodological reasoning behind the present study and the steps that were taken to ensure that the study was academically rigorous and well-developed. In doing so, this chapter will cover the planning and design of the case study, data collection and analysis and the reporting of the case study, as shown in Figure 1 on the next page. Each component of the process illustrated in Figure 1 is subsequently discussed in more detail.

This chapter is built around one of the leading methodological theorists on case study as a research tool, R.K. Yin. His work is seen as a benchmark in the field and the structure of a case study as he suggests that it be constructed, is used in some detail here. There are many authors who cite[1] Yin and as a result it was decided that he be used extensively in this study. Similarly other authors have also developed guides or process for students to follow. These steps differ with some authors placing more emphasis on different steps within the process which they feel to be more important. Dawson Hancock and Bob Algozzine in their book "Doing case study research" suggest the following steps in the case study process; setting the stage, selecting a design, gathering information through either interviews, observations, documents, or a

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[1] Kumar (1999), Hart (1998), Hancock & Algozzine (2006), Huberman & Miles (2002) Eisenhardt (2002:8), Scholflied (2002).

combination of the three, summarizing and interpreting the information, reporting findings, and lastly confirming the case studies findings. As previously stated Yin is not the only authority on case study research but due to the large number of authors who cite him in their texts it was deemed appropriate that Yin be used as a basis from which to understand and unpack case study research.

Figure 1:   **The Case Study Process**
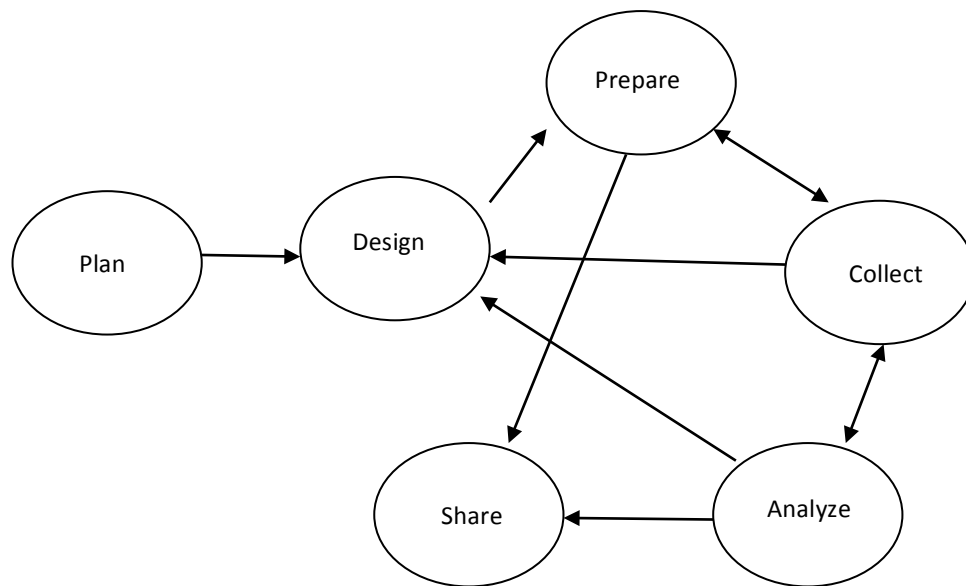
Source: Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case Study Research: Design and methods* (Fourth Edition), London: Sage.p, 1.

2.2   Planning the Case Study

The question may be asked as to when and why a case study should be undertaken. This section considers this question, as well as the rationale for selecting the case study method for this particular study. The section concludes by assessing the advantages and limitations associated with case study research.
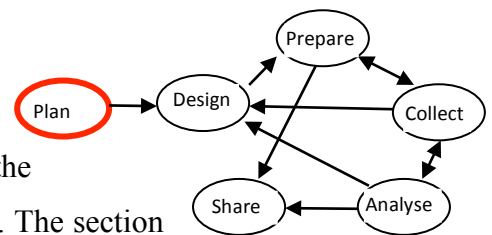
Before the case study as a research method is discussed, it is important to define a case study. Keith Punch, cited in Silverman (2010:139), describes a case study as,

> *"Processes whereby one case or a number of cases will be studied in detail, using whatever methods seem appropriate. While there may be a variety of specific purposes*

and research questions, the general objective is to develop as full an understanding of that case as possible."

There are many different research methods, such as experiments, surveys and histories or analyses of archival records. An example of the latter is modelling economic trends or student performance in schools (Yin, 2009:5). These diverse methods entail different ways of collecting and analyzing empirical data, following its own logic.

There are misconceptions about the various research methods which need to be considered. One such misconception is that research methods should be arrayed hierarchically (Yin, 2009:6). The misconception suggests that case studies are only appropriate for the exploratory phase of an investigation, whilst surveys and histories are appropriate for the explanatory phase and experiments are the sole means of undertaking explanatory or causal inquiries (Yin, 2009:6). This hierarchical view reinforces the idea that case studies are only a preliminary research method and cannot be used to describe or test propositions.

Case studies are, however, more than simply exploratory strategies and some of the best and most famous case studies have been explanatory in nature, such as Graham Allison's original study of the 1962 Cuban missile crisis (Yin, 2009:6). Descriptive case studies are also found in major disciplines such as sociology and political science (Yin, 2009:7). Distinguishing among the various research methods, and the advantages and disadvantages of these, may require going beyond the hierarchical stereotype described above. Yin (2009:8) suggests that each research method can be used for all three purposes, namely exploration, description and explanation.

According to Yin (2009:8), the choice of research strategy depends on the following three key considerations:

(i)   The type of research question posed;
(ii)   The degree of control that the investigator has over behavioural events; and
(iii)   Whether the focus of the study is on contemporary or historical events.

These considerations are explored in more detail in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1:   Relevant Situations for Different Research Strategies

Method	Form of Research Question	Requires Control Over Behavioural Events?	Focuses on Contemporary Events?
Experiment	How, Why	Yes	Yes
Survey	Who, What, Where, How many, How much	Yes	Yes
Archival Analysis	Who, What, Where, How many, How much	No	Yes/no
History	How, Why	No	No
Case Study	How, Why	No	Yes

Source: Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (Fourth Edition), London: Sage.p, 8.

Table 2.1 provides strong support for the use of the case study research method in attempting to answer the question posed by this study. Case study research is useful for investigating contemporary phenomena within a real-life context, particularly when phenomena and context cannot be distinguished easily. Further support for the use of a case study approach for this research is suggested by Yin (2009:9), who notes the need for case studies to solve complex social phenomena.

Case study research allows the investigator to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life events, such as individual life cycles, organisational and managerial processes, international relations and the maturation of industries (Yin, 2009:9). Case study research is able to explain the causal links in real life intervention that are too complex for surveys or experimental strategies. Eisenhardt (2002:8) states that the case study is a research strategy that focuses on understanding the dynamics present within single settings. Yin (1984), cited in Eisenhardt (2002:9), also suggests that case studies can employ an embedded design, in which multiple levels of analysis are used within a single study.

Case study research is thus the most optimal research method to apply to this study, for several reasons. This study focuses on answering the "how" and "why" questions listed below, and a case study approach allows these questions to be addressed:

(i)   *What are the criteria for leadership applied by EPC in the selection of leaders?*

(ii) *To what extent is Drath's theory of organisational leadership evident in practice? and*

(iii) *Does Drath's theory provide a framework with which to approach the challenges faced by leadership?*

Furthermore, the case study approach covers contemporary issues and control over behavioural issues is not possible. Yin (2009:9) suggests that the questions used to determine the case study's focus, which was listed above, also provide direction in determining an appropriate strategy for the study. Since few studies have investigated the leadership criteria used by executive search companies from a Drathian perspective, an exploratory strategy is appropriate. Exploratory studies seek to explore what is happening and thus ask questions about it (Gray, 2009:36). These studies can be useful when not enough is known about a particular phenomenon.

Due to the theoretical nature of the research questions it was decided that it is necessary to understand the theory behind the questions before setting out the literature review. Acordingly the methodology chapter proceeds the literature review on leadership and on the focus author of this thesis will follow. This will help set up the case study itself and enable the reader to have a better understanding of why these questions were chosen and used for the empirical part of the study.

This study involved a qualitative method of data collection. Qualitative and quantitative research methods are not simply different ways of doing the same thing (Maxwell, 2005:22). Instead, these methods have different strengths and logics, and are often used to address different kinds of questions and goals. Qualitative research mainly derives its strengths from its inductive approach, its focus on specific situations or people, and its emphasis on words rather than numbers (Maxwell, 2005:22).

Although case studies are a distinctive form of empirical enquiry, many researchers are reluctant to utilise this strategy. There are three possible reasons for this, as outlined below (Yin, 2009):

(i)   There may be insufficient rigour in case studies (Yin, 2009:14). This could be due to investigators not paying adequate attention to detail, not following systematic procedures, or allowing equivocal evidence or biased views to influence the direction of research findings and conclusions (Yin, 2009:14);

(ii)   It is difficult and may be inaccurate to make scientific generalisations based on a single case study, as suggested by Yin (2009:15); and

(iii)   Case studies are time-consuming and can result in large, unreadable documents (Yin, 2009:15) that may be difficult to use and apply to real life situations.

In addition to the above, case studies are challenging to conduct, as the skills required to undertake a rigorous, effective case study have not yet been clearly elucidated, as described by Yin (2009:16).

However, despite the abovementioned limitations, case studies can offer important evidence to complement experiments (Yin, 2009:16). Some methodologists suggest that experiments, although establishing the efficiency of a treatment, do not sufficiently explain the "how" or "why" behind an observed effect, whereas case studies have the potential to address such issues. Cook & Payne (2002), cited in Yin (2009:16), suggest that case studies may therefore be valued "as adjuncts to experiments rather than as alternatives to them."

2.3   Designing the Case Study

Research design is the logic that links the data to be collected and the conclusions to be drawn to the initial questions of the study (Yin, 2009:24). Nachmias &Nachmias (1992:77) define research design as a plan that,
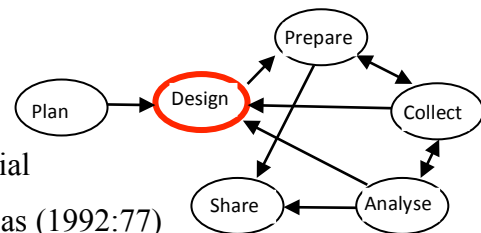
> *"Guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting observation. It is a logical model of proof that allows the researcher to draw inferences concerning causal relationships among variables under investigation. The research design also defines the domain of generalisability, that is, whether the obtained interpretations can be generalised to a larger population or to different situations."*

The development of a research design for case studies can be challenging as, according to Yin (2009:25), case studies are unlike other research methods because a comprehensive catalogue of research designs has not been developed.

This subsection details the research design used in this study, as well as the research question, its propositions and unit of analysis, and the procedures that were followed to ensure case study quality.

2.3.1 The research question

The research question for this study is:

> *What are the criteria used by EPC in the selection of leaders in organisations, to what extent is Drath's theory on organisational leadership or something approaching his theory present in practice and is Drath's theory or something approaching his theory a way of meeting the challenges leadership faces?*

The research question for this study is framed by the general argument that the academic conceptualisation of leadership in organisations has been questioned for some time and that leadership has undergone changes in recent years. Given the common understanding of leadership as a feature of individual actions and characteristics,

> *Executive search companies may be placing too much attention on assessing the individual leader's personal characteristics and may be neglecting the social meaning-making processes of leadership within the organisation. The current criteria being used may not be optimal in meeting the challenges faced by leadership.*

2.3.2 Propositions

Propositions enable greater attention to be focussed on questions that should be examined within the scope of any particular empirical study (Yin, 2009:28). Propositions focus attention on points that enable researchers to move in the correct direction so that the research question can be answered.

Yin (2009:28) states that propositions become less relevant if research is focussed on experiments, surveys or is exploratory in nature. As mentioned in paragraph 2.2, the present study falls into the category of exploratory research. It is, nevertheless, necessary to state a purpose for this study, so that the researcher can be guided, particularly in the initial stages of the

research. The purpose of this exploration is to determine whether or not Drath's theory, or something approaching this, is present in practice and whether Drath's approach to conceptually framing leadership could resolve some of the challenges faced by leadership.

2.3.3   Unit of Analysis

This component of the research design is fundamentally associated with the problem of defining what the 'case' is. As a general guide, the unit of analysis (and therefore the case) is related to the way in which the initial research question has been defined (Yin, 2009:30). In this study, it is an assessment of the criteria for leadership used by EPC, whether Drath's theory, or something approaching this, is present in practice, and whether this theory could be used as a perspective with which to approach current leadership challenges. The unit of analysis also includes whether organisations are developing new ways for people to work together and whether what is occurring in practice is ahead of theory.

Yin (2009) suggests that specific time boundaries be placed on the unit of analysis, to indicate both the beginning and the end of the unit's lifespan. The time boundary for this study is the last five years (2007-2012).

2.3.4   Procedures to Ensure the Quality of the Case Study

Validity and reliability are pivotal considerations in research and the outcomes of any study are of no real value if the methods from which the research is derived have questionable legitimacy (Newman & Benz, 1998:27).

As research design represents a logical set of statements, it is possible to determine the quality of any given research design based on a series of logical tests (Yin, 2009:40). Four tests have commonly been used in empirical research to test the quality of research. These are construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability (Yin, 2009:40). Table 2.2 below lists these widely-used tests and the tactics used to ensure that the specific validities are achieved. The table also suggests the phase in the research process in which tactics should be used.

Table 2.2:   Case Study Tactics for Four Design Tests

Test	Case Study Tactics	Phase of Research in Which Tactic is Used
Construct Validity	• Use multiple sources of evidence • Establish chain of evidence • Have key informants review draft case study report	• Data collection • Data collection • Composition
Internal Validity	• Do pattern-matching • Do explanation building • Do time-series analysis	• Data analysis • Data analysis • Data analysis
External Validity	• Use replication logic in multiple-case studies	• Research design
Reliability	• Use case study protocol • Develop case study database	• Data collection • Data collection

Source: Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods (Fourth Edition)*, London: Sage. P, 41.

The tests mentioned in table 2.2 are applicable except the test of internal validity. It is necessary for the tests of construct validity, external validity and reliability to be conducted, in order to reinforce the reliability of this study. These tests are discussed in greater detail below.

2.3.4.1 Construct Validity

Construct validity has been particularly problematic for researchers engaged in case study research. This could be due to the failure to develop a sufficiently stringent set of operational procedures and/ or the use of "subjective" judgements in data collection (Yin, 2009:41). A common example of this is that in case studies on change, the researcher may not identify the operational events that contribute towards the change (Yin, 2009:41).

To meet the test of construct validity, the following two steps need to be completed as suggested by Yin (2009:42):

(i)   Neighbourhood change[2] needs to be defined in terms of specific concepts and related to the original objectives of the study; and

(ii)   Operational measures that match the abovementioned concepts should be identified, and published studies that make the same matches should preferably be cited.

The following three methods, can be used to enhance the construct validity of this study:

(i)   Using multiple sources of evidence. In order to ensure this, interviews were conducted with five the five senior employees of EPC who make placements in organisations; (ii) Establishing a chain of evidence. This is an explicit link between the questions asked, the data collected and the conclusions drawn (Yin, 2009:42). The chain of evidence allows an external observer to follow the logic of the research and enable the study to be reproduced by other researchers wishing to test the results in similar settings. It is a step-by-step method that details how data was collected and analysed. A link was established between the questions asked the data collected and the conclusions drawn.

(iii)   Allowing the draft case to be reviewed by key informants. The draft case was reviewed by the CEO of EPC.

2.3.4.2 Internal Validity

The second validity test that can improve the quality of research is that of internal validity. Yin (2009:42) states that internal validity is only relevant in causal or explanatory studies, in which the investigator is trying to determine whether one event led to another event and that "this logic is inapplicable to descriptive or exploratory studies, whether they are case studies, surveys or experiments, which are not concerned with making any causal statements" (Yin, 2009:43).

Since this study deals with exploratory issues, internal validity may not be applicable, as suggested by Yin (2009:43).

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[2] Neigbourhood change can cover a wide variety of phenomena: racial turnover, housing deterioration and abandonment, changes in the pattern of urban services, shifts in a neighbourhood's economic institutions, or turnover from low to middle-income residents revitalising neighborhoods (Yin, 2009:42).

14

It has been suggested however that qualitative researchers may have to question the internal validity of their work if other researchers reading their field notes feel that the evidence does not support the way in which the situation was depicted (Scholfield, 2002:174).

Laxton (2004) suggests that the factors that affect internal validity are:

(i) Testing effects such as the placebo effect, in which a particular psychological response, which may be unjustifiable, is elicited;
(ii) Respondents dropping out of the study, or not completing a questionnaire;
(iii) Bias in the selection of the sample group; and
(iv) Environmental changes occurring after the study has begun.

None of these factors are present in this study. No psychological responses which may be unjustifiable were elicited. No respondents dropped out of the study and no respondents failed to complete a questionnaire. There was no bias in the selection of the sample group as all the employees of EPC who deal with placements of leaders were in the sample group. The period between when the study began and the conclusion of the study was short and no environmental changes occurred after the study began.

In so far as internal validity is applicable, it has been complied with.

2.3.4.3 External Validity

External validity reflects the extent to which the findings that result from a study are generalisable beyond the immediate case (Yin, 2009:43). Scholflied (2002:173) states that "the heart of external validity is replicability." The question is whether or not the results obtained in one study would be reproducible in those target instances to which one intends to generalise. These target instances could be different populations, situations, times, treatment forms or formats, measures, study designs or procedures (Scholflied, 2002:173).

External validity has been a major problem in conducting case studies and one that is often cited by detractors of the case study method. According to Yin (2009:43), critics have stated that the single case study is a poor basis from which to generalise results, but these critics may be implicitly comparing case studies with survey research, in which a sample is drawn from a larger target population.

15

Furthermore, survey research can be used to make statistical generalisations, whereas the generalisations that may be made from case studies are analytical in nature (Yin, 2009:43). It would be erroneous to associate case studies with statistical generalisations, as cases are not "sampling units" and are not chosen for this reason. In statistical generalisations, an inference is made about a population on the basis of empirical evidence that has been collected from a sample of the larger target population (Yin, 2009:44). Analytical generalisation, on the other hand, is used as a template to test the results of the case study against some previously developed theory. If two or more cases support the same theory, then replication can be claimed. This type of generalisation is known as Level Two Inference (Yin, 2009:44).

Scholfield (2002:174) also suggests that, at the heart of the qualitative research approach, is the assumption that a piece of qualitative research is influenced heavily by the researcher's individual attributes and perspectives. The goal of this form of research is thus not to produce a standardised set of results that any other researcher in the same situation or studying the same issue would have produced, but rather to produce a coherent and illuminating description of, and perspective on, a situation, based on and consistent with a detailed study of that situation (Scholfield, 2002:174). It is thus inappropriate to make statistical generalisations from case studies.

This case study will make use of analytical generalisation in the analysis of the results and will make reference to the applicability of replication to the criteria applied in selecting leaders in organisations.

2.3.4.4 Reliability

"The objective of this test is to be sure that if a later investigator followed exactly the same procedures as described by an earlier investigator and conducted the same case study all over again, the later investigator should arrive at the same findings and conclusions. The goal of reliability is to minimize the errors and biases in a study" (Yin, 2009:45).

A prerequisite in allowing future researchers to repeat a study is the documentation of the procedures that have been followed. One method of improving the reliability of case studies is to generate a case study protocol (Yin, 2009:45). The applicability of a case study protocol will be discussed in paragraph 2.4.3. However, a general approach to the reliability problem, as

indicated by Yin (2009:45), is to make as many steps as operational as possible, and to conduct the research as though an onlooker was observing the researcher's actions at all times. The operational procedures for this study, developed by the researcher, are detailed below in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3:   Operational Procedures Undertaken in the Case Study

Time Scale	Operational Procedure
Week 1	Determine the number of interviews to be undertaken
Week 1	Determine who at EPC is to be interviewed
Week 2	Contact EPC to schedule and arrange interviews
Week 3	Develop questionnaire based on information collected on leadership
Week 4	Pilot-test questionnaire
Week 4	Revise questionnaire as a result of feedback from the pilot study
Week 5	Interview EPC employees and completion of questionnaire
Week 6	Collect and analyse data
Week 7	Interpret findings

Newman & Benz (1998:39) state that if validity is confirmed, reliability is implicit, but that it is possible to have reliability without validity. The basic assumption behind reliability is that it is used to either support or improve validity. Reliability thus reflects consistency (Newman & Benz, 1998:39). Validity estimates the extent to which a study or a set of instruments measure what these are purported to measure, while reliability estimates may indicate whether the outcomes will remain stable over time or whether these outcomes are consistent among independent observers (Newman & Benz, 1998:41).

2.3.5   Case Study Design

A primary distinction in designing case studies is between single and multiple case study designs (Yin, 2009:47). Prior to any data collection, a decision should therefore be made as to whether a single case or multiple cases will be used to address the research question.

The choice of the "case" for this study are the criteria for leadership applied by EPC. The study is to be a holistic, single-case design, as described by Yin (2009:50), with an analysis of the leadership criteria used by EPC. EPC was chosen for the study because the selected employees

17

of this organisation have, over the years, developed sound knowledge of the selection and placement of leaders in organisations. These employees look for leadership qualities in individuals to be placed in senior executive positions on a daily basis, which enables these employees to contribute to the empirical part of this study.

2.4 Preparing to Collect the Evidence

Preparing for data collection can be a complex and difficult process and, if not performed well, can jeopardize the entire case study investigation (Yin, 2009:67). This preparatory phase includes considering the desired skills of the case study investigator, preparation for the specific case study, developing a protocol for the investigation, screening candidates and, finally, conducting a pilot case study.
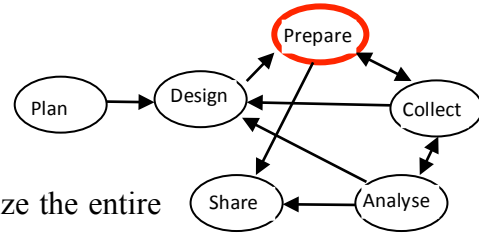
2.4.1 Desired skills

A common misconception is that case studies are conducted easily and can be mastered without much difficulty. The reality is that case studies are difficult, and the investigator is required to be aware of certain pitfalls and to prepare appropriately (Yin, 2009:69). A limitation is that there are no tests for distinguishing those persons likely to become good case study investigators from those who are not. However, Yin (2009:69) lists the following basic common skills required of case study investigators:

(i) Asking good questions and interpreting the answers;

(ii) Adaptability and flexibility, so that newly encountered situations can be seen as opportunities and not threats;

(iii) Being a good listener and not being trapped by his/ her own ideologies or preconceptions;

(iv) Having a firm grasp of the issues being studied, even if in an exploratory study; and

(v) Remaining unbiased by preconceived notions, including those derived from theory.

2.4.2 Preparation for the Case Study

The specific need for protecting human subjects comes from the fact that nearly all case studies are about contemporary human affairs and therefore there is a need to acquire formal approval for the case plan (Yin, 2009:73). As part of this protection, the case study investigator is

responsible for conducting the study with special care and sensitivity that goes beyond the research design and other technical considerations (Yin, 2009:73).

Yin (2009:73) suggests that this care usually involves the following two requirements:

(i) Gaining informed consent from all persons who may be part of the study. In the present study, the CEO of EPC orally requested the selected interviewees to voluntary participate in the study after explaining what the interview would entail and that they had a right not to participate. The CEO then gave written permission to the researcher to conduct the study at EPC and to interview the employees. A copy of this letter is provided in Appendix B[3]; and

(ii) Protecting participants from any harm or negativity. In the current study, participant anonymity was ensured and confidentiality was protected by complying with the confidentiality protocol of the University of Stellenbosch. During the interviews, and whilst completing the questionnaires, participants were encouraged to ask questions and to stop the researcher if they were uncertain of a particular question.

2.4.3   The Case Study Protocol

The case study protocol is a major way of increasing the reliability of the case study and is intended to guide the investigator in the process of data collection (Yin, 2009:79). A case study protocol is essential for studies involving multiple case designs, but is nevertheless still desirable in single case study designs (Yin, 2009:79). Since the present study is a single case study and the operational procedures have been well documented (see Table 1.3 on page 17), a case study protocol will not be developed. Such a protocol would also only serve to repeat what has already been mentioned in the operational procedures.

2.4.4   Screening Candidates

Another preparatory step is the final selection of the case study (Yin, 2009:91). Sometimes the selection of the case is straightforward, as the researcher has chosen to study a unique case whose identity has been known from the outset (Yin, 2009:91). In this study, EPC was chosen as

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[3] For more information regarding ethics in qualitative research, consult:
Silverman, D. (2010). *Doing Qualitative Research (3rd Ed)*. London: Sage.

the case as the researcher had prior knowledge of EPC, having previously undertaken a work-based assignment in the organisation. As mentioned in 1.4 and 2.3.5, the selected senior employees at EPC also had the requisite knowledge and experience in selecting leaders, were positive about the proposed research and were willing to be involved.

2.4.5   The Pilot Case Study

A pilot questionnaire, or pre-questionnaire, was developed by the researcher and tested on one of EPC's employees. This was to ensure that the questions were clear, understandable and not overly technical. The result of the pilot test was that one question was not understood and was subsequently re-phrased to ensure that other candidates would understand the question. There were also one or two instances in which the pilot study participant felt that some of the questions had double meanings or could mean different things to different people. This was addressed and the necessary changes were made to these questions by the researcher.

The questionnaire was designed based on the research conducted for the literature review, and on the research of Drath's theory of organisational leadership. A copy of the questionnaire is provided in Appendix A. The questionnaire consists of both open- and closed-ended questions (see paragraph 2.5). The questionnaire is divided into the following three sections: (i) leadership criteria; (ii) organisational leadership factors; and (iii) a conclusion.

The purpose of the questionnaire is to obtain information on the criteria used by EPC in selecting leaders for organisations and of organisational leadership factors. Another purpose was to limit the information elicited from participants to the scope of the enquiry.

2.5   Collecting the Case Study's Evidence

Case study evidence, or data, can be collected from a variety of sources, such as documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observation and physical artefacts (Yin, 2009:99). This section describes the techniques and methods of data collection used in this study.
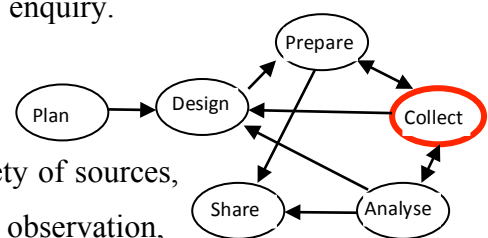
Data was collected by means of a questionnaire, completed by five senior EPC employees during interviews. The questionnaire was developed to address the specific research questions that this study attempts to answer. The questionnaire includes both open- and closed-ended questions.

20

Both types of questions are required in this study, as closed-ended questions were not sufficient to fully address the complexities involved.

2.6 Analysing the Case Study's Evidence

The analysis of case study evidence is the component of case study research that has been the least developed, and strategies and techniques for this have not been well defined (Yin, 2009:126). This section considers the different techniques and analytical methods that case study researchers may utilise.
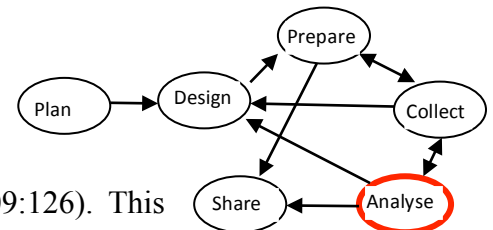
Linking the data collected to the initial question posed in the case study has also presented numerous problems for case study researchers (Babbie & Mouton, 1998:283). For this reason, Yin (2009:127) has highlighted the need for analytical strategies to help guide the researcher in the interpretation of collected data. Miles and Huberman (1994) have identified various analytical techniques that are useful in ordering the collected data to make the interpretation of this data easier for the researcher. These techniques include the following:

(i) Placing information into different arrays;

(ii) Creating a matrix of categories and placing the evidence into each category;

(iii)Tabulating the frequency of different events;

(iv)Creating data displays for examining the data; and

(v) Placing data into chronological order.

Although ordering the data is an important initial step, it is essential to have a general analytical strategy in place so that the evidence collected can produce compelling analytical conclusions that rule out alternative interpretations. Yin (2009:130) highlights two general strategies that can be used, namely relying on theoretical propositions and developing a case description. Gray (2009:264) agrees with these two strategies of analysing case study evidence, and describes the strategies in more detail. The first strategy involves analysing data on the basis of original theoretical propositions and the research objectives resulting from these. The second strategy is to develop a descriptive framework once the case study is completed (Gray, 2009:264).

21

As the present study involves exploratory issues and has not made use of any theoretical propositions, the first of the abovementioned general strategies proposed by Yin (2009:130) is of little relevance. The second general analytical method, developing a case description, was thus the preferred analytical method. This method entails the development of a descriptive framework for organising the case study.

The first component of this descriptive framework considers the general concept of leadership, and then provides a literature review of selected authors' theories of organisational leadership. That is followed by a literature review of Drath's theory on organisational leadership. The second component of the descriptive framework details the empirical criteria used by EPC in selecting leaders and describes various organisational leadership factors. The information of the criteria used consists of the collection of data from the five interviews that were conducted and questionnaires that were completed. In the third component of the framework, the research results are presented and interpreted, and conclusions drawn.

Yin (2009:136) describes various modes of analysing case study data, so that the data that is collected can be linked to the initial questions posed in the case study. These methods include the following:

(i)   Pattern-matching, of which there are three types, namely theoretical replication, rival explanation patterns and similar patterns;

(ii)   Explanation building;

(iii)   Time series analysis, of which there are two types, namely simple time-series and complex time-series; and

(iv)   Program logic models.

Yin (2009:137) also identifies a number of other methods that may be used to interpret results. These include analysing embedded units and repeated observations. These analytical techniques provide an incomplete analysis and should thus be used in combination with one of the more dominant modes mentioned in the previous paragraph, in order to produce a compelling and full case study analysis.

It should be noted that there is no particular "correct way" of analysing qualitative data. Good qualitative data analysis is systematic and comprehensive without being rigid or formulaic

22

(Phelps, Fisher & Ellis, 2007:209). The process of qualitative data analysis is described by these authors as one of "intellectual craftsmanship" (Phelps et al. 2007:209).

2.7   Reporting the Case Study

Reporting a case study requires bringing the results and findings to closure. This includes identifying the audience for the report, developing its compositional structure and having drafts of this reviewed by others (Yin, 2009:164).
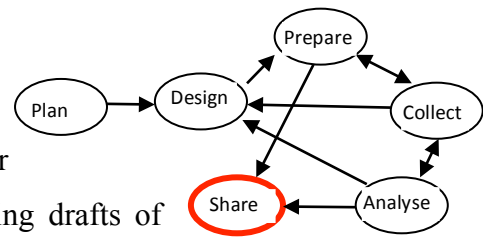
2.8   Summary

This chapter has identified the relevant methodological approaches that are to be and were undertaken in this study. The aims of the study were outlined, and the reasons for a case study approach being selected were presented. The choice of the individual case was also justified. Key considerations, such as the unit of analysis, the interpretation of results, reliability and analytical generalisations were discussed, to further enhance the understanding and rigour of the study. The chapter has also provided a thorough review of the research design used and highlighted important issues that promote the validity and quality of this research.

As the questions that guide the case study are to a large degree theoretical questions about the nature of leadership understanding, a review of theoretical perspective on leadership and the focus author of the thesis, namely Drath, will be discussed in the next two chapters. This will set up the case study itself in that the questions asked and the approach taken in the qualitative study, only make sense from that point of view.

CHAPTER 3

Literature Review of Organisational Leadership

3.1 Introduction

Leadership in organisations is a twentieth and twenty-first century concept[4]. Various aspects of the concept of organisational leadership will be considered in this chapter. Particular attention will be turned to one view of organisational leadership, referred to in this study as the dominance and influence (DI) view. The DI view of leadership is that the leader leads through personal dominance or intellectual influence and that the followers follow. Leaders are leaders in as far as they can influence followers to do what they require them to do. There are significant differences on the mechanisms and interactions regarded to be the source of that influence and consequent follower reaction. However, the focus is on the characteristics and factors relating to the leader. This is an example of top-down leadership.

This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part considers various definitions of organisational leadership, an historical overview of this concept, leadership within the organisation, components central to leadership, leadership and the external environment, and power and leadership. The second part of the chapter critiques the theories of organisational leadership proposed by a selection of key authors.

There may appear to be some overlap between the first and second parts of the chapter, as some authors are referred to in both parts. An attempt has, however, been made to consider definitions and general principles in the first part, making reference where necessary to certain authors and, in the second part, to consider the specific views of selected authors, even though these authors may have been referred to in the first part for a different purpose. The authors were chosen systematically to provide an overview of the DI view of organisational leadership and to illustrate divergent perspectives within this view. This critique of the DI view will provide a basis for the interrogation of Drath's theory of organisational leadership, and whether this theory is a radical departure from the DI view or a progression of this view.

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[4] See Iles & Preece (2006)

The first author to be considered is Bernard Bass. Bass was selected as his textbook, *Bass and Stodgill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications,* is regarded as a seminal text on leadership (Rickards & Clark, 2006:22). Avery (2004:18) suggests that broad, holistic approaches such as that proposed by Bass provide a valuable starting point for integrating the wider field of leadership.

Stephen Zaccaro and Richard Klimonski were then selected, as these authors have a different view, namely, that leadership within organisations is disconnected and directionless, as theories of organisational leadership are context-free. Zaccaro and Klimonski's theory rests on the premise that leadership should not be viewed as context-free, but rather as a situated process.

Garry Yukl proposes a modification of the DI view. His suggests that leaders exert intentional influence over followers (Rickards & Clark, 2006:20), and he poses two main questions which, if answered, he believes will provide insight into the field of leadership. The first question is, "How important is leadership to organisational survival and effectiveness?", and the second is, "How much do we really know about leadership? (Yukl, 2002:263)." Avery (2004:67) suggests that Yukl is one of the few authors who have made major attempts to address a more comprehensive range of leadership ideas and levels.

Peter Northouse was chosen for his somewhat different conceptualisation of leadership, which suggests that leadership is a process of influence that assists individuals who are part of a group towards goal attainment. Northouse suggests that leaders and followers need to be better understood in relation towards each other, as both are part of a shared leadership process.

Gabriele Lakomski was chosen for inclusion in this chapter due to her progressive view of leadership. She shares some of Drath's perspectives. Lakomski suggests that no one person has a complete overview of what happens within an organisation and that achieving efficiency and effectiveness requires considerably more than the presence of one leader. She highlights the link between individual abilities and organisational outcomes. Lakomski further suggests that leadership studies should adopt a bottom-up approach, that there should be less focus on leaders and more emphasis on the social processes involved in leadership.

The word "process" is used in different contexts when used in relation to organisational leadership. "Process" is defined in the Oxford English Dictionary (1989:545) as, "a continuous

and regular action or succession of actions and taking place or carried on in a definite manner, and leading to the accomplishment of some result." Care must be taken when using the word "process" when referring to leadership. All leadership may be a process, but "process" may also refer to different leadership processes. For example, when Bass refers to a leadership process, he is not referring to the same process that Drath refers to as a leadership process. Bass discusses the process that takes place when leaders and followers interact to achieve a goal. Drath, on the other hand, refers to the process of social meaning-making that occurs in groups of people engaged in some activity together.

Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the views of the selected authors.

3.2 Organisational Leadership

3.2.1 Defining Organisational Leadership

As the phrase suggests, "organisational leadership" specifically considers leadership within organisations. Unlike leadership in the general sense, there are myriad factors that could affect leadership within organisations. Zaccaro and Klimonski (2001), in *The Nature of Organisational Leadership: Understanding the Performance Imperatives Confronting Today's Leaders*, provide the following definition of organisational leadership:

(i)   "Organisational leadership involves processes and proximal outcomes (such as worker commitment) that contribute to the development and achievement of organisational purpose";

(ii)   "Organisational leadership is identified by application of non routine [*sic*] influence on organisational life";

(iii)   "Leader influence is grounded in cognitive, social, and political processes"; and

(iv)   "Organisational leadership is inherently bounded by system characteristics and dynamics, that is, leadership is contextually defined and caused."

The abovementioned definition is important as it considers the wider aspects that influence leadership within organisations, and also assists in distinguishing between leadership in the general sense and organisational leadership. Organisational leadership is more situation-specific, as reflected in Zaccaro and Klimonski's definition. Some leadership types may be expected of

leaders in most situations, while other forms of leadership are more specific to particular types of situations (Bass, 1990). An example of this is in Bass's (1990:563) discussion of a survey conducted by Hemphill, Seigel and Westie, which reported that when a group has a high degree of control over its members, the leader is expected to dominate and does so. However, in groups in which members participate to a high degree, these expectations of domination do not occur (Bass, 1990:563).

The requirements for leadership in a stressful environment are different to those in a non-stressful environment. Leaders are not merely reactive; they are pro-active and, more often than not, change the situation to suit their own needs and requirements. Situations often alter leadership. Changes that occur within a complex organisation, as well as its external environment, may result in changes in the organisation's leadership, (Bass, 1990:563). As organisations start to change and become more mature, it is likely that the organisation's leadership may also become more mature. When this type of change takes place, the informal, charismatic approach to leadership gives way to its more mature, bureaucratic successor (Bass, 1990:563).

In some instances, leaders occupy central positions in which they possess assets other than charisma (Pheysey, 1993:161). These leaders may inherit their posts, or be constitutionally appointed (Pheysey, 1993:161). The approach is where a strict hierarchy can be observed (Bass, 1990:320). In other organisations, there has been an evolution to a less rigid and bureaucratic approach, which has led to flat organisations. These organisations have been termed "flexible bureaucracies" (Pheysey, 1993:53). A "flexible bureaucracy" is used to describe organisations in which there are "dispersed decision sources, local variations in rules and only partial enforcement" (Pheysey, 1993:53). Within these flatter or "flexible organisations", power, authority and decision-making responsibilities are more decentralised.

Leadership can be defined in multiple ways. Stogdill, cited in Bass (1990), initially noted that there are almost as many definitions of the word "leadership" as there are people who have attempted to define it.

It is thus necessary to classify the different leadership approaches, so that leadership can be defined in this study.

There is a plethora of writing over an extended period of time on the subject of leadership and there are various authors[5] who, in their specific definitions of leadership, view this as a process in which one individual, either through personal dominance or intellectual influence exerts power over others and is thus seen as the leader. This view is referred to in this study as the DI view. The abovementioned specific leadership theories may be trait theories (great man theories), emergent theories, leadership style theories (action-centred leadership), psychodynamic theories (leader-member exchange), contingency theories (path-goal theory, situational leadership) or newer theories (transformational, visionary, charismatic leadership)

A few definitions of the DI view of leadership are provided below. Burns (1978:4), for example, divides leadership into transformational and transactional types, and defines each of these as follows:

> *"Transactional leaders approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another."*
>
> *"Transformational leaders recognize and exploit an existing need or demand of a potential follower."*

Kouzes & Posner (2007:24) define leadership as:

> *"A relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow"*

Lussier & Achua (2010:6), meanwhile, propose the following definition:

> *"An influencing process of leaders and followers to achieve organisational objectives through change"*

Yukl (2002:3) states that leadership refers:

> *"To a group process whereby intellectual influence is exerted by the leader over followers"*

Finally, Northouse (2004:3) defines leadership as:

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[5] Such as Adair (1980); Avery (2004); Bass (1990); Burns (1978); Gill (2006); Krause (1997); Kouzes & Posner (2007); Lussier & Achua (2010); Northouse (2004); Storey (2004); Yukl 2002); and Zaccaro & Klimonski (2001)

"An influence process which assists individuals who are part of a group toward goal attainment"

3.2.2   An Historical Overview of Organisational Leadership

Leadership has been part of our lives since the first human beings ruled the earth, but the particular "action" of leading in organisations only started to be referred to as leadership halfway through the 21st century. Prior to this, the leader was referred to by many terms, such as chief, general and manager (Iles & Preece, 2006:318). The latter term was used until a distinction was drawn between management and leadership. Bass was one such author to distinguish between these roles. He suggests that leaders manage and managers lead (Bass, 1990:383). Leaders facilitate interpersonal interaction and positive working relations, as well as promote the structuring of tasks and work to be accomplished. In other words, leaders plan, organise and evaluate the work that is done. Managers, on the other hand, plan, investigate, coordinate, evaluate, supervise staff, negotiate and represent (Bass, 1990:383). All the above functions may potentially provide leadership, and all the leadership activities may contribute to managing.

Early approaches to the study of leadership focused mainly on either leadership traits or styles. During the early 1980s, the focus was on management as opposed to leadership, and this was reflected in literature and in the work place (Iles & Preece, 2006:318). It was only until the 21st century that academics took a renewed interest in the study of leadership. Leadership no longer played a secondary role to management. It became a popular field and the subject of a plethora of academic work (Iles & Preece, 2006:318).

During the 1980s and early 1990s, academics began to suggest that managing may not be enough and that the need for leadership was more urgent than ever (Iles & Preece, 2006:319). Management became politically incorrect and it was almost frowned upon to refer to executives as managers and not leaders. At this time, academics also started to shift their focus back to the orthodox view of the "one best way" to lead within organisations, which was prominent in the 1960s (Iles & Preece, 2006:318).

It was also in the 1980s that the view emerged that a leader should be attentive to both the task and the suggested socio-emotional relationship dimensions of leadership. Since then, various

theorists have expressed more contingent theories of leadership, specifically situational theories of leadership. These theories stress the need for the leader to adapt to the demands of the situation (Iles & Preece, 2006:319).

The 1990s saw another shift in leadership theory, towards creating a corporate culture with organisational symbolism. This was a result of large organisations facing new global challenges and realising the need for transformational leadership[6]. Transformational leadership became the focus of academics and Chief Executive Officers alike. The late 1990s and early 2000s saw the field of transformational leadership acquire new meaning and significance.

At present, in the same way that the reference to management was questioned previously, questions are being raised as to whether leadership is adequate and if it contributes as significantly to organisations as expected. Boydell et al. cited in Iles & Preece (2006:320), suggest that instead of focussing on the personal qualities of leaders, emphasis should be turned to the leadership challenges faced by communities, societies and organizations in a more collective way. Boydell et al. cited in Iles & Preece (2006:320), conceptualize leadership situations in terms of the challenges, their contexts and the characteristics of everyone involved including those individuals designated as leaders. Therefore the focus is on developing leadership, rather than leaders, and on 'leaderful' organisations and 'distributed' leadership (Iles & Preece, 2006:320).

3.2.3 Leadership within the Organisation:

Leadership in an organisation can be determined by the organisation's legitimating principles and cultural norms, and by the social structure within which it occurs (Bass, 1990). As the organisation starts to mature, the strategies of its leadership begin to change. A study cited by Pellegrin, Philipsen, Cassee and Weinberg in Bass (1990:571) suggests that institutional requirements determine the characteristics of members who are accepted as leaders. It may be apparent that the kind of leader that emerges in an organisation may be directly related to and dependant on the philosophy of the larger organisation in which the leader's group is embodied (Bass, 1990:571).

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[6] A transformational leader stimulates followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the group, organisation or society. Followers are challenged to consider their longer-term needs to develop themselves, rather than their present needs, and to become more aware of what is really important (Bass, 1990:53).

From the literature, it is evident that an organisation's philosophy has the ability to influence the organisation's board of directors. It also permeates down to lower levels of management and contributes to the constraints that are imposed, the structures that are created, the ways individuals are mobilised, and the manner in which resources are allocated. Bass (1990) notes that the organisation's philosophy, views, objectives and functions may all have an effect on leadership within the organisation.

3.2.4 Components Central to Leadership

Northouse (2004:2) has identified the following important aspects as central to the phenomenon of leadership:

(i)   Leadership is a process. It is not a trait or characteristic, in contrast to some of the more traditional views, which state that leadership comes from within a leader, or that a leader is born a leader. Leadership as a process suggests that a leader affects and is affected by followers. This view thus suggests that leadership is not a linear, one-way event, but rather an interactive process and relationship between leader and followers;

(ii)   Leadership involves influence. This also suggests that the leader affects followers. Leadership without influence could not exist;

(iii)   Leadership occurs within a group context; and

(iv)   Leadership involves goal attainment. It involves directing a group of individuals towards a common purpose, accomplishing a specific task or achieving an end. Leaders direct their energies toward individuals who are attempting to achieve something together, so leadership occurs and has its effects in contexts in which individuals are moving towards a goal.

Based on the abovementioned characteristics, Northouse (2004:2) defines leadership as a process in which an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. It is important to note that, in Northouse's (2004:2) view, leaders are not superior to followers; instead, both followers and leaders need to be understood in relation to each other.

It is also important to consider the different types of leadership that may exist within an organisational context. This provides insight into the many different leadership qualities possessed by organisational leaders. One view on leadership within organisations is that

leadership is a trait. According to Northouse (2004:15), a trait is a distinguishing quality of an individual that is often inherited. This suggests that each individual or leader contributes certain qualities that influence the way he/ she leads. Some leaders possess confidence, some decisiveness and others are outgoing and sociable.

The notion of leadership as a trait emphasises the leader and the leader's special gifts. It proposes that leaders are born with leadership qualities and are not made into leaders, which then implies that leadership is an elitist enterprise because only a few people with special talents are able to lead (Northouse, 2012:3). This perspective of leadership may be the most common one, having dominated most societies for at least the last thousand years. There are many arguments for and against this view that all humans are born with a wide array of unique traits or talents, and that many of these could have a positive impact on leadership (Northouse, 2012:3).

Individuals also have the ability to modify or change traits (Northouse, 2012:3), resulting in some leaders portraying certain traits with which they were not necessarily born. It is important to note that despite possibly possessing a number of traits, a leader will choose which specific trait to use depending on the requirements of a particular situation. For example, a chaotic board room requires a leader who is insightful and decisive, and can bring calm to the situation. On the other hand, a demoralized changing room[7] may require a leader who is inspiring and can instil hope in his/ her team members. Effective organisational leadership results when the leader engages the most optimal traits within a particular organisation at a specific time.

Leadership can also be viewed as an ability, as a person who possesses leadership ability is able to be a leader, (Northouse, 2012:4). The term "ability" often refers to natural capacity, which can be developed, (Northouse, 2012:4). An example of this is that some individuals are naturally good team captains while others have to work at developing such skills. The view is that some people have the natural ability to lead, while others need to develop leadership skills through hard work and practise (Northouse, 2012:4). It is evident that irrespective of whether leadership is either inherited or developed, it is an ability that an individual possesses.

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[7] A room in which people can change their clothes before and after playing sport. It is also a place where teams discuss strategy and have team talks.

In contrast to leadership being perceived as an ability, it may also be regarded as a skill, (Northouse, 2012:35). Northouse (2004:35) suggests that skilled leaders are, more often than not, competent individuals who know the means and methods for the carrying out of their responsibilities. Describing leadership as a skill allows it to be performed by anyone, as skills are competencies that individuals can learn and develop. In contrast to the views discussed in the previous paragraphs, which suggest that individuals are either born with or without leadership ability, this view proposes that leadership skills can be acquired with practice, instruction and feedback from others. Perceiving leadership as a skill suggests that if individuals are capable of learning from experience, leadership expertise can be developed (Northouse, 2012:4).

Leadership may also be viewed as a behaviour, as it is what leaders do when they are in a leadership role. The behavioural perspective is concerned with how leaders act towards others in various situations. What makes this view interesting is that unlike traits, abilities and skills, behaviour can be observed (Northouse, 2012:5). When a person leads, his/ her leadership behaviour can be studied, much like that of a team captain during a team match. The captain's behaviour is distinguishable from that of his/ her team members. The reason for this is that the captain is respected by the team and is responsible for the team and, to a large extent, the performance of the team. In times of crisis, team members look towards the captain to lead them and offer advice and guidance. The captain is separated from the team in the sense that people expect more from the leader than from other players. Leadership as a behaviour can be divided into task behaviours, which are used by leaders to get the job done, and process behaviours, which are used by leaders to help people feel comfortable with other group members and at ease in the situations in which they find themselves (Northouse, 2012:5).

An alternative paradigm of leadership is that it is a relationship. This view suggests that leadership is centred around the communication between leaders and followers, rather than on the qualities of the leader. The idea that leadership is a relationship rests on the premise that a leader affects and is affected by followers, and that both leader and followers are, in turn, affected by the situation in which they find themselves (Northouse, 2012:5). This view suggests further that leadership is an interactive process or event that takes place between leaders and followers.

The abovementioned notion of leadership as a relationship contrasts with the traditional views of leadership described previously, because leadership is not perceived as a top-down phenomenon. Instead, leadership, authority and influence are shared by all parties. Leadership is thus not restricted to the formally designated leader in the group, (Northouse, 2012:5). Viewing leadership as a relationship implies that leaders should include followers, and the interests, ideas, attitudes and motivations of the latter, in the leadership process (Northouse, 2012:5).

3.2.4.1 Leadership and the External Environment

Systems theory suggests that events occurring outside a particular system are likely to affect what takes place within the system (Bass, 1990:566). If an environment is unstable and policies are not uniformed, greater differences may occur within the various divisions of an organisation, (Bass, 1990:556). In other words, leaders in volatile environments should show more varied behaviour than leaders in stable environments. There are many different environmental variables that could have an effect on the leadership of an organisation. An important example of such a variable is market stability. In a stable market the style or approach that a leader uses may be significantly different to the way leaders lead in unstable markets. It is by no means assumed that leadership is not needed as much in unstable markets but the leadership style and approach may differ (Bass, 1990:567).

Other key variables that could have an effect on organisational leadership are economic, political, social and legal influences (Bass, 1990:567). These aspects of the external environment may exert considerable stress on leaders within the organisation. Other environmental variables that could potentially affect organisational leadership include religious affiliation, and the control and ownership of the organisation (Bass, 1990:567). Although it is important to consider the impact of the external environment on an organisation, it may be challenging to determine beforehand what type of leader would be best suited to each situation, as these situations are often unpredictable.

3.2.4.2 Power and Leadership

According to Clegg, Courpasson, Phillips (2006), and Yukl (2002) leadership can also be considered as a process of influence. It is important to note the dynamics and differences between leadership and authority, as leadership and authority within organisations are often

synonymous. Leadership in organisations is more complex than solely considering traits, abilities, skills, behaviour, relationships and processes.

Power often plays a major role in allowing leaders to be able to influence followers effectively and efficiently. Power and leadership within organisations may be misunderstood as being equivalent. Power is defined by Clegg, et.al (2006) in their book titled Power and Organizations as "the choices we make, the actions we take, the evils we tolerate, the goods we define, the privileges we bestow, the rights we claim, and the wrongs we do. Power means finding the most effective leverage for particular relations." Power should be viewed as a tool, which, if used properly and in the correct manner, can greatly aid the leader. To understand how power affects leadership within organisations, the different influence processes found in organisations, power relationships and sources of power need to be examined (Yukl, 2002:15).

Leadership can be described as the influence exerted by one individual over others. Influence, meanwhile, is commonly understood to be the effect of one individual over another, (Yukl, 2002:16), but closer examination reveals that this concept is more complex. The process by which an individual may affect others can take many different forms. This influence may be over people, events, situations, attitudes, perceptions, behaviour, or a combination of these (Yukl, 2002:13). The individual's influence may also result in intended and unintended outcomes. The magnitude of change in the target may be that intended by the individual, or it may be less than the individual's objectives. The individual's influence may be strong enough to ensure control over the target person's behaviour, or it could be insufficient and the target person does not feel enough pressure to be influenced to do anything different (Yukl, 2002:13).

In order to understand the effectiveness of a leader, it is necessary to consider several types of power relationships, as described below:

(i)   The downward power of the leader over subordinates;
(ii)   The upward power of subordinates over the leader;
(iii)   The upward power of the leader over superiors; and
(iv)   The lateral power of the leader over others in the organisation.

The sources of power for the abovementioned four types of relationships are similar, as outlined below (Yukl, 2002:15). There is a wide array of power sources within organisations. Power is

often derived from the opportunities inherent in an individual's position within the organisation. Power by position includes legitimate authority and control over resources (Yukl, 2002:15). Another source of power is the attributes of the interpersonal relationships between the individual and the target. This personal power includes relative task expertise, friendship and loyalty. A third source of power is political processes, such as controlling key decisions, forming coalitions and co-opting opponents. Individual, situational, and political determinants of power interact in complex ways, and it may be difficult to distinguish between them (Yukl, 2002:15).

3.2.4.2.1 Formal position as a source of power

In some instances, formal authority can be referred to as legitimate power (Yukl, 2002:15). Formal authority suggests that an individual has the ability to influence specified aspects of the behaviour of other employees around him/ her. An example of this is that a high-level manager may have the legitimate right to make certain requests, and the target person, for example an employee, has the duty to obey. There is a difference between an individual's ability to lead and an individual's ability to wield authority over a junior. However, authority may be necessary to ensure that large organisations are managed smoothly and effectively (Yukl, 2002:16).

Another way in which a position can be used as a source of power within organisations may be by the control over resources and rewards (Yukl, 2012:17). This power may be a consequence of formal authority. The more senior an employee is, the more control that employee may have over the organisation's scarce resources. Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) have more control over organisational resources than managers, and managers, in turn, possess greater control than line workers. Executives have more authority to make decisions concerning when and where the organisation makes use of its resources, as well as the right to review and modify resource allocation decisions taken at lower levels (Yukl, 2002:17). Control over resources not only refers to the organisation's resources, but also to performance management-related factors, such as rewards, compensation and career progress. Managers and executives may be permitted to reward employees with increases, bonuses or other economic incentives for good performance. Reward power can be a formidable tool used in the control of employees (Yukl, 2002:18). The fact that managers have some degree of control over scarce resources or financial rewards, however, does not necessarily imply that employees view the manager as a leader.

There are also other ways in which an individual may use his/ her position to influence others within the organisation. These include control over punishments, which is sometimes referred to as coercive power, and control over information, which suggests that the individual has access to vital information and control over the distribution of information to others, (Yukl, 2002:19). Finally, ecological control over others may be exerted. This is when an individual, by virtue of his/ her position, has control over employees' physical environment, use of technology and organisation of the work. Position power, and its associated forms of control, as described above, can play a major role in leadership within an organisation.

3.2.4.2.2 Personal attributes as a source of power

An individual's position within an organisation is not the only source of power that could be wielded by the individual. Personal attributes, for example expertise (Yukl, 2002:22), can also be a major source of organisational power. The ability to solve important problems and perform important tasks may also be used as a means of influencing others. The difference between expertise power and position power is that the former is only relevant if others are dependent on the person with the expertise for advice and assistance, (Yukl, 2002:22). For example, the more important a particular task is, the greater the power derived from possessing the necessary expertise to complete the task. This form of power is experienced on a daily basis; for example, employees in the Information Technology (IT) department within an organisation have expert power, as these employees may be the only ones within the organisation who can address IT-related problems (Yukl, 2002:23).

Friendship and loyalty are other important sources of power within organisations, as these may reflect the desire of others to please a specific individual. This form of power is sometimes referred to as referent power, (Yukl, 2002:23), and may involve people feeling a deep affection towards someone for whom they are willing to do special favours. People may sometimes also try to imitate the attitudes or behaviours of an individual they admire or respect. Whilst position power may be exercised immediately, this may not necessarily be the case for referent power, as it may take a period of time for a person to develop feelings for and admiration of another (Yukl, 2002:24).

3.2.4.2.3 Political processes as a source of power

Another form of power is the use of political processes to influence individuals. Political power is similar to position power or authority as a source of power (see 3.2.4.2.1), but a major difference is that political power involves influencing processes that may transform the initial basis of power in unique ways (Yukl, 2002:25). Political power also exists within organisations include gaining control over decision-making processes, forming coalitions and co-opting critics and opponents (Yukl, 2002:25).

Differences in power in a group, organisation or society are reflected in the kind of leadership that can be attempted and whether this leadership is likely to be successful and effective. When differences in power are great, more directive leadership and coercion are likely. If, on the other hand, differences in power are small, more participative leadership is likely (Bass, 1990:252).

Power sharing between all members of a group does not necessarily mean increased initiative by and freedom for its members. Rather, it is suggested that powerful groups can constrain and influence individual members more strongly than an individual leader with power could (Bass, 1990:260).

3.3   A selection of theories of organisational leadership

The many theories on organisational leadership will not be considered. Instead, certain theories that illustrate the DI view and adaption to this view, as well as differing perspectives of organisational leadership, will be highlighted and discussed.

3.3.1   Bass

Organisational leadership is considered by Bass (1990) in *Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research and Managerial Applications*. This book presents the DI view that a leader leads through personal dominance and influence, and that followers follow. The leader is an individual and he/ she alone leads a group of individuals to achieve a goal, and the responsibility of the group lies solely with the leader. This view of leadership has been popular.

Bass summarises the DI view as follows:

"Leadership has been conceived as the focus of group processes, as a matter of personality, as a matter of inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviours, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, as initiation of structure, and as many combinations of these definitions" (Bass, 1990:11).

As mentioned above, Bass (1990:11) suggests that some definitions view leadership within organisations as the focus of group processes. He states that from this perspective, the leader is at the centre of group change and activity.. The situational demands and personal attributes of the leader must both be considered in gauging the likely effectiveness of the leader (Bass, 1990:11).

In the above mentioned quotation Bass links leadership closely to power, as it is implied that leaders need some sort of power in order to lead. This emphasises the view that leaders are dominant individuals within organisations and that the possession of power constitutes a large part of the ability of these individuals to influence subordinates. Power is the force underlying social exchanges in which the dependant person has less power and the person with more power is able to obtain compliance with his/ her wishes.

Even though it has been suggested that transformational leadership may transcend the satisfaction of self interests, the dynamics of leadership-followership have most often been explained as a social exchange (Bass, 1990). This exchange is established and maintained if the benefits to both the leader and the followers outweigh the costs involved. The exchange is also only deemed fair if the leader imparts things of value to the followers, such as a sense of direction, values and recognition, and receives other things in return, such as esteem and responsiveness (Bass, 1990). The Task Cycle Model below illustrates this top-down approach to leadership.

Table 3.1:   The Transactional Exchange

The Task Cycle Model

A Generic Task	Executives	Leaders	Managers	Service	Sales
The Goal What do I do?	**The Goal** Clarify and direct mission achievement	**The Goal** Envision and initiate change for future	**The Goal** Clarify and communicate today's goals	**The Goal** Give service, keep one's own goals clearly in mind	**The Goal** Meet the client's needs, earn revenues
The Plan How do I do it?	**The Plan** Develop and communicate strategies	**The Plan** Solve novel problems resourcefully	**The Plan** Plan and solve problems that are encountered	**The Plan** Solve the clients problems as an adviser	**The Plan** Give service, be professional, analyse needs
Resources How do I carry out the plan?	**Resources** Develop a supportive culture	**Resources** Modelling, mentoring and challenging	**Resources** Facilitate by coaching and training	**Resources** Professional/ technical skills	**Resources** Knowledge of the product, empathy, probing skills
Feedback How do I know I am performing?	**Feedback** Track and share information	**Feedback** Develop an awareness of the impact of the task	**Feedback** Obtain and give feedback on subordinates' performance	**Feedback** Enquire about and follow up on the impact	**Feedback** Ask questions and identify resistance
Adjustments How do I fix my mistakes?	**Adjustments** Direct/ oversee other managers	**Adjustments** Use persuasion to gain and maintain commitment	**Adjustments** Correct the time and details to meet the goal	**Adjustments** Self-control to meet commitments to service	**Adjustments** Answer objections, ask for order
Reinforcement Satisfaction from achievement	**Reinforcement** Share rewards for the organisation's success	**Reinforcement** Share rewards for supporting the change	**Reinforcement** Recognise and reinforce subordinates' performance	**Reinforcement** Recognise and reinforce cooperation	**Reinforcement** Express appreciation to clients
Result Task achieved	**Result** Mission accomplished	**Result** Change for the better	**Result** Today's goals achieved	**Result** Service rendered	**Result** A sale

Source: Bass, B.M. (1990). *Bass and Stodgill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications.* New York: Free Press.

The Task Cycle Model shows that Bass does not view leadership as a group process in the same way that Drath does. Bass suggests that as individuals progress up the organisational ladder, there is increased responsibility and power to lead. Furthermore, if an individual is in an executive position, he/ she is assumed to be a leader by virtue of this position (Bass, 1990).

Leadership requires at least two participants in order to occur (Bass, 1990). There must be an individual who acts and one who reacts. Actions and reactions occur depending on the identity and nature of the individuals, including their needs, competencies and goals. If one individual is

perceived as being instrumental to the other's attainment of a particular goal, as a consequence of greater competence or power, the stage is set for interaction and leadership to occur (Bass, 1990).

Successful leaders influence their followers and bring about changes in the latter's attitudes and behaviour by managing positive and negative reinforcements. The reinforcements in question are contingent on the followers' performance. These exchanges vary considerably in nature and amount, as different leaders have different role relations to their followers (Bass, 1990).

Apart from leaders being in control, leadership and followership are linked concepts and neither can be comprehended without understanding the other (Bass, 1990:339). Compliance by followers is the mirror image of successful leadership. If successful leadership is to influence the completion of tasks and social emotional relations, then the follower's compliance can be regarded as instrumental to the completion of tasks and both public and private socio-emotional acceptance of the leadership effort. In the same way that leaders can influence followers by initiatives and information, followers can complete the process and influence their leaders by giving feedback (Bass, 1990:339).

According to Roby, cited in Bass (1990:29), the functions of leadership are as follows:

(i) To bring about a congruence of goals among members;
(ii) To balance the group's resources and capabilities with environmental demands;
(iii)To provide a group structure that is necessary to focus information effectively on solving the problem; and
(iv)To ensure that all required information is available at a decision centre.

Stogdill, cited in Bass (1990:29), suggests furthermore that it is the function of the leader to maintain the group's structure and goal direction and to reconcile conflicting demands that may arise within and outside the group. This author also states that leadership includes defining objectives, providing the means for attaining goals, facilitating action and interaction in the group, maintaining the group's cohesiveness and member satisfaction, and facilitating the group's performance of the task (Stogdill, cited in Bass (1990:29).

It is proposed that there are two over-arching clusters of leadership styles, namely authoritarian and democratic leadership (Bass, 1990:415). The reason for such a classification is that the

author believes that there may be only two ways in which to change a follower's behaviour. The leader may alter the follower's information, understanding, ability or motivation to complete a specific task. On the other hand, when the leader has more knowledge about a task than the follower, a task-focused direction provides for the necessary transfer of information (Bass, 1990:416). Powerful leaders have the ability to motivate followers, but when followers have as much or more information as the leader, motivation of the followers is more likely to depend on involving them in decisions about completing the task and their concerns about it (Bass, 1990:419).

Bass (1990) states that the trait approach of leadership is not sufficient in allowing an understanding of leadership in all its complexities. He also proposes that the situation in which leaders and followers find themselves in can be more influential than the personal attributes of the leader. Whereas some types of leadership may be reported or expected in all situations, other types may be more specific to particular situations. For example, in a stressful situation, the requirements of a leader may be significantly different to what is required in a calm situation. Another important point is that subordinates could be more experienced, motivated, or better adjusted to their situation. In this case, the leader would need to deal differently with the various kinds of subordinates.

A final point to note about Bass's view of organisational leadership is that this author generally believes that leadership is a top down process. He mentions, however, that when leaders include the input of followers, the latter may be more content. He suggests, though, that this is merely a tactic that leaders can use to ensure compliance from their followers.

3.3.2   Zaccaro and Klimonski

Zaccaro and Klimonski, in *The Nature of Organisational Leadership* (2001), suggest that leadership within an organisation is disconnected and directionless due to theories of leadership being context-free (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:3). This suggests that little consideration is given to organisational variables that could influence the nature and impact of leadership. The authors' theory rests on the premise that leadership should not only be viewed as being a context-free process, and that there are several key imperatives in the life space of top-level leaders that should be incorporated into leadership theories. These aspects include cognitive, social, personal,

42

political, technological, financial and staffing imperatives (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:3). These key imperatives need to be analysed in order to fully understand why the authors view leadership as a situated process (see pages 45).

Zaccaro & Klimonski's theory rests on four fundamental assumptions, each of which will be discussed below.

3.3.2.1 Leadership and organisational purpose

Positions of leadership are created within organisational work settings to assist organisational subunits in achieving the purposes for which they exist within the larger system (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:6). Organisational purpose is operationalised in order to create a cohesive direction to enable collective action. The focus of leadership processes is towards defining, establishing, identifying or translating a particular direction for leaders and followers, as well as facilitating or enabling the organisational processes that should result in the achievement of this purpose (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:7). Organisational purpose and direction thus become defined in many ways, such as in the organisation's mission, vision, strategy, goals, plans and tasks (Zaccaro & Klimonski:7).

Leadership operation is inextricably linked to the continual development and attainment of the organisational goal states (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:7). This particular perspective of organisational leadership suggested by Zaccaro and Klimonski is a functional one that proposes that leadership is at the service of collective effectiveness. This suggests that an organisational leader's main role is to achieve whatever is not being adequately handled for group needs (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:7). Furthermore, the success of the collective as a whole is a major criterion for leader effectiveness within organisations. Functional leadership is not usually defined by a set of behaviours, but rather by generic responses that are prescribed for and which will vary in different problem situations (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:7). The emphasis has shifted from what a leader should do to what needs to be done for the collective. Leadership may thus be defined as those activities that promote team and organisational goal attainment, whilst being responsive to contextual demands.

3.3.2.2 Leadership as non-routine influence

Organisational leadership may not reside within the routine activities of organisational work. It occurs, however, in response to non-routine organisational events (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:8). This defining element suggests that the essence of organisational leadership is the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organisation. Non-routine events can be defined as situations that may hinder an organisation's progress in achieving particular goals (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:8). Organisational leadership can thus be seen as social problem-solving on a large or small scale, in which organisational leaders construct the nature of organisational problems, develop and evaluate potential solutions, and plan, implement and motivate for selected solutions within complex domains (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:8).

This does not imply that organisational leaders are reactive, but rather that they are required to be attuned to environmental events, interpreting and defining these for their followers, as well as preparing for the emergence of possible goal blockages (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:9). One may start to see that organisational leadership is proactive in its problem-solving.

The view that organisational leadership involves non-routine influence has two main components. The first is that critical organisational leadership may be more likely to be reflected in responses to ill-defined problems. This means that that the starting parameters, permissible solution paths and solution goals are unspecified (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:9). The second component is that leadership mainly involves discretion and choice in the determination of which solutions are appropriate in particular problem domains. This suggests that leadership should be viewed as a process that only occurs in situations in which there is discretion in decision-making.

3.3.2.3 Leadership as managing social and cognitive phenomena

Most leadership definitions emphasise social or interpersonal influence processes as key elements. Therefore persuasion, the management of social and political processes, and the use of social power, are ubiquitous constructs in leadership literature. It has been identified that effective cognitive processes are equally critical to a leader's effectiveness (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:10). Some cognitive requirements for leaders include interpreting and modelling environmental events for organisational members, determining the nature of problems

44

to be solved, and engaging in long-term strategic thinking. The use of cognitive and social processes should not be viewed as independent, as in many circumstances these processes become inextricably entwined (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:11).

3.3.2.4 Leadership and the organisational context

Most studies on leadership are, according to Zaccaro & Klimonski (2001:12), largely context-free. Leadership is typically considered without adequate regard for the structural considerations that affect and moderate its conduct. These authors believe that leadership cannot be modelled effectively without attending to such structural considerations (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:12). Leadership within different layers of an organisation also cannot be studied in the same manner, as the fundamental demands and work requirements of leaders at these different layers may change. Within the organisation, the hierarchical context of leadership can markedly influence the personal, interpersonal and organisational choices that can be made (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:12).

Zaccaro & Klimonski (2001) identify three main levels within an organisation. The first is the lower organisational level, at which existing organisational mechanisms and procedures are used to prevent operations from being disrupted. The second level, which comprises middle management, involves the embellishment and operationalisation of formal structural elements. These actions require two-way orientations by the leader, as well as effective people-management skills (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:13). The third and top level concerns structural origination or changes in the organisation as a reflection of new policy formulations. Different types of organisational leadership are required at the abovementioned different levels within an organisation and Zaccaro and Klimonski (2001) highlight the significance of understanding these three levels before attempting to explain leadership within an organisation.

3.3.2.5 Seven key imperatives

As mentioned in 3.3.2 Zaccaro and Klimonski view leadership as occurring within a particular situation, rather than as a context-free process. These authors have identified the following seven key imperatives in the life-space of top-level leaders, namely: (i) cognitive, (ii) social, (iii) personal, (iv) political, (v) technological, (vi) financial and (vii) staffing imperatives (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:26). Each of these is discussed in more detail below.

45

(i) Cognitive Imperative: The emphasis on leader cognition is important, according to Zaccaro and Klimonski, because leadership also occurs in response to non-routine, poorly-defined events and involves the anticipation of environments many years in the future. Leader cognition also requires the construction of abstract systems that may shape processes both internal and external to the organisation (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:26).

In addition to the cognitive skills of the leader having an effect on leadership within an organisation, the cognitive skills of other stakeholders, can also play a major role in organisational leadership processes. This is mainly due to these stakeholders responding to the internal meaning of the leader's direct actions and of the systems he/ she may introduce (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:26). These authors emphasise that leadership's perceptions, organisational cultures and identities, collective models of environments and underlying values all reflect the direct and indirect effects of effective executive leadership. Cognition is also important because of the ability of individuals to represent reality. Reality, in turn, is the ability to represent abstractions or symbols and to operate on these symbols in a systematic manner to create new meaning (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:26).

(ii) Social Imperative: Organisational leaders have to constantly maintain important personal relationships with many individuals in different units (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:26). One of the reasons for maintaining these relationships is to ensure integration between various sub-units, especially when these units may have contrasting ideals. Zaccaro & Klimonski (2001:26) suggest that leadership could be defined in terms of social perceptions, that it is a social construction, or that it is an emergent process involving a leader and networks of followers and tasks in a specific temporal and organisational context.

Leadership may also be viewed as a situated social perception in which the accessibility of the leadership construct for perceivers depends on situational cues and behaviours (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001: 27). A crucial issue identified by Zaccaro & Klimonski (2001:27) is the effect of social processes on individuals. An example of this is whether leadership processes within organisations enhance the self-esteem of employees. In such circumstances, leaders are central

figures because their actions may have a serious impact on individual as well as organisational identities (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:27).

Interestingly, the social aspect of leadership within the organisation also extends beyond the personal reactions of followers. This is due to the fact that there are many systemic aspects of leadership that depend on the ability of leaders to maintain linkages in social networks (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:27). Within organisations, social networks often influence the social capital of the organisation. This, in turn, has an effect on the flow of knowledge and the strengthening of norms and the organisation's collective values (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:26). A leader's social and cognitive skills are utilised to develop and maintain the linkages that make up such networks. It is thus pivotal that senior level managers master and manage these sociological aspects of leadership networks within the organisation.

(iii) Personal imperative: This particular imperative refers to the demands on leaders to timorously and skilfully execute activities such as career and reputation management, as well as the acquisition of power (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:27). This can be noticed when executives seek to place their own "stamp" on an organisation. Personal imperatives can become critical forces during periods of executive succession and CEO transitions (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001: 27).

(iv) Political imperative: The political environment in which most organisational leaders need to operate may exert considerable pressure. This pressure comes directly from the important role played by power within the organisation. The acquisition, and the timely and judicious use of power, as well as the appropriate application of power sharing, are also important considerations (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:27).

CEOs need to ensure that they are aligned with the appropriate individuals, and that the timing of this alignment is optimal, as most strategic and tactical decisions made by organisational leaders will be influenced to a large extent by the political network within which the organisation is embedded (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:27). This suggests that strategic decisions made by leaders are not only determined by internal politics, but also by external politics (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:27). Political imperatives are also driven by the inter-organisational

relationships that executives need to establish and maintain on behalf of their organisation (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:27).

(v) Technological imperative: Technology has revolutionised the operating environment of present-day organisational leaders. Organisations are more complex as a result of improved technology, and this has created challenges for leadership and has made organisational leadership increasingly complex (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:28). Key questions concerning technological imperatives need to be taken into consideration. For example, how would information technology change the strategic decision-making processes of leaders and, in particular, executive leaders? Another question is how information technology influences organisational leadership, and whether this influence is positive or negative.

(vi) Financial imperative: Financial imperatives may arguably be the single largest source of pressure on organisational leaders (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:29). Much of this pressure is derived from leaders needing to continuously demonstrate a high level of financial performance to shareholders. Financial compensation within organisations may also play a role in determining the effectiveness of leadership. Without the prospect of financial gain, Zaccaro & Klimonski (2001:29) believe that there would be no incentive for leaders to lead, even though this may be denied by leaders. Financial gain is potentially a major motivating factor within organisations, particularly among executives, as these leaders may be rewarded financially for enhanced performance. Punitive measures could also be taken; for example, financial gains could be withheld due to poor performance, or performance contrary to that expected by certain stakeholders, such as the Board of Directors. Finally, without money, there would also be no organisations for leaders to lead (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:29).

(vii) Staffing imperative: The previous imperatives concern forces that require senior organisational positions to be occupied by individuals who possess a particular set of skills, dispositions and capabilities. This imperative deals with how organisations should evaluate and prepare organisational leaders for the future. A key question that should be answered is how staffing decisions contribute to and shape top-level human resource management concerns; and how the senior leader is responsible for, interacts with, and is affected by the top management team (Zaccaro & Klimonski, 2001:29).

3.3.3 Yukl

Gary Yukl raises a few key issues about what is understood about leadership theory and practice. He poses the following two questions, namely, "How important is leadership to organisational survival and effectiveness?" and, "How much do we really know about leadership?" (Yukl, 2002:263).

This author states that leadership is a relatively new term in the English language, although it has been in use since the 1300s. Yukl (2002:3) suggests that leadership refers to a group process in which intentional influence is exerted by the leader over followers. He defines leadership as a group phenomenon involving interactions between two or more persons. There are many definitions of leadership that follow this line of thought, but there are differences as to who exerts influence, the purpose of influence attempts, and the manner in which influence is exerted. Yukl emphasises power within the organisation and how this affects leadership. He notes that a major issue in leadership theory is that some academics suggest that leadership is no different to the social influence process occurring among all members of a group (Yukl, 2002:3). This suggests that leadership is viewed as a collective process shared among members.

The opposing view suggests that all groups have role specialisations, which include a specialised leadership role (Yukl, 2002:3). According to this view, it may only be meaningful to view leadership as distinct from followership in that the person who has the most influence within the group and who carries out most of the tasks is designated as the leader (Yukl, 2002;3). This poses the further question of whether all other group members are followers or whether there could be other leaders who may be in charge of subgroups.

Another issue is which influence attempts can be considered a component of leadership. It is believed that leadership only includes influence processes related to the task and objectives of the group (Yukl, 2002:13). Therefore, influence attempts that are detrimental to the group's mission and only intended to benefit the leader are not regarded as acts of leadership. Furthermore, it could be argued that individuals who use authority and control over rewards and punishments to manipulate followers are not true leaders (Yukl, 2002:13). Leadership can thus be defined as the exercise of influence resulting in enthusiastic commitment by followers, as opposed to indifferent compliance or reluctant obedience (Yukl, 2002:13). Yukl (2002:13) also

notes that leadership may be overly restrictive, because it excludes influence processes that are important for understanding why a manager is effective or ineffective in a given situation.

Yukl's views of leadership and management suggest that an individual may be a leader without being a manager, and likewise may be a manager without having to lead. He does not propose that leadership and management are equivalent, but to him the degree of overlap between the two roles is the point of disagreement. Bennis & Nanus, cited in Yukl (2002:5), state that "managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing". According to this argument, managers are more concerned with how activities are performed in organisations, whereas leaders focus more on the significance of these activities to stakeholders. Yukl (2002:5) also notes that leadership appears to influence commitment, whereas managers merely carry out responsibilities related to their position and exercise authority.

Yukl (2005:5) raises two important questions about leadership, which are discussed below. The first question is how important leadership is to organisational survival and effectiveness. Some argue that leadership is a major determinant of organisational effectiveness, while others argue that leadership has no real, substantial influence on the performance of the organisation. Pfeffer (1977) argues that organisational effectiveness depends primarily on factors beyond the control of the leader. These factors include economic and market conditions, governmental policies and technological changes. A CEO who enters a particular organisation, for example, inherits the organisation along with its strengths and weaknesses. Therefore, the potential for making improvements may be significantly limited by internal political constraints and uncontrollable external conditions (Pfeffer, 1977).

The second question posed by Yukl (2002:267) is how much is truly known about leadership. The field of leadership effectiveness is not simply defined as leadership as there are many additional variables that need to be considered. Empirical studies have been conducted, for example, on leader traits, behaviour, power and situational variables as predictors of leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2002:267). Most of the reported results are contradictory and inconclusive, which is, according to Yukl (2002:267), to be expected as the subject of leadership effectiveness is quite complex. Yukl believes that there is much confusion in the field of leadership and attributes this to a number of factors, such as the large number of publications, disparity of approaches, proliferation of ambiguous terms, the narrow focus of most researchers, the high

percentage of irrelevant or trivial studies and the absence of an integrated conceptual framework (Yukl, 2002:268). Yukl (2002:268) nevertheless concedes that, in his opinion, academics know more about leadership than is usually recognised.

3.3.4   Northouse

Peter Northouse defines leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2004:3). He suggests that leadership is an influence process that assists individuals who are part of a group towards goal attainment. As the abovementioned definition suggests, leadership involves a certain level of influence, and power plays an important role in this, as power is often required to influence followers.

Northouse (2004:3) propounds that leaders and followers need to be understood in relation to each other, as both are part of the leadership process. It is important to identify the issues that confront both leaders and followers. Previously, leadership was classified as a trait (see 3.2.4); it was thus believed that certain individuals within society are born with special leadership traits (Northouse, 2004:21). This view suggests that only these "special" people possess these traits, so leadership is limited to these individuals.

There are two common forms of leadership within leadership theory, namely assigned and emergent leadership (Northouse, 2004:5). Assigned leadership is based on the premise that leadership arises from a formal title or position within the organisation. Emergent leadership, on the other hand, may result from what an individual does or how the individual acquires support from followers. Northouse's (2004:5) concept of leadership is that it is a process that applies to individuals in both assigned and emergent roles.

Northouse states that leadership and coercion are distinct processes. Coercion is defined as the use of threats and punishment to induce change in followers for the sake of the leader (Northouse, 2004:7). Northouse argues that coercion is contrary to leadership, as coercion does not necessarily treat leadership as a process in which the leader and followers work together to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2008:7).

Northouse (2004:8) nevertheless links leadership to the concept of power. As mentioned in 3.2.4.2, the two main types of power are position and personal power. Position power is derived

from having an office in a formal organisational system, whereas personal power arises from followers believing that the leader possesses something of value (Northouse, 2004:6). This author suggests that treating power as a shared resource is important as it de-emphasises the notion that leaders are power wielders (Northouse, 2004:6).

Northouse (2004:8) distinguishes between leadership and management by proposing that management traditionally focuses on the activities of planning, organising, staffing and controlling, whereas leadership emphasises the general influence process. He extends this argument by stating that management is concerned with creating order and stability while leadership is concerned with adaption and constructive change. Northouse notes, however, that the roles of leaders and managers overlap to a certain degree, and that both involve influencing a group of individuals towards goal attainment. Northouse views leadership as a complex process with group processes and goal attainment at the centre of this complexity (Northouse, 2004:8)

3.3.5 Lakomski

"Organisations keep performing whether they have a strong leader, a weak leader, or no leader at all" (Lakomski, 2005:vii). Gabriele Lakomski of the Centre of Organisational Learning & Leadership at the University of Australia explores the idea of managing without leadership in her book, *Managing Without Leadership: Towards a Theory of Organisational Functioning*. Lakomski contends that organisations are complex and that their functioning is poorly understood. She states that no one person has a complete overview of what happens within the organisation, and that efficiency and effectiveness, if these exist at all, require considerably more than the presence of one leader (Lakomski, 2005:vii).

Lakomski does not deny the existence of leaders. However, she questions the causal link between individual abilities and organisational outcomes, because organisational life is involved and complex, and specific individuals in leadership are neither omniscient nor infallible (Lakomski, 2005:3). She also asks, "Where do humans get the idea that leadership is the right explanation for organisational phenomena that we encounter?" (Lakomski, 2005:3).

There is a discrepancy between the way in which members believe their workplaces operate and how theories of leadership attempt to account for organisational functioning. Lakomski (2005:4) suggests that leadership studies should adopt a bottom-up account of organisational practices,

instead of top-down theories. The latter are, according to Lakomski (2005:4), incapable of accounting for the specificities of individual experience because those theories are bound by the nature and conditions of their contexts. Lakomski (2005) thus argues that it may be in the best interests of organisations if administrators focused more on the management of processes and people than on the more ambiguous concept of leadership.

Leadership can be considered as an attempt to find order or patterns in organisational functioning (Lakomski, 2005:16). Lakomski suggests that, to a certain extent, leadership has no place in organisations as it is far removed from the "heart of the organisation's engine room", much like the queen bee ant, "who oversees nothing and leads no one". The queen ant is removed from the throng of worker ants whose division of labour constitute and re-constitute the actual survival of the colony (Lakomski, 2005:16). Lakomski argues that the only way to find leadership is through a bottom-up account of organisational practices. She states that there is a lack of empirical evidence linking a leader's actions to the organisation's performance (Lakomski, 2005:16).

Lakomski also argues that leaders are ultimately not in control of organisations, as control is organic and evolves over time as organisations constantly adapt to changing internal and external conditions. Lakomski recognises the significance of organisational culture, an understanding of which contributes to assessment of an organisation's functioning. This implies that leadership does not create or change the culture of an organisation.

She proposes that we consider the phenomenon of leadership as part of organisational practice and that in a naturalistic re-description of the phenomenon, it may be viewed as an emergent, self-organising property of complex systems (Lakomski, 2005:viii). Lakomski contends that there would then be no need for engaging in leadership studies. Instead, attention would be turned to the study of the fine-grained properties of contextualised organisational practice (Lakomski, 2005:vii). Enhanced understanding of the mechanisms of organisational practices, shaped by interactions with tools and artefacts of the researcher's making, is pivotal in improving organisational efficiency and effectiveness (Lakomski, 2005:viii).

Lakomski raises a different approach to leadership, as she states that the current conceptualisation of this does not address the inherent complexities of leadership, and that organisations may function with effective or poor leadership, or none at all. Leadership is deeply

rooted in organisational culture and there should thus be more focus on the management of people and processes (Lakomski, 2005).

3.4 Summary

There are many definitions of organisational leadership, an ambiguous, poorly understood concept. There are also various differing theories, from leadership as a trait, to organisations not requiring leaders, to top-down and bottom-up theories. These theories are illustrated by the selection of authors discussed in this chapter and summarised below.

Various attributes of leadership have been discussed in this chapter. These include traits, skills and behaviours. Leadership as a trait focuses on the leader and his/ her special gifts. Ability, whether this is inherited or developed, is also an attribute of a leader. Other personal attributes include skills and leadership behaviours.

Power was also highlighted as an important factor that enables a leader to influence followers effectively and efficiently, and which contributes to the leader being able to lead through dominance. The abovementioned attributes all contribute to leadership through personal dominance or intellectual influence. This view is proposed by Bass, in particular, and his Task Cycle Model (see Table 3.1 in 3.3.1) emphasises the view that leadership is a top-down process in an organisation.

Zaccaro and Klimonski (2001) state that leadership is disconnected and directionless, and should not be viewed as context-free, but rather as a situated process. There are also seven key imperatives that should be incorporated into leadership, namely cognitive, social, personal, political, technological, financial and staffing imperatives. These authors perceive leadership as a functional one in which leadership is at the service of collective effectiveness. The emphasis is shifted from what a leader should do to what a leader needs to do for the collective, and leadership is the activity that promotes team and organisational goal attainment by being responsive to contextual demands.

Northouse highlights limitations of some aspects of what are normally considered part of a leader's dominance. His view is that leaders and followers need to be understood in relation to

each other, as both are part of the leadership process. According to this author, leadership being a process in which an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.

Yukl (2002), meanwhile, raises important questions about leadership, including its significance and how much is known about leadership. He sees leadership as a group process involving interactions between two or more persons, and in which intentional influence is extended by leaders over followers. Yukl (2002) believes that leadership is no different to the social influence processes occurring amongst all group members, and that leadership is thus a collective process.

Lakomski (2005) proposes an alternative view, namely that organisations keep performing, whether or not there is a strong or weak leader, or none at all. The practices and activities within organisations are poorly understood and, if efficiency and effectiveness exist, these require more than simply the presence of one leader. She however accepts that leadership exists but states that leadership studies should be viewed from the bottom up and not from the top down. She proposes that top down studies are incapable of accounting for the specificities of individual experience and that there should be more focus on the management of people and processes than on the uncertain concept of leadership.

Lakomski (2005) argues that leaders are not ultimately in control of organisations, as control is organic and develops. Organisational culture is of paramount importance, according to this author, as it contributes to an understanding of the organisation's function. Furthermore, leadership does not create an organisational culture, and should instead be viewed as an organisational practice. More attention should thus be turned to people and processes, rather than the ambiguous concept of leadership.

From the summary of key authors' perspectives on organisational leadership presented above, it can be seen that Bass (1990) views leadership as a top-down process. Zaccaro & Klimonski (2001), Yukl (2002) and Northouse (2004), whilst agreeing with this top-down view, have adapted this by. Lakomski (2005), meanwhile, presents an alternative perspective of leadership as a bottom-up process that requires the management of people as part of an organisational practice. Her theory is in alignment with certain aspects of Drath's approach. A major question

that emerges from consideration of the above theories is how leaders are able to meet the challenges and demands posed by changing, unpredictable and internal business environments.

Drath's theory, which calls for a rethinking of leadership and proposes that leadership is a bottom-up, social meaning-making process, will be discussed in the next chapter. Particular consideration will be given to whether Drath's theory, or something approaching this, is present in practice in organisations, and whether it can be used to address the complex challenges faced by leadership.

CHAPTER 4

The Contribution of Drath

4.1   Leadership as Meaning-making in a Community of Practice

Drath and Palus (1994) suggest that there is a school of thought that views leadership in terms of dominance and influence, and assumes that leadership occurs when an individual, called a leader, acts in some way to change the behaviour or attitudes of others, termed followers. This traditional paradigm of leadership has been referred to in this study as the DI view.

Drath & Palus (1994:1) propose that, instead of the abovementioned paradigm, leadership should be considered as a social meaning-making process that occurs in groups of people engaged in some activity together. Drath (2001) does not recommend discarding the DI view of leadership, but suggests extending this approach. He reframes the leadership debate in terms of the socially constructed nature of leadership as a social phenomenon. In order to understand this new style or type of leading, the need for individuals to make sense of their experiences will be examined below.

4.1.2 Definitions of terms

Before continuing with the discussion on meaning-making in a community of practice, the definitions of some key terms are provided below.

4.1.2.1 "Meaning"

In this context, the word "meaning" is only used in its practical sense and not in its philosophical sense. Drath and Palus suggest that meaning has two broad senses in common usage. The first involves the way in which words and symbols stand for, refer to, or represent phenomena (Drath & Palus, 1994:6). The second sense involves people's values, relationships and commitments (Drath & Palus, 1994:6). Both senses are applicable to leadership, as discussed below.

The first sense comes into play when people use language with one another. There are some "special ways" of using language, such as naming and interpreting. Naming may seem

unimportant when discussing the subject of leadership, but putting a name to something, besides drawing attention to the issue at hand, is also a way of saying that it exists (Drath & Palus, 1994:7). Naming something specifically categorises it, which then places it into a certain context and relationship with other things. Categorisation also leads to interpretation, which plays an important role in leadership. Interpretation can be understood as the act of explaining what things are, why they have or are about to happen, and what can and should be done as a result (Drath & Palus,, 1994:7).

The second sense of meaning involves people and their values and commitments. A common and important trait of the human race is that people make commitments to other people, ideas, values, goals and missions. Commitments can also be made to the kinds of meaning that have previously been discussed; to ways of naming and thinking about things, being in the world and understanding the world, as well as the individual's place in this (Drath & Palus, 1994:8). The process of leadership can involve any of or all of these kinds of commitments.

In summary, meaning as the basis of leadership is thus the aspect of naming, categorising and subsequently interpreting. It also includes believing, valuing, and thus committing.

4.1.2.2 "Meaning-making"

If meaning refers to naming, interpreting and making commitments to actions, people and values, then meaning-making is the process of creating names, interpretations and commitments. Meaning-making involves constructing a sense of what is, what actually exists and what is important (Drath & Palus, 1994:9). Individuals construct a sense of reality and what is significant for themselves and others. If this takes place within a community of practice, the process of leadership occurs.

Meaning-making is, in many respects, an individual activity, but there are also important social and collective dimensions to this process. Individuals are embedded in cultures, and these cultures may influence the individual's characteristic ways of understanding the world (Drath & Palus, 1994:9). These authors suggest that in making meaning, either individually or in experiences with others, reference is made to a common book of given ways of knowing. These ways of knowing constitute culture. It is suggested that culture is a grandparent of leadership (Drath & Palus, 1994:9).

It can be assumed that processes of leadership are connected to the larger cultural frame within which they occur. One could extend this by saying that culture-building is the primary process of meaning-making in collective experience, and thus the primary leadership process (Drath & Palus, 1994:9). Culture is important because it provides individuals with givens in the form of names for things, and ways of classifying and thus interpreting things. Culture is also believed to provide the basic givens that guide relationships, commitments and sense of lasting value (Drath & Palus, 1994:9).

There is often a tendency to think about meaning as something that happens as a result of leadership. However, a leader starts with creating a vision of something, building trust and then creating the meaning (Drath & Palus, 1994:10). Instead of being a behaviour that leaders may or may not engage in, meaning-making is a core feature of leadership (Drath & Palus, 1994:10).

4.1.2.3 Community of practice

A community of practice is different to a group, team, collective or aggregate, but nevertheless related to these aspects. Within communities of practice, the key word is *practice* and the main difference to the abovementioned types of collectives lies in the power of shared activities and practices to create common knowledge and thus ways of knowing (Drath & Palus, 1994:11). Within a community of practice, people are united by more than membership in a group or category, as they are involved with one another in action. Each individual within society belongs to many communities of practice, but with varying degrees of centrality; in some communities of practice, there is only peripheral involvement, whereas in others, the individual is more centrally involved (Drath & Palus, 1994:11).

4.1.3 The importance of making meaning

Individuals from different cultures, geographical locations and times share the need and ability to make things make sense. This raises the question as to what "making sense" means. This is a difficult question, and many authors have attempted to address it. Kant, Wittgenstein and Berkeley, cited in Drath & Palus, (1994:2) define making sense as,

"the process of arranging our understanding of experience so that we can know what has happened and what is happening, and if so that we can predict what will happen; it is constructing knowledge of ourselves and the world"

Making sense is thus the process of discovering what is really happening. It is suggested that, for the purposes of this discussion, it is assumed that there is no way to determine what is ultimately real, and that the best that can be hoped for is for individuals to make arrangements in their minds that create coherence out of their experiences (Drath & Palus, 1994:3). This view is commonly known as constructivism (Bruner, 1986; Fingarette, 1963; Goodman, 1984; Kegan, 1982; Piaget, 1954 cited in Drath & Palus, 1994:3)**.**

Drath and Palus use the example of an individual walking when the sky suddenly turns grey, and the individual starts to hear a distant rumbling sound. Unless the individual has a phobia, he/ she does not panic and cower in fear. The individual knows what is happening, but the question is how the individual arrived at this conclusion. One answer to this may be that the individual constructed this knowledge out of the raw material of his/ her experience, which, of course, includes being told about thunderstorms by others. The authors suggest that this construction of the experience of a thunderstorm constitutes the individual's understanding of such storms, and thus his/ her perception of reality (Drath & Palus, 1994:3).

The authors refer to sets of assumptions that allow an individual to interpret sensory information as a meaning-making structure (Drath & Palus, 1994:3). Meaning-making makes sense of an action by placing it within some larger frame, which is seen by the person who makes sense as the way the world is. This guides the individual in his/ her way of being in the world. In this way, reality is said to be a construction (Drath & Palus, 1994:3).

4.1.4 Applying meaning to leadership

Adopting the constructivist view described above enables leadership to be viewed as a tool that people could use in their relations with each another. The aim of this tool would be to make sense or meaning. Drath and Palus (1994:4) suggest that leadership in organisations can be seen as more about making meaning, rather than making decisions and influencing people. The process of making meaning in certain kinds of social settings constitutes leadership. This implies

that individuals can regard leadership as meaning-making in a community of practice (Drath & Palus, 1994:4).

Leadership, however, is not the only type of meaning-making process. Individuals may have a plethora of other kinds of meaning-making processes, such as learning, ego development and spiritual development. In a social context, there are processes such as language, knowledge systems, arts and culture (Drath & Palus, 1994:4). Leadership as a type of social meaning-making process is related to these other kinds of processes, but is discernibly different from these by virtue of its application in a community of practice. This entails a group of people with a shared history of doing something together, which is usually work-related (Drath & Palus, 1994:4).

Leadership could also be regarded as the process of making sense of what individuals are doing together, so that individuals will understand and be committed (Drath & Palus, 1994:4). As a social sense-making process, leadership could also create interpersonal influences. For example, an individual may do what another person influences him/ her to do because doing this makes sense to both people.

Various authors, when discussing meaning-making in a community of practice, define the terms used and then assemble these together, thus creating an overall meaning of the concept. *Meaning*, as defined by Drath and Palus, is a cognitive and emotional framework that allows an individual to know some world version and that places the individual in relation to this world version (Drath & Palus, 1994:4). One can thus view *meaning-making* as the creation, nurturing and evolution of these cognitive and emotional frameworks (Drath & Palus, 1994:4). According to these authors, leadership occurs when the making of such frameworks takes place in a *community of practice* of people united in a common enterprise; with a shared history, and joint values, beliefs, and ways of talking and doing things (Drath & Palus, 1994:4). This is not a definition of leadership, but rather a way of categorising or organising this concept.

The question is whether this view of leadership, as described above, is different to other views of leadership. The first difference is that most other theories and models of leadership assume that leadership is a dominance-*cum*-social-influence process (Drath & Palus, 1994:5) in which the

leader gets others to do something. Dominance is but one approach to meaning-making; social influence is another, and can be seen as an outcome of leadership (Drath & Palus, 1994:5).

Another major difference between the views of Drath & Palus (1994:5) and the earlier, more traditional theories of leadership rests on fundamental assumptions about the nature of human energy and motivation. The dominance-*cum*-social-influence view suggests that humans are naturally still and require some motivating force in order for activity to occur (Drath & Palus, 1994:5). The meaning-making view proposed by Drath and Palus (1994), however, assumes that individuals are naturally in motion, always doing something and, instead of motivation, need frameworks within which their actions make sense.

The abovementioned two differences give rise to another key distinction. When people no longer regard dominance and social influence as the basic activities of leadership, people no longer need to think of leadership predominately in terms of leaders and followers (Drath & Palus, 1994:5). People may, instead, view leadership as a process in which everyone in a community or group is engaged. Leadership is recognised as part of a context. Instead of leadership being a generic force that a person called a leader can apply at will to any group of people, it becomes a community-specific process that arises in various forms whenever people attempt to work together, and has numerous effects on different stakeholders (Drath & Palus, 1994:5).

Individuals may play varying roles, which may involve formal authority and power and which may offer the opportunity to make unique contributions to the process of leadership (Drath & Palus, 1994:6). These authors suggest that, as a result of this, power and authority can be distinguished from leadership, thus leading to enhanced understanding of the relationship of these various social processes. The concepts of authority and leadership are often used interchangeably, but are, in fact, distinct (Drath & Palus, 1994:5). Authority is an important means of generating coherence within groups, organisations and societies, and is thus frequently used as a tool with which meaning is created in communities of practice (Drath & Palus, 1994:6). Authority is often used within leadership processes, but confusing leadership and authority is analogous to confusing means and ends. Authority is a tool for making sense of things, whereas leadership is understood within this context as the process through which people put these tools to work in order to create meaning (Drath & Palus, 1994:6).

Leadership development also needs to be considered. Instead of focusing almost exclusively on training individuals to become better leaders, this new meaning-making approach could be used to develop leadership by improving the collective ability of individuals within an organisation to participate in the process of leadership (Drath & Palus, 1994:6). This would require research to examine the roles, behaviours and capacities involved in leadership as a social meaning-making process.

Considering leadership as a meaning-making process may contribute to clarifying the relationship between certain individual traits and leadership. Those individuals who may be regarded as natural, charismatic, powerful or inspired leaders may be viewed as such due to their perceived intelligence, knowledge and experience, which may lead to their apparent ability to express formulations of meaning on behalf of a community (Drath & Palus, 1994:6). These "special individuals" can often verbalise or express what others have in their minds and hearts, and doing this may make them appear to possess superhuman characteristics, which may be difficult to separate from the process of leadership (Drath & Palus, 1994:6).

4.1.5 Leadership development

Traditionally, leadership development has been concerned with the individual leader who has authority and is held responsible. The aim of such leadership development has been to improve the leader's ability to direct and influence others (Drath & Palus, 1994:20). If leadership is to be understood as a social meaning-making process, then the concept of leadership development needs to change.

If leadership is seen as meaning-making in a community of practice, then it is necessary that leadership development involves more than simply the individual traditionally referred to as the leader. Leadership development should not be primarily concerned with the individual, but instead should involve the development of the entire community (Drath & Palus, 1994:21). It should be a process in which each individual assumes responsibility for a specific role as well as for the collective outcomes of the group. With this stakeholder-based approach, the process of leadership development is closely related to the process of leadership (Drath & Palus, 1994:21).

This suggests that leadership development can be understood as the evolution of the constructions of the community of practice over time. Leadership can be thought of as an

adaptive process that co-ordinates and maintains the equilibrium of the community, both within itself and in its relation to the world at large (Drath & Palus, 1994:22). In encountering the world, and the invariable changes in this, the individual realises that any given structure for making sense of things will contend with things that may not worker do not make sense. This, in turn, creates an imbalance or incapacity that challenges the adaptive sense-making process to correct it (Drath & Palus, 1994:22). It is at this point that the leadership process begins to develop and evolve towards more adaptive meaning-making that can assimilate and accommodate the changed conditions, according to Drath & Palus (1994:21).

Within a community of practice, this adaptive meaning-making occurs when members develop psychologically. This may occur when individuals evolve more comprehensive ways of seeing themselves and their place within the world. Individual development, as noted by Robert Kegan, cited in Drath & Palus (1994:22), can be seen as the gradual creation of a capacity for understanding oneself simultaneously in terms of one's unique individuality and as being deeply embedded in some social context. As an individual develops the capacity to hold onto these perhaps different ideas, he/ she develops the capacity to act in more flexible and adaptive ways. By viewing leadership as a social meaning-making process, the connections between leadership development and individual psychological development are apparent (Drath & Palus, 1994:21).

Leadership may also arise when forms of practice develop. The activities that individuals perform on a daily basis when an issue within an organisation changes give rise to the development of leadership (Drath & Palus, 1994:22). In other words, leadership evolves towards a process that is more effective in making sense of changing practices. This evolution could be individually-oriented or more distributed, depending on how the practices evolve (Drath & Palus, 1994:22). A key consideration in leadership development is recognising those elements of the community in which people are embedded that may need revision and revaluation if leadership is to continue to be effective (Drath & Palus, 1994:22).

Finally, leadership may also be developed as individuals are brought into new ways of relating to others within a community of practice (Drath & Palus, 1994:22). Often these new ways of relating are connected to changes in practices. As organisations experiment and change various forms of meetings that encourage greater openness and dialogue as a vehicle for organisational learning, leadership processes within these organisations develops (Drath & Palus, 1994:22).

The question arises as to whether the traditional notion of leadership development retains relevance, and whether individual training in leadership, for example, should be abandoned. Drath & Palus (1994:23) argue that there is still a role for traditional leadership development activities. The most significant difference between traditional leadership training and the type of training suggested by these authors is that the former involves training leaders to exercise leadership, whereas the latter entails training for participation in leadership (Drath & Palus, 1994:23).

This is analogous to training an athlete in the individual skills of a sport, compared to training the athlete in the team skills required in the sport. Usually, the individual skills are learnt first. It is suggested that individuals first learn the individual skills of leadership, and then later, once they have progressed to higher levels of management, the community-oriented and meaning-making capacities of leadership can be learnt (Drath & Palus, 1994:23). These capacities include the capacity to understand oneself as both an individual and as a socially embedded being; the capacity to understand systems in general as mutually related, interacting and continually changing; the capacity to adopt the perspective of another; and the capacity to engage in dialogue (Drath & Palus, 1994:23).

4.1.6 Changing constructs of leadership

By considering leadership as meaning-making in a community of practice, Drath and Palus (1994) suggest that leadership is itself a social construct or an artefact the continual process of making sense of the world. People think of their earliest ways of understanding as arising in dominance. A process view of dominance as a meaning-making activity can be taken (Drath & Palus, 1994:23). These authors provide the example of a group of primates, in which the strongest and smartest individual enforces compliance through the linking of fear and protection. His followers are afraid of him, the dominant individual, and feel protected by him. This can be summarised in terms of process, as power eliciting compliance through fear and protection (Drath & Palus, 1994:23).

Influence as the basis for understanding leadership can also be understood as a meaning-making process (Drath & Palus, 1994:24). It could be said that periodic influential inputs from

persuasive individuals continuously build and refine people's belief that they are engaged in some beneficial activity. This process can be summarised as persuasiveness resulting in conviction (Drath & Palus, 1994:24).

Drath and Palus (1994:24) propose that the dominance construct should not be replaced with the influence construct, but rather that the latter should supplement the former, leading to an enhanced understanding of leadership. Whilst this may make the overall construct richer, it could also lead to greater confusion and uncertainty. It could be argued that there is a need for leaders to bring people to a specific state by persuasion, but it could also be argued that leaders may have to act independently and dominate situations for the communal good (Drath & Palus, 1994:24). This may be confusing, and may lead to the perception that influence is a 'softer' way of practicing dominance (Drath & Palus, 1994:24).

A new style of leadership termed participative leadership has recently been introduced (Drath & Palus, 1994:24). This adds to the richness of the construct of leadership. Attempting to understand how a leader can both take charge of a situation while still allowing real participation may, however, result in further confusion. It could be argued that participation is a way to gain influence and that even if leaders allowed participation, one individual would ultimately have to make a decision (Drath & Palus, 1994:24).

Drath & Palus (1994) suggest that the abovementioned confusion could be addressed and the richness of the overall construct of leadership retained by viewing leadership as a meaning-making or sense-making process. When people perform activities together for a long enough period of time to form a community, the striving to make things make sense and to create meaning out of that experience can be considered as the process of leadership (Drath & Palus, 1994:24). This aspect of leadership could be compared to the white caps of the sea, prominent and captivating. But to think of the sea solely in terms of its white caps is a grave error, as one will neglect the more profound phenomenon out of which such waves arise (Drath & Palus, 1994:25). Leadership may be more than the dramatic white caps of the individual leader, and may instead be understood as the deep blue water in which all stakeholders work together.

4.2   Changing our minds about leadership

Wilfred Drath, in *Changing Our Minds AboutLleadership* (1996), poses the following question, "Is the present ideal of leadership within the organisation enough?" (Drath, 1996). He suggests that the traditional style of leadership has been out for some time. He also argues that the more recent, participative approach is difficult to accomplish in practice, with many people in leadership positions merely going through the motions of being empowering and participative, and that employees were starting to sense a "lull" in productivity. Drath states that people have lost their way and are starting to search for new answers about leadership. However, even though he considers people as being "lost", Drath (1996) believes that individuals continue to plod along, thus, in effect, developing new ways of working together.

Drath (1996) argues that managers are starting to call for and, as a result, develop, new models of leadership. Drath suggests that practices such as organising around teams, breaking down functional barriers, increasing diversity and promoting the development of a learning organisation all point towards the need to develop a new model of leadership (Drath, 1996). He argues that people accept that change is needed, but may be scared of the change.

The usefulness of some ideas may be outlived, and perhaps this has occurred with the basic idea of leadership (Drath, 1996). This author suggests that the traditional notion that leadership starts with a leader should be discarded, as well as the notion that a good leader is necessary to achieve good leadership. One should rather conceive of a community, work group or organisation of "people making sense and meaning of their work together" (Drath, 1996). According to this author, the process of meaning- and sense-making will subsequently start to produce leaders. Drath thus suggests that good leadership arises from good processes of leadership.

Extending this argument, it could be argued that poor leaders are the result of ineffective, weak or deficient processes of leadership. Drath (1996) suggests that processes are of paramount importance, and that leadership is a set of relationships that produce a wide variety of outcomes such as meaning, values, goals, authority, structure, work processes and, finally, leaders. He argues that responsibility should not be thrust upon one individual alone, but rather that the group or community as a whole should assume the responsibility of leading. People should not

look to one individual in times of crisis, but should rather ask questions, such as what the group could do differently (Drath, 1996).

Drath (1996) thus suggests that in times of crisis, the conversation should revolve less around the actions of individuals and more around the nature of the relationships of people working together. Furthermore, leadership is the property of a social system, an outcome of collective meaning-making and not the result of influence or vision from an individual. The notion that leadership is created by a single person can be referred to as "individual leadership", whereas the idea that leadership is created by groups could be viewed as the property of a social system of "relational leadership", arising in the systematic relationships of people working together (Drath, 1996).

Within a society that defines leadership as a property of a social system, leaders do not necessarily make leadership happen and followers are not necessarily the objects of the leader's leadership behaviour (Drath, 1996). Leaders and followers both contribute to the leadership process, and their effectiveness in doing so is the result of the nature of their participation in this process. It could be argued that their participation in the process has a direct effect on the process itself (Drath, 1996). Leadership is therefore improved through the way in which individuals participate in it. Drath (1996) expresses the view that followers can also improve leadership, in addition to leaders being able to do so, and a reason for this is that followers outnumber leaders.

In such an environment, leadership may be determined by the extent to which people take responsibility for participating in this process and not because a particular leader has decided how to share leadership (Drath, 1996). Since leadership is a property of the relationships people form when they are doing something together, it is therefore affected by the quality and nature of these relationships. Healthy sets of relationships constitute good leadership, which produces suitable leaders and followers (Drath, 1996). Drath (1996) proposes a scenario in which leadership is promoted by developing the whole community of people, so that they can participate more effectively in the relationships involved in leadership. Leaders and followers are mutually-dependent and can be seen as two sides of the leadership coin. Both should thus undergo leadership training (Drath, 1996).

The following questions should be asked, "Is this all pure fantasy or just fancy semantics? Could such leadership approaches actually work? Is leadership not really just about power, influence and position? Most important of all, how can we possibly think of leadership without placing the individual in the place of honour?" A key reason that these questions need to be asked and answered is that Drath's (1996) approach can be seen as diminishing the role of the individual leader. This could be problematic to some, as many cultures value the sanctity of the individual, and this sanctity is fundamental to cultural values of freedom, responsibility, and accountability (Drath, 1996).

Drath's (1996) view of the 'individual' should be explored. His relational model, described above, proposes that both leaders and followers are created by the leadership process. Drath uses the example of a mother and father having a baby to illustrate this model. The mother and father created the baby, and having this baby, in turn, creates parents out of them. The baby thus fashions a whole new mindset in the mother and father, that of a parent, with its unique set of values, concerns, hopes and fears (Drath, 1996).

Drath views leadership in a similar light. When an employee joins an organisation, he/ she may think of becoming a participant in an ongoing process in which people are making sense and meaning of their work together (Drath, 1996). As an individual starts to take responsibility for his/ her role in the workplace, the individual starts participating in the search for meaning and the creation of a system of meaning-making that constitutes leadership. Leadership is thus the process of making sense together of common work. Employees, even those at low levels, start to feel themselves gradually becoming an integral part of the process of leadership (Drath, 1996).

Inevitably, individuals will rise through communities to become leaders. Their participation in the process of leadership will include making decisions for the community, in the same way that a mother and father make decisions for the well-being of their baby, as suggested by Drath (1996). This author proposes that individuals become leaders by virtue of their participation. Once someone becomes a leader, his/ her power and responsibilities may change, as may the words that others use to refer to the individual. What does not change, however, is that the leader is participating in a process that is larger than him-/ herself, and that creates the individual as a person of authority (Drath, 1996).

The individual that is part of the community emerges from the abovementioned process as responsible, accountable and authorised (Drath, 1996). This individual values the idea of participating in, as opposed to creating, leadership. The feeling is one of belonging to the community and not one of ownership towards the community. This leader feels humble about being a chosen leader, and may be less likely to abrogate power and privilege. Leadership is understood as a quality that the individual brought to his/ her position, instead of the other way around (Drath, 1996).

Some organisations have started to organise around teams, making the teams responsible for their work without management supervision (Drath, 1996). In such a situation, each team is accountable to all other teams with which it is interdependently linked. This creates a kind of marketplace accountability in which the work of each team is appraised for its quality and timeliness by other teams (Drath, 1996). Within such an organisation, leadership can be understood as making meaning of the whole structure of interdependence, agreements, work flows, decision streams, sense-making protocols and problem-solving methods, in which the interlinked teams create a marketable product. By organising around teams, there is usually no one person making decisions in order to control the work of the teams, and in many cases the various teams are co-coordinated by something close to mutual adjustment (Drath, 1996).

Apart from organising around teams, many organisations are seeking to dismantle the strict barriers that separate and define different functions (Drath, 1996). Drath accepts that boundaries will not disappear, but notes that ideas about the nature of boundaries could change. Most bureaucratic organisations can be said to house functional boundaries. Drath explains that coordination should not come from the top but from the side, between the different work groups. Breaking these functional boundaries allows a shift towards a different idea of leadership that goes beyond the traditional model in which one manager is responsible for one function while another is responsible for another function, and only the manager above these two is responsible for the coordination of the two lower-level managers (Drath, 1996). A leadership model that accommodates the co-construction of work between functions is thus required.

Organisations are becoming increasingly diverse, which may explain why organisations are starting to explore and evolve relational models of leadership (Drath, 1996). If organisations are going to embrace different cultures, they will need to embrace potentially contrasting values,

philosophies and ideas. The traditional idea that one individual can generate a vision and enlist others in its implementation is unlikely to serve this need optimally. This is because the vision belongs to one person and reflects one person's worldview, instead of a collective opinion (Drath, 1996). This author states that organisational visions will have to become more multifaceted, and recognises that this will be challenging to achieve in practice. A possible means to address this is to incorporate a more inclusive model of leadership (Drath, 1996).

There has recently been a grave need for organisations to become more receptive toward customers, which is leading to increased non-routine decision-making authority by operational people (Drath, 1996). The view is that organisations should give more responsibility to operational employees, enabling them to directly communicate with customers. These employees should not have to follow a script, but should rather exercise their own judgement. Drath (1996) states that in order for a strategy to be effective, people at all levels of the organisation need to be participants in the creation and evolution of that strategy.

Drath proposes that the whole set of ideas implicit in what is being termed the 'learning organisation' may depend upon a new model of leadership. The difference between a learning organisation and the traditional organisation lies in the concept of open and closed systems (Drath, 1996). The traditional organisation is viewed as a closed system, with the purpose of maintenance and stability. On the other hand, a learning organisation is an open system that evolves and develops continuously as it interacts with its environment. Unlike the traditional organisation, in which leadership comes from one individual, the learning organisation requires a model of leadership that points towards continuous development and adaptive change (Drath, 1996). Drath suggests that organisations will have to look towards flexible navigation, instead of steady direction.

It is clear that one can see that organisations are looking for other models of leadership and that practice seems to be running ahead of theory. However people need to develop new practices in order to find new ways to develop their ability to work together. The most important aspect of Drath's (1996) work is that people should accept that organisations are changing and that, with these changes, existing notions of leadership are challenged.

4.3   Rethinking the source of leadership

In Drath's book, *The Deep Blue Sea: Rethinking the Source of Leadership* (2001), he addresses the principle of relational leadership compared to personal leadership. Relational leadership allows one to understand leadership in general in a new way; it is a perspective that helps discover new ways of making leadership occur (Drath, 2001:xv). Personal leadership is the more common form of leadership and, in Drath's opinion, the cause of much confusion. Drath (2001:xv) suggests that the principle of relational leadership stems from two other leadership principles, namely personal dominance and interpersonal influence. He notes that 'relational' is not a new word and that the fundamental relational idea is that individuals are constituted by their relations (Drath, 2001:xv).

"Leadership happens when a conversation across worldviews makes sense of a new subject" (Drath, 2001:144). This summarises Drath's (2001:144) perspective that the creation of leadership arises out of relational dialogues between people, is built on shared meaning-making, and is conscious of the ever-widening contexts in which leadership operates and in which people live.

Before outlining his three principles for recognising leadership, which are discussed on the next page, Drath first differentiates between principles and definitions. Knowledge principles are sets of rules about the nature of reality and life, which are taken for granted to be true. A definition, on the other hand, states what leadership means, because it makes its assertion within the context of a shared knowledge principle, a sense of what is obviously true that is shared between the definition giver and the definition consumer (Drath, 2001:4). This author suggests that the difference between knowledge principles and definitions becomes apparent, because most definitions of concepts as complex as leadership are, by their nature, subject to debate, doubt, and challenge (Drath, 2001:8).

Drath (2001:10) also distinguishes between leadership styles and principles. A style is usually an approach to leadership that a leader or follower chooses to take. A leader chooses, for example, to be task-orientated or relationship-focused, or to make decisions alone or allow followers to participate in this. The leader's choice of style depends on various factors, such as the situation, task and maturity of the followers (Drath, 2001:11). A leadership principle, meanwhile, is

required for the leader and follower to recognise that leadership is occurring. It is not something that either party could choose to use or not use from one situation to another. Whilst a leadership style may change, a leadership principle remains constant. The latter is changed only slowly and with difficulty, because people do not easily part with a way of making sense of something as important as leadership (Drath, 2001:11).

The principles that Drath presents, which are discussed below, form the basis of definitions of leadership. The first of his principles for recognising leadership is *personal dominance* (Drath, 2001:12). This is a way of understanding leadership as the personal quality or characteristic of a certain kind of person called a leader. Within this principle, leadership is assumed to come from within the individual, an individual quality or characteristic, and does not arise from behaviour. Therefore, particular thoughts, words and actions of this kind of person can vary along many dimensions without affecting the person's status as a leader (Drath, 2001:12).

From this perspective, leadership is whatever the true leader does. Drath (2001:12) suggests that this principle makes the following assumptions:

(i) Leadership is something an individual possesses;
(ii) Leadership is an expression of an individual's personal qualities or characteristics; and
(iii)Leaders lead because followers are convinced of the truth of the former's leadership.

Dominance, in the above context, does not refer to domination but rather to the idea that the leader is the source of leadership and that followers are the receivers of leadership. According to Drath (2001:13), this may be the oldest and conceptually the most basic leadership principle.

The second of his principles for recognising leadership is *interpersonal influence* (Drath, 2001:13). This entails that leadership occurs when a group of people agree and disagree, concur and argue, plan and negotiate until one individual emerges as the most influential and claims the role of leader. As this is different to the first principle mentioned previously, Drath (2001:13) proposes that this is an entirely different way of creating leadership, as described below.

The difference between the first and second principles (Drath, 2001:13) is that, according to the latter, an individual becomes a leader by achieving influence, whereas according to the first principle, an individual becomes a leader by possessing the qualities or characteristics of

leadership. According to the first principle of personal dominance, leadership is in the leader, whereas the second principle proposes that leadership lies within the greater influence created by the process of negotiation. Furthermore, in the first principle influence is one of the many tools that the leader may possess, whereas in the second principle influence must be achieved, and in its achievement, an individual assumes leadership (Drath, 2001:13).

The following truths are taken for granted in this second principle of interpersonal influence:

(i)   Leadership is a role occupied by the most influential person;
(ii) People possess or can acquire certain qualities and characteristics that enable them to be effective in a leadership role;
(iii) Followers are involved actively in the process of negotiating influence and thus leadership; and
(iv) Leaders lead by influencing followers more than followers influence leaders.

Drath explains that this principle has arisen due to certain limitations in the first principle.

The third of his principles for recognising leadership is *relational dialogue* (Drath, 2001:14). According to this principle, leadership occurs when people acknowledge shared work use dialogue and make use of collaborative learning to create contexts in which this work can be accomplished in spite of the potential divisiveness of contrasting perspectives, values, beliefs, cultures and, more importantly, what Drath (2001:14) refers to as differing world views.

The following truths are taken for granted in this principle of relational dialogue:

(i)   Leadership is the property of a social system;
(ii) Individual people do not possess leadership; instead, leadership occurs when people participate in collaborative forms of thought and action; and
(iii) If there is an individual leader, the actions that this person takes are an aspect of participation in the process of leadership.

This third principle is less well-known compared to the previous two principles and Drath (2001:15) proposes that the reason for this is that this principle has only recently emerged and is not fully formed. It has arisen as a direct result of certain limitations in the second principle, as

described on the next page. There are limitations to each of the three principles for recognising leadership, and these will be discussed below.

The first principle, for example, relies on the presence of a dominant leader and the followers who believe in this leader. Without such a leader and such followers, leadership is not possible. Drath (2001:47) identifies this as the most recognisable flaw in this principle, because if the leader is absent from the community or organisation, for any reason, leadership is threatened. Apart from there being a leadership vacuum in such a case, there would also be legitimacy and power vacuums (Drath, 2001:47).

The crisis resulting from such vacuums is not caused by the style or character of the lost leader, but rather by the principle of leadership used by the group to understand leadership. The crisis is born out of the group's epistemology, or way of knowing. For as long as group members understand leadership from the perspective of the first principle, the presence of a dominant leader will be required. Because personal dominance depends on the interrelationship between a dominant leader and followers who believe in that dominance, the loss of key followers also threatens the capacity of the first principle to give rise to leadership (Drath, 2001:47).

Drath (2001:60) suggests that the abovementioned limitations to the first principle of personal dominance can be addressed. He suggests that in the case of the first principle leadership does not lie in some ability possessed by the leader but rather that the essence of the leader's leadership lies in the power of a shared knowledge principle to make sense of leadership in the whole community. Personal leadership from this view point is shared leadership because in order for it to be effective followers and leaders have to make sense of leadership from the perspective afforded by the same principle.

A major flaw in the second leadership principle of interpersonal influence is that it does not provide an effective and efficient way of understanding differing world views. These differing world views are not limited to cross-cultural and cross-national contexts (Drath, 2001:97). The second principle proposes that leadership is a flow of influence from leaders to followers. This tends to restrict individuals and groups that have not had an influence in the past to one of the two approaches. Members either join the existing sources of influence in the hope of eventually winning enough relative influence to make a difference, or enter into conflict with the traditional

sources of influence to win a larger share of power more forcefully (Drath, 2001:97). According to this author, a significant weakness of this principle is that there is a limit to how much influence a person can have due, to the fact that people have differing world views. The assumed truths of the second principle (see page 74) may thus become less valid (Drath, 2001:98).

Drath (2001:101) suggests that the challenges posed by shared work among people who make sense of that work and the world from differing viewpoints have given rise to the third leadership principle of relational dialogue. He asks how these individuals can accomplish leadership tasks while holding their different world views as equal and worthy (Drath, 2001:101).

With the first principle of personal dominance, differing world views are assimilated to the world views of the leader. The leader and followers combine whatever differences in world views they may have, in order to create the capacity to accomplish the relevant tasks (Drath, 2001:125). However, the wider the differences in world views are, the less likely it is that such assimilation can occur. This may lead to limits on the capacity of the first principle to make sense of leadership in contexts in which there are significant differences between individuals (Drath, 2001;125).

The second principle of interpersonal influence increases the range of differences that could be included in the leadership process, by allowing a negotiation of influence that allows the identification of a person whose view is wide or flexible enough to accommodate differing perspectives (Drath, 2001:125). The third principle is a development of the second principle and, according to Drath (2001:125) is a more integrated and holistic way of recognising leadership.

4.4   Leading together: Complex challenges require a new approach

As Drath (2003) has emphasised, a more inclusive and collective leadership approach is required. He says that the reason for this is that leadership has become more difficult as a result of the challenges that are not just complicated, but also unpredictable. Such challenges demand that people and organisations change in fundamental ways, which makes it impossible for an individual leader to accomplish the work entailed in leadership (Drath, 2003). Drath considers this in his book, *Leading Together: Complex Challenges Require A New Approach* (2003).

According to Drath people in organisations both want and need to work together effectively and productively. To some extent, they expect leadership to create the direction, alignment and commitment that will enable them to work together to achieve organisational success. Drath (2003) has noted, however, that it is increasingly difficult to create this direction, alignment and commitment, for a number of reasons. The first is that as organisations break down functional silos and develop a global reach, employees are more likely to have to work with others who are not like them. It is challenging to get individuals who do not share a common set of values and perspectives to agree on a shared direction, and to align with and commit to each other (Drath, 2003).

This is exacerbated by employees not working in close physical proximity to each other as often as in the past. This creates subtle barriers to communication and the development of trust amongst employees. Drath (2003) argues that it is more difficult to shape a common purpose, and to get people aligned with and committed to each other if there is little or no face-to-face communication.

Another reason that it is getting more difficult to make leadership work is that there are changes in attitudes towards traditional ways of practising leadership. It is also challenging to create direction, alignment, and commitment when people have different and sometimes competing ideas of how best to accomplish leadership work, and different levels of readiness for participating in leadership (Drath, 2003).

Drath (2003) suggests that leadership today is more difficult due to increasingly complex challenges. A complex challenge, as referred to in this context, is more than merely a complicated problem. Complexity implies a lack of predictability, and complex challenges involve individuals being confronted with the unknown, which often results in unintended consequences and makes leadership difficult. Due to this unpredictability, a complex challenge differs from a technical problem, which is predictable and can be solved (Drath, 2003). Complex challenges are also more difficult to address because no one can say with any authority or accuracy how exactly things need to change (Drath, 2003).

Drath (2003) argues that when a leader is faced with complex challenges, no matter how skilled the leader may be, he/ she cannot simply step in and start creating a new vision, clarify decisions

and proclaim success. The reason for this is that a complex challenge requires a whole system, and all the individuals within the system in order to change. It is because of these complex challenges that, according to Drath (2003), it is almost impossible for an individual leader to accomplish the work of leadership, and therefore there is a distinct limit to the extent to which individual or personal leadership can be shown in the face of these challenges. Drath (2003) suggests that if no individual can provide leadership alone when confronted with a complex challenge, then perhaps what is needed is the collective action of many people. He explores the possibility that everyone in an organisation could in some way contribute to addressing the challenge (Drath, 2003).

The greatest challenge that organisations and academics face is how to get more people involved in leadership and how to make leadership more inclusive and collective (Drath, 2003). He argues that there are two main problems that continuously prevent the above from occurring. The first is the *too-many-chefs* problem, which suggests that when there are too many differing visions and values, it is difficult to create more leaders as too many individuals already demonstrate leadership (Drath, 2003). The second problem is one of *diffused accountability* (Drath, 2003). When leadership is shared, accountability is also shared; this could develop into a more extreme scenario in which all involved become accountable to the extent that no parties in particular is accountable (Drath, 2003).

The abovementioned two problems are both real, and have been stumbling blocks to several attempts to make leadership more inclusive. The question that arises is how to develop more inclusive and collective ways of making leadership occur without experiencing these problems. Drath (2003) recommends that the whole process through which direction, alignment and commitment are created needs to be developed, not simply the individual leaders concerned. Leadership should be conceptualised as both an individual and a collective process used to accomplish a set of leadership tasks. This, in turn, makes it easier to focus not on the way in which leadership is practised, but rather on what people hope to accomplish with leadership (Drath, 2003).

A useful question that should be posed is what work leadership is expected to perform (Drath, 2003). As mentioned previously, leadership is expected to set direction, create alignment and generate commitment. The *too-many-chefs* problem often rears its head when organisations

appoint more individuals as leaders. When faced with a complex challenge, simply having more leaders who are all trying to say what should get done is hardly the answer. In fact, designating more leaders is likely to only add to the difficulty in accomplishing the required leadership tasks in the face of complexity (Drath, 2003). Drath thus recommends that the solution is not to simply have more leaders, but to create richer and more complex processes of accomplishing leadership tasks.

Addressing a complex challenge requires more complex ways of creating direction, alignment and commitment. The ways in which all employees communicate, think and act together, as well as the culture of the organisation and its systems, all need to become richer and more complex (Drath, 2003). Adding further complexity to an already multifaceted situation may, upon initial consideration, seem to be counter-intuitive. However, Drath (2003) suggests that a process of connected leadership should be introduced. This process should be more collective in nature, instead of relying primarily on individuals, so that the leadership that emerges has sufficient sensitivity and responsiveness to address a complex challenge effectively (Drath, 2003).

Drath (2003) lists three collective capabilities that can be useful in assisting organisations achieve connected leadership. The first is *shared sense-making*. Complex challenges are characterised by confusion, ambiguity and stress. These challenges also often require immediate solutions and, since individuals are forced to confront the unknown and change, reflection is also necessary (Drath, 2003). Shared sense-making is not a problem-solving process, nor is it about defining the problem. Instead, it is the process that comes before a challenge can even be considered a problem. The outcome of this sense-making is a common understanding (Drath, 2003). Shared sense-making firstly involves people paying attention to parts of the challenge, as well as the whole challenge. Individuals are then required to experience multiple perspectives and hold conflicting views in productive tension. Finally, persistent questions about difficult changes can be answered.

The second capability outlined by Drath (2003) is *connection*. Processes of leadership are realised in the connections between people, groups, teams, functions and whole organisations. Complex challenges threaten existing connections. Addressing these challenges requires that people and organisations develop and enhance their connections. The outcome of this capability

is the development of new types of working relationships within and between groups and communities (Drath, 2003).

The third capability is *navigation* (Drath, 2003). A complex problem is not a familiar problem to be solved, but a reality to be faced through change and development. This involves learning from shared experiments, small wins, innovations and emergent strategies. Drath (2003) suggests that no one individual can set a goal whose achievement will resolve the complex challenge that is faced. Individuals need to be sensitive to forces of change as these occur.

It is suggested by Drath that when organisations face complex challenges, people, organisations and communities develop ways of accomplishing the leadership tasks that give more people a sense of being responsible for setting direction, creating alignment and generating commitment. Ultimately leadership should be viewed as a process that humans can control and that can be shaped to meet human needs through intentional choices.

4.4.1 Using connected leadership to address complex challenges

"People intuitively look to their leader to help extricate them from a crisis. But, increasingly, they could be looking in vain. If the crisis is complex, a single leader won't suffice. What the situation calls for is connected leadership – a mobilization of all the people's abilities to produce novel solutions and systematic change" (Drath, 2003:19).

When all is going well and little is changing, leadership is usually not needed in an organisation and good administration and management will suffice. However, leadership is needed when people are confronted by a challenge that is not normal to their ways of working together, particularly when the challenge calls for fundamental changes in their work (Drath, 2003:19). A complex problem is different to an ordinary problem. An ordinary problem is one for which people are prepared in advance, such as a fire in a building. As critically important as this is, it is nevertheless an ordinary problem as there are fire alarms, marked exits and procedures that need to be followed in the case of a fire (Drath, 2003:19). Complex challenges, on the other hand, cannot be anticipated and planned for, and individuals are thus caught unprepared. This can result in pain, confusion and conflict. Complex problems require people to change the way in

which they work together, often in basic and potentially disturbing ways. Drath (20003:19) argues that leadership is indispensable.

Leadership should be viewed as a tool with which people with shared work create the means to confront complex challenges that require them to change. Leadership reflects the capacity of an organisation or community to solve the complex challenges it faces (Drath, 2003:19). This is in contrast to considering leadership as a quality possessed by an individual (see 3.2.4. Instead of seeing leadership as something that is inside a leader, it is rather viewed as something that exits in the relationships between people who work together.

As a result, a distinction can be drawn between personal leadership, which sees leadership as a function of the person who is a leader, and connected leadership, which considers leadership as the function of the relational connections between all people who share work (Drath, 2003:20). Connected leadership does not necessarily imply leadership by consensus, just as personal leadership does not inevitably involve top-down leadership (Drath, 2003:20). Table 4.1 below compares some key beliefs associated with personal and connected leadership.

Table 4.1:   Comparison of beliefs about personal and connected leadership

Beliefs associated with personal leadership	Beliefs associated with connected leadership
Individual persons are the source of leadership.	Relations between and among individuals and groups constitute the source of leadership.
Leadership competence or skill is an individual achievement.	Leadership competence or skill is the achievement of people working together.
Leadership is a social influence process in which leaders influence followers more than they are themselves influenced.	Leadership is a sense-making and meaning-making process in which people with shared work confront their mutual challenges.
Leadership development is accomplished by developing the leadership competence or skill of individuals.	Leadership development is accomplished by developing the way in which people interact with one another.
The leader is individually responsible for leadership outcomes such as direction, alignment and commitment.	Everyone is mutually responsible for leadership outcomes such as direction, alignment and commitment.

Source: Drath, W. (2003). Using connected leadership to face complex challenges. *Mt Eliza Business Review*, 6(2), 21.

Drath (2003:20) reasons that as the complexity of challenges facing organisations increases, the more people will need to understand how to develop and enact connected leadership, and the more limiting it will be for organisations that can only approach these challenges through personal leadership. Complex challenges are experienced as big messes that never seem to go away. They differ from everyday problems because they can never really be solved as such. They can only be transformed into a set of problems, some of which can be solved. Drath (2003:20) suggests that organisations can combat complex challenges by making changes to the organisation's fundamental assumptions, its business model and strategy, values, culture and, most importantly, its leadership strategy.

Connected leadership is more complex than personal leadership, as the former involves the use of a wider range of values and perspectives. Individuals are also expected to be willing and able to assume greater responsibility and accountability (Drath, 2003:21). Furthermore, connected leadership is more unpredictable than personal leadership, more open to possibilities, more creative and less within the control of any individual person. Drath (2003:21) mentions that the greatest challenge is moving away from the comforts of personal leadership to the unknown factors associated with connected leadership; such a change may, nevertheless, equip organisations to better face complex challenges.

4.5   Direction, alignment, commitment

Drath, McCauley, Palus, Van Velsor, O'Connor and Mcguire (2008) argue that the widely-accepted leadership ontology of leaders, followers and shared goals is becoming less useful for understanding leadership in contexts that are increasingly peer-like and collaborative. Therefore, a new and improved ontology, namely Direction, Alignment and Commitment (DAC), is proposed by Drath et al.

The development of Drath's theory begins, in the words of Bennis cited in Drath et al. (2008:3), with the 'tripod' ontology. This is suggested as being the simplest form of leadership, and includes a leader or leaders, followers and a common goal they want to achieve (Drath et al. 2008:3). This ontology is, however, not a definition of leadership but rather something more fundamental in that it is an expression of commitment to certain entities (i.e. leaders, followers and common goals) deemed essential to leadership and leadership theories (Drath et al. 2008:3).

This ontological commitment means that talk of leadership necessarily involves talking about leaders and followers and their shared goals. The practice of leadership can thus be seen as the practices of leaders and followers interacting around their shared goals (Drath et al. 2008:3).

One of the motivations for the development of the DAC perspective is that as the contexts calling for leadership become increasingly peer-like and collaborative, the tripod ontology of leaders and followers may start to impose unnecessary limitations on leadership theory and practice. To replace the tripod's entities of leaders, followers and their shared goals, Drath et al. propose the DAC ontology. Each of the three components in Drath et al's DAC ontology is a leadership outcome, as detailed below:

(i)   *Direction*: This refers to widespread agreement on the goals, aims and mission;

(ii)   *Alignment*: This involves the organisation and coordination of knowledge and work in a collective; and

(iii)   *Commitment*: This is the willingness of the members of a collective to place group interests and benefits above their own individual concerns or interests (Drath et al. 2008:4).

It is thus suggested that by adopting this ontology, leadership discourse would no longer be about leaders, followers and shared goals, but would rather be about direction, alignment and commitment (Drath et al. 2003:4). Therefore leadership would not necessarily involve leaders, followers and shared goals - the components of the tripod ontology - but would rather emphasise direction, alignment and commitment –the DAC ontology (Drath et al. 2003:4).

The question that the tripod ontology poses is who the leaders are and how they interact with followers to attain shared goals. This ontology seeks to explain the characteristics that leaders have and how they influence followers (Drath et al. 2003:4). On the other hand, the DAC ontology seeks to explain how people who share work in collectives produce direction, alignment and commitment. Within the DAC ontology, basic questions would cover the nature and creation of shared direction; the establishment, types and uses of alignment; and the range, development and renewal of commitments (Drath et al. 2003:4).

The ontology that Drath et al. propose is one of outcomes and can be considered to be a pragmatic ontology. Pragmatism can be described as a philosophical outlook committed to the grounding of concepts in outcomes as well as effects (Drath et al. 2003:7). It is argued that

leadership under the tripod ontology has not paid much attention to leadership outcomes, grouping these with goal attainment, and has rather focused on the structure and processes of leadership. A limitation of this approach is that it could create differences in theory that have no impact on outcomes. The DAC ontology proposed by Drath et al. suggests that leadership theory, at its core, would focus on practical outcomes and that theory would be tied to practice at the level of basic vocabulary.

Apart from being a pragmatic approach, Drath, McCauley, Palus, Van Velsor, O'Connor, McGuire, also state that the DAC ontology is also a functionalist one. Functionalist approaches to leadership theory are not common. There are three key benefits of a functionalist ontology, as discussed below. The first is that this approach has the potential to integrate across levels of analysis. Whether the DAC ontology is produced by an individual, dyad, group or organisation those structures can be integrated by a theory focused on outcomes.

Secondly, the function of processes does not determine the structure of these processes and outcomes can be achieved in multiple ways. This enables a functionalist ontology to bridge cultural differences in structure and processes that result in similar outcomes (Drath et al. 2008:8). The third benefit is that a focus on outcomes entails less differentiation in the conception of structure and processes. This differs from the tripod ontology, in which leader-follower processes are markedly different from organisational learning processes. In a functionalist ontology, these would be equivalent as both result in DAC (Drath et al. 2003:8).

A potential problem associated with a functionalist ontology is that there may be problems in identifying functions and outcomes. There could, for example, be difficulty in differentiating between outcomes, and between outcomes and structures that produce these outcomes (Drath et al. 2003:8). It is thus evident that the functionalist ontology proposed by Bennis has several advantages and disadvantages.

There are four main ways in which an outcomes-based ontology, such as the DAC ontology, can act as a more powerful integrative mechanism, Drath et al. (2003:8), as outlined below. The first is that this ontology interacts across many levels of analysis, specifically in terms of leader-follower interactions, which are not limited to any particular level. Secondly, this ontology also has the power of integrating across cultures, assuming that people from all cultures require

something similar to direction, alignment and commitment in order to pursue cooperation and shared work (Drath et al. 2003:9). It is likely that cultural differences could manifest in the structures and processes by which such outcomes are produced. These authors suggest that an outcomes-based ontology provides a common ground for understanding leadership in various local-cultural contexts and developing common practices across cultural differences (Drath et al. 2008:9).

Thirdly, an outcomes-based ontology may also integrate newly emergent theories with existing theories of leadership. This ontology may be beneficial in times of theory integration, as an ontology of outcomes remains flexible and reversible as new forms of practice emerge (Drath et al. 2003:9). Finally, this ontology integrates theory and practice because the theory of such an ontology does not anchor structures and processes. This is in contrast to the tripod ontology, which anchors the vocabulary of leaders and follower. Theories built exclusively around an outcome ontology can be used to follow changes and developments in practice (Drath et al. 2003:9). The interactive potential of the DAC ontology, compared to that of the tripod ontology, is shown in Table 4.2 on the next page.

Table 4.2: **The increased integrative potential of the DAC ontology compared to the tripod ontology**

	Tripod ontology	DAC ontology
Levels of analysis	The tripod is grounded at the level of the dyad – higher levels must aggregate dyadic interactions.	Outcomes are assumed to be produced at every level from dyad, to group and team, to organisation, to inter-organisation, and society overall.
Cultures	Leadership must be re-interpreted as one crosses cultures, because the meaning and use of influence differs across cultures.	DAC outcomes provide a culturally neutral basis for framing leadership while allowing beliefs and practices to vary by culture.
Emerging theory	Emerging leadership theory (e.g. shared leadership) must account for the phenomena it wishes to explain in terms of the leader-follower interaction, which limits the development of new theory.	The DAC ontology does not limit the processes and structures admitted into leadership theory, and thus supports the development of new theory that purports to explain how people with shared work produce DAC.
Theory and practice	Emerging practices that cannot be described in terms of leader-follower interaction are not recognised as leadership and cannot easily be included in leadership theory.	New practices that produce DAC are not only recognised as leadership but may also be generative of new theory.

Source: Drath, W.H., McCauley, C., Palus, C.J., Van Velsor, E., O'Connor, P.M.G., McGuire, J.B. (2008). Direction, alignment, commitment: Toward a more integrative ontology of leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*. 19: 635-653.

As mentioned previously, the DAC ontology consists of three independent outcomes, namely direction, alignment and commitment. Drath et al. (2003) state that each outcome can be produced on its own, without the other outcomes, and that the outcomes can be achieved with varying degrees of effectiveness. Therefore, direction may be attained without alignment or commitment, for example when a collective agrees on its aims but cannot organise itself or gain commitment to these ends on the part of members. Similarly, there may be alignment without direction or commitment. This could be evidenced in a group pursuing collective ends not sought by any individual in the group (Drath et al. 2003:9). Finally, commitment may occur without direction or alignment, as when the members of a collective are passionate in their desire to act, but cannot agree on a shared outcome to aim for or are unable to organise themselves, respectively. The overall effectiveness of the DAC ontology is assumed to be the extent to which

all three elements of DAC are produced and function together in a synthesis (Drath et al. 2003:10).

Direction, within the above context, is shorthand for shared direction and it refers to a reasonable level of agreement in the collective about the aims, mission, vision and goals of the collective's shared work (Drath et al. 2003:10). Agreement about direction, however, entails more than simply knowing and understanding the abovementioned aspects of the collective's existence. It also involves assenting to the value of this direction. When members of a collective create direction, this results in a shared understanding of what is aimed at and a broad agreement on the value of these aims (Drath et al. 2003:10). Direction is not limited to a particular concerted direction. It may thus be conceived and understood in a variety of ways by the collective; there could be a cluster of interrelated agreements on aims and goals. The possibility also exists that direction could be transformed continuously (Drath et al. 2003:10).

Alignment, on the other hand, refers to the organisation as well as coordination of knowledge and work. In large organisations, alignment is often achieved through structure. When the collective is smaller, alignment may be produced through mutual adjustment in face-to-face situations (Drath et al. 2003:10). Within a collective that has achieved alignment, the work that the individuals produce is generally coherent with the work of other individuals and groups. Alignment should not be seen as too close or too tight, but may rather be loose and subject to continuous change (Drath et al. 2003:10).

Commitment, as stated by Drath, McCauley, Palus, Van Velsor, O'Connor, McGuire (2003) is shorthand for mutual commitment, and refers to the willingness of individual members to subsume their own interests within the collective effort and benefit. Within a collective that has achieved commitment, members may allow others to make demands on their time and energy. This concept of commitment may also include loyalty and the reality of competing commitments (Drath et al. 2003:10).

The DAC approach should not be viewed as a once-off effort, but rather as a continuous process, often with a moving target, that changes in response to the changing requirements of the environment in which the collective works. Leadership should not only aim to producing DAC, but to continually recreate, reframe and develop these parameters (Drath et al. 2003:10).

It is also important to note that, despite the key differences between the DAC and tripod ontology's highlighted in Table 4.2, the former includes certain aspects of the tripod ontology and extends this ontology to create a more comprehensive framework for understanding leadership theory. This is illustrated in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3:   Mechanisms by which the DAC ontology transcends and includes the tripod ontology

Tripod ontology	DAC ontology
Characteristics of leaders and followers	Leadership beliefs *Transcend* leader and follower characteristics because leadership beliefs can be about any aspect of how to produce DAC.However, leadership beliefs also *include* beliefs about leader and follower characteristics.
Behaviours of leaders and followers	Leadership practices *Transcend* leader and follower behaviours to involve the total pattern of interactions and systems that produce DAC. Leadership practices nevertheless *include* the leader-follower interaction.

Source: Drath, W.H., McCauley, C., Palus, C.J., Van Velsor, E., O'Connor, P.M.G., McGuire, J.B. (2008). Direction, alignment, commitment: Toward a more integrative ontology of leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*. 19: 635-653

The DAC ontology offers a more integrated vocabulary on which theories of leadership can be built that transcend and include the tripod ontology of leaders, followers and their common goals. The DAC ontology of outcomes supports a view of leadership that encompasses the full range of human activity whose purpose is to bring members of a working collective into the conditions required for the achievement of common, long-term goals.

The tripod ontology of leaders and followers limits future development by grounding leadership in leaders and followers. The main reason for the development of a new leadership ontology, such as the DAC approach, is to create the potential for new leadership beliefs and practices that do not depend on the leader-follower interaction. The tripod ontology can be argued as supporting the view that leadership involves commanding, telling, persuading and influencing (Drath et al. 2003:10). On the other hand, the DAC ontology supports the view of leadership as dialogue and sense-making activities, in which individuals meet each other in the middle and there is mutual transformation. The DAC approach reframes the tripod ontology by taking a fully relational view of leader-follower relations, in which activities such as commanding and influencing are re-conceptualised as mutually-constituted achievements (Drath et al. 2003:10).

4.6   Leadership beyond leaders and followers

Drath (2008) suggests that most definitions of leadership are similar in that they involve some individual or a group of individuals influencing another individual or group. Leadership is usually defined in terms of leaders, followers and the process of influence through which common goals are achieved. Drath (2008) argues that such definitions of leadership conceive of leadership as being so deeply related to leaders and followers that the influence relation between these two parties is regarded as leadership. This poses a problem, as the world is constantly changing in ways that make this concept of leadership too narrow to work effectively (Drath, 2008).

The process of influence described above is an asymmetrical one, in which the leader exerts a larger degree of influence over followers. Drath (2008) believes that people are constantly working in environments in which this asymmetrical relationship of relationship is absent. An example of this is a self-managed team of professionals or a family unit in which the parents are aging and the children are adults in their own right (Drath, 2008). In general, such situations feature a group of people who are equals in the sense that all have more or less the same amount of influence. Within these groups, there is no clear leader as there is no individual with marked asymmetrical influence. Since there is no leader, there are no followers either (Drath, 2008).

The question that is then raised in the above scenario is whether leadership is still present. Drath (2008) argues that if people are going to learn to work together in increasingly interdependent and collaborative ways, being leaderless cannot refer to the absence of leadership (Drath, 2008). He proposes that there is a need to identify other ways of thinking about leadership that go beyond leaders and followers. An example of this is an outcomes-based approach, such as the DAC framework.

There is already much literature on how people produce direction, alignment and commitment through the influence of the leader, but there has been less research on how these outcomes are achieved when there is no leader. DAC does not need to tie leadership to any particular process. Any process used to produce DAC can be perceived as a leadership process. Leaders and followers may be involved in the process of leadership, but their involvement is incidental. The

focus of leadership is thus rather on the mechanisms by which DAC can be achieved (Drath, 2008).

This may perhaps be viewed as disadvantageous, as leadership could thus be seen as occurring everywhere. The danger is that if everything is leadership, nothing is (Drath, 2008). This potential problem could be addressed by carefully identifying only those processes intended to produce DAC. Limiting the idea of leadership to intended outcomes acknowledges that people working together are unlikely to achieve certain things by accident (Drath, 2008). Individuals first need to agree on what they are trying to do in their shared direction. Then they need to get others organised to perform these activities; in other words, alignment, the second component of the DAC framework, needs to occur. Finally, individuals within the group need to be committed enough so that they are willing to work hard when needed. In order for leadership to be present, individuals working together must thus intend to produce DAC (Drath, 2008).

4.7   Summary

Drath proposes that leadership should be reconceptualised as a social meaning-making process involving all the individuals in a group or community. This extends the traditional view in which leadership is seen as a process of dominance or influence (DI) emanating from an individual leader. Drath (1994) regards culture as the grandparent of leadership and the guiding force behind relationships and commitments. The challenges faced by people in organisations require new ways of understanding leadership. Drath argues that connected leadership should be introduced, relational dialogue applied and leaders should be participating and engaging. He also suggests that what is happening in practice may be different to the DI view of leadership.

The current study involved determining the criteria used by a selected Executive Search Company in the placement of leaders within organisations, whether elements of Drath's theory of leadership or something approaching this theory were present in practice and whether Drath's theory or something approaching his theory was an alternative way of meeting the challenges that leadership faces. The results of this research are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

Research Results

5.1   Introduction

Case study research was used in this study as it is appropriate for investigating contemporary phenomena within a real-life context, particularly if the boundaries between phenomena and context are blurred. The purpose of this case study research was to answer the questions as to what criteria were applied by EPC in the selection of leaders, to what extent Drath's theory of organisational leadership is present in practice and whether this theory can be used to approach current leadership issues. The case study was designed to link the data to be collected with the conclusions to be drawn and to represent a logical set of statements with which to determine the quality of the research.

To enhance the validity of the study, various sources of evidence were used (see 3.2.4). A chain of evidence was designed to create a link between the questions asked, the data collected and the conclusions drawn. Analytical generalisation, which is discussed in more detail in Chapter 6, was applied in the analysis of the results to ensure external validity. A single-case qualitative design of the leadership criteria applied by EPC was followed. The preparation of data collected included considering the skills of the case study investigator, preparation for the specific case study, screening candidates and conducting a pilot case study (See section 2.4).

A questionnaire was developed by the researcher, based on the literature review conducted in Chapters 3 and 4. The questionnaire consisted of both open- and closed-ended questions, and was divided into three sections, namely leadership criteria, organisational leadership factors and a conclusion (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was completed by respondents during semi-structured interviews (see 1.4). The pilot case study is recorded as the first answer to each question. The results of the questionnaire are presented in 5.2 below. The researcher used direct quotations, with minimal editing of spelling and grammar, in order to more closely reflect what respondents have said. The questions and answers were layed out in tabular format to ensure a

simple and concise format to view the questions and answers. Within all the tables the capital Q stands for question and the capital A stands for answer. NA stands for not applicable.

5.2   Research Results

5.2.1   Section 1:   Leadership Criteria

Table 5.1: Question 1

Respondent	**Q 1:** Has leadership been important in the organisations in which placements are made? Describe how and why.
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *Absolutely! I have seen a change in leadership within organisations over the years. A lot of companies were run by fear and force. In other words, the organisations were very autocratic and some were bureaucratic but all of them were very hierarchical. Lately leadership styles have changed, incorporating more holistic styles and as a result created flatter organisations. Organisations with flatter and more holistic structures have started to do better than those formal/ force-run organisations.*
b.	**A:** *Absolutely! In the last 10 years especially leadership has become more and more crucial compared to other competencies. Leadership within organisations is made up of technical skills, experience, and behavioural competencies.*
c.	**A:** *Absolutely! The strength of leadership is very important and it is easily seen within the organisations in which we make placements. Within the organisations in which we make placements, leadership is the differentiating factor between strong and weak organisations.*
d.	**A:** *Yes! Within organisations where the leadership is weak one can clearly see fracturing within the organisation. It is important that the leader sets the tone as well as the compass (the leader must provide the direction). Leadership should be more than just technical skills. It is extremely important.*
e.	**A:** *Yes. I can see vast differences between organisations that align their leaders with their organisational cultures and those that don't. The latter don't do as well.*

All five respondents answered in the affirmative to the question whether leadership was important in the organisations in which placements were made. Two participants responded that the strength of leadership could readily be seen in the organisations, and was the differentiating factor between strong and weak organisations. One respondent said that "fracturing" could be seen in organisations with weak leadership. It was, furthermore, important for the leader to set the tone and compass, and leadership involved more than just technical skills. Another respondent concurred, mentioning that leadership comprised technical skills, experience and behaviour.

One respondent noted that she had seen a change in leadership over the years. According to this respondent, in the past leadership styles were characterised by the imposition of force.

92

Organisations were run in an autocratic, bureaucratic and highly hierarchical manner. Now, however, more holistic leadership styles are being adopted. Organisations are also flatter, and these flatter organisations have been performing better than traditional organisations. Another respondent highlighted that there were significant differences between organisations in which leaders were aligned with the organisational culture, and those in which such alignment was not present. The former had enhanced performance.

Table 5.2: Question 2

Respondent	**Q 2:** Describe what you think the role of leadership should be in the organisations in which placements are made?
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *It depends largely on the organisation and where the organisation is within its lifecycle. Leaders should provide the direction and vision through the leadership team.*
b.	**A:** *Technical skills and experience have been the trump cards in the 20th century with behaviour bringing up the rear. However I personally believe that knowledge is no longer key. In the 21st century, behavioural competencies have been and will become the trump card. People are starting to rely more and more on behavioural competencies than on technical skills and experience.*
c.	**A:** *It is very difficult to say, as leadership styles as well as the way organisations are run are constantly changing, so in a way I feel that leaders in organisations should be able to adapt easily and rapidly. More importantly, the leader needs to fit into the organisation's culture. The criteria should be based on the culture of the organisation.*
d.	**A:** *Leadership should be a combination of leading from the front as well as from the back. There must however be some sort of accountability which resides with the leader. Leaders should be able to lead differently in different situations and be able to adjust quickly.*
e.	**A:** *1) Inspiring progress; 2) Standing up to something; 3) Strong individual; 4) To develop other leaders.*

The respondents were asked to describe what they thought the role of leadership should be in the organisations. One respondent said that it depended largely on the organisation and where the organisation was within its lifecycle, and that leaders should provide direction and vision through the leadership team. Another respondent felt that leadership should be that of a strong individual standing up, inspiring progress and developing other leaders. One respondent believed that technical skills and experience were pivotal in the 20th century, but that knowledge was no longer of key importance, and that in this century, behavioural competencies were more important. Meanwhile, another respondent mentioned that leadership should be a combination of leading from the front as well as from the back, and that accountability should reside with the leader.

Table 5.3: Question 3

Respondent	Q 3: Do the organisations specify the criteria for leadership when recruiting an executive? *If YES answer Questions 4 & 5. If NO go to Question 6.*
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *Yes*
b.	**A:** *Yes*
c.	**A:** *No*
d.	**A:***Yes*
e.	**A:***Yes*

Four out of the five respondents stated that organisations specified the criteria for leadership when recruiting an executive. The fifth respondent felt that these criteria were implied and left to EPC to decide upon.

Table 5.4: Question 4

Respondent	Q 4: What are these criteria?
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *The criteria change with every company and depending on the job which is being placed. The criteria come from the organisation.*
b.	**A:** *Technical skills; Experience; Behavioural Competencies.*
c.	**A:** *NA*
d.	**A:** *The criteria given measure different things. For example, if the individual is a strong leader as opposed to an individual who is more of a follower. The process also involves researching the organisation as well as the individual to ensure a perfect fit. The criteria are very strict.*
e.	**A:** *They specify the criteria to ensure good communication in that EPC knows exactly what they are looking for and to ensure that they get someone who understands stakeholder relations.*

As shown in Table 5.4 above, one respondent highlighted that technical skills, experience and behavioural competencies were specified by organisations. Another respondent added that the individual and the organisation had to "fit". None of the other respondents identified any specific criteria apart from one respondent who noted that it was crucial that they found someone who understood stakeholder relations.

Table 5.5: Question 5

Respondent	Q 5: What are the reasons for organisations specifying these criteria?
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *So that when the person is placed that person fits within the organisation.*

b.	**A:** *The reason for the criteria is that they serve as a structured framework for decision-making.*
c.	**A:** *NA*
d.	**A:** *There has to be some sort of performance management. For example, the person must perform otherwise the client company won't be happy. It ensures that EPC fits the right person with the organisation as best they can.*
e.	**A:** *To ensure that there is the best possible fit between the organisation and the candidate being placed there.*

Table 5.5 above illustrates that three out of the five respondents felt that leadership criteria were specified so that there could be a good fit between the individual being placed and the target organisation. One respondent proposed that the criteria served as a structural framework for decision-making, whilst another respondent linked these leadership criteria to performance management.

Table 5.6: Question 6

Respondent	**Q 6:** What criteria for leadership do **you** apply in placing leaders in the organisations?
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *We don't have our own criteria. As I have mentioned it varies with every placement. But I look for individuals with strong intra- and extra-personal qualities. It also depends heavily on what the company wants. It is very objective.*
b.	**A:** *Thirteen years ago I focused on technical skills 40%, experience 40%, and behavioural competencies 20%. Today I focus on technical skills 20%, experience 30%, and behaviour competencies 50%.*
c.	**A:** *I personally look at the individual's track record of the experience the individual has obtained in previous leadership positions. Too often these days technically skilled individuals are placed into leadership roles when they have very little to no experience in being a leader. I also identify the culture of the organisation, as well as management style, to determine certain criteria of which I make use of to identify a leader for that specific company.*
d.	**A:** *I look very closely at the dynamics of the organisation and then try and find a person who would best fit in within that specific organisation. I look more closely at the organisation than the individual.*
e.	**A:** *The criteria come mostly from the organisation but I look for an individual who is comfortable, who communicates well, someone who is good at listening as well as speaking, and lastly someone who is willing to learn and who can inspire change.*

One respondent answered that in the past the focus was on technical skill 40%, experience 40% and behavioural competencies 20% but today the focus is on technical skills 20%, experience 30% and behavioural competencies 50%. Three other respondents mentioned that the experience

95

of the individual was important. Two respondents stated that they considered the dynamics and culture of the organisation, and leaders who would fit best into this context.

Table 5.7: Question 7, 8, 9, 10

Respondent Question	a. (Pilot)	b.	c.	d.	e.
Q 7: (Pilot) What role does the personal dominance of the leader play? (On the scale below, "1" represents "small" and "5" "large").	2	NA	NA	NA	NA
Q 7: What role do the personal characteristics of the leader play (in selection)? (On the scale below "1" represents "small" and "5" "large").	NA	5	5	4	4
Q 8: What role does the intellectual influence of the leader play (in selection)? (On the scale below "1" represents "small" and "5" "large").	4	4	4	3	4
Q 9: What role do the personal attributes of the leader play (in selection)? (On the scale below "1" represents "small" and "5" "large").	4	4	4	4	3
Q 10: What role does the individual expertise of the leader play (in selection)? (On the scale below "1" represents "small" and "5" "large").	3	2	4	4	4

Question 7: Two of the respondents answered 5 out of 5 and two respondents answered 4 out of 5 on a scale of 1 to 5 on the role that the personal characteristics of the leader play in leadership. The pilot question of what role personal dominance played was answered as being 2 out of 5 on a scale of 1 to 5.

Question 8: Four of the respondents answered 4 out of 5 and one respondent answered 3 out of 5 on a scale of 1 to 5 on the role the intellectual influence of the leader plays.

Question 9: Four respondents answered 4 out of 5 and one respondent answered 3 out of 5 on a scale of 1 to 5 on the role the personal attributes of the leader played.

Question 10: Three of the four respondents answered 4 out of 5 and one respondent answered 3 out of 5 and one respondent answered 2 out of 5 on a scale of 1 to 5 on the role that the individual expertise of the leader played.

Table 5.8: Question 11

	Respondent	**a.** (Pilot)	**b.**	**c.**	**d.**	**e.**
Q 11: Are the leaders, in your opinion and experience, required to have the following qualities?						
Confidence:		*Yes*	*Yes*	*Not Necessarily*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Decisiveness:		*Not Necessarily*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Outgoing & Social:		*Not Necessarily*	*Yes*	*Not Necessarily*	*Yes*	*Not Necessarily*

Four participants responded in the affirmative to the question of whether leaders were required to be confident, whilst one respondent stated that confidence was not necessary. Four out of the five respondents agreed that leaders were required to be decisive, while two felt that a leader had to be outgoing and social.

Table 5.9: Question 12

Respondent	**a.** (Pilot)	**b.**	**c.**	**d.**	**e.**
Q 12: Do the leaders have the following powers? Yes/No					
Q 12.1: To employ personnel	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Q 12.2: To terminate employment	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Q 12.3: To determine employee bonuses	*Yes*	*Yes*	*No*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Q 12.4: To report on employee performance	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Q 12.5: To make recommendations for promotion	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*

As shown in the table above, all five respondents agreed that leaders had the power to employ personnel, terminate employment, report on employee performance and make recommendations for promotion. All but one respondent felt that the leaders also had the power to determine bonuses.

Table 5.10: Question 13

Respondent	**a.** (Pilot)	**b.**	**c.**	**d.**	**e.**
Q 13: Are any of the following leadership styles taken into account in placing the leaders? Yes/No					

Q 13.1: That the leader takes a specific approach	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Q 13.2: A task-orientated leader	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Q 13.3: A relationship-focused leader	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Q 13.4: A leader who decides autonomously	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Q 13.5: A leader who allows followers to participate in decisions	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Four respondents answered yes and one respondent answered no to the question whether the leadership style of the leader taking a specific approach, was taken into account. Four of the five respondents answered yes and one respondent answered no to the question whether the style of a task orientated leader was taken into account. All five respondents answered yes to the question whether the leadership style of being a relations focused leader was taken into account. Four of the five respondents answered yes and one answered no to the question whether the leadership style of a leader who decides autonomously was taken into account. All five respondents answered yes to the question whether the style of a leader who allows followers to participate in decisions was taken into account.

Table 5.11: Question 14

Respondent	Q 14: Have there been a change in organisational leadership criteria over the last five years and, if so, what are these changes?
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *Yes! Organisations are looking for more empowering, participating, engaged and connected leaders.*
b.	**A:** *Yes, people are focusing more on behavioural competencies.*
c.	**A:** *Yes I think there has been some sort of change. Notably, there has been a drive away from the autocratic style of leadership towards a more holistic and integrated approach. However, whether organisations admit it or not, they are still looking for strong-willed and driven individuals who can make decisions on their own!*
d.	**A:** *Yes there has been a change in technical ability versus human relations and there is now a lot more emphasis on human relations.*
e.	**A:** *There is a change in organisational leadership since I have been in the business. People are starting to focus more on behavioural commitments and human resource issues.*

All five respondents stated that there had been a change in organisational leadership criteria over the last five years. Two of the five respondents mentioned that there has been a greater focus in

the last five years on behavioural competencies. One respondent stated that organisations were now looking for more empowering, participating, engaged and connected leaders, while another said that there had been a shift in emphasis from technical ability to human relations. According to one respondent, there has been a change from an autocratic style of leadership to a more holistic and integrated approach. That respondent also said that whether organisations admitted it or not they were still looking for strong willed and driven individuals who could make decisions on their own.

5.2.2 Section 2: Organisational Leadership Factors

Table 5.12: Question 15

Respondent **Q 15:** Do any of the following perspectives on leadership exist in the organisations? Yes/No	**a.** (Pilot)	**b.**	**c.**	**d.**	**e.**
Q 15.1: Leadership as a process	*No*	*Yes*	*No*	*Yes*	*No*
Q 15.2: Leadership involving influence	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Q 15.3: Leadership occurring in a group context	*No*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*No*	*Yes*
Q 15.4: Leadership involving goal attainment	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*

Three of the respondents answered no to the question whether leadership was a process and two answered yes. All five of the respondents answered yes to the question whether leadership involved influence. Three of the respondents answered yes and two answered no to the question whether leadership occurred in a group context. All five respondents answered yes to whether leadership involved goal attainment.

Table 5.13: Question 16

Respondent **Q 16:** Do any of the following leadership types exist in the organisations? Yes/No	**a.** (Pilot)	**b.**	**c.**	**d.**	**e.**
Q 16.1: Leadership as a personality trait	*Yes*	*Yes*	*No*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Q 16.2: Leadership as an ability	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Q 16.3: Leadership as a learnt skill	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Q 16.4: Leadership as a behaviour	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*Yes*	*No*
Q 16.5: Leadership as a relationship	*No*	*Yes*	*No*	*Yes*	*No*

All five respondents answered yes to the question whether the leadership types of leadership as a personality trait, leadership as ability and leadership as a learnt skill existed. Four respondents answered no as to whether leadership as a behaviour existed as a leadership style. Three respondents answered no and two respondents answered yes as to whether the leadership style of leadership as a relationship existed.

Table 5.14: Question 17

Respondent Q 17: Do any of the following environmental variables play a role in placing the leaders? Yes/No	**a.** (Pilot)	**b.**	**c.**	**d.**	**e.**
Q 17.1: Market stability	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Q 17.2: Economic influences	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Q 17.3: Social influences	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Q 17.4: Political influences	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Q 17.5: Legal influences	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Q 17.6: Religeous affiliation	No	Yes	No	No	No
Q 17.7: Ownership of the organisation	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
Q 17.8: Control of the organisation	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Q 17.9: Technical skills	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Q 17.10: Financial acumen	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes

In regard to whether environmental variables played a role in placing the leaders, all of the respondents answered yes to market stability, economic influences, social influences, and political influences. Three of the respondents answered no to whether legal influences play a role and the other two respondents answered yes. With regards to religious affiliation four of the five respondents answered that it did not play a role while one respondent said that it did play a role. In regard to whether ownership of the organisation played a role in selection, two respondents said it did not play a role while three respondents said that it did play a role in selection. Only one respondent felt that control of the organisation did not play a role while four respondents said that it did play a role in placing the leader. Four respondents said that technical skills did play a role while one respondent said that it did not. Four respondents said that financial acumen did play a role while one respondent said that it did not play a role in placing the leader.

Table 5.15: Question 18

Respondent	Q 18: Does the corporate culture play a role in the leadership criteria? *If YES answer question 19. If NO proceed to question 20. Yes/No*
a. (Pilot)	*Yes*
b.	*Yes*
c.	*Yes*
d.	*Yes*
e.	*Yes*

All five of the respondents answered yes to whether corporate culture played a role in selection.

Table 5.16: Question 19

Respondent	Q 19: If corporate culture does play a role, what is the role?
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *We and the organisation want someone that will fit into the organisations culture. Either the person must maintain it or change it depending on what is required by the organisation.*
b.	**A:** *There has to be an extremely good fit between the culture of the organisation and the leadership style of the organisation. Therefore the organisations culture plays a very big role in the leadership criteria.*
c.	**A:** *Corporate culture is what drives an organisation and it is in most cases at the heart of an organisations success. So in that sense it is almost crucial to the organisations success that an individual is placed who fits their Organisational culture. In cases where organisations want to change their organisations culture, the organisation needs to decide what type of culture they would like to change into thus they need to look for an individual who will provide that so in both instances Organisational culture plays a very big role.*
d.	**A:** *Organisational culture is very important and candidates need to know into which corporate culture they are going.*
e.	**A:** *The leader that is being placed within that particular organisation must be able to adapt and fit into the organisations culture.*

All five respondents felt very strongly that the leader must fit into the specific organisations culture and that for this or this reason an organisations culture must always be a part of the leadership criteria. Two respondents said that in some cases a leader is required to change an organisations culture and the leader must be able to change the culture as required and one respondent stated that candidates need to know into what corporate culture they are going.

Table 5.17: Question 20

Respondent	Q 20: Are leadership processes in the organisations in which the leaders are placed, taken into account? *If YES answer 21 & 22. If NO proceed to question 23.*
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *Yes*
b.	**A:** *Yes*
c.	**A:** *No*
d.	**A:** *Yes*
e.	**A:** *Yes*

Four of the five respondents said yes to the question whether leadership processes in the organisation in which leaders are being placed taken into account and one respondent answered no.

Table 5.18: Question 21

Respondent Q 21: Are the following leadership processes in the organisation taken into account? Yes/No	a. (Pilot)	b.	c.	d.	e.
Q 21.1: Group responsibility	*Yes*	*Yes*	*NA*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Q 21.2: The sharing of leadership roles	*Yes*	*Yes*	*NA*	*Yes*	*Yes*
Q 21.3: The relationship between the leader and the followers.	*Yes*	*Yes*	*NA*	*Yes*	*Yes*

This question followed on from question 20 and as respondent c answered no to question 20 the respondent did not answer this question. The other four respondents answered yes to whether group responsibility, the sharing of leadership roles, and the relationship between the leader and the follower, are taken into account.

Table 5.19: Question 22

Respondent	Q 22: If any other leadership processes in the organisation are taken into account, what are they?
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *Not sure of any.*
b.	**A:** *There must be even more of a fit between the leader and the board as well as between the leaders and his peers.*
c.	**A:** *Not sure of any.*
d.	**A:** *Not sure of any.*
e.	**A:** *Not sure of any*

102

Four of the respondents answered that they were not sure of any other leadership processes that were taken into account. One respondent answered that there should be even more of a fit between the leader and the board and between the leader and his peers.

5.2.3 Section 3: Conclusion

Table 5.20: Question 23

Respondent	**Q 23:** What do you think are the greatest challenges **currently** facing Organisational leadership?
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *People!! People are the greatest challenge facing Organisational leadership. The Greatest challenge facing Organisational leadership is to attract, retain, motivate, and retract people and employees within the organisation.*
b.	**A:** *Shifting from relying on technical skills and experience to relying on behavioural competencies. Our greatest challenge is that we tend to stick with what we know. We will have to go deeper than Behavioural Competencies into Higher Human Consciousness.*
c.	**A:** *Within the South African context transformation is a very big challenge facing Organisational leadership. The general pace at which change moves is too fast for organisations and leaders to adapt so change is a very big challenge toward Organisational leadership. The economic instability in which the world currently finds its self in is also a very big challenge facing Organisational leadership.*
d.	**A:** *Since 2008 having enough capacity has become a great challenge facing Organisational leadership. A lot of bodies within organisations are not performing optimally. Legislation as well as the political environment are huge challenges facing Organisational leadership. Apart from these present leaders are lazy and leaders aren't learning to lead and leaders aren't teaching leadership. They are not creating new leaders. It has become too easy for leaders to sit back and simply tick the boxes.*
e.	**A:** *1) Transformation, 2) Teaching other people to become leaders, 3) leadership: Leaders are promoted based on their technical skills but once they get to the top and are expected to lead they can't lead very well because no one has taught them how to lead.*

One respondent answered that people are the greatest challenge facing Organisational leadership. The same respondent said that another challenge of Organisational leadership is to attract, retain, motivate and retract people and employees within the organisation. Three of the respondents said that South Africa's present day political climate and specifically transformation is a great challenge facing Organisational leadership. One respondent said that the general pace at which change moves is too fast for organisations and leaders to adapt and change is therefore a very big challenge. One respondent said that a lot of bodies within organisations are not performing optimally and that leaders had become lazy as it had become too easy for them to sit back and

simply tick the boxes. Two respondents said that leaders are not learning how to lead and that leaders are not teaching leadership. One respondent said that the greatest challenge facing Organisational leadership was being able to shift from relying on technical skills and experience to replying on behavioural competencies. The respondent also said that organisations stick to what they know which is a challenge.

Table 5.21: Question 24

Respondent	Q 24: What do you think the criteria of organisational leadership will be in the **future**?
a. (Pilot)	**A:** *Solving people issues within Organisations.*
b.	**A:** *Organisations will start to dig deeper into behavioural competencies and start to study human consciousness. Organisations will want Mandela Type leadership.*
c.	**A:** *Hopefully in the future transformation won't be a part of the criteria and leaders can be chosen irrespective of their skin colour. I think the leader's ability to change will become massive criteria in the future. I also believe intuition will become more and more important in the selection of leaders.*
d.	**A:** *People issues. To be able to mediate between different race groups and leaders also need to be able to facilitate the difficult discussions. Another important factor which needs to address is that of succession planning.*
e.	**A:** *People who have the ability to inspire and work for a common goal. Passion is also something that is over looked within leadership criteria because it is not a technical skill but more of a behavioural competency. I feel very strongly that leaders must be passionate about leading others and not so worried about the technical side of things.*

Two respondents answered that the criteria for Organisational leadership in the future would be to be able to solve people issues specifically to be able to mediate between different race groups. One respondent said that hopefully in the future transformation would not be a part of the selection criteria and leaders will be chosen based on their ability. One respondent said that a criterion for leadership in the future will be the leader's ability to change. One respondent was of the view that intuition will become more and more important in the selection of leaders. One respondent said that organisations will need to go further than behavioural competencies. Organisations will have to start to look for Mandela type leaders. Lastly one respondent said that passion was something that was overlooked within leadership criteria because it is not a technical skill but more of a behavioural competency.

Table 5.22: Question 25

Respondent	Q 25: Are there any comments or suggestions that you would like to make?
a. (Pilot)	**A:** No
b.	**A:** No
c.	**A:** No
d.	**A:** No
e.	**A:** No

None of the respondents had any comments or suggestions. We suspect that the time constraints had more to do with this outcome than a lack of interest in the subject or a lack of ideas.

5.3 Summary

The results of the questionnaire which include the criteria applied by EPC in selecting senior leaders, why leadership is important in the organisations in which placements are made and the changes in leadership criteria over the last five years were determined. Various organisational factors, the role that culture plays in selecting a leader, the challenges facing leadership and views of what the criteria for leadership will be in the future, were also determined.

The purpose of the questionnaire namely, to obtain information relating to the criteria applied by EPC in selecting leaders for organisations and to establish the organisational factors which are present in practice, has been achieved. The information obtained will allow a consideration of whether elements of Drath's theory on organisational leadership are applied in practice, whether executive search companies are placing too much attention on assessing a individual leaders personal criteria and not sufficient attention to social meaning making processes within the organisation and whether the criteria applied are meeting the challenges leadership faces.

Case study research was shown to be appropriate in investigating contemporary phenomena in the real life context of managerial processes. A rigorous procedure was followed in that systematic procedures were followed and equivocal evidence and biased views were not allowed to influence the findings and conclusions (Yin, 2009:14). Multiple sources of evidence were used and a chain of evidence established. The procedures applied were documented. The research has provided a basis for analytic generalisation but the limit imposed by a single case study for

scientific generalisation must be kept in mind (Yin, 2009:115). However as stated by Yin (2009:15) case studies are generalisable to theoretical propositions and not entire populations. To increase the internal generalisability of the findings explicit linkages were made between the research findings and existing knowledge (Babbie & Mouton, 1998:283). The limitations of the case study method is acknowledged and explained, (Bui, 2009:115). The tests of construct validity and reliability have been applied. The pilot questionnaire only revealed one question which was not clear to one respondent and the question was amended appropriately. Open and closed ended questions were successful in addressing the complexities involved. The results obtained will be interpreted in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

Interpretation of Research Results

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 presented the results of this research, which included the criteria used by EPC in the placement of senior leaders in organisations, changes in the criteria used and organisational leadership factors. The purpose of this chapter is to analyse and interpret the results presented in the preceding chapter.

Consideration will be given to whether EPC is applying criteria that focus more on the attributes of the leader than on social meaning making processes. Consideration will be given to whether elements of leadership as a social meaning-making process are present in practice and provide an alternative approach to addressing current leadership issues. Complex challenges facing organisations such as inadequate leadership processes, insufficient leadership participation, transformation and the political and economic environment will be considered. Finally, whether there have been any changes in organisational leadership criteria over the last five years will be considered.

The answers to the questions were largely similar in some instances. Similar answers were given to the questions, whether leadership is important in organisations, whether organisations specify the criteria for leadership, what powers the leaders had, what leadership styles were taken into account, what leadership types existed in the organisations, what environmental variables played a roll, whether leadership processes in the organisations played a roll in the leadership criteria and what roll corporate culture played. The answers were not similar to the questions, what the respondents thought the roll of leadership should be, what criteria were specified by the organisations in which placements were made, what the reasons were for specifying the criteria, what criteria the respondents used in selecting leaders, what changes there have been in organisational leadership criteria and what they thought the greatest challenges were that were facing organisational leadership.

One reason why some of the answers were largely similar may be that the answers reflected the correct factual position. Examples of this may be the answers that leadership is important in organisations and that culture played a large roll in the criteria.

Another reason why some of the answers were largely similar may be that they were not contentious or seen by respondents as not contentious. Examples of this are the answers that the leaders had certain powers, what leadership styles, perspectives and types were taken into account and whether the organisations specified the criteria. There was similarity in the answers relating to what personal attributes of the leader were taken into account. The reason for that may be that those criteria are long established or that the respondents were more familiar with these criteria.

A further reason may be the sample size and the fact that the sample was drawn from only one organisational culture.

Although a trend could not be established in the answers of the individual respondents there were indications that some respondents were more firm in their views than others. One respondent (respondent d) who had previously been a senior executive in an organisation where she had been exposed to the challenges faced by leaders was fairly strong in her answers that there were serious challenges facing leaders including the challenge of transformation. Another respondent (respondent b) who is the chairman of EPC and has the most experience of the respondents expressed a theme of change which is reflected in his answers.

In general there was a reasonable balance in the similarity of the answers. There were few instances where all five respondents gave the same answer. There was also no marked subjective approach by the individual respondents. This line of analysis in which the individual respondents were taken as the point of departure in making sense of the data was therefore not pursued any further. The focus of the interpretation is on the collective and organisational point of view that can be established from a Drathian framework.

6.2 Drath's Theory of Organisational Leadership

This paragraph is a brief summary of Drath's theory which will facilitate a discussion of the results of the research from a Drathian perspective.

Drath (Drath & Palus, 1994:1) proposes that there should be a rethinking of leadership and that leadership should be perceived as a social meaning-making process, instead of as dominance/ influence process. Good leadership should not be centred around the ability of the leader, but rather around effective processes of leadership. Leadership in organisations is more about meaning-making than about decisions and influencing people. Leadership is a social sense-making process that creates interpersonal influences in which all the members of a group or community are engaged.

Meaning-making is a personal, social and collective activity (Drath & Palus, 1994:9). It involves drawing on a common book of given ways of knowing what constitutes a particular culture. Culture is the grandparent of leadership and the processes of leadership are connected to a larger cultural frame (Drath & Palus, 1994). Culture building is the primary process in meaning-making, and culture guides the relationships and commitments (Drath & Palus, 1994).

To understand leadership as a social meaning-making process, the concept of leadership development needs to change from being concerned with developing the individual to developing a whole community, in a process in which each individual takes responsibility for their role in the workplace. This does not suggest that individual leadership training or development be abandoned. Instead, individual skills should be learnt first, and when the individual has been promoted to higher levels of management, the community-orientated and meaning-making capabilities of leadership can be learnt (Drath & Palus, 1994:23). All leadership is shared leadership as leadership does not lie in the abilities of the leader but rather that the essence of the leaders leadership lies in the power of a shared knowledge principle to make sense of leadership in the whole community.

The tripod ontology does not emphasise outcomes, but a key feature of the DAC ontology is the focus on practical outcomes and the linkage of theory to practice.

Drath suggests a framework of principles of defining leadership rather than single definitions of leadership. The three knowledge principles he proposes are personal dominance, interpersonal influence and relational dialogue. Drath (2001) suggests that personal dominance does not lie in the ability possessed by the leader but that the essence of the leader's power lies in the power of shared knowledge of leadership in the whole community. The principle of interpersonal

influence is limited as it does not provide an effective and efficient way of understanding differing world views. The leadership principle of relational dialogue happens when people who acknowledge shared work use dialogue and collaborative learning to accomplish work across dividing lines of differing perspectives, values, beliefs, cultures and differing world views. Instead of seeing leadership as something inside a leader it should be seen as something that exists in the relationships among people who share work. Complex and unpredictable challenges make leadership more difficult. Leadership is made more difficult when organisations break down functional silos and develop global reach and where people work with others who are not like them. People who do not share a common set of values and perspectives find it difficult to agree on a common direction, to align and to commit to each other. Instead of seeing leadership as a set of personal qualities leadership should be viewed as the capacity of an organisation to solve complex challenges. Connected leadership which is the mobilization of all the people's abilities to produce novel solutions and systematic change should be instilled to overcome complex challenges.

There are various reasons why leadership should be rethought.

The challenges faced by people in organisations require new ways of understanding leadership. Managers were starting to call for and to develop new models of leadership such as organizing around teams, breaking down functional boundaries, increasing diversity and trying to foster a learning organisation. It was getting harder to be functional as organisations were breaking down functional silos and were developing a global reach in that people were working with others who were not like them.

Organisations were becoming more diverse and if organisations were going to embrace world views and differing cultures they would need to embrace different values, philosophies and ideas and that was unlikely to be achieved by an individual who would unlikely be able to generate a vision and enlist people of different cultures to implement his vision. Organisations were changing and a new model of leadership that pointed towards continuous development and adaptive change was required. Practice was running ahead of theory.

Drath's theory should not be seen as conflicting or contradictory to the DI view. His theory should rather be seen as complimenting and extending the DI view. Drath for example does not

110

say that personal dominance and influence play no role. He merely sees personal dominance and influence playing a different role and within a social meaning making process. Drath reframes the leadership debate and emphasises the socially constructed nature of leadership as a social phenomena. What Drath is actually saying is that the leader as a sine qua non of leadership is not the only one way of thinking about leadership. Drath is suggesting other ways of thinking about leadership that may be appropriate in meeting the complex challenges that require more than an individual leader acting individually to solve.

6.3   Research Findings from a Drathian Perspective

The criteria applied by the EPC in placing leaders is set out in chapter 5 and the main criteria applied are: the culture of the organisation; the management style and dynamics of the organisation; leadership styles have become more holistic; organisations were looking for more empowering, participating, engaged and connected leaders; behaviroal competancies were important; leaders had to be more relationship focused and had to allow follower participation in decision makinking; the personal characteristics, intellectual influence and technical ability of the leader; leaders who decided autonomously, were task orientated and who advanced goal attainment.

Various elements of Drath's theory were found to be applied including: the culture and management styles of the organisation, leaders had to be more empowering, participating, engaged and connected, leaders had to be relation focused and to allow follower participation is decision making and leadership styles had changed from being beauracratic and behavioural to being holistic.

The research results (see 5.2.1) confirm that leadership in organisations is important and ever increasingly important. The strength of leadership is the differentiating factor between weak and strong organisations. Fracturing of leadership occurs in weak organisations. Leadership sets the tone of an organisation and leaders are still required to provide the vision and direction of the organisation. Organisations have become less hierarchical and bureaucratic and have become flatter.

All five respondents agreed that culture plays a role in the criteria used to place leaders (see 5.2). One respondent said that corporate culture drives an organisation and is at the heart of the

organization and "plays a very big role". Organisations in which leaders are aligned with the organisational culture tend to be more successful than organisations in which this is not the case. Two respondents said that the leader that is being placed must be able to adapt and fit into the organisation's culture, (see 5.2.2). The effect of the answers by all five respondents is that corporate culture plays a large role in the leadership criteria. The conclusion of this may be that the key consideration facing organisations is thus not the personal attributes of the leader, but rather the culture of the organisation into which he/ she is to be placed.

These views are in accordance with those of Drath (1994), who states that culture is the grandparent of leadership, the processes of leadership are connected to a larger cultural frame and culture building is the primary process of meaning making and that culture guides our relationships and commitments. Drath (1994) gives the reason why culture is important namely it provides individuals with givens in the form of names for things and ways of classifying and thus interpreting things. Drath et al. (2008:9) suggest that an outcome based ontology such as the DAC provides a common ground for understanding leadership in various local-cultural contexts and for developing common practices across cultural differences.

The results suggest that the management style and dynamics of the organisation should also be taken into account to ensure that the leader fits into a specific organisation. One respondent said that the leader needs to understand stakeholder relations. One respondent explained that the organisation as well as the individual should be researched to ensure a good fit. This may indicate that the management style and dynamics of the organisation are part of the process of leadership.

One respondent said that leadership styles have changed incorporating more holistic styles and as a result have created flatter organisations which have started to do better than bureaucratic organisations. Autocratic styles are more aligned to an individual leading by personal dominance and influence than leadership being the end product of social meaning-making processes. The movement towards a more holistic and integrated approach may indicate that the leader should be part of the social meaning-making processes in the organisation and should represent the end product of these processes.

The respondents were asked whether there had been any changes in the criteria used over the last five years (see 5.2.1 question 14). All of the respondents answered that there had been changes. The changes were that organisations were looking for more empowering, participating, engaged and connected leaders, there was more of a focus on behavioural competencies and human resource issues and there had been a change from requiring technical ability to behavioural competancies.

The changes in criteria may indicate a movement away from selecting leaders who exert personal dominance and influence, to leaders who participate in the social meaning-making process of leadership. These changes may also support Drath's view that practice may be running ahead of the theory and that leadership in organisations is more about social meaning-making processes than about dominance and influencing people. Furthermore, the results may show that the role of an individual leader is afforded less significance, and that leadership may rather be seen as existing in the relationships among people who work together. The change to more participating and connected leaders may have been brought about by the increasingly complex challenges facing leaders. (See 4.2)

Various leadership styles were taken into account. All of the respondents (see 5.2.1) said that the styles of a relationship-focused leader and of a leader who allows followers participation in decisions were applied. Four of the respondents said that the styles of a task orientated leader and leader who decided autonomously were also applied.

A traditional leader made decisions without the participation of followers. Although academics such as Northouse (2002) see the DI leadership process as requiring leaders and followers to be seen in relation to each other, that does not include followers participating in decisions. The extent to which the followers take responsibility in participating in leadership, plays a role in determining leadership. Leadership is then not dependant on the ability of the leader but, as Drath states it is dependent on the relationships formed by people working together. It is the nature of the relationship that constitutes leadership. It is noteworthy that the research showed that the two leadership styles mostly taken into account were of a leader allowing followers to participate in decisions and, more importantly, that of a relationship-focused leadership style. Drath states that leadership is a social sense-making process that creates interpersonal influences in which everyone in the group is involved. Direction, alignment and commitment which support

113

leadership as dialogue and sense making is then the result. The two sides do not act fortuitously, but rather act together intentionally. To make meaning, people must not only act individually, but also together in relational dialogue.

Personal dominance as a criterion for the selection of leaders has declined in importance, according to the findings shown in 5.2.2. When the personal attributes of the leader have less influence in leadership and leadership is exercised by groups and there is a relationship between the leaders and followers then leadership should be viewed as the property of a social system of relationships. This is in accordance with Drath who states that when people no longer see dominance and influence as the basis of leadership people no longer need to think of leadership predominately in terms of leaders and followers but as a social meaning making process in which everyone in the community is engaged.

All the respondents answered question 17 (see 5.2.2) in regard to environmental variables that the environmental variables of market stability, economic influences, social influences and political influences play a role in the placement of leaders. The environmental variables of legal influence and religious affiliation, emerged as less important in the research. Political and social influences relate particularly to the background in which organisations operate. Market stability, and economic influence may add to the instability of the environments in which organisations operate, thus increasing the difficulty of the challenges faced by leaders. The leader does then not function merely through his/ her personal attributes, but also with regard to the ever-present, larger context.

Four of the respondents said that the personal attributes and characteristics of the leader and the intellectual influence of the leader played a large part in the criteria used. The individual expertise of the leader played a lesser role. Two of the respondents said that previously technical skills and experience of the leader were paramount but that they have decreased in importance and behavioural competencies were now more important. Four of the respondents said that a leader had to have confidence and be decisive. The leaders had the powers to employ personal, terminate employment, determine employee bonuses and to report on employee performance. Four of the five respondents said that the leadership styles of the leader taking a specific approach, a task orientated leader and a leader who decided autonomously were used. Four of the

114

respondents said that the leadership types of leadership as a personality trait, as ability, as a learnt skill and as a behaviour were used.

These results may show that the personal dominance and influence of the leader are still extensively used by EPC as criteria for leader placement.

Draths theory was also shown to be an alternative way of approaching the callenges facing leadership in organisations. Organisations where leaders were aligned with the organisations culture performed better. Organisations with a flatter less authoritarian approach were beginning to perform better. The organisations required vision and direction through a leadership team. Organisations were looking for more empowering participating and engaged leaders to overcome leadership challenges.

Beavioral competancies were becoming more important than technical skills in order to meet the challenges facing leadership.

The results also suggest that leadership is not adequately meeting the challenges it faces. The results suggest that leaders may not have adequate training in leadership and the ability to lead. There is a challenge to create, attract, retain and motivate leaders. Leaders seem not to demonstrate sufficient expertise and may not be performing optimally. According to one respondent it is too easy for leaders to sit back and tick the boxes (see 5.2.2). This may show that there is no connection in the leadership and that there is a lack of accountability and responsibility by the individual leaders. There may be inadequate social meaning-making processes to support leaders, resulting in inefficiency on the part of the latter and problems in addressing the complex challenges that organisations face.

Leadership is not adequately meeting the challenges. The EPC may have been placing too much emphasis on the leader's personal criteria and not enough attention to the social meaning-making processes of leadership within organisations. According to Drath, at times of crisis, responsibility should not be thrust onto one individual but rather onto a group.

The results also highlighted that transformation and affirmative action policies present a significant challenge to leadership processes (see 5.2.2). Affirmative action is a policy or program that seeks to address past discrimination though active measures to ensure equal

opportunity, for example in education and employment. In applying affirmative action in the workplace, candidates from designated groups are given preference in employment placements. Respondents indicated that the pace at which change was occurring was too rapid to allow for suitable adaptation by organisations and leaders (see 5.2.2).The results indicate that the implementation of affirmative action policies has resulted in a big challenge for organisations (see 5.2.2). The top-down leadership process may not be able to cater for the leadership challenges caused by affirmative action. Functional silos may have broken down. One of the major causes of the problem may be cultural differences. The business environment had an exclusive European culture, whereas there was now a strong emerging black culture. People from these different cultures may have difficulty in communicating with each other. The individuals may not able to meet these challenges on their own. There may be a breakdown in the leader-follower relationship in that personal dominance has a limitation as it depends on the interrelationship between the leaders and followers and requires the latter to believe in the leader.

The findings suggest that further research is required in regard to the affect of affirmative action policies in the placement of leaders in organisations.

Drath notes that one of the disadvantages of using interpersonal influences as a requirement for leaders is that it does not recognise differing world views. Challenges relating to the implementation of affirmative action policies may potentially be addressed through social meaning-making processes. This would allow for enhanced connection between leaders, and greater relational dialogue. Individual leaders may need to take more responsibility for leadership processes.

Drath's relational model depends on dialogue and shared meaning-making. In this view, knowledge is found in shared sense-making, which is created by engagement and dialogue. In addition, relational dialogue explicitly considers the need for an individual to not only understand his/ her own worldview, but to understand differing worldviews and to create a cross-worldview dialogue with others. This is what may be required in the case of affirmative action within South African organisations. Organisations could consider employment equity and affirmative action workshops where misconceptions and misunderstanding of affirmative action could be explained. Individuals need to realise the importance of understanding one another's cultures and beliefs before the issues surrounding affirmative action and leadership can be

tackled. In the words of Drath there may be insufficient direction, alignment and commitment. This may be difficult to achieve, as highlighted by Drath, since the functional silos have broken down and the leaders in organisations may not share a common set of values.

The various elements of social meaning-making processes that are present have been described thus far show that what is occurring in practice has moved ahead of the DI view of leaders and followers interacting in a top-down process. Criteria relevant to both the DI view and Drath's theory are applied. This supports Drath's approach that the DI view should be extended in terms of the socially constructed nature of leadership as a social phenomenon. This was described by one respondent who stated that leadership should be a combination of leading from the front as well as from the back. Although there has been a change in the criteria used over the last five years, the ECP may be placing too much emphasis on the leader's individual criteria and not giving sufficient consideration to the context in which the leader must fit and to social meaning-making processes. A respondent coroberated that in stating that whether organisations admit it or not, they are still looking for strong willed and driven individuals who can make decisions on their own. The criteria presently applied by EPC in selecting leaders appears to be inadequate in meeting the challenges faced by leadership in organisations. The social meaning-making processes of leadership need to be better understood and developed.

CHAPTER 7

Limitations, Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1   Introduction

The objectives of this study (see 1.3) were to determine the criteria for leadership used by EPC, to assess whether Drath's theory of organisational leadership was present in practice and whether this theory provides an approach to the complex challenges faced by leadership. Various conclusions in this regard have been reached, as outlined in 7.3.

7.2   Limitations

There were various limitations to this study. Firstly, this research was conducted in one organisation. The validity of the study would have been enhanced if research was conducted at several executive placement companies. This would have given more cogency to the findings and a better basis for generalising the results.

The study could also have benefited from interviewing employees in the organisations into which leaders were placed by EPC. This would have enabled a comparison between the data obtained from EPC employees and that obtained from the employees of these organisations. This was unfortunately not possible, due to time constraints and work pressures rendering the employees of these organisations unavailable.

Another limitation was that this study only considered the criteria used in the placement of senior leaders. The criteria used for the selection of middle and lower-level managers did not fall within the scope of this study. Although the criteria used in the placement of these non-senior leaders may have been the same as those for senior leaders, additional data may have been obtained.

7.3   Conclusions

This research determined the criteria used by the Executive Placement Company, changes in leadership criteria and various organisational leadership factors.

118

The major criterion used was the fit between the leader and the culture of the organisation into which this individual would be placed. Key considerations in assessing this degree of fit were the management style of the individual and the dynamics of the organisation. Another criterion that was used was the personal attributes of the leader, such as experience and technical ability. The personal dominance of the leader was also used as a criterion, but to a lesser degree.

There were changes in the criteria used by EPC in the last 5 years. The approach seems to be less autocratic and flatter and more holistic. There also seemed to be a change to more empowering, engaging and connected leaders. Group participation in leadership and relationship leadership were also favoured in comparison to individual centred decision making and leadership.

Various elements of Drath's theory were evident in practice. These include that the culture of the organisation was an important criteria, that the personal attributes of leaders played a diminishing role, there was a change from an autocratic style of leadership towards a more integrated approach, the leadership styles of a relations focused leader and a leader who allowed follower participation were present and there was a change to more empowering, participating, engaged and connected leaders. This supports Drath's view that what is happening in practice is different to the view of leadership as constituted solely by the leader as an individual through his/ her personal attributes. There were indications that EPC was applying criteria that focus more on the individual attributes of the leader, rather than on the social meaning-making processes in the community.

There were complex challenges in leadership practice that were not being met effectively. One of these was the application of affirmative action policies. Another challenge was the presence of cultural differences and contrasting world views in the workplace, which seemed to undermine traditional notions of leadership through personal dominance and influence. Considering leadership as a broader, social meaning-making process, as suggested by Drath, may be a means by which leadership can address these complex challenges more effectively.

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APPENDIX A

Question Template Used for Company

This questionnaire relates only to the placement of senior managers, general managers and directors in organisations ("leaders"). The research is a study of the criteria for leadership applied by EPC in the placement of leaders in organisations. You are asked to reflect on how you see the role of leadership being defined by the organisations in communications and appointments.

Please write and circle the relevant answer where applicable.

Section 1:   Leadership criteria

1.   Has leadership been important in the organisations in which placements are made? Describe how and why.

2.   Describe what you think the role of leadership should be in the organisations in which placements are made?

3.   Do the organisations specify the criteria for leadership when recruiting an executive?
        If YES answer question 4 & 5. If NO go to question 6.

                                                              YES   **NO**

4.   What are these criteria?

124

5.   What are the reasons why the organisations specify those criteria?

For the following questions please give your opinions based on your personal experience at Leaders Unlimited.

6.   What criteria for leadership do **you** apply in placing leaders in the organisations?

7.   What role do the personal characteristics of the leader play (In Selection)? (On the scale below "1" being small and "5" being large).

                                                                          1   2   3   4   5

8.   What role does intellectual influence of the leader play (In Selection)? (On the scale below "1" being Small and "5" being Large).

                                                                          1   2   3   4   5

9.   What role does the personal attributes of the leader play (In Selection)? (On the scale below "1" being Small and "5" being Large).

                                                                          1   2   3   4   5

10.   What role does the individual expertise of the leader play (In selection)? (On the scale below "1" being Small and "5" being Large).

                                                                          1   2   3   4   5

11.   Are the leaders in your opinion and experience required to have the following qualities?

        Confidence: **YES**   **NO**   **NOT NECESSARILY**
        Decisiveness: **YES**   **NO**   **NOT NECESSARILY**
        Outgoing & Social: **YES**   **NO**   **NOT NECESSARILY**

12.   Do the leaders have the following powers:

    12.1   to employ personnel   **YES**   **NO**

    12.2   to terminate employment   **YES**   **NO**

    12.3   to determine employees bonuses   **YES**   **NO**

    12.4   to report on employees performance   **YES**   **NO**

    12.5   to make recommendations for promotion.   **YES**   **NO**

13.   Are any of the following leadership styles taken into account in placing the leaders?

    13.1   That the leader takes a specific approach   **YES**   **NO**

    13.2   A task orientated leader   **YES**   **NO**

    13.3   A relationship focussed leader   **YES**   **NO**

    13.4   A leader who decides autonomously   **YES**   **NO**

    13.5   A leader who allows followers to participate in decisions. **YES**   **NO**

14.   Has there been a change in organisational leadership criteria over the last five years and if so, what are the changes.

Section 2: Organisational Leadership Factors

15.   Do any of the following perspectives on leadership exist in the organisations?

    15.1   Leadership as a process   **YES**   **NO**

15.2	Leadership involving influence	**YES**	**NO**

15.3	Leadership occurring in a group context	**YES**	**NO**

15.4	Leadership involving goal attainment	**YES**	**NO**

16.   Do any of the following leadership types exist in the organisations?

16.1	Leadership as a personality trait	**YES**	**NO**

16.2	Leadership as an ability	**YES**	**NO**

16.3	Leadership as a learnt skill	**YES**	**NO**

16.4	Leadership as behaviour	**YES**	**NO**

21.5	Leadership as a relationship	**YES**	**NO**

17.   Do any of the following environmental variables play a role in placing the leaders?

17.1	Market stability	**YES**	**NO**

17.2	Economic influences	**YES**	**NO**

17.3	Social influences	**YES**	**NO**

17.4	Political influences	**YES**	**NO**

17.5	Legal influences	**YES**	**NO**

17.6	Religious affiliation	**YES**	**NO**

17.7   Ownership of the organisation   **YES**   **NO**

17.8   Control of the organisation   **YES**   **NO**

17.9   Technical skills   **YES**   **NO**

17.10   Financial acumen   **YES**   **NO**

18.   Does the corporate culture play a role in the leadership criteria?
If YES answer question 19. If NO proceed to question 20.

      YES   **NO**

19.   If corporate culture does play a role, what is the role?

20.   Are leadership processes in the organisations in which the leaders are placed, taken into account?
If YES answer 21 & 22. If NO proceed to question 23.

      YES   **NO**

21.   Are the following leadership processes in the organisations taken into account –

21.1   Group responsibility   **YES**   **NO**

21.2   The sharing of leadership roles   **YES**   **NO**

21.3   The relationship between the leader and the followers.   **YES**   **NO**

22.   If any other leadership processes in the organisation are taken into account, what are they?

Section 4: Conclusion

23.　　What do you think are the greatest challenges **currently** facing organisational leadership?

24.　　What do you think the criteria of organisational leadership will be in the **future**?

25.　　Are there any comments or suggestions that you would like to make?

The information furnished by you will be kept confidential and will only be used for the purposes of this study. Thank you very much for your time and co-operation. Your contribution is highly appreciated.

APPENDIX B

Letter of Permission from the CEO of EPC
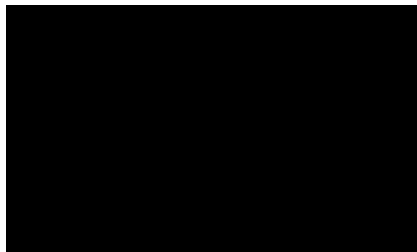
30th March 2012

Departmental Ethics Screening Committee (DESC)
University of Stellenbosch

Dear Sirs / Madam,

Richard Burman has asked me for permission to carry out certain research at the company as part of a dissertation for the degree M PHIL (Knowledge Dynamics and Decision Making).

The research will include interviewing directors and employees of the company involved in the placement of leaders in organisations.

I hereby grant him that permission and I will arrange the necessary interviews.