



**North-West University School Business School
MBAD 821
LEADERSHIP**

Contact 1

***Theme 1: The historical development of leadership
theory***

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Module information

Module code	MBAD 821
Module credits	12
Module name	Leadership
NQF	9
Qualification	MBA
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Module outcomes

- **After completion of the Leadership module, the student will:**

- Provide and **integrate specialist knowledge** to enable **engagement** with, **critique current** leadership research or practices, and **practically apply** a *comprehensive and systematic knowledge base* of **key terms, principles and theories** on leadership;
- Use a wide range of **specialised skills** in identifying, conceptualising, designing and the *use of methods, techniques and technologies of enquiry*, **to address, complex and challenging real world issues** appropriate to leadership and **write up a research report** ;
- Design and implement a **strategy for processing and managing information**, in order to conduct a comprehensive **review of leading and current research**, use the resources of academic and professional or occupational discourses to **communicate and defend substantial ideas** that are the products of research or development, and use a **range of advanced and specialised skills** and **discourses appropriate** to the field of leadership, to **communicate effectively** in a multi-cultural environment and with people at different levels of knowledge or expertise; and
- Have the capacity to **operate independently and take full responsibility** for his or her own work, **account for leading** in applying introspection and reflexivity and initiate processes and implement systems, **ensuring responsible leadership** through effective, efficient and ethical governance practices.

Topics

- The historical development of leadership theory
 - Leadership theories
 - Research lenses
- Leadership behaviour
 - Meta category of leadership behaviour
- Leadership competencies
- Leadership skills
- Emotional intelligence (EQ)

Study outcomes

- **After studying this study unit, you should be able to:**
 - Provide a brief description of the **historical development** of leadership theory
 - Identify the common **traits** possessed by successful leaders
 - Discuss the two **different assumptions** about **human nature** according to McGregor
 - Explain **various leadership theory**
 - Explain the **similarities** between the different **behavioural theories** of leadership
 - Provide a hierarchical **taxonomy of leader's behaviour**
 - Discuss **change behaviour as a meta category** of leadership behaviour
 - Distinguish between and describe leadership **competencies** and leadership **behaviour**
 - Define **emotional intelligence** (EQ)
 - Explain the **importance** of EQ
 - Explain the **link between EQ** and employee and organisational **outcomes**
 - Use the constructs discussed in the study material and **propose a model** to be **tested in a research project**.

Study material

- Czabanowska, K., Smith, T., Könings, K. D., Sumska, L., Otok, R., Bjegovic-Mikanovic, V., & Brand, H. (2013). In search for a public health leadership competency framework to support leadership curriculum—a consensus study. *The European Journal of Public Health*, ckt158.
- Jian, G., & Fairhurst, G. T. (2017). Leadership in Organizations. *The International Encyclopedia of Organizational Communication*, 1-20.
- Shresta, A.K., & Baniya, R. (2016). Emotional Intelligence and Employee Outcomes: Moderating Role of Organizational Politics. *Business Perspectives and Research*, 4(1), 15-26.
- Yukl, G., Gordon, A., & Taber, T. (2002). A Hierarchical Taxonomy of leadership Behavior: Integrating a Half Century of Behaviour Research. *Journal of leadership and Organizational Studies*, 9(1), 15-32.

Models and Theories

- **Leadership Traits**

- The strong man approach

- **Leadership Styles and Behaviours**

- T. McGregor (1906-1964) theory X and Y
- Ohio State University Research
- University of Michigan Research
- The Leadership Grid (Blake and Mouton)

- **Contingency Approaches**

- The continuum of Leadership Behaviour
- Fielder's Contingency Model
- Path-Goal Theory
- Action Centred Leadership

Leadership Traits

- Leadership theories that attempt to identify the **common traits** possessed by **successful leaders**. These traits included:
 - Adaptable to situations
 - Alert to social environment
 - Ambitious and achievement oriented
 - Assertive
 - Cooperative
 - Decisive
 - Dependable
 - Dominant (desire to influence others)
 - Energetic (high activity level)
 - Persistent
 - Self-confident
 - Tolerant of stress
 - Willing to assume responsibility

T. McGregor (1906-1964) theory X and Y

Theory X

- The average human being has an inherent **dislike of work** and **will avoid it** if he or she can.
- Because of this human characteristic, most people must be **coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened** with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organisational objectives.
- The average human **being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility**, has relatively **little ambition**, and **wants security** above all.

Theory Y

- The expenditure of **physical and mental effort** in work is as **natural as play** or rest.
- External control and threat of punishment are **not the only means** for bringing about effort toward organisational objectives. People will **exercise self-direction and self-control** in the service of objectives to which they are committed.
- Commitment to **objectives is a function of the rewards** associated with their achievement.
- The average human being learns, under proper conditions, **not only to accept responsibility but to seek it**.
- The **capacity** to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organisational problems is **widely**, not narrowly, **distributed I the population**.
- Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the **intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilised**.

Ohio State University Research

- A series of studies at the University indicated that **two behavioural dimensions** play a significant role in successful leadership.
- Those dimensions are:
 - **Consideration**
 - friendship,
 - mutual trust,
 - respect and
 - warmth
 - **Initiating Structure**
 - organises and defines relationships or roles,
 - establishes well-defined patterns of organisation,
 - channels of communication, and
 - ways of getting jobs done.

University of Michigan Research

- Studies carried at the university **revealed two similar aspects of leadership style** that correlate with effectiveness:
 - **Employee Orientation** –
 - the human-relations aspect,
 - in which employees are viewed as human beings
 - with individual, personal needs)
 - **Production Orientation** –
 - Stress on production and the technical aspects of the job,
 - with employees viewed as the means of getting the work done.

Gary M. Yukl

- He felt that there was a void in existing descriptions of leader behaviour.
- They did not provide specific guidelines for behaviour in varying situations.
- He and his colleagues isolated eleven leadership behaviours which fall into four broad categories:
 - **Building Relationships**
 - Networking
 - Supporting
 - Managing conflict
 - **Influencing People**
 - Motivating
 - Recognising and rewarding
 - **Making Decisions**
 - Planning and organising
 - Problem solving
 - Consulting and delegating
 - **Giving / Seeking Information**
 - Monitoring operations and environment
 - Informing
 - Clarifying roles

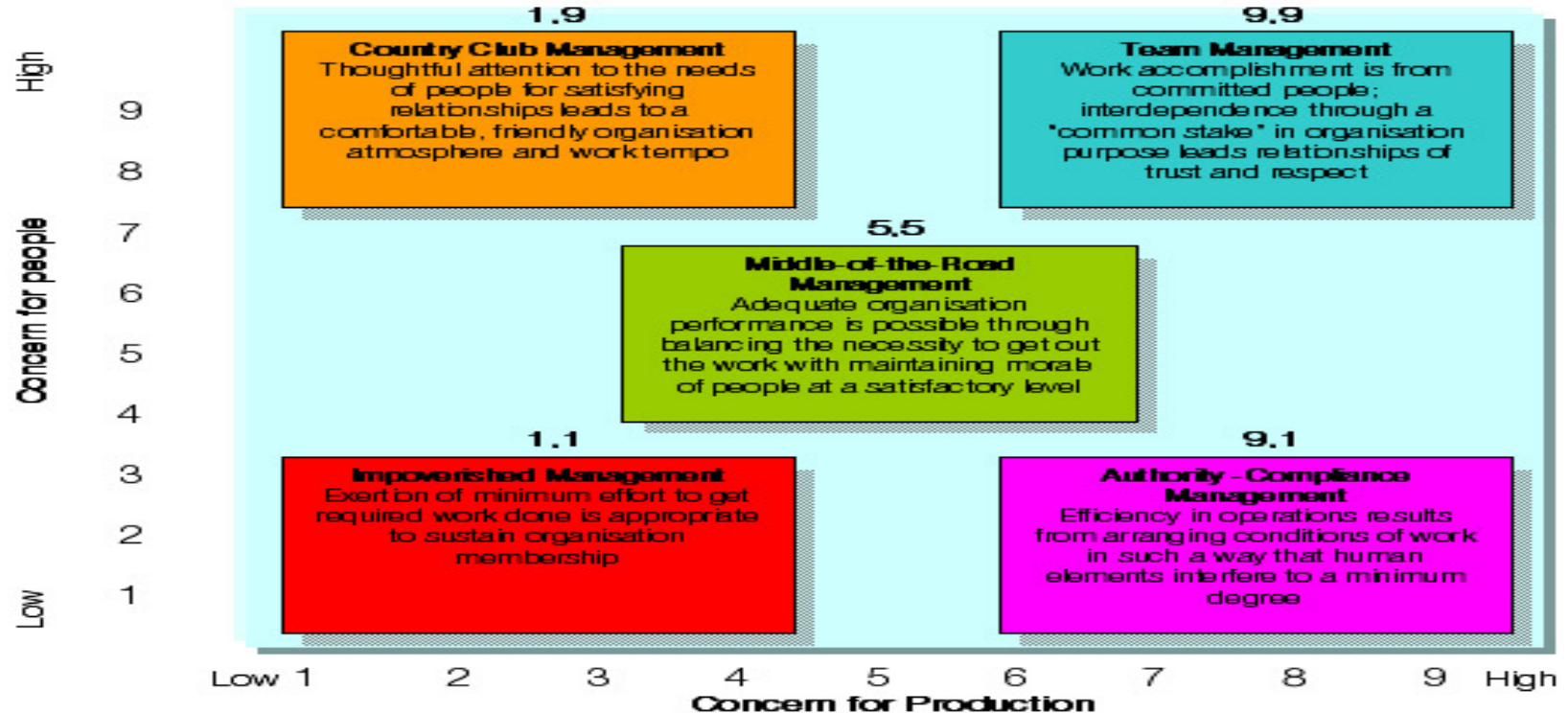
The Leadership Grid

Robert Blake and Jane Mouton

- They developed another theory called the Leadership Grid,
 - focusing on **production/relationship orientations**
 - uncovered in the **Ohio State and Michigan University studies**.
- They went a little further by creating a grid based on
 - Leaders' concern for **people** (relationships) and
 - **production** (tasks).
- It theory suggest **there is a best way** to lead people the 9,9 way.

The Leadership Grid

The Leadership Grid



The Leadership Grid

1,1 Impoverished management. Often referred to as Laissez-faire leadership. Leaders in this position have little concern for people or productivity, avoid taking sides, and stay out of conflicts. They do just enough to get by.

1,9 Country Club management. Managers in this position have great concern for people and little concern for production. They try to avoid conflicts and concentrate on being well liked. To them the task is less important than good interpersonal relations. Their goal is to keep people happy. (This is a soft Theory X approach and not a sound human relations approach.)

9,1 Authority-Compliance. Managers in this position have great concern for production and little concern for people. They desire tight control in order to get tasks done efficiently. They consider creativity and human relations to be unnecessary.

5,5 Organisation Man Management. Often termed middle-of-the-road leadership. Leaders in this position have medium concern for people and production. They attempt to balance their concern for both people and production, but they are not committed.

9+9 Paternalistic “father knows best” management. A style in which reward is promised for compliance and punishment threatened for non-compliance

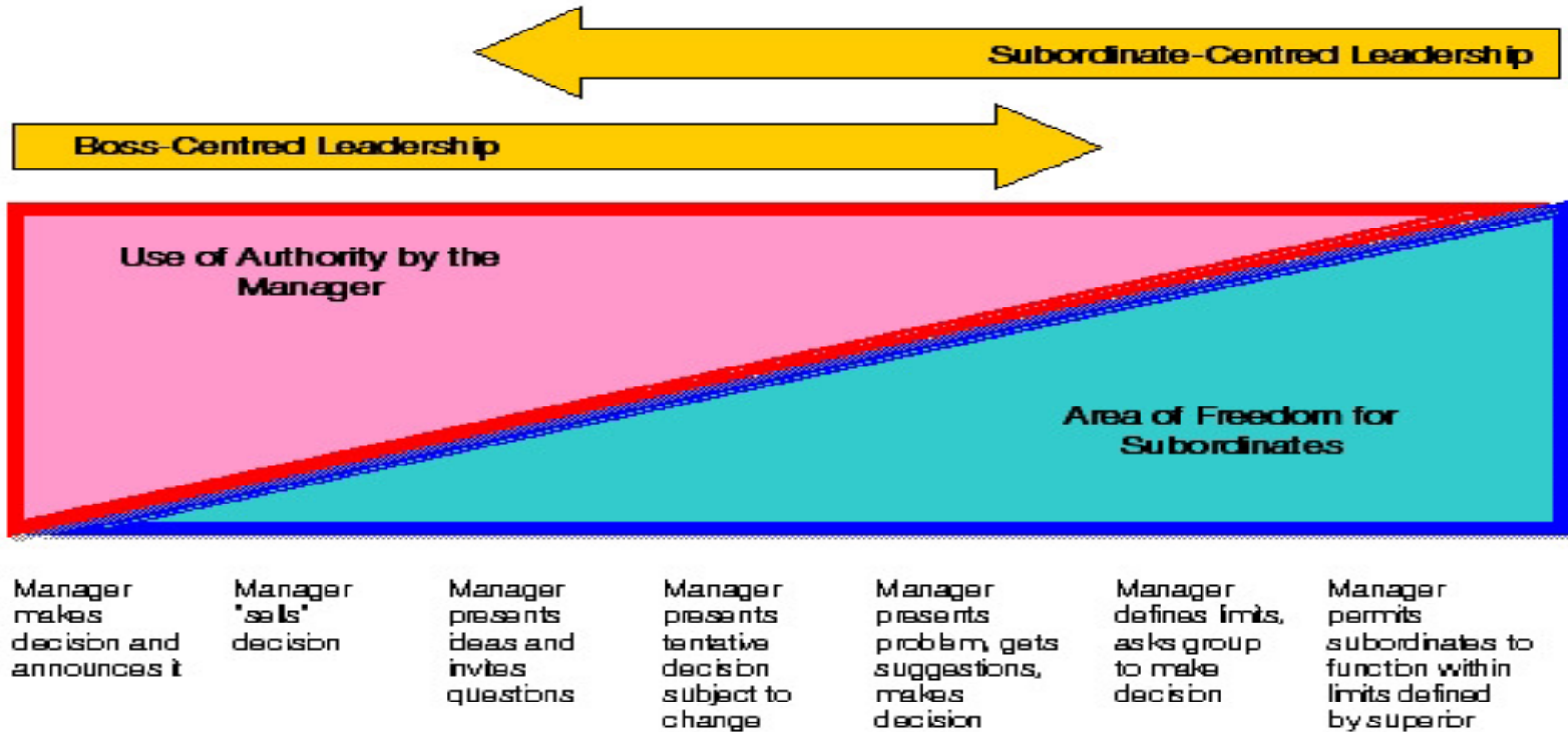
Opportunistic “what’s in it for me” management. In which the style utilised depends on which style the leader feels will return him or her the greatest self-benefit.

9,9 Team Management. This style of leadership is considered to be ideal. Such managers have great concern for both people and production. They work to motivate employees to reach their highest levels of accomplishment. They are flexible and responsive to change, and they understand the need to change.

Contingency Approaches

- Contingency theories propose that for any given situation there is a best way to manage.
- Contingency theories go beyond situational approaches,
 - which observe that all factors must be considered when leadership decisions are to be made.
- Contingency theories attempt
 - to isolate the key factors that must be considered and
 - to indicate how to manage when those key factors are present.

The continuum of Leadership Behaviour



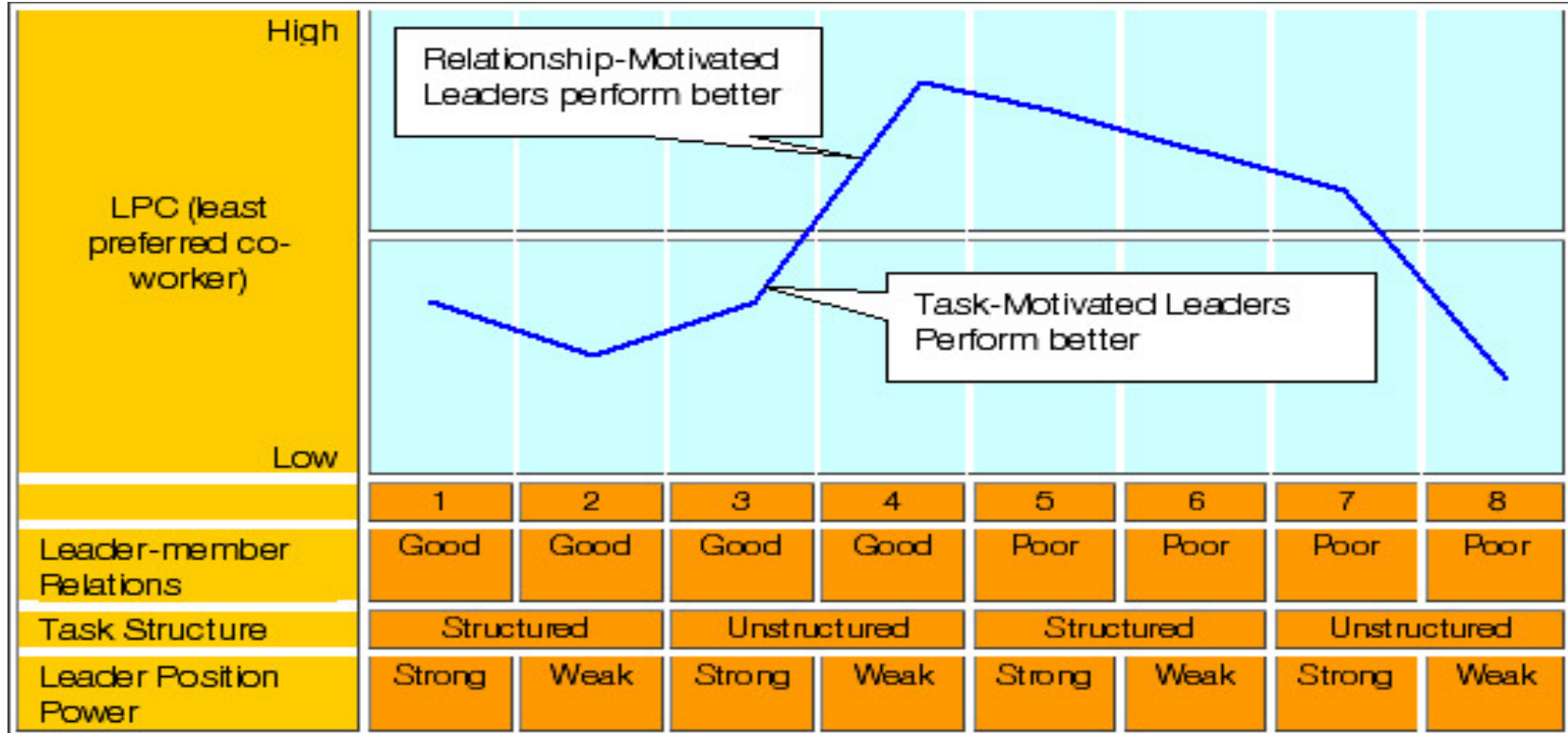
The continuum of Leadership Behaviour

- leadership in terms of choices managers may make regarding subordinates' **participation in decision making**
- The actions shown at the left side of the continuum are relatively **authoritarian**; those at the right side are relatively **participative**.
- The manager's choices depend on three factors:
 1. **Forces in the manager**: The manager's value system, confidence in subordinates, leadership inclinations, and feelings of security in an uncertain situation.
 2. **Forces in the subordinate**: Expectations, need for independence, readiness to assume decision-making responsibility, tolerance for ambiguity in task definition, interest in the problem, ability to understand and identify with the goals of the organisation, and knowledge and experience to deal with the problem.
 3. **Forces in the situation**: Type of organisation, effectiveness of the group, the problem itself (the task), and time pressure.

Fielder's Contingency Model

- In this model leadership is effective
 - when the leader's style is appropriate to the situation,
 - as determined by three principal factors:
- 1. Leader-member relations:** The nature of the **interpersonal relationship** between leader and follower, expressed in terms of **good through poor**, with qualifying modifiers attached as necessary. It is obvious that the leader's personality and the personalities of subordinates play important roles in this variable.
 - 2. Task structure:** The nature of the **subordinate's task**, described as **structured or unstructured**, associated with the **amount of creative freedom** allowed the subordinate to accomplish the task, and how the task is defined.
 - 3. Position power:** The degree to which the **position itself enables** the leader to get the group members to comply with and accept his or her direction and leadership

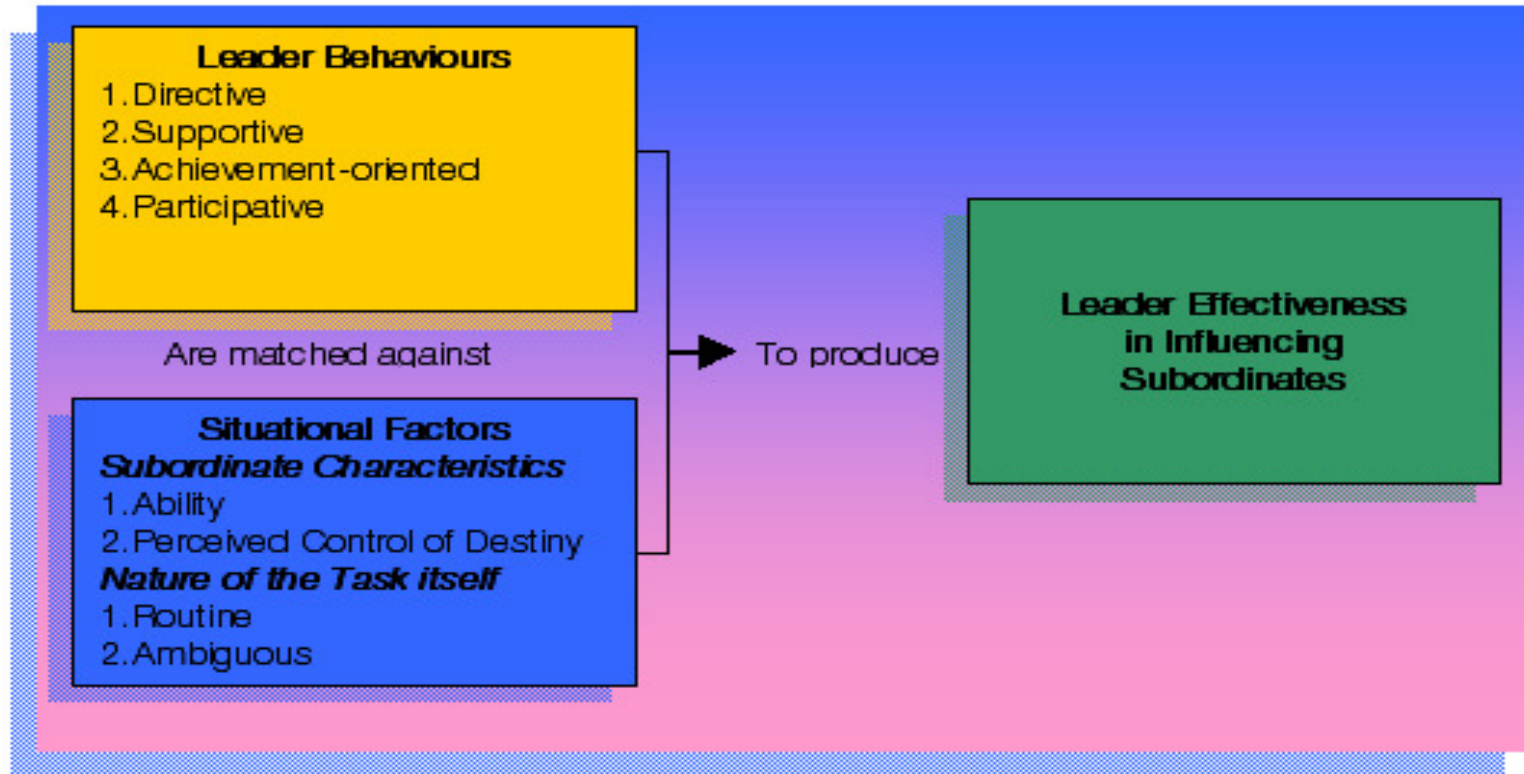
Fielder's Contingency Model



Path-Goal Theory

- A leadership theory that focuses on **the need for leaders to make rewards contingent on the accomplishment of objectives and to aid group members in attaining rewards by clarifying the paths to goals and removing obstacles to performance.** According to the goal-path theory there are four primary styles of leadership:
 1. **Directive Leadership:** The leader **explains the performance goal** and provides specific **rules and regulations** to guide subordinates toward achieving it.
 2. **Supportive Leadership:** The leader displays **personal concern for subordinates**. This includes being friendly to subordinates and sensitive to their needs.
 3. **Achievement-oriented Leadership:** The leader **emphasises the achievement of difficult tasks** and the importance of excellent performance and simultaneously displays confidence that subordinates will perform well.
 4. **Participative Leadership:** The leader **consults with subordinates** about work, task goals, and paths to resolve goals. This leadership style involves **sharing information** as well as consulting with subordinates **before making decisions**.

Path-Goal Theory



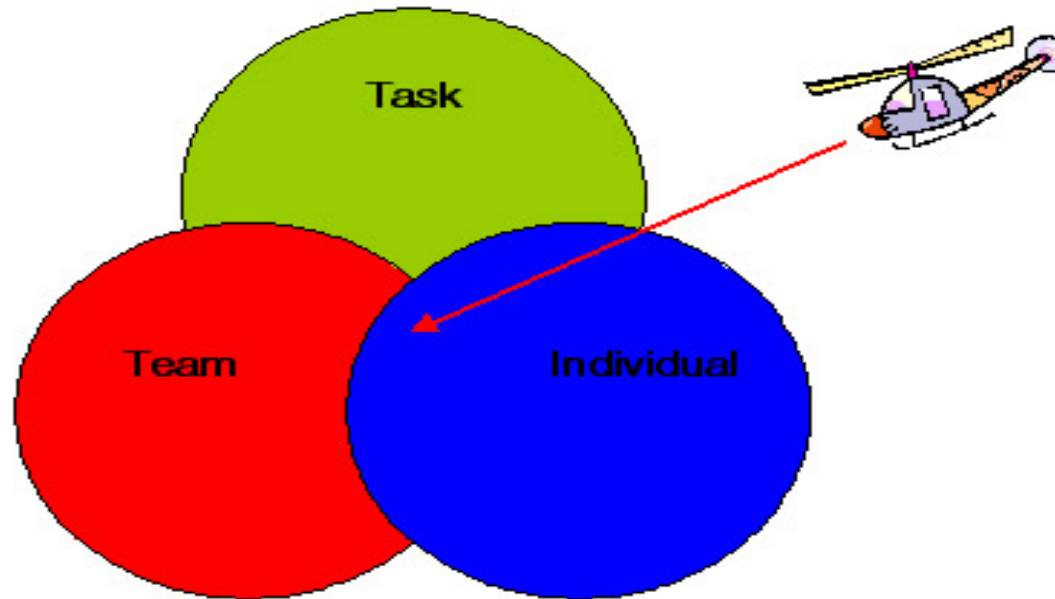
Action Centred Leadership

- A model proposed by John Adair (1973) argued that it is **not who you are but what you do** which establishes you as a leader.
- A leader **needs to balance** the needs of the **task, the team and the individual**, shown clearly in the diagram below in his **3 circle model**.
- The effective leader **carries out the functions and demonstrates the behaviours appropriate** to the circles, **varying the level** according to the needs of the situation.
- The leader **whilst balancing the three circles**, sits in his/her **helicopter above the process**, ensuring the **best possible overview of what is happening**

Action Centred Leadership

- **Leaders Behaviour under Task**
 - Providing clear Objectives
 - Providing appropriate procedures
 - Ensuring there is evidence of progress
 - Ensuring avoidance of digression
 - Ensuring deadlines are met
- **Leaders Behaviour under Team**
 - Commitment
 - Trust & Openness
 - Sense of purpose
 - Stability
 - Cohesion
 - Success
 - Fun
- **Leaders Behaviour under Individual**
 - To be included
 - To make a contribution
 - To be respected
 - To receive Feedback
 - To feel safe
 - To grow

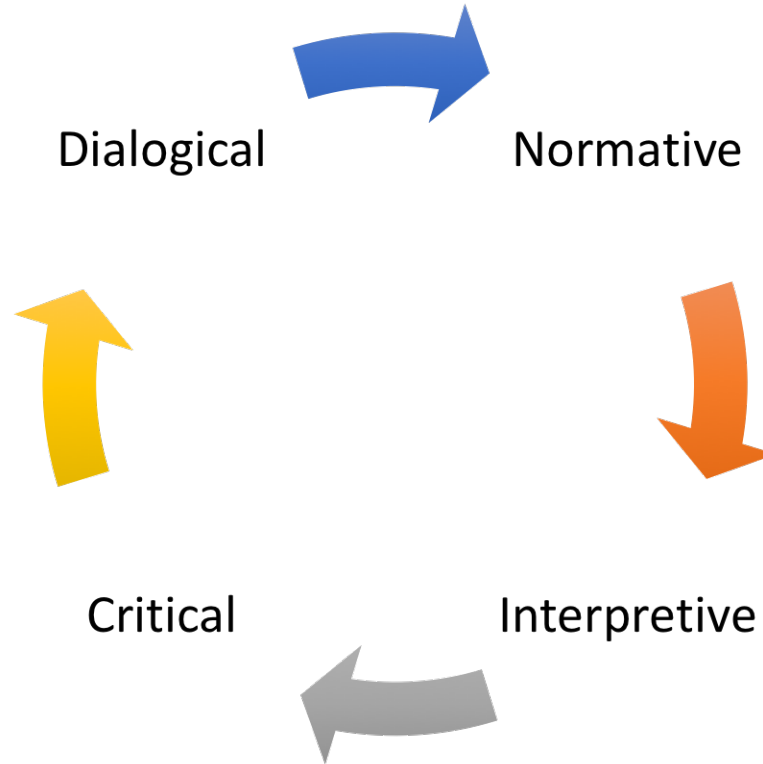
Action Centred Leadership



Jian, G., & Fairhurst, G. T. (2017). Leadership in Organizations. *The International Encyclopedia of Organizational Communication*, 1-20.

Leadership in Organizations.

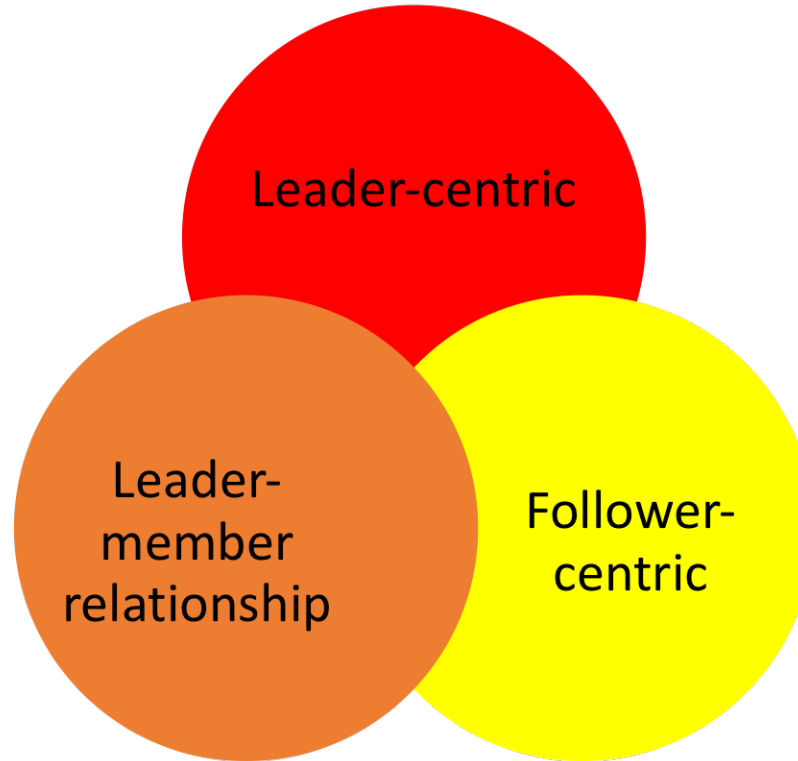
The lenses of leadership research



Normative lense

- Refers to a way of **doing, writing, and thinking** about **social sciences**
 - modeled after the **physical sciences**.
- Researchers see **social phenomena**, as
 - “naturally existing **objects** open to **description, prediction, and control**” (Deetz, 2001, p. 19).
- These objects are seen as
 - part of a **natural reality**,
 - external to the **mind of a researcher**,
 - which is to be **discovered in a fashion similar** to the way **physical objects** are **subject to scientific scrutiny**.
- The goals are
 - to **create theories** in the form of lawlike **propositions**
 - that **define and categorize** the **properties** of these objects and
 - describe the **relationships between** the **focal object** and **others**.
- The practical aim is
 - to **control and harness** the **performance** of these objects
 - in the form of **social practices**, such as leadership evaluation and training.

Areas of study of the Normative lens



Areas of study of the Normative lens: Leader-centric

- Trait approach
- Capabilities approach
 - Problem focused cognition: problem solving skills
 - Organisation cognition: assessing organisational conditions and constructing solutions
 - People centered cognition: social judgment skills (negotiations, persuasion)
- Behavioural and situational approach
 - The Ohio State Leadership Studies and the University of Michigan Studies.
 - Leadership orientations:
 - Task and structure / people and relationships.
 - Democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire styles (power and decision-making)
 - The situational leadership model.
 - In this model, leader style is matched with followers' level of maturity and competence.

Areas of study of the Normative lens: Follower-centric

- **Neo-charismatic theories**

- Globalization, shifting market conditions, and new technologies transform organisations
- Looking for new forms capable of envisioning these changes
- Visionary, charismatic, and transformational leadership.

- **The romance of leadership**

- Based on the **sense making and attributional processes of followers** and other observers.
- Leadership becomes a **convenient sense making device** or **explanatory category** that people **use to make causal inferences** between events, leaders, and organisational outcomes
- Social **contagion** - describes the **spread of leadership perceptions** among followers in a group.

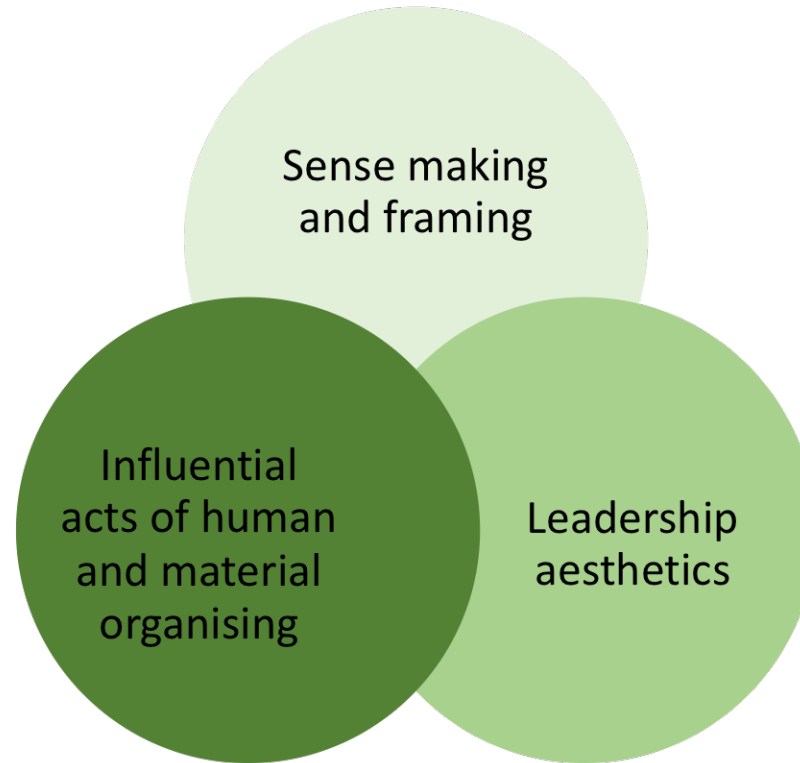
- **Leadership categorization theory**

- People make **sense of the world through cognitive categories**, or schemas that are **mental representations of knowledge** gained through **social learning**.
- Leadership is a **cognitive category**, known as the **leadership prototype**, which people use to **process social information**.
- Followers **recognize** leadership by **matching informational stimuli** they experience with their **cognitive leadership prototype** (e.g., a leader is self-confident, sets goals, and so on).

Areas of study of the Normative lens: Leader-member relationship

- Leader–member exchange theory (LMX).
 - **Relationship development** between leaders and “members,” or followers.
 - Leaders **discriminate in their treatment** of members
 - based on their **willingness to go beyond** the terms of their job descriptions or formal employment contract;
 - in return, leaders **reward members with a greater share** of their **discretionary resources**.
- **High-quality relationships** (sometimes referred to as “in-group” relationships),
 - more challenging tasks that can develop a member’s skillset,
 - inside information,
 - greater autonomy in decision making,
 - career coaching, and
 - support from the leader.
- **Low-quality relationships** (sometimes referred to as “out-group” relationships),
 - members typically **do not go** beyond the terms of their employment contract and thus
 - enjoy a much smaller share of the leaders’ resources.
- **Medium-quality LMX** relationships usually fall somewhere in the middle.

Areas of study of the Interpretive lens



Areas of study of the Interpretive lens: Sense making and Framing

- Leaders and followers **act and form their identities**
 - based on the ways in which they **construe the situations** that befall them.
 - Sense making is not just a think-first, act-second **rational sequence of moves**.
- Sense making **may be retrospective**, “How do I know what I think until I see what I say?”
 - In other words, **we may act into a situation and make sense of it later on**.
- It may also **be collective**,
 - when the **meaning** of a situation is **debated and decided** through a **co-created definition** of “the situation here and now.”
- Leadership **attributions are often given**
 - to those who can **help others confidently sort** through the uncertainty or decidability of a situation
- Sense making can be
 - **individual or collective**,
 - **prospective or retrospective**.

Areas of study of the Interpretive lens: Sense making and Framing

- When leaders or followers **try to influence each other's views** of the world to help them make sense of it **in particular ways**,
 - this is often called **framing**.
- Frames are the **cognitive meaning structures** that we possess (an **optimistic** versus **pessimistic outlook**),
 - while framing is the **act of influencing those structures** (“Can’t you see that your glass is half full, not half empty?”).
- We also often **define ourselves**, individually and collectively, from **within these structures** (e.g., “**Who am I in this context? Who are we?**”);
 - thus, the study of individual and collective identity is also tied to leadership sense making and framing activities.

Areas of study of the Interpretive lens: Sense making and Framing

- When interpretive scholars **study leadership** sense making,
 - they **often interview** leaders and followers.
- They may **want to know how**, through framing,
 - leaders and followers **introduce, understand, or adopt a new** organisational change initiative.
- They may also **want to contrast its framing** by multiple stakeholders
 - to reveal how **frames conflict and coincide**.
- Finally, they may **want to understand the identity work** of leaders and followers as they try **to reconfigure new individual and/or collective selves** from within a **change initiative**;
 - such identity framing may signal **how much they are identifying** with the **requested change** and thus **likely to adopt it**.

Areas of study of the Interpretive lens: Leadership aesthetics

- The notion of charisma, vision, and culture **all share a sense of the aesthetic** – the art form of leadership ...
- This requires **forms of analysis** ...
 - sensitive to style, to the creation of meaning, and to the dramatic edge of leadership
- Analysts might study **discourses, narratives, storytelling, metaphors, ambiguity, or other language forms** to understand the ways in which leaders or followers in performative fashion
 - **persuasively define context,**
 - **display authenticity,**
 - **create a sense of purpose,**
 - **win ethical commitments, or**
 - **trigger emotions.**
- The aesthetics genre is also **much more likely to consider** leaders' and followers' **bodies**, including
 - gendered bodies,
 - in addition to the words and symbols invoked.
- Interpretivists **criticize the normative lens** for too **much reliance** on the **cognitive and symbolic**
 - to the neglect of **body possibilities** (e.g., gesturing), **artifacts** (e.g., clothing, technology), and even **emotions** (e.g., contagion) that affect **attributions of leadership,**
 - but often in **ways too difficult to measure**

Areas of study of the Interpretive lens: Influential acts of human and material organising

- With this orientation researchers **want to know the kinds of interactional moves** that
 - **Help mobilize collectives**
 - study how leaders **facilitate consensus**,
 - move **discussions toward closure**, and
 - spur **decision making**
 - the ways in which **leaders bond** with followers (e.g., through use of the collective “we”)
 - to create **collective identities**, win commitments from them, or reinforce their obligations.
 - **Define leadership relationships**
 - study **language games** leaders and followers play together that ultimately create the **high-, medium-, and low-quality relationships** described above in leader–member exchange theory.
 - **Enact organisational strategy.**
 - study the ways in which senior **managers bring the organisation’s history** into “strategy talk,”
 - how they **invoke amoral order**, or use organisational knowledge.
 - how **strategy talk finds its way** into the **average performance appraisal** to note the ways in which middle managers guide their followers to organizational priorities.

Areas of study of the Critical lens

Denaturalization

- Tries to understand how **certain leadership situations** appear “natural” or “**the way things are.**”
- Power operates diffusely and under the radar in this genre as a result.

Dialectics

- Critical leadership scholarship argues that issues of **control and resistance** are never a simple **either/or choice.**

Areas of study of the critical lens

- The critical lens is **easy to understand** if one takes all the **sensibilities of an interpretive lens** and
 - **adds power to the mix.**
- Most interpretive researchers **leave open the possibility of power and politics** (**waiting for one or more leadership actors to make an issue of them**);
- Critical studies take them as their **starting point** and foreground them.
 - However, they do so **in various ways.**
- **Marxist or neo-Marxist** perspectives
 - focus on **forms of control that privilege elites** such as managers, owners, or shareholders.
 - They **might dismiss the term leadership altogether**, or cast it as a **form of domination**,
 - **citing the normative lens**, consultants' business books, or consulting forays **designed to advance the latest and greatest new form of leadership.**
- **Postcolonial** leadership studies
 - **critique the dominance of Western views** of leadership in a global business context.
 - They **probe the excessive influence** of the United States, in particular, for **presuming universal standards** by which other **non-US locales are judged** to be effective and efficient **without regard to local conditions** and circumstances.

Areas of study of the critical lens: Denaturalization

- Particular **emphasis is given to discursive practices** involving language systems, texts, or ways of talking **along with such non-discursive practices** as
 - institutionalized structures,
 - social practices, or
 - techniques regulating what appears normal or natural.
- Discursive leadership **examines the intersection of “little d” and “big D” Discourse** language practices
 - “little d” discourse language practices
 - how leaders and followers take turns in social interaction,
 - invoke or create social categories in talk,
 - use forms of address
 - “big D” Discourses that are more enduring sociohistorical systems of thought that
 - supply communicating actors with linguistic repertoires of terminology,
 - habitual forms of argument,
 - concepts, and
 - Categories
 - Parker (2005) wrote about the ways in which Discourses of *race neutrality* impact African American women leaders through *unquestioned assumptions of superiority and inferiority* directed toward them.

Areas of study of the critical lens: Denaturalization

- Some within this denaturalization genre **critique the mainstream leadership Discourses of the normative lens** for
 - **hyping the practice of leadership** when,
 - in actuality, it **may involve a great deal of mundane work**
 - that **does not match the romanticized rhetoric** of many popular leadership Discourses.
- These **critical researchers believe**
 - managers are **too susceptible to inflating their jobs**, although other critical scholars challenge this argument.
- If leaders, followers, or any other constituency are **using the term leadership**,
 - the **power- and influence-oriented language** games they are playing
 - **deserve investigation** even though they may **share only a family resemblance**.

Areas of study of the critical lens: Dialectics

- In leadership situations, **these poles may fold into each other**,
 - operate at more than one level, or
 - mask each other's effects.
- Tensions like **control and resistance** often take on **paradoxical qualities** for these reasons;
 - thus, it is better to cast their intertwined relationship as one of struggle.
- This continues to **redefine leadership**
 - less in terms of hierarchical position and
 - more in terms of situating leaders and followers at the intersection of these tensions and
 - their ability to manage them.
- Giddens's (1979, 1984) **structuration theory**,
 - complex organisations are always marked by an “antagonism of opposites” and
 - the dialectic of control where the less powerful exert a measure over the powerful.

Areas of study of the critical lens: Dialectics

- For example, Jian (2007) used a structuration lens **to study the unintended consequences of a planned organizational change**.
 - Demonstrating the dialectic of control through conflictual relationships between a variety of management and employee groups,
 - organisational leaders needed to shift from monologues to dialogues to more substantively ground the organisational change and minimize unplanned outcomes.
- Also, besides control/resistance, **many such tensions have been researched**, including
 - order/disorder, rationality/irrationality, overt/covert, dissent/consent, predictable/unpredictable, men/women, reason/emotion, exploration/exploitation, stable/fluid, and many more.
- Increasingly, the process of organizing **appears to emerge from the collision of these forces**;
 - they have become the new normal rather than anomalies or system breaches
- The **routine processes and discourses of organizing** that leadership must confront are now defined by
 - dilemmas, dissonance, and irrationalities –
 - often times the product of multiple and interrelated tensions –
 - that characterized complex and rapidly changing environments.
- It should be noted that some **foreground power processes** more than others.

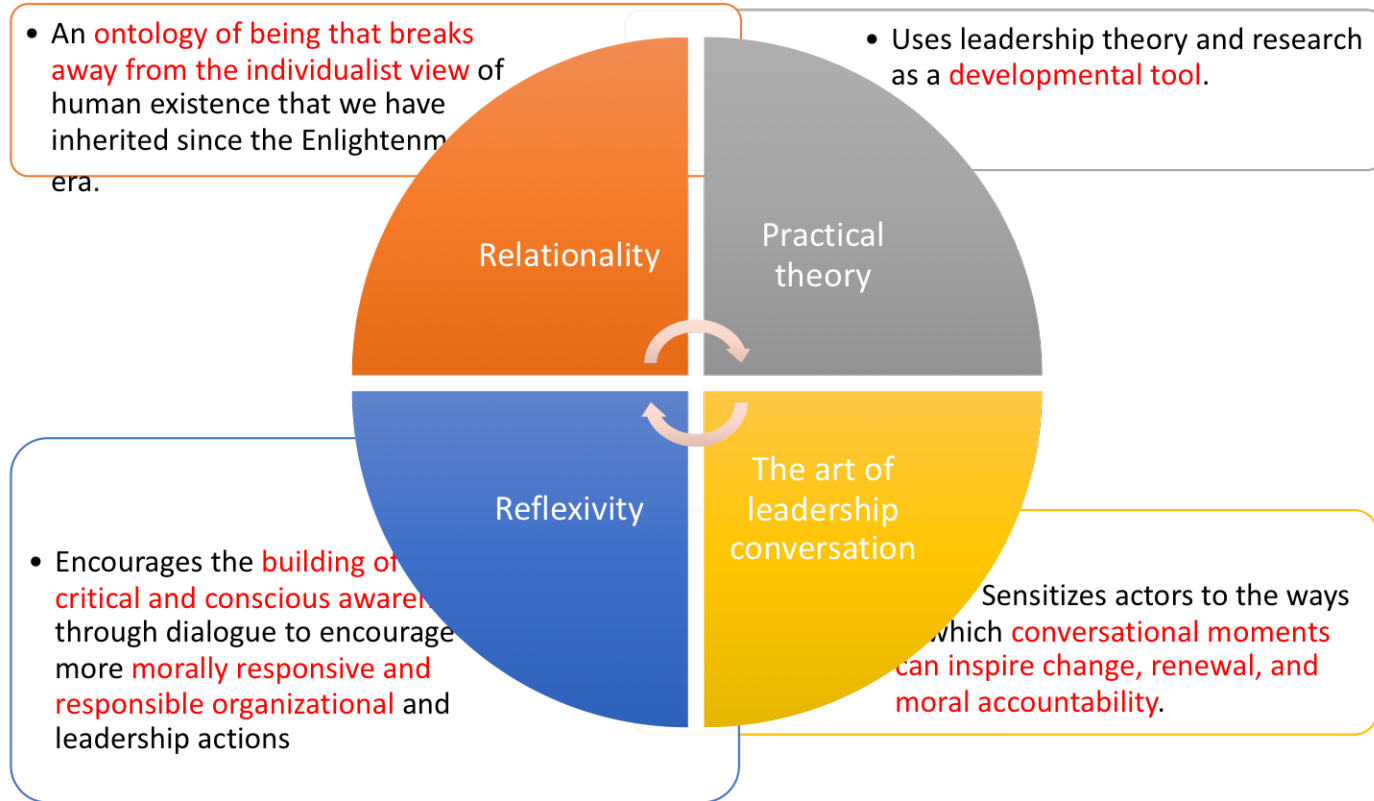
Areas of study of the critical lens: Dialectics

- If leadership is defined by the ability to manage such tensions, are **leaders and followers up to the challenge of managing them?**
- A number of **tension management strategies have been articulated** in the literature; for example, Tracy (2004) has described them in three ways:
 1. **“Either/or” strategies** suggest **choosing one pole** (e.g., exploitation) **to the neglect of the other** (e.g., exploration); however, much of the literature encourages leaders to avoid such simplistic thinking.
 2. **“Both/and” strategies** suggest finding **creative ways to address both poles simultaneously** (e.g., exploration and exploitation through resource allocation), and much of the literature hails such ambidexterity by leaders.
 3. **“Impossible choice” strategies** suggest **double binds and paralysis** (“damned if you do, damned if you don’t”).
- The task of a lot of the research in this area is **to understand why some leaders find room to maneuver within such paradoxical situations**, while others are hopelessly stymied.

Areas of study of the Dialogical lens

- One of the **latest developments in leadership research** is anchored in a dialogical view of leadership.
- Dialogical here **does not simply refer to dialogue in its literal sense** between leaders and followers, but
 - also a **metaphorical sense of being** relational –
 - that is, **answerable and responsive to each other** (Bakhtin, 1984).
- **Dialogical refers** to the idea that
 - **meaning gets created** not simply in the heads of individuals,
 - but in the **interactions among individuals** and
 - between **discourses** within **social, relational contexts**.
- Yet, it is **different from interpretive and critical approaches** in that
 - the dialogical approach has a **strong focus on praxis** –
 - that is, **matters of practice or application**.

Areas of study of the Dialogical lens



Areas of study of the Dialogical lens: Relationality

- Arguably, **how we study leadership** is largely decided by
 - a basic **assumption about what defines** our very being.
- The **dominant assumption** has been that
 - we **exist as autonomous beings** with
 - our **own individual characteristics, feelings, thoughts, will, and intentions.**
 - we can call this an **atom-like or individualist view of self.**
 - we typically take this as **our natural state of existence.**
- It is not coincidental that a **leader-centric approach** to leadership research has **prospered for more than a century** because
 - it matches and **appeals to our individualist view of being.**
- However, this seemingly **commonsensical assumption** has been **challenged and its flaws and limitations exposed.**
 - In its stead, a **relational being has been proposed** (Gergen, 2009).

Areas of study of the Dialogical lens: Relationality

- A relational being **means** that
 - multiple relationships constitute who we are.
- Those **individualistic features** that we **assume we own**,
 - such as our individual thoughts / emotions, are, in fact,
 - created relationally with others.
 - Leadership is no exception.
- Leadership **informed by a relational ontology** is defined as
 - “a way of being and relating with others,
 - embedded in everyday experience and
 - interwoven with a sense of moral responsibility” (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011, p. 1432).
- Being a relational leader **means**
 - being morally responsible and accountable
 - to all those who help define that relationship.
 - being sensitive to the potential for dialogue with others with whom we relate.

Areas of study of the Dialogical lens: Practical theory

- Assumes a **reflexive relationship** between
 - theory and practice.
- Other discourses of leadership **research** tend to suffer a dualistic bias,
 - which is to **separate theory from practice and prioritize** one over the other.
- For example, in **normative leadership discourse**,
 - the primary **purpose of leadership research** is
 - to **build leadership theories that help explain, predict, and control leadership practice**.
- Thus, **theory is primary and practice secondary**.
- In critical discourse, **the primary purpose of leadership research is for social and organisational change through critical reflection of leadership practice**;
 - however, theory commands a greater role in enabling critical analyses.
 - critical leadership researchers tend to assume an elitist critical position over practice,
 - the latter of which is to be transformed by the former.
- In the **interpretive tradition**,
 - leadership practice is given priority over theory by
 - emphasizing the importance of local knowledge and
 - an organizational context that renders leadership practice unique.

Areas of study of the Dialogical lens: Practical theory

- By **contrast** to all these **preceding scientific discourses**,
 - steer clear of a dualistic and hierarchical relationship between theory and practice and
 - embraces a reflexive one instead.
- In this way, leadership **theory and practice provide**
 - a source of growth for each other.
- Leadership **theory is grounded in practice and judged by its usefulness in practice**,
 - whereas practice is guided, but not dictated, by theory and
 - always maintains its spontaneity and responsiveness to local contexts and relational needs.
- Gives attention to **two related leadership practices**:
 - leadership conversation and
 - reflexivity.

Areas of study of the Dialogical lens: Leadership conversation

- Leadership **process has to be understood**
 - as it is **actually experienced and practiced**, that is, as
 - **living conversations** among leadership actors.
- A conversational **focus is critical** because
 - (1) our **perceptions** about leadership are **constructed in conversations**;
 - (2) we **act and progress our tasks** as **a collective, literally, in conversations**;
 - (3) in conversations we **continuously affirm, negotiate, or alter** our **relationships** and our **moral commitments to each other**; and
 - (4) conversations **unfold in an emergent and improvisational manner** at any given moment, which **opens up opportunities for change**.

Areas of study of the Dialogical lens: Leadership conversation

- Leadership is about **cultivating the practical wisdom of managing leadership conversations**
 - by creating open dialogue,
 - noticing and being responsive to moments of difference, and
 - creating new paths in conversations.
- Extending the concept of **sense making and the social constructionist view** (interpretive discourse), Barge and Fairhurst (2008)
 - **offered a practical theory of leadership, known as systemic social constructionism.**
- The theory gives direct attention to
 - how leadership conversations help create
 - meaning at both individual and collective levels,
 - develop order and positions of difference, and
 - generate energy and opportunities for change.

Areas of study of the Dialogical lens: Leadership conversation

- Attention to the praxis of leadership conversation also has an inherent moral dimension.
- Unlike the universal moral principles in critical leadership research or the kind of heroic moral behaviors promoted in the normative discourse of leadership,
 - practical theories of leadership explore the morality of leadership action in relational contexts and lived situations.
- Being in a conversation or dialogue means
 - that we are morally bound to be responsive to the other and to
 - the present context that connects the past and future.
 - leadership actors are required to be sensible and answerable to such moral demands in the continuous and unfolding stream of conversation.
- In addition to such moral demands exerted by conversation or dialogue itself,
 - Barker (2005) argued that rhetoric in the form of reasoned arguments in dialogue
 - could help locate more ethical positions in decision making.
 - In his discussion of the ethics of control, he illustrated how a discursive process allows leadership actors to deduce ethical value configurations that are answerable to a practical reality.

Areas of study of the Dialogical lens: Reflexivity

- Reflexivity in leadership praxis refers to conversations between leaders and members
 - that collectively and critically reflect on the interconnectedness among
 - action (including communicative action),
 - meaning,
 - assumptions, and
 - context (Barge, 2004).
- Reflexivity goes beyond cognitive self-reflection by a leader,
 - which is an individual-based introspective activity regarding a leader's own characteristics and biases.
- Reflexive practice takes place in conversations initiated by a leader as
 - a form of collective self-observation
 - with the goal of bringing attention to hidden cultural biases and logics of
 - action, layered contexts, and diverse interpretations of events and actions.
- It draws from a relational ontology discussed earlier that conceptualizes
 - humans as relational beings (instead of autonomous selves) and
 - relationality as an inherent part of human action.

Areas of study of the Dialogical lens: Reflexivity

- Whatever **we do has relational implications** and
 - impacts the views of social reality that we co-construct.
- **Reflexive practice stresses**
 - the importance of the relational responsiveness of action.
- This practice **is not just about understanding the past or present** but also about
 - co-creating opportunities and possible futures
 - through morally guided conversations.
- **To bring change to the present,**
 - reflexive practice is expected to empower both leader and members in
 - coauthoring a course of action with greater legitimacy and commitment.

Current trends and future directions: Trends

(1) A shift becomes clear: we are **moving from a dominant masculine and leader-centric view** of leadership

to a distributed perspective in which
a variety of leadership actors have agency and
coauthor social or organizational change.

(2) **Capitalizing on the momentum of the linguistic turn** that impacted philosophy and social sciences a few decades ago, a **communicative turn in leadership research has been gradually taking hold** (Fairhurst & Connaughton, 2014).

- As we have seen in this gradual shift,
- communication has been elevated from a secondary component of psychological theories
- to become the central explanatory mechanism that
- stitches together the psychological, sociological, and historical threads in the leadership process

Current trends and future directions: Trends

(3) Related to this communicative turn, **we have observed a deepened understanding of communication itself in producing leadership effects.**

- In the normative tradition, communication is largely understood as representational and transmissional of thought processes.
- From the interpretive lens, we learn that communication is at the center of meaning making.
- Through the critical lens, we begin to grasp the potent power effects of communication.
- Finally, it is through the dialogical lens that we learn to appreciate the performative, historical, and improvisational nature of leadership conversation and its potential in shaping relationships and driving change.

(4) We have observed a **growing concern with morality**, which **earlier leadership research did relatively little to develop** (e.g., neo-charismatic theories see morality from a leader-centric view as innate or developed in the personal integrity or character of leaders).

- Critical scholars not only go beyond individual moral character, but also expose the systemic, sociocultural processes that influence moral decisions and grow both the positive and the deviant, dark side of leadership.
- More recent developments in dialogical scholarship highlight the relational nature of morality as infused in the everyday practice of leadership conversations.
- Morality is not seen as a collection of abstract principles or heroic leaders' personal quality.
- Rather, morality is exhibited in leadership actors' relational responsiveness to others in situated social interactions.

Current trends and future directions: Opportunities for growth

- Emerging **technologies stimulate** new platforms for
 - **organizing, authoring, relating, and influencing in innovative ways.**
- As the Internet and new technologies **continue to transform our conventional work design** and as social media **redefine voice and social influence**,
 - the next generation of leadership research has to be responsive to this shifting technological environment.
 - leadership theories need to better account for the human material / technology connection in achieving leadership effects.

Current trends and future directions: Opportunities for growth

- Second, existing leadership theories are largely authored by scholars from the West and drawn from the contexts of industrialized societies.
- Against the backdrop of the globalization of commerce, education, and human migration,
 - it is imperative to understand leadership in non-Western societies and in multicultural / national contexts.
- In the last decade or so, we have only begun to see empirical studies emerging
 - that address leadership in China, Southeast Asia, and South America.
 - The GLOBE project (House et al., 2004) represents another ambitious attempt in this direction.
 - Part of the project was designed to compare values and ideals for outstanding leaders across national cultures.
 - In spite of its leader-centric approach and heavily normative discourse, the project offers valuable information on an unprecedented global scale.

Current trends and future directions: Opportunities for growth

- Third, organisational and social **problems have become increasingly complex, intractable, and interdisciplinary.**
 - They are often filled with moral dilemmas and contradictions and defy ready-made solutions.
 - Yet, existing leadership theories are woefully inadequate to account for such complex leadership processes, which call for more holistic and nonlinear solutions.
- Finally, **leadership research could benefit from greater innovation in methods.**
 - The complexity of leadership processes calls for innovative research designs that employ mixed methodologies and multilevel analyses.
 - This would require students of leadership to be versed in more than one particular scientific discourse.
 - Cross-pollination across these discourses in both theory and method holds the promise of a brighter future for leadership research.

Yukl, G., Gordon, A., & Taber, T. (2002). A Hierarchical Taxonomy of leadership Behavior: Integrating a Half Century of Behaviour Research. Journal of leadership and Organizational Studies, 9(1), 15-32.

A Hierarchical Taxonomy of Leadership Behavior: Integrating a Half Century of Behavior Research

A taxonomy of leadership behaviour: Introduction

- A **major problem in research and theory** on effective leadership has been the **lack of agreement** about **which behaviour categories** are **relevant and meaningful** for leaders.
 - It is **very difficult to compare and integrate** the **results from studies** that **use different sets of behavioral categories**.
- There has been a **bewildering proliferation of taxonomies** on leadership behaviour
 - Sometimes **different terms have been used to refer to the same type** of behaviour.
 - At other times, the **same term has been defined differently** by various theorists.
 - What is treated as a **general behaviour category** by one theorist is **viewed as two or three distinct categories** by another theorist.
 - What is a **key concept in one taxonomy** is **absent** from another.
- **Different taxonomies** have emerged from **different research disciplines**, and it is **difficult to translate from one set of concepts to another**.

Task and relations behavior

- The early leadership research emphasized two general, **broadly-defined behavior categories “metacategories”** that are best described as **relations-oriented behavior and task-oriented behavior**.
- Examples include
 - **consideration and initiating structure** (Fleishmen, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957) in early research on leader behavior, and
 - **concern for people and concern for production** in the managerial grid model (Blake & Mouton, 1982).
- Research on leader **behavior was dominated by a focus on these two** broadly-defined categories of behavior.
- A **meta-analysis** of this survey research found that **both behaviors** have a
 - **positive but weak correlation** with **subordinate performance** (Fisher & Edwards, 1988).
- Subsequent research on **specific types of task and relations behavior** found
 - **correlations with unit performance** that were sometimes **stronger but still not consistent across situations** (Yukl, 2002).

Importance of leading change

- In **their preoccupation** with **task and relations** behaviors,
 - the early scholars mostly **ignored change-oriented** leadership.
- Only **recently** have researchers **become interested** in
 - the way leaders **initiate and implement change** in organisations.
- It is **important to clarify the distinction** among
 - **task-oriented**, **relations** oriented, and **change-oriented** behaviors,
 - because **all three types** of behaviors **may be relevant**
 - for **understanding effective leadership** in **different situations**.

Importance of leading change

- The **importance of leading change is suggested by some** organisation theories (e.g., Miller & Friesen, 1984; Tushman & Romanelli, 1985),
 - but they **do not describe the specific types of change** behaviors that are required.
- Theories of **transformational and charismatic** leadership (e.g., Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House, 1977; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993)
 - **include some change-oriented** behaviors, and
 - there is **growing evidence** that these behaviors are **related to effectiveness of leaders** (e.g., Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).
- However, the **high level of confounding among specific transformational behaviors**
 - makes it **difficult to determine** which **ones are most important in a particular situation** (Yukl, 1999).

Evidence for the three meta categories

- The **prior theories of leadership do not make a clear distinction** among task, relations, and change behavior.
 - The **first evidence that change oriented leadership is a distinct type of behavior comes from two studies** conducted during the 1990s.
 - In the first study, Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) developed a **behavior description questionnaire** with items from earlier questionnaires
 - There was **strong support for a three factor solution in** each national sample, and the factors were
 - labeled **production** centered, **employee** centered, and **change** centered.
- The **latter factor**
 - included promoting change and growth,
 - providing creative solutions,
 - encouraging creative thinking by others,
 - experimenting with new ways of doing things,
 - making risky decisions when necessary, and
 - planning for the future.
- **Change-oriented behavior correlated the strongest with subordinate ratings of the manager's competence,**
 - whereas **employee centered behavior correlated highest with subordinate satisfaction** with the manager.

Evidence for the three meta categories

- Yukl (1998) **administered leader behavior** questionnaires to 318 direct reports of managers in charge of 48 organizational units of varying size from 15 **private and public sector** organizations.
- An **exploratory factor analysis** produced a **clear factor structure** for task-oriented, relationship oriented, and change-oriented behavior.
- The **latter factor** included
 - identifying external threats and opportunities,
 - envisioning new possibilities,
 - proposing innovative strategies, and
 - encouraging innovative thinking by followers.
- The **scale scores for task, relations, and change behavior** were all
 - **correlated** significantly with **subordinate satisfaction with the leader** and
 - **organizational commitment**.

Table 1. Hierarchical Taxonomy of Leader Behavior.

Task Behavior

- Plan short-term activities
- Clarify task objectives and role expectations
- Monitor operations and performance

Relations Behavior

- Provide support and encouragement
- Provide recognition for achievements and contributions
- Develop member skill and confidence
- Consult with members when making decisions
- Empower members to take initiative in problem solving

Change Behavior

- Monitor the external environment
 - Propose an innovative strategy or new vision
 - Encourage innovative thinking
 - Take risks to promote necessary changes
-

Table 2. Similar Task Behaviors in Earlier Measures.

Short-term Planning

- Orderly Planning; SMP (Wilson, O'Hare & Shipper, 1990)
- Planning; MBS (Yukl & Nemeroff, 1979)
- Planning; MPS (Yukl et al., 1990)
- Planning & Coordinating; LOS (Luthans & Lockwood, 1984)

Clarifying

- Role Clarification; MBS (Yukl & Nemeroff, 1979)
- Clarifying Roles and Objectives; MPS (Yukl et al., 1990)

Monitoring

- Monitoring & Controlling; LOS (Luthans & Lockwood, 1984)
 - Monitoring Operations; MPS (Yukl et al., 1990)
 - Active Management by Exception; MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1990)
-

Table 3. Similar Relations Behaviors in Earlier Measures.

Supporting

- Consideration; LBDQ-12 (Stogdill et al., 1962)
- Supporting; MBS (Yukl & Nemeroff, 1979)
- Supporting; MPS (Yukl et al., 1990)
- Individualized Consideration; MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1990)
- Individualized Support; TLI (Podsakoff et al., 1990)
- Individualized Support; MLI (Castro & Schriesheim, 1998)
- Sensitivity to Members; C-K Scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1998)

Developing

- Developing; MBS (Yukl & Nemeroff, 1979)
- Training and Development; LOS (Luthans & Lockwood, 1984)
- Developing; MBS (Yukl et al., 1990)

Recognizing

- Positive Reinforcement; MBS (Yukl & Nemeroff, 1979)
- Contingent Reward Behavior; TLI (Podsakoff et al., 1990)
- Recognizing; MPS (Yukl et al., 1990)
- Contingent Reward; MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1990)
- Recognition; SMP (Wilson, O'Hare, & Shipper, 1990)
- Encouraging; LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)

Consulting

- Participative Leadership; (House & Mitchell, 1974)
- Decision Participation; MBS (Yukl & Nemeroff, 1979)
- Consulting; MPS (Yukl et al., 1990)
- Encouraging Participation; SMP (Wilson, O'Hare, & Shipper, 1990)

Empowering

- Tolerance of Freedom; LBDQ-12 (Stogdill et al., 1962)
 - Delegation; MBS (Yukl & Nemeroff, 1979)
 - Delegation; SMP (Wilson, O'Hare, & Shipper, 1990)
 - Delegating; MPS (Yukl et al., 1990)
 - Enabling; LGI (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)
-

Table 4. Similar Change Behaviors in Earlier Measures.

External Monitoring

- Networking; MPS (Yukl et al., 1990)
- Environmental Sensitivity; C-K Scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1998)
- Environmental Sensitivity; MLI (Castro & Schriesheim, 1998)

Envisioning Change

- Inspirational Motivation; MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1990)
- Articulates a Vision; TLI (Podsakoff et al., 1990)
- Inspiring; MPS (Yukl et al., 1990)
- Strategic Vision Articulation; C-K Scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1998)
- Articulating a Vision; MLI (Castro & Schriesheim, 1998)
- Inspiring; LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)

Encouraging Innovating Thinking

- Intellectual Stimulation; MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1990)
- Intellectual Stimulation; TLI (Podsakoff et al., 1990)
- Intellectual Stimulation; MLI (Castro & Schriesheim, 1998)

Taking Personal Risks

- Personal Risktaking; C-K Scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1998)
- Self-sacrifice; MLI (Castro & Schriesheim, 1998)

Task behaviour: Short-term planning

- **Planning means**
 - deciding what to do,
 - how to do it,
 - who will do it, and
 - when it will be done.
- Because **planning is largely a cognitive activity** that
 - seldom occurs as a single discrete episode,
 - it is difficult to observe.
- Nevertheless, there are **some observable aspects** such as
 - writing plans,
 - preparing written budgets,
 - developing written schedules, and
 - meeting with others to determine how to accomplish a task.
- **Planning is most observable**
 - when a manager takes action to implement plans,
 - a process that often involves clarifying responsibilities and objectives (Yukl, 2002).

Task behaviour: Clarifying responsibilities

- Clarifying is the **communication of plans, policies, and role expectations**.
- The purpose of clarifying behavior is
 - to guide and coordinate work activity and
 - make sure people know what to do and how to do it.
- Clarifying includes **setting specific task objectives, and these objectives**
 - direct effort toward performance of important duties and responsibilities,
 - encourage a search for efficient ways to do the work, and
 - facilitate evaluation of performance by providing a benchmark against which to compare it.
- Clarifying is a **core component** of
 - initiating structure.
 - also the primary component of instrumental (directive) behavior in the path-goal theory of leadership (House & Mitchell, 1974).
- A positive relationship between clarifying and managerial effectiveness was found (Bauer & Green, 1998; Kim & Yukl, 1995; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1982; Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger, 1990).
- There is ample evidence that **setting specific, challenging goals results in higher performance as long as the goals are accepted** (see Locke & Latham, 1990).

Task behaviour: Monitoring operations and performance

- Monitoring **involves**
 - gathering information about the operations of the manager's organizational unit, including
 - the progress of the work,
 - the performance of individual subordinates,
 - the quality of products or services, and
 - the success of projects or programs.
- Monitoring **can take many forms**, including
 - observation of work operations,
 - reading written reports,
 - watching computer screen displays of performance data,
 - inspecting the quality of samples of the work, and
 - holding progress review meetings with an individual or group.
- Two observational studies found that leaders who did **more monitoring were more effective** (Komaki, 1986; Komaki, Desselles, & Bowman, 1989).
- In the survey studies, monitoring was **related to leader effectiveness for some samples but not others** (Kim & Yukl, 1995; Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger, 1990).

Realtions behavior

(1) Supporting

- defined as showing consideration, acceptance, and concern for the needs / feelings of other people.

(2) Developing

- showing someone a better way to do a task, asking questions that help someone learn how to perform a task better, helping someone learn from a mistake, and explaining how to solve a complex problem rather than just providing the solution, providing opportunities to develop skills and confidence and facilitating skill learning (making it easier for subordinates to attend courses or workshops).

(3) Recognizing

- giving praise and showing appreciation to others for effective performance, significant achievements, and important contributions to the organization / is often given along with tangible rewards.

(4) Consulting

- involving followers in making important decisions / is one form of participative leadership.

(5) Empowering

- includes delegating and providing more autonomy and discretion to subordinates.

Change behaviour

(1) External monitoring

- the concerns of customers and clients, the availability of suppliers and vendors, the actions of competitors, market trends, economic conditions, government policies, and technological developments.

(2) Envisioning change

- vision articulation - if it is relevant for follower values and ideals, it is communicated with enthusiasm and confidence, and it is perceived as feasible.

(3) Encouraging innovative thinking

- intellectual stimulation

(4) Taking personal risks to implement change

- change is risky, especially when the need for change is not yet obvious to most people and there is a lot of vested
- interest in maintaining the status quo.
- The possible risks entailed by pushing for change when there is strong resistance
- include loss of job, diminished reputation, derailed career, and personal rejection by colleagues.

Table 5. Definition of the 12 Specific Leadership Behaviors

CLARIFYING ROLES: assigning tasks and explaining job responsibilities, task objectives, and performance expectations.

MONITORING OPERATIONS: checking on the progress and quality of the work, and evaluating individual and unit performance.

SHORT-TERM PLANNING: determining how to use personnel and resources to accomplish a task efficiently, and determining how to schedule and coordinate unit activities efficiently.

CONSULTING: checking with people before making decisions that affect them, encouraging participation in decision making, and using the ideas and suggestions of others.

SUPPORTING: acting considerate, showing sympathy and support when someone is upset or anxious, and providing encouragement and support when there is a difficult, stressful task.

RECOGNIZING: providing praise and recognition for effective performance, significant achievements, special contributions, and performance improvements.

DEVELOPING: providing coaching and advice, providing opportunities for skill development, and helping people learn how to improve their skills.

EMPOWERING: allowing substantial responsibility and discretion in work activities, and trusting people to solve problems and make decisions without getting prior approval.

ENVISIONING CHANGE: presenting an appealing description of desirable outcomes that can be achieved by the unit, describing a proposed change with great enthusiasm and conviction.

TAKING RISKS FOR CHANGE: taking personal risks and making sacrifices to encourage and promote desirable change in the organization.

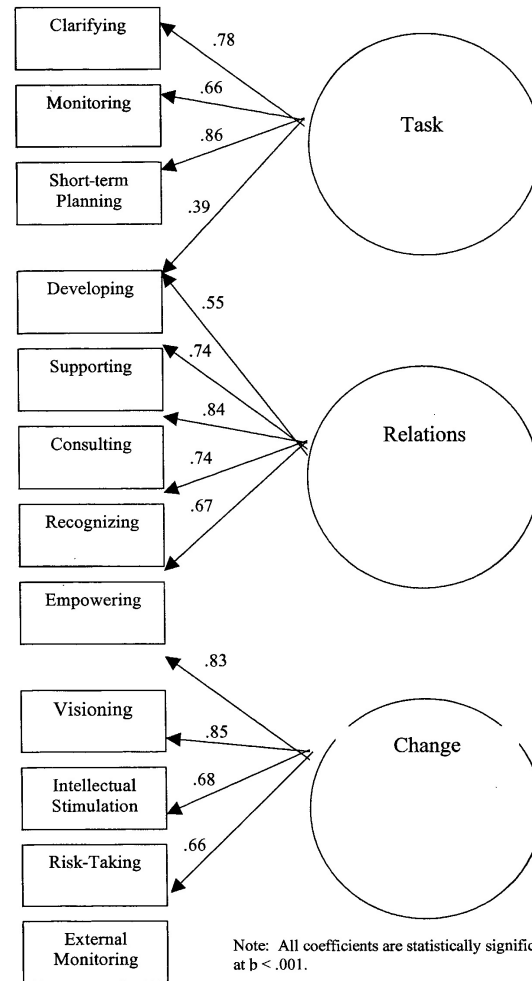
ENCOURAGING INNOVATIVE THINKING: challenging people to question their assumptions about the work and consider better ways to do it.

EXTERNAL MONITORING: analyzing information about events, trends, and changes in the external environment to identify threats and opportunities for the organizational unit.

Table 6. Correlation Matrix for Behavior Scales.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Clarifying												
2. Monitoring	.53											
3. Planning	.67	.58										
4. Consulting	.38	.27	.42									
5. Supporting	.29	.19	.33	.62								
6. Recognizing	.35	.33	.42	.59	.61							
7. Developing	.55	.41	.59	.65	.52	.56						
8. Empowering	.18	.09	.22	.59	.52	.44	.47					
9. Visioning	.47	.37	.54	.54	.46	.58	.61	.41				
10. Risk Taking	.30	.23	.33	.47	.39	.38	.49	.40	.54			
11. Innovating	.41	.36	.47	.59	.45	.54	.65	.51	.69	.59		
12. Scanning	.37	.32	.47	.37	.31	.33	.49	.29	.54	.51	.56	

Figure 1 Path Coefficients for Modified Model 3.



Czabanowska, K., Smith, T., Könings, K. D., Sumskas, L., Otok, R., Bjegovic-Mikanovic, V., & Brand, H. (2013). In search for a public health leadership competency framework to support leadership curriculum—a consensus study. *The European Journal of Public Health*, ckt158.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework to support leadership curriculum—a consensus study

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Introduction

- There has been an **increasing interest in competency-based** medical education due to its **focus on outcomes**,
 - emphasis on abilities,
 - de-emphasis of time-based training and
 - the promotion of learner centredness.
- **Competency-based education** (CBE) has also been introduced in public health training and education
 - to close the gap between public health educational content and the competencies required in practice.
- CBE is **organized around competencies**, or **predefined abilities**, as **outcomes of the curriculum**.
- Competencies are **composites of individual attributes** (i.e. knowledge, skills and attitudinal or personal aspects) that represent context-bound productivity.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Introduction

- Competency frameworks have already been developed in the area of public health and medical leadership, which apart from bringing together leadership principles are also useful for planning professional training.
- However, their focus differs.
- The Healthcare Leadership Alliance Competency Directory is
 - more oriented towards management and business administration,
- The National Public Health Leadership Network's Public Health Leadership Competency Framework is
 - geared towards developing leaders who are political-change agents able to use interpersonal skills.
- Being more focused on senior clinicians and senior managers, the 2005 National Health Service (NHS) Leadership Qualities Framework was followed by a new NHS Medical Leadership Competency Framework in calls for bottom-up leadership of innovation.
- However, in 2011, a more comprehensive NHS Leadership Framework of the National Leadership Council was launched, which has the NHS Medical Leadership Competency Framework at its centre.
- It includes a vision and strategy, which surprisingly are not included in the first framework.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Introduction

- Considerable work has been done in the development of leadership competencies in the field of health worldwide, these frameworks
 - seem very generic and
 - none of them was specifically developed to support the educational curriculum for public health professionals.
- The aim of this study was
 - to develop a public health leadership competency framework
 - to support the development of competency-based European public health leadership curriculum.
- The framework was designed in the context of the Leaders for European Public Health (LEPHIE) Erasmus Multilateral Curriculum Development Project, supported by the EU Lifelong Learning Programme.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Method

- The study was carried out in three phases:
 - a literature review,
 - consensus development panel and
 - Delphi survey.
- The public health leadership competency framework was initially developed from an extensive literature review
 - carried out by two reviewers focusing on literature,
 - which primarily addressed public health leadership in Europe,
 - published in English between 2000 and 2011.
- Two hundred fifty-three (253) references were initially identified.
- Finally, 53 citations were included in the review.
- Citations and frameworks were reviewed for possible competencies and a list compiled including 119 competencies.
- This list was edited for duplicates by the same researchers and competencies were organized using a template analysis approach that utilized an evidence-based thematic framework by Smith et al. for development of the leadership curriculum for public health professionals within the LEPHIE project.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Method

- The **template comprised** the following **domains**:
 - Theory and alternative discourses,
 - Systems Thinking,
 - Political Leadership,
 - Inspiring and Motivating Others,
 - Building and Leading Interdisciplinary Teams,
 - Leadership and Communication,
 - Leading Change and
 - Emotional Intelligence.
- **Two horizontal domains**:
 - Professional Networking and
 - Ethics and Professionalism were added by the researchers to embrace specific competencies related to these areas as identified in the literature review.
- The **initial draft framework of 92 competencies** for public health leadership was then **submitted to a panel of experts** consisting of
 - 7 public health and
 - 7 leadership academics from 4 European Universities

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Method

- Two rounds of a Delphi survey were then carried out to validate and obtain broader consensus on the domains and competencies in the framework.
- The goal was for 80–100% consensus.
- A traditional Delphi process begins with a survey gathering opinions from participants, followed by two or more rounds to reach consensus.
- The number of survey rounds, size of expert pool and degree of consensus required are defined by the researcher, but typically two or more rounds of surveying must be conducted.
- The first round questionnaire consisted of 73 items describing competencies.
 - Participants were asked to respond 'yes/no/with changes' on the inclusion and grouping of each competency.
 - Space was also provided to add other competencies that respondents considered suitable for public health leadership.
 - The respondents could also put forward their arguments for or against the proposed competencies.
- The second Delphi survey contained only three items and sought a simple 'yes/no' response regarding the edits made in the previous round.
- This was followed by a yes/no response regarding approval of the framework as a whole.

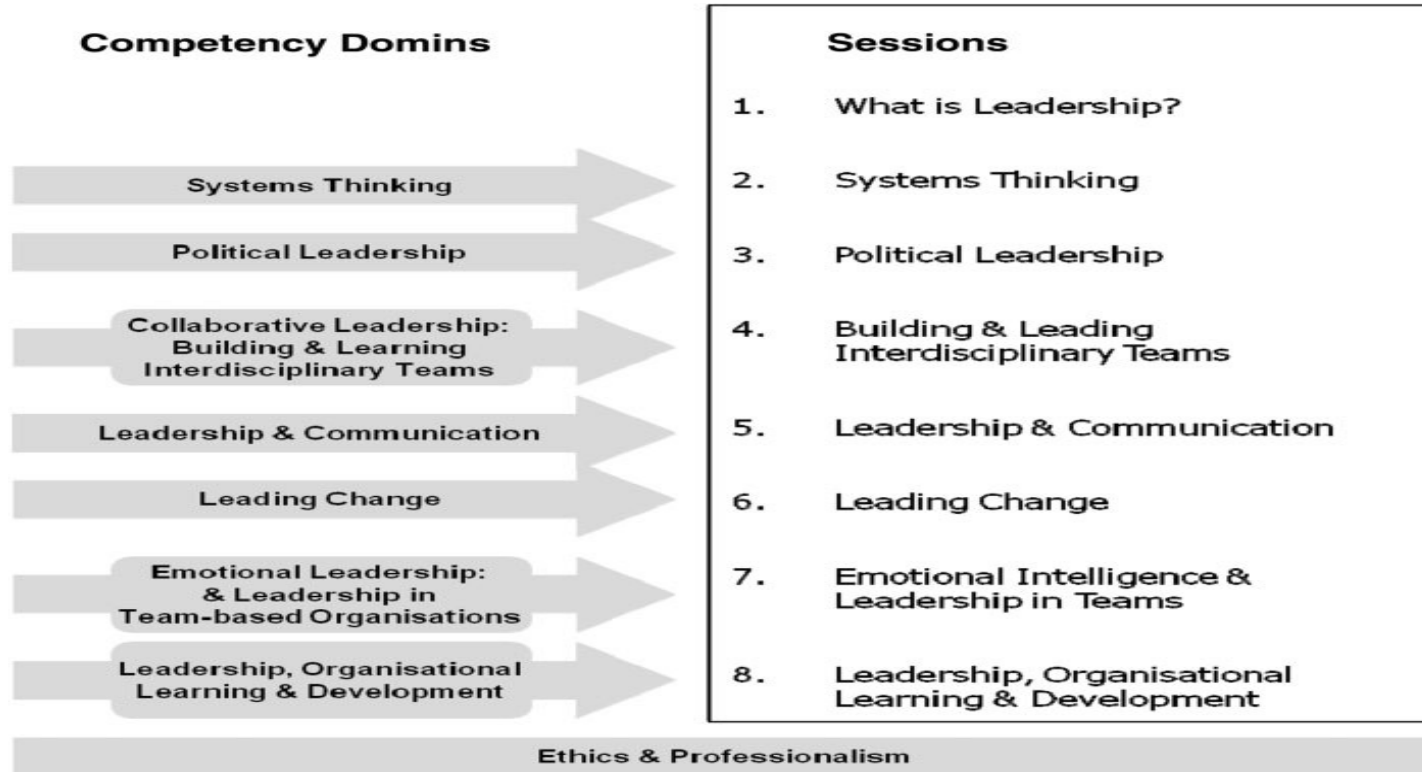
In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Results

- Based on our literature review, 119 competencies were identified and organized into leadership domains developed by Smith et al.
- Based on the responses to the questionnaire used in the second phase of the consensus development panel process, the domains were edited to better reflect considered leadership areas.
 - Inspiring and Motivating Others was merged with Building and Leading Interdisciplinary Teams and Leadership and Communication.
 - Building and Leading Interdisciplinary Teams was rephrased into Collaborative Leadership: Building and Leading Interdisciplinary Teams to better fit the content.
 - Emotional Intelligence domain was reformulated into Emotional Intelligence and Leadership in Team-based Organizations;
 - Leadership Organizational Learning and Development was added to fit the competencies that belonged to such a category but placed under other headings.
- The final 73 competencies were organized into nine domains.
- The Professional Networking domain was removed,
 - as the reviewers believed that networking cannot be taught and is too general.
- However, some of its competencies were identified as strongly related to collaborative leadership and so were subsumed into that category.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Results



In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Results



In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Systems thinking

1. Understand **current public health issues** and **engage in systemic change** to address them.
2. Synthesize and **integrate divergent viewpoints** for the good of an organization.
3. Understand **reflective leadership** and **demonstrate that all leadership begins from within**.
4. Facilitate the **development of servant leadership capacity** including selflessness, integrity and perspective mastery.
5. Recognize the **relevance of adaptive leadership** and use it in the appropriate circumstances.
6. Recognize the **relevance of leading from behind** and use this in the appropriate circumstances.
7. Identify **opportunities for growth, innovation, change and development** of the organization.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Political leadership

8. Foresee potential **impacts and consequences of decision-making** in both internal and external situations.
9. Understand and **apply effective techniques** for **working with** boards and governance structures.
10. Evaluate and **determine appropriate actions** regarding **critical political issues**.
11. **Promote** the European and national **public health agenda**.
12. **Translate broad strategies** into **practical terms** for others.
13. Build alliances, **partnerships, and coalitions** to **improve the health** of the community or population being served.
14. Identify and **engage stakeholders in interdisciplinary projects** to improve public health.
15. Advocate and **participate in public health policy initiatives** at the local, national and/or international levels.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Collaborative leadership: building and leading interdisciplinary teams

16. Provide an environment **conductive to opinion sharing**.
17. Model **effective group process behaviours** including listening, dialoguing, negotiating, rewarding, encouraging, and motivating.
18. Model **effective team leadership traits** including integrity, credibility, enthusiasm, commitment, honesty, caring, and trust.
19. Understand and **manage expectations**.
20. Offer **opportunities for collaborative** learning and quality improvement.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Leading change

- 28. Facilitate reassessment and adaptation of mission to match vision.
- 29. Manage staff to effectively deal with change.
- 30. Serve as a driving force for change, including strategies of change.
- 31. Make strategic decisions based on recognized values, priorities and resources.
- 32. Identify and communicate new system and structures as needs are identified and opportunity arises.
- 33. Ensure that organizational practices are aligned with changes in the public health system and the larger social, political, and economic environment.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Emotional intelligence and leadership in team-based organizations

- 34. Demonstrate **awareness of the impact of your own** beliefs, values, and behaviours on your own decision-making and the reactions of others.
- 35. Demonstrate **empathy and concern for people** as individuals while ensuring that organizational goals and objectives are met.
- 36. Be **aware of the impact of your own behaviours and reactions** on the behaviours and reactions of others.
- 37. Demonstrate **personal responsibility and accountability** for the achievement of a given task.
- 38. **Respond appropriately to the positive criticism of others** about your own behaviour or performance.
- 39. **Demonstrate resilience** and the ability to **call upon personal resources and energy** at times of threat or challenge.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Leadership, organizational learning and development

- 40. Foster an **environment of trust**.
- 41. Develop and **mentor potential future leaders** within the organization.
- 42. **Advocate for learning opportunities** within the organization.
- 43. Create and **communicate a shared vision** for the future and inspire team members to achieve it.
- 44. **Encourage others to feel ownership** in the public health mission in the organization.
- 45. **Assist others to clarify thinking, create consensus, and develop ideas** into actionable plans.
- 46. Offer **opportunities for collaborative** learning and quality improvement.

In search for a public health leadership competency framework: Ethics and professionalism

- 47. Adhere to ethical legal and regulatory standards.
- 48. Encourage a high level of commitment to the purposes and values of the organization.
- 49. Make a clear declaration of any conflict of interest that is likely to affect your leadership or decision-making and take appropriate action to minimize this.
- 50. Respect diverse cultures and build upon the strength of diversity to bring about innovation and added value in the work environment.
- 51. Practice and promote professional accountability and social responsibility.
- 52. Actively work towards reducing inequalities in access to public health.

Shresta, A.K., & Baniya, R. (2016). Emotional Intelligence and Employee Outcomes: Moderating Role of Organizational Politics. *Business Perspectives and Research*, 4(1), 15-26.

Emotional Intelligence and Employee Outcomes: Moderating Role of Organizational Politics

Emotional intelligence (EI): Introduction

- EI has **gained the wider attention** of scholars and practitioners in the fields of
 - psychology, leadership,
 - organization psychology,
 - human resource management, and
 - organizational behavior in the past two decades.
- However, **interest in this area is not new.**
 - During the **eighteenth century**, the “**follow your heart**” philosophy, an opinion that feeling and intuition, guard truth which is more valid than reason, was widely popular (Reddy, 2001).
 - On the other hand, in ancient Greece, **rationality was given more priority over emotions.**
 - The arguments on emotions and rationality **existed from ancient times.**
- **Scholarly interest in the concept of EI is also not new** as scholars had started working in this area from the early 1920s (Carmeli, 2003).

Emotional intelligence (EI): Definition

- Salovey and Mayer (1990) were the first to introduce the term EI in the literature on psychology
- These authors **defined EI** as
 - “the subset of social intelligence that
 - involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions,
 - to discriminate among them and
 - to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions”
- In 1997, Salovey and Mayer **refined this definition** and defined EI as
 - “the ability to perceive emotions,
 - to access and generate emotions so as to assist thoughts,
 - to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and
 - to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth”

The Components of Emotional Intelligence

Component	Definition	Hallmarks
Self-awareness	The ability to recognize and understand your moods, emotions, and drives, as well as their effects on others	Self-confidence Realistic self-assessment Self-depreciating sense of humor
Self-regulation	The ability to control and redirect disruptive impulses and moods The propensity to suspend judgment – to think before acting	Trustworthiness and integrity Comfort with ambiguity Openness to change
Motivation	A passion to work for reasons beyond money or status A propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence	Strong drive to achieve Optimism, even in the face of failure Organisational commitment
Empathy	The ability to understand the emotional make-up of other people Skill in training people according to their emotional reaction	Expertise in building and retaining talent Cross-cultural sensitivity Service to clients / customers
Social skills	Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks Ability to find common ground and building rapport	Effective in leading change Persuasiveness Expertise in building and leading teams

EI: Approaches and correlates

- From their review of the literature suggest that there are **two models of EI**.
 - **Mental ability** models view EI as a well-defined and conceptually related **set of cognitive abilities for processing emotional information and regulating emotion adaptively**, whereas
 - **mixed models** view it as a diverse construct that includes **aspects of personality and the ability to perceive, assimilate, understand, and manage emotions**
- There are numerous studies investigating the linkage between **EI and several other outcome variables** such as
 - **leadership effectiveness** (e.g., Mills, 2009),
 - **work attitudes and behaviors** (e.g., Carmeli, 2003),
 - **job performance** (e.g., O'Boyle et al., 2011)
 - **work–family conflict** (e.g., Carmeli, 2003),
 - **decision-making skills** (e.g., Hess & Bacigalupo, 2011),
 - **team performance** (e.g., Naseer, Chishti, Rahman, & Jumani, 2011), etc.
- The findings of these **studies have clearly established the linkage** between **EI and these individual and organizational outcome variables**.