Gower Handbook of Leadership and Management Development

Fifth edition

Edited by

Jeff Gold
Richard Thorpe
Alan Mumford

A **Gower** Book

*Gower Handbook of Leadership and
Management Development*

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EDITED BY

JEFF GOLD, RICHARD THORPE
AND ALAN MUMFORD

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Preface

ALAN MUMFORD

The explicit view about leadership has for many years been that while managers did the boring aspects of defining and achieving results, leaders provided something much more exciting. They were considered to cross frontiers of thinking, engaged in the transformational processes in which their organisations were involved and always out in front. Who was not thrilled to be described as a leader, dusted with an additional bit charisma?

The great change that has occurred in concepts that relate to leadership has been of two kinds. The first has been an acceptance that effective leadership is to a very large extent contextual; time is one of these contexts – what works at one period of time, dealing with one set of circumstances, may not always work in another. A second recognition has been that leadership is not something solely undertaken by one person, someone at the top of organisations, but is in fact invariably exercised by all managers.

Of course one form of development for managers has been to read books by business leaders who are self-proclaimed leaders. In the United States, Lee Iacocca and later Jack Welch gave colourful and direct testimony of what a successful business leader needs to do, whilst in Britain John Harvey Jones was a vivid and effective purveyor of views on leadership both through his books and then later through television. In the political arena the leadership styles of Margaret Thatcher and later of Tony Blair were often dissected and quoted when their policies appeared successful. The transferability of ideas from sport has also been explored, the corporate lecture circuit and after-dinner speaking industry being the most keen, but the parallels here are probably more difficult as sport is different in nature from politics or organisations which have a lot in common with each other. Mike Brearley's views about the captaincy of England were certainly offered as leadership lessons of good in a number of organisations.

Outdoor training has also claimed great success in the delivery and development of leaders. More recently the study of drama and the conductor's role in music or the nature of the role of musicians in a jazz band have been used as metaphors of how the leadership process might work and the role others have in the production of coordinated endeavour. The contrast in leadership styles between Henry V's speeches 'Once more unto the breach', and his later 'A little touch of Harry in the night' is a powerful insight into the need to have different styles of leadership to suit different occasions.

This book shows there are many new ideas on the development of leaders. The best integrate awareness of the contextual requirements for leadership with understanding different ways of developing leaders. Historically, excitement about new ideas has not always been matched by rigour on these two aspects.

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Preface to the New Edition

JEFF GOLD AND RICHARD THORPE

When we were asked by Alan Mumford, and Jonathan Norman at Gower, to consider a new edition of Alan's well-known *Handbook of Management Development*, first published in 1973 but last published by Gower in 1994, we knew that we had consider two factors. First, the last edition of the text, even though over 14 years old, was still an important one that retained much influence with its readership. Copies of the book are still to be found on the shelves of many management developers and even quite a few managers and academics. We recognised that there was quite a tradition to be preserved. Secondly, we both believed that for the text to remain credible in the twenty-first century, it would need to demonstrate relevance in what has become a very much extended field which now incorporate a greater emphasis on leadership development. We therefore made it clear that the title and content of the new book had to include leadership whilst retaining its focus on management development. There are many reasons for the incorporation of leadership, and certainly most of these permeate the text you are about to read. One obvious reason is that the market of interest is now generally understood as leadership and management development. Thus, whereas previously, managers and management tended to be conceived of rather narrowly, attention is now focused on a wider range of contexts where both management and leadership have been considered to be vital to performance and success – however defined and measured. This includes private and public sector organisations, including small- and medium-sized organisations as well as those classed as micro-businesses, but also professional and knowledge-based organisations, community and voluntary sector organisations, and increasingly, organisations that operate around the globe. Further, both leaders and managers are meant to concern themselves with or learn about a wide range of issues such as diversity, ethics, corporate social responsibility and the future of their organisations. The events that have been challenging all organisations since the autumn of 2008 seem to have made attention to such issues all the more necessary.

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About the Editors

Jeff Gold is Principal Lecturer in Organisation Learning at Leeds Business School, Leeds Metropolitan University and Leadership Fellow at Leeds University where he coordinates the Northern Leadership Academy. He has led a range of seminars and workshops on leadership with a particular emphasis on participation and distribution. He is the co-author of *Management Development, Strategies for Action* (with Alan Mumford), published by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development in 2004 and the fourth edition of his textbook *Human Resource Management* (with John Bratton) was published in 2007 with Palgrave Macmillan.

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Richard Thorpe is Professor of Management Development and Deputy Director of the Keyworth Institute at Leeds University Business School. His interests include performance, remuneration and entrepreneurship, management learning and development and leadership. He has sought to develop these interests at all the institutions in which he has worked. His early industrial experience informed the way his ethos has developed. Common themes are a strong commitment to process methodologies and a focus on action in all its forms; an interest in and commitment to the development of doctoral students and the development of capacity within the sector; a commitment to collaborative working on projects of mutual interest.

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Alan Mumford has worked in such firms as John Laing and Son, IPC Magazines, International Computers and the Chloride Group. He was also deputy chief training advisor at the Department of Employment. In 1983, he was appointed professor of management development at International Management Centres. He has worked with senior managers and directors and developers in many organisations, including Ford of Europe, Unilever and Unison. He is the co-author of *Management Development, Strategies for Action* (with Jeff Gold), published by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development in 2004.

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James Collins spent over 20 years in the shipping industry, as a mariner, shipbroker and marine insurance underwriter before taking up academic study and research. Entering the academic world in mid life he undertook his Ph.D. at Cranfield School of Management, where he is a Visiting Fellow at the School's Centre for Executive Learning and Leadership. His principal research interests concern leadership in the public sector and the challenges of leadership in the global context. James now lives and works in Finland where he is an independent consultant

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Lloyd Davies was the HR Director of Yorkshire Water PLC, a Footsie 100 company. Before retirement, he observed that individuals' greatest personal and professional development usually came from their experiences, rather than from formal programmes. Following retirement he returned to Lancaster University's Department of Management Learning to undertake doctoral research into the various aspects of experiential learning. His book *Informal Learning: A New Model for Making Sense of Experience*, based on his research and published in 2008, explores some of the elements entailed in this process which are usually overlooked but which appear to be critical in personal learning.

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Leadership and Management Development in the Twenty-first Century

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Leadership and Management Development: The Current State

RICHARD THORPE AND JEFF GOLD

Introduction

'Leadership' has always been a popular term, and has appeared in an ever-increasing number of books, all offering insight into how managers and very often those carrying the title of leader can develop themselves and their organisations in the context of rapid change and globalisation. There has also been a growth in leadership centres – often called 'academies' – that purport to improve the leadership skills of particular groups of professionals.[1] Those involved in developing managers have long been puzzled by leadership being so prominent at the expense of management, and there has been a great deal of speculation as to why this should be so.

One explanation we offer is that management literature has always drawn a distinction between management and leadership, acknowledging a difference between aspects of an organisation that might be said to be in steady state or routine, and aspects that might be depicted as in flux, unprogrammed, complex, and ambiguous and so on, for which where there are no 'correct' answers and management decisions require judgement. Herbert Simon's[2] studies on decision making in the 1950s and Bennis's[3] research on leadership in the 1980/90s exemplify this point. Leadership might be seen as activity that is visionary, creative, inspirational, energising and transformational, whereas management might be seen as dealing with the day-to-day routine, much more transactional and so requiring good operational skills. In one sense then, the growth and interest in leadership might simply reflect the changing nature of managerial work.

However, commentators also detect some degree of inflation in the use of the word 'leadership' compared to 'management'. When management is defined in relation to administration, for example, it is the word 'management' that conveys the sense of strategy and creative endeavour, with 'administration' seen as embodying notions of efficiency and routine. When leadership is defined in relation to management, however,

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1   For example, the National College for School Leadership at http://www.ncsl.org.uk/ seeks to provide support for 'current and future school leaders so that they can have a positive impact within and beyond their schools'.

2   Simon, H. A. (1957) *Administrative Behaviour*, 2nd edn, New York: Macmillan.

3   Bennis, W. and Nanus, B. (1985) *Leaders*, New York: Harper Row.

it is leadership that is then cast as the creative function, with management seen as relating more to day-to-day work. It is perhaps interesting to point out that the MBA degree, the only general master's qualification in management that is truly international, and still relatively popular, is actually a Master of Business Administration, although leadership will undoubtedly be a prominent aspect of its content.

A related issue that might account for the increased interest in leadership detected by management development professionals is that real long-term changes in the economy and society may be affecting the nature of the task of managing. This argument suggests that management was, in a past industrial age, primarily associated with those who manage the factors of production on behalf of owners or shareholders. Leadership, in contrast, has a longer pedigree and is the term traditionally used in the management of professionals.[4] With the increase in knowledge in the new economy, and a commensurate increase in professional employment, the term 'leadership' has become dominant when discussing the way powerful, self-directing and knowledgeable workers might be 'managed'. As with all professional workers, these individuals often have complex if not independent relationships with the organisations in which they work. First, they belong to a distinct community of practice, often a professional society, whilst at the same time often reporting to a range of individuals in the organisations in which they work. Second, their tenure in a job can be a brief one, working on projects, or within teams that disband and reform to focus on new activities.

There have also been other forces at work which provide a strong impetus for promoting leadership as a missing ingredient in the search for improvement and modernisation, especially in the public sector. In the UK, the Council for Excellence in Management and Leadership (CEML)[5] was set up in 2000 to provide a strategy for management and leadership development and made particular reference to the need for more leaders to enable an improvement in UK's economic performance. The Cabinet's Performance and Innovation Unit, very much driven by a modernisation agenda in the public sector, tried with little success,[6] to draw lessons about leadership from private and public sectors on the qualities required for effective leadership and the impact of development programmes on organisational outcomes.

More recently, there has been growing interest in the importance of diversity as an issue for inclusion in leadership and management programmes, as well as attention to ethical and more socially responsible behaviour by leaders and managers.

We feel it is important to raise these issues at the beginning of a book focused on developing managers and leaders, so that readers are clear that leadership hasn't suddenly made the need for management and administration redundant within organisations. Nor is leadership a substitute for many of the activities and roles that managers and administrators need to discharge. Rather, it is a different aspect of the role that is for many embodied in the same person, and an aspect that may well have been missing from the way we have developed our managers in the past. As society changes, professionals'

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4   A useful reminder provided to us by our friend and colleague, John Burgoyne in Thorpe, R., Gold, J., Anderson, L., Burgoyne, J. G., Wilkinson, D. and Malby, B. (2008) *Towards 'Leaderful' Communities in the North of England*, Cork: Oak Tree Press.

5   The Council's final report, *Managers and Leaders, Raising Our Game*, was published in 2002.

6   See PIU (2001) *Strengthening Leadership in the Public Sector: A Research Study by the PIU*, London: The Cabinet Office.

work increases and we expect more from our public services, the need to address the development of leadership does so as well.

Not withstanding this increasing interest in leadership as a phenomenon, there is still a dearth of literature that clarifies just what leadership is and how leaders can be developed. A systematic review of the leadership literature[7] revealed it to be not particularly robust, with few convincing empirical studies and a sense that little progress has been made since Stogdill[8] first suggested the absence of any clear personality traits that reliably predict leadership potential. Of interest to us is the observation by Pfeiffer[9] who pointed out the fact that the performance of a business is often outside the control of single individuals – yet the search for the individual as leader and hero continues. In this chapter, we hope to indicate the distributed, collective nature of leadership and help readers to identify how both individual working within collectives might be more appropriately seen as the unit of account and what this means for leadership learning and development.

In addition to these comments on leadership, more broadly it seems that it remains an act of faith than an investment in management development will be linked to measures of success, whether at the level of organisations or the nation as whole. It is very much part of conventional wisdom that management development is a good thing.[10] However, there is now growing research to suggest that there is a link between management development and organisation performance, although this link is very much connected to the priority and support given to it by those in senior positions – the leaders.[11] Thus leadership development is very much connected to management development, and this theme will be evident in this chapter and throughout the book.

So What is Leadership and Does it Differ from Management?

A number of years ago, when the dean of a British business school visited North America, he asked an Indian chief, to whom he was introduced, why it was he who became the leader of the tribe. His response was that when he was hunting for buffalo on the great plain and the track forked left and right, if he rode right and his braves followed him, he was reaffirmed as the leader; but if he rode right and his braves rode to the left, then he was no longer the leader. The inference is here that for leaders to be leaders, they have to have followers; how leaders create confidence in others to follow is one of the subjects of this chapter.

Charles Handy, when presenting BBC Radio 4's *Thought for Today* some years ago, suggested leaders had three qualities – 'the trinity' – which connect to the Indian chief's theme:

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7   Thorpe, R., Lawler, J. and Gold, J. (2007) *Leadership – a systematic review*, SELIG working paper series: http://lubswww.leeds.ac.uk/selig.

8   Stogdill, R. M. (1974) *Handbook of Leadership*, New York: The Free Press.

9   See Pfeffer, J. (1977) The ambiguity of leadership, *Academy of Management Review,* 2: 104–112.

10   The Leitch Review of skills (2006) *Prosperity for All in the Global Economy – World Class Skills*, London: HM Treasury, linked an improvement in management skills to the improvement in business performance.

11   See Mabey, C. and Ramirez, M. (2005) Does management development improve organizational productivity? A six-country analysis of European firms, *International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 16(7): 1067–1082.

1. *Do they understand?* Understanding means that leaders can both read the external drivers that will affect the organisation's success and understand internal drivers, such as the organisation's capabilities, the views and values held by the stakeholders involved in the enterprise, and the possibilities for change.
2. *Do they have a vision?* Vision means that leaders see a bigger picture: what some writers[12] have called the 'helicopter factor'. They can see not only this bigger picture but also how it can be translated into operational actions.
3. *Can they inspire others?* Inspiration means that leaders can release the energy within their subordinates and connect with them to obtain their willing if not wholehearted support.

So, in a general sense, leadership demands a sense of purpose, and an ability to influence others, interpret situations, negotiate and debate their views, often in the face of opposition. If this image is one that seems to set a standard for leaders, we perhaps need to explore how far those who are appointed to the role of leader or manager match this standard by observing how they behave and the roles they perform.

A Retrospective Look at the Roles Managers and Leaders Perform

What is clear to leadership and management developers is the way in which the early idea of what management[13] is and what managers do is still deeply embedded in the management psyche today. The early studies, undertaken at the beginning of the last century,[14] imply that management is at its core a rational scientific process that can be behaviourally studied, systematically trained for and performance-measured. These early writings suggest a number of functions that managers perform:

- Planning: managers determine the direction of the organisation by establishing objectives, and designing and implementing strategies.
- Organising: managers determine the specific activities and resources required to implement the business plan, as well as making decisions about how work should be allocated and coordinated.
- Directing: managers communicate to others their responsibilities in achieving the plan, as well as providing an organisational environment in which employees are motivated and able to improve their performance.
- Controlling: managers guide, monitor and adjust work activities to ensure that performance remains in line with the organisation's expectations.

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12   Handy, C. (1982) *Understanding Organisations*, 2nd edn, Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

13   Most research at first tended to focus on management with leadership implicitly seen as part of the work.

14   For the classical texts, see, for example, Fayol, H. (1916) *General and Industrial Administration*, translated from the French by C. Storrs (1949) London: Sir Isaac Pitman; Taylor, F. W. (1947) *Scientific Management*, New York: Harper and Row; Brech, E. F. L. (1965) *Organisation: The Framework of Management*, 2nd edn, London: Longman.

This very much remains the orthodoxy for both managers and leaders and forms the basis of many programmes, frameworks, books and articles. However, what have we learnt about what managers and leaders actually do?

From various studies,[15] we have learnt that when we imagine a manager or leader sitting quietly behind a desk making decisions and thinking of the future. The observation studies conducted reveal managers and leaders at all levels within an organisation to be working at a frenetic pace, often on a variety of tasks simultaneously, and often being reactive to events – a far cry from the image of a proactive individual. From these studies, a number of themes can be distilled that helpfully illuminate a number of aspects of management and leadership work:

1. *Elements:* we have already discussed the fact that managers and leaders are seen to undertake both specialist and generalist work, but more important is the fact that they often carry out very similar tasks in completely different ways and, in so doing, achieve similar results. This is, of course, most perplexing for those brought up within the behavioural school, where jobs are thought to be reducible observing what managers and leaders actually do couldn't offer a more different picture from their functional components, and where training programmes are developed to improve the performance of individuals carrying out these functions. What is not open to debate, though, is that a number of roles can be identified that all leaders especially appear to perform, regardless of company size or sector. One of these is to act as figurehead for the organisation, division or group. Leaders also represent the organisation to outside bodies, visitors and new recruits, and perform important liaison roles, connecting to those outside the organisation. They also allocate scarce resources and sort out disruptions in work, often by negotiating with people when these arise.

2. *Distribution of time:* a second feature of a manager and leader's work is the amount of time spent planning ahead and thinking about the future. Not only did these activities rarely get observed but those that did were of short duration and, as a consequence, agendas were often used to identify what needed to be done. Agendas link closely to notions of their use of recipes or 'agendas' that have been thought to help managers save time. As with single-loop learning,[16] these kinds of shortcuts save managers and leaders time in analysing problems or enacting strategy.

3. *Ways of interaction:* one striking feature of the studies into the ways managers and leaders behave is the amount of time they spend in communication of various forms. Even though electronic media now reduce the degree of face-to-face contact, the latter is still seen as important. Lateral communication – where managers talk to other managers of the same rank or status – appears to occupy a large part of their time, and of course there are those endless rounds of meetings. What can't be so easily observed is time taken to stand back and reflect on strategic issues important for the future.

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15   For insights into what managers and leaders do, see Mintzberg, H. (1975) The manager's job, folklore and fact, *Harvard Business Review,* July–Aug: 49–61; Kotter, J. P. (1990) What leaders really do?, *Harvard Business Review,* May–June: 103–111; Watson, T. (2000) *In Search of Management*, London: Routledge.

16   Single-loop learning is a concept used by Argyris to describe learning from past activities that saves managers reassessing each problem afresh. Double-loop learning occurs when the manager realises important aspects of the problem have changed and new solutions are required. See Argyris, C. (2006) *Reasons and Rationalizations: The Limits of Organisational Knowledge*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Another interesting feature of communication (and one we will pick up on later) is its informality – in humour and references to matters seemingly unconnected to work. This highlights the importance placed on individuals' interpersonal skills and what academics have begun to call 'human capital': a quality managers and leaders need to have, to benefit from others. 'Social capital', meanwhile, refers to the quality of the relations managers and leaders develop. It is through social capital and a manager and leader's networks that a great deal of information is gained.[17] This links to the importance of understanding how managers and leaders gain their knowledge. Knowledge has so often been viewed as simply data that can be transferred, as opposed to information that might be gained through informal contact and involvement with peers, in what academics refer to as 'communities of practice'.[18]

4. *The political nature of management practice:* what has been understated for many years is the political and symbolic nature of managerial and leadership work. Dalton,[19] as long ago as 1959, showed the way in which power struggles and information alliances affected the way managers operated. Also recognised has been the way managers and leaders have not always followed organisations' goals but instead pursued personal agendas. The political nature of work can be the way individuals manipulate incentive bonus schemes to reward themselves in the short term, whether or not it produces problems for the organisation in the long term. An illustration of this might be the recent problems that have occurred within the financial services industries.

5. *The symbolic dimension:* this is another theme of activity that, although recognised, has been undervalued by both managers, leaders and academics alike. Yet it is a particularly important feature of the way leaders operate,[20] especially in how they create change and set agendas for certain kinds of activity. Managers and leaders can't influence individuals to change their behaviours directly but achieve this through one or more *mediating means.* The weapons the manager or leader has in their armoury to achieve this include the use of compelling rhetoric, which might work to persuade individuals or groups of the importance of one thing or another. Another might be the way in which the physical settings and infrastructures are designed. Stories told within the organisation also play their part. Stories with often dramatic narratives of past events are used to suggest to employees the benefits of particular practices or activities, and serve to signal the way the organisation was successful in the past.[21] Rituals – also an important aspect of organisational life – serve to signal the success of individuals in the organisation, such as being promoted or achieving some kind of success or another. Successful leaders use these kinds of symbols and rituals to send important messages to employees about what is valued within the organisation.

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17   For an understanding of the way human and social capital is generated see Thorpe, R., Jones, O., Macpherson, A. and Holt, R. (2008) The evolution of business knowledge in SMEs, in Scarborough, H. (ed.) *The Evolution of Business Knowledge*, Oxford: Oxford University Press; or Jones, O., Macpherson, A., Thorpe, R. and Graham, A. (2007) The evolution of business knowledge in SMEs: conceptualising strategic space, *Journal of Strategic Change,* 16(6): 281–294.

18   A term usually attributed to Etienne Wenger, go to http://www.ewenger.com/theory/index.htm.

19   Dalton, M. (1959) *Men Who Manage: Fusion of Feeling and Theory in Administration*. New York: Wiley.

20   See Pfeffer, J. and Sutton, R. (2006) *Hard Facts, Dangerous Half-Truths, and Total Nonsense Profiting from Evidence-Based Management*, Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

21   See Weick, K. (1995) *Sensemaking in Organizations*, San Francisco, CA: Sage.

The issues raised above indicate the importance of understanding aspects of the nature of a manager and leader's work. We are not suggesting that managers and leaders don't plan and think about the future, but rather that their day-to-day activity is, necessarily, a far cry from what many expect, yet the roles they perform are often quite similar. It is from the relatively informal everyday processes that most managers and leaders derive much of their learning, and a recognition of this forms part of the trend towards relatively informal learning and development provision that includes mentoring, coaching, including executive coaching and 360-degree feedback as well as management development methods such as action learning.[22] Of course, the very informality of such learning poses difficulties for those concerned with proving the value of provision, an issue that will be considered later in the book.

One way of considering the distinction between leadership and management is to view them as processes that require two very different systems of action. Kotter[23] argues that both are important for success, and that far from being mystical, mysterious processes, management and leadership aren't so much linked to particular personality traits or individual displays of 'charisma', but rather to distinctive systems of action that rub alongside the everyday functions of management, shown in Table 1.1. The real danger (especially in the small organisation) is over-management at the expense of leadership. Drawing on Kotter's ideas, Chell[24] illustrates how good organisational management might deal with the issues of complexity, through the process of planning, organising, controlling and solving problems, whilst those responsible for the organisation's leadership help to create direction and vision, through communication, motivation and the inspiration they instil in subordinates.

Table 1.1   Leadership and management as systems of action

Management	Leadership
Planning; setting targets Identifying steps to goal achievement and allocating resources to achieve them	Envisioning; setting direction Creating a vision for the future along with strategies for its achievement
Organising – creating a structure Identifying jobs and staffing requirements, communicating the plan and delegating responsibility to those job holders for carrying them out	Aligning people Communicating the vision and marshalling support; getting people to believe the management and empowering them with a clear sense of direction, strength and unity
Controlling and problem solving Installing control systems to direct deviations from the plan, the purpose being to complete routine jobs successfully	Motivating and inspiring Energising people through need, fulfilment and involvement in the process, including supporting employees' efforts, and recognising and rewarding their success. Coordination occurs through strong networks of informal relationships

Source: Kotter (1990) adapted from Chell (2001).

22   See other chapters in this book and Hirsh, W. and Carter, A. (2002) *New Directions in Management Development, Report 387*, Brighton: Institute for Employment Studies.

23   Kotter, J. P. (1990) op. cit.

24   Chell, E. (2001) *Entrepreneurship: Globalisation, Innovation and Development,* Part 3, Chapter 9, Leadership and management, are they different?, pp. 188–190. London: Thomson.

Readers will notice that the headings in the management column follow closely the classical view of the functions managers perform, as discussed earlier, whereas the headings that describe the leaders' qualities and roles include a number of those identified from the observation studies, including the informational roles and a number of generic competences put forward by Richard Boyatzis.[25]

Good leadership is a lot about the ability to cope with change and, in this context, a distinction has been drawn between two types of leadership – transactional and transformational approaches – which will be discussed in the following section.

Linking Theory to the Observation of Roles

When managers and developers look to academics for theories that might help them understand how they may be developed, they are faced with a bewildering array of competing approaches.[26] There appears to have been no cumulative building of theory in respect to leadership with all the studies that have been done, offering only a partial perspective on leadership. This is not to suggest that each in its own way is not useful; so long as managers and leaders don't look for a single correct explanation, the theories do help to shed some light on leadership or management as an activity. Rather like eating the elephant, it is possible only by tackling one small bit at a time. So at this stage in the chapter, we will outline some of the most influential theories produced by academics over the last 50 years. We conclude this section with the notion of distributed leadership: an idea whose time we believe has come[27] and one that we are currently exploring more widely.

Trait theory. From this perspective, leadership or management is seen as embedded in individuals. Debates continue as to whether particular traits are born or bred. The approach involved identifying the traits (psychological and physiological) of successful leaders, often in war situations, and highlighting those qualities that appeared to correlate with their success as leaders. So leaders, for example, were thought to have to be very small or very tall to have integrity and good social skills. The problem, of course, came in considering just how desired personality traits might be developed and how the observations could be adapted to different contexts or cultures.

Functional views. This approach views leadership[28] very much as a job. Leaders need to attend to various important aspects of most work. So, for example, the task in hand needs to be achieved, the needs of individuals are to be taken care of, and how individuals work together as a group or team must be managed, to gain the optimum from the resources available. Used extensively by the British Army even today, the approach suggests that by striking the correct balance between the needs of the task, the teams and the individual, optimum performance can be managed regardless of the styles the leader adopts, which in any event might depend on the nature of the tasks undertaken.

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25   See Boyatzis, R. E. (1982) *The Competent Manager: A Model for Effective Performance*, New York: John Wiley and Sons, and Chapter 12 of this book.

26   Thorpe, R., Lawler, J. and Gold, J. (2007) *Leadership – A Systematic Review,* SELIG working paper series, http://lubswww.leeds.ac.uk/selig.

27   A comment adapted from Gronn, P. (2000) Distributed properties: a new architecture for leadership, *Educational, Management and Administration,* 28(3): 317–338.

28   Adair, J. (1983) *Effective Leadership*, Aldershot: Gower.

Style approaches. In this perspective on leadership, paramount to success was the leader's influence, as opposed to accepting that subordinates should always have an influence on work decisions. The research studies often depict a continuum of styles where at one end the leader tells or sells to subordinates what *the leader* thinks are the important priorities, whilst at the other end the leader abdicates responsibility to subordinates. On balance, the research suggested that leaders would be most effective when adopting a consultative style that balanced the views of subordinates with their own views. However, in the majority of research studies, the margin of error was really quite large and there was little definitive proof that one style was in fact much more successful than other, even though, for many, the quality of working life might have been improved. In later years, this stream of research on style was extended to incorporate a contingency component that stressed the importance of striking an appropriate balance between a concern to achieve tasks and a concern for those individuals undertaking them, dependent on the organisational context and circumstances at the time. Even today managers remain familiar with 'Blake and Mouton's managerial grid'.[29]

Contingency theories. Contingency theories were very much in vogue in the 1960s and 1970s, and the study of leadership was no exception. This approach to leadership, advocated by writers such as Vroom and Yetton,[30] further developed the contingency approach and brought into play even more variables that would predict the best choice of leadership style. The variables considered included the personality of the leader, the nature and urgency of the task to be completed, the dynamics of the context, and the personality of those subordinates being led.[31] Later, writers went further, suggesting that leadership styles might also need to change depending on the maturity of the group or team, with early engagement potentially requiring more autocratic styles, but familiarity and experience of working together allowing a more participatory style. This approach is one that many schoolteachers will readily recognise as they seek to stamp their authority on a new class but relax as patterns of work become more established.[32]

The use of power. Often absent from the more traditional explorations of styles, research on power is nevertheless important. From a traditional or classical point of view, leaders will enjoy power and authority from the formal role they occupy within the organisation. Here, their authority comes from their position in the organisational hierarchy; however, this is not always so, and even in terms of the contributions individuals make within teams, writers such as Belbin[33] illustrate how power can also be exerted on decisions and performance through an individual's expertise.

Expertise can also have a reputational dimension and might therefore emanate from past performance. This links closely with the symbolic aspects of leadership discussed above, where the leader performance is seen as a consequence of past performance in the job. Another source of power can emanate from the respect and admiration that an

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29   Blake, R. R. and Moulton, J. S. (1964) *The Managerial Grid*, Houston, TX: Gulf.

30   Vroom, V. H. and Yetton, P. W. (1973) *Leadership and Decision Making*, Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.

31   For an early account of a contingency view of leadership see Fiedler, F. E. (1964) A contingency model of leadership effectiveness. In Berkovitz, L. (ed.) *Advances of Experimental Social Psychology*, New York: Academic Press.

32   Conger, J. (2004) Developing leadership capability: what's inside the black box?, *Academy of Management Executives*, 18(3): 136–39.

33   Belbin, R. M. (1981) *Management Teams: Why they Succeed or Fail*, Oxford: Butterworth Heinmann.

individual commands, due to their charisma. Recent work by Bryman[34] highlights the importance of this quality, but readers need look no further than the phenomenal success of Barack Obama in winning the hearts and minds of many hitherto disenfranchised Americans through his charismatic personality.

Power, of course, can also play a significant part in the political activity of individuals. Picking up some threads from earlier, we can mention that researchers examined the way in which successful leaders can influence others through giving access to individuals who want to get their points across. The power that comes from gate-keeping and occasionally opening the gate is considerable and often involves reciprocity. Here favours are often offered in the expectation of their being returned some time in the future. Such a process sets up new obligations on individuals and a network of exchange relationships.[35]

TRANSACTIONAL OR TRANSFORMATIONAL?

These ideas emerged in the 1980s, principally as a response to dissatisfaction of prevailing views of leadership or management styles and a concern that leaders were too bogged down in detail to provide the inspiration needed in challenging times.[36] As part of a 'new paradigm', transactional approaches to leadership are usually based on a clearly understood bargain being struck between leaders and subordinates who are clear about the rewards they can expect to receive for certain actions or behaviours taking place. Leaders, therefore, promise rewards for effort, with an underlying assumption that individuals will work for self-interest[37] to gain the rewards offered. By contrast, transformational approaches to leadership relates closely to organisational change. It involves leaders presenting visions of new possibilities and individuals rising to the challenge. Through enacting the vision, individuals can both improve and fulfil themselves.[38] By inspiring people through this transformational style, leaders create new possibilities for their subordinates that move them beyond the basic self-interest that is the bedrock of transactional approaches. There is of course a danger that transformational leadership can overspill into a more coercive and totalitarian ethos that others dare not challenge. In the twenty-first century, the behaviour of leaders such as Enron, who were consistently seen as transformative, nevertheless have served to prompt a more considered and ethical treatment of how to engage hearts and minds.[39]

This 'rediscovery' of the idea of leaders as inspirational, visionary and charismatic had and still does have much attraction for developers and a range of instruments have been

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34   Bryman, A. (1992) *Charisma and Leadership in Organisations*, London: Sage.

35   Boissevain, J. (1974) *Friends of Friends*, Oxford: Blackwell.

36   For an overview on transactional and transformational approaches to leadership see Bennis, W. (1984) Where have all the leaders gone? In Rosenbank, W. E. and Taylor, R. L. (eds) *Contemporary Issues in Leadership*, Boulder, CO: West View Press.

37   For an account of the effect reward bargain see Bowey, A. M. (ed.) (1982) *Handbook of Wages and Salary Systems*, Aldershot: Gower.

38   The person who first coined the term transformational leadership was Burns. Burns, J. M. (1978) *Leadership*, New York: Harper Row.

39   Ethics and corporate social responsibility are growing elements of leadership and management development programmes. See Simon Western's (2008) *Leadership, A Critical Text* (London: Sage) for a more considered critique of coercion and totalisation in leadership practice.

offered to assist.[40] There is a link to the phenomenon of emotional intelligence.[41] However, there has also been something of a reaction against the promotion of transformation, perhaps at the expense of transactional approaches. For example, the effort–reward bargain may well be much more sophisticated than simply a monetary one. Reward can be far more than pay and bonuses; it can extend to other rewards such as flexible working, personal development and even a guaranteed car-parking space in a busy city. On the other side of the equation, effort is often seen as far more than physical or mental application; with the growth of the knowledge economy, often of greater importance are things such as the flexibility and reliability of staff, their commitment, and possibly their ability to be creative and innovative. In some ways, transactional leadership, with its basis in the striking of a bargain, could be seen as having a strong moral base. Leaders set out what they require from subordinates and subordinates know what they will get by adopting certain behaviours.

Dialogical. Both transformational and transactional approaches link closely to something we will discuss later: *authorship*.[42] This is where a leader and/or manager creates a landscape of possibilities for individuals whilst at the same time it remains clear just what everyone's obligations and responsibilities are if they are to make the new landscape a reality. The leader is not so much a hero, but just as much a listener and sometimes a servant.[43] In order to operate within a context requiring transformation and to be successful in getting others to buy into what needs to be done, leaders need to be reflective enough to be aware of the language they use and the way they structure what they want to say to others in their daily transactions. The subject of linguistic philosophy, as it is known, is not new;[44] it relates to how conversations can be shaped in order to create shared meaning and understanding.[45] Critical is the sensitivity that leaders need to have towards the audience with which they engage. This includes using language that will connect with whomsoever they are communicating, and this sense of being grounded in the local, yet understanding the global, is an important skill of the leader. In the 1960s, a colleague of ours worked as an assistant to Anthony Wedgwood-Benn, who was then the Energy Minister. One of the most striking things he remembers was the way Tony Benn, as he is now known, could moderate the way he spoke to very different audiences. So, for example, his manner of speaking to a group of senior business leaders was quite different from his manner of speaking to a group of trade unionists in a works canteen. In the former situation he would sit at a boardroom table, while in the latter he might well stand on a table in a suit, shirtsleeves and no tie as he spoke.

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40   Probably the most well known of these is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) – go to http://www. mindgarden.com/products/mlq.htm.

41   See Goleman D., Boyatzis, R. and McKee, A. (2004) *Primal Leadership: Learning to Lead with Emotional Intelligence*, Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

42   Authorship is a term coined by John Shotter in his book *Conversational Realities*: Shotter, J. (1993) *Conversational Realities: Constructing Life Through Language (Inquiries in Social Construction Series)*, London: Sage.

43   See Robert Greenleaf's idea of servant leadership at http://www.greenleaf.org/ and Joseph L. Badaracco's (2002) notion of the quiet leader in *Leading Quietly: An Unorthodox Guide to Doing the Right Thing*, Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

44   Austin, J. L. (1959) *Sense and Sensibility*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

45   Holman, D. and Thorpe, R. (2003) *Management and Language*, London: Sage.

Leadership and distribution. There is an emerging body of knowledge relating to what is referred to as distributed leadership and this concept does not fit easily with most of the research which tends to focus on what individual leaders should learn to do to improve their performance. What an insight into distributed leadership provides is an understanding of how leaders at all organisational levels are able to use influence and how influence might be seen within organisations as part of work practice and the deployment of talent. Leadership is distributed through the work of people working together for the good *or otherwise* of an organisation. We qualify this statement because there is no certainty that people will align their efforts for a common good. This of course poses quite a difficulty for those appointed into leadership roles because, we mentioned earlier, leaders cannot directly influence others but instead need to use a range of mediating means. Distributed leadership is in many ways the antithesis of hero leadership, where a single individual is reified as the saviour of the firm. Hero leadership dominates so much of the leadership literature, particularly the academic literature from North America, where the highly individualistic culture serves to reinforce the view that individuals matter more than collectives.[46] Such views, though, do not sit comfortably in the British and European traditions. Academic research by writers such as Peter Gronn[47] and Jim Spillane[48] has illustrated how adopting a distributed view, and embracing and developing the talents of people throughout the organisational hierarchy and even outside the organisation, can have substantial positive effects on leadership performance. James and others[49] show how distributed leadership has been embraced in the teaching profession, requiring the collaboration of the many as opposed to the few and where leaders are beginning to be seen more as *lead learners*. Significantly there is now growing evidence of the value of an understanding of this perspective on leadership and organisations that experience positive outcomes.[50]

For those involved in developing leaders and managers, the emerging evidence on distributed leadership does rather set the cat amongst the pigeons because it blurs a long recognised distinction between the leaders as agents appointed to a role and leadership as process of influence and interdependencies. As Richard Barker once asked, 'How can we train leaders if we do not know what leadership is?'[51] However, what the concept of distributed leadership is able to do is enable developers to find a new range of development opportunities that focus on a variety of interdependencies where, influence and interests can be aligned. Figure 1.1 suggests some of these possibilities with solo leaders and collective leadership seen at opposite ends of a continuum that serve to clarify for developers exactly what units might lend themselves for attention.

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46   Hofstede, G. (1991) Motivation, leadership and organisation: do American theories apply abroad?, *Organisational Dynamics,* 9(1): 42–63.

47   Gronn, P. (2000) Distributed properties: a new architecture for leadership, *Educational, Management and Administration,* 28(3): 317–338.

48   Spillane, J. (2006) *Distributed Leadership*, San Francisco, CA: Wiley.

49   For a contemporary account of distributed leadership in a school setting see James, K. T., Mann, J. and Creasy, J. (2007) Leaders as lead learners: a case example of facilitating collaborative leadership learning for school learners, *Management Learning,* 38(1): 79–94.

50   Although such evidence is still mainly confined to education. See Harris, A. (2008) Distributed leadership according to the evidence, *Journal of Educational Administration,* 46(2): 172–188.

51   See Barker, R. (1997) How can we train leaders if we do not know what leadership is? *Human Relations,* 50(4): 343–362.
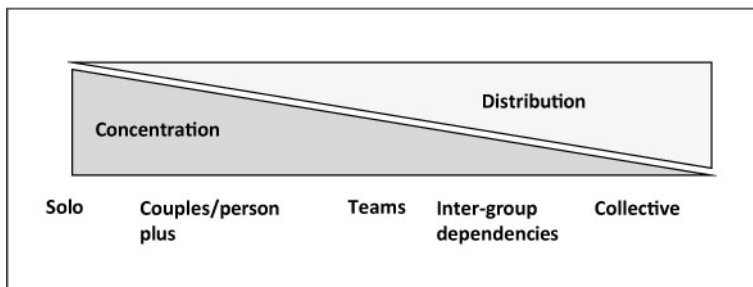
Figure 1.1   A continuum of leadership development possibilities

It is undoubtedly the case that most development is focused towards the solo end of the continuum, an investment in what David Day[52] sees as human capital which enhances the capability of certain individuals. Movement toward the collective end of the continuum affords greater weight to relationships, networks, collaboration and cooperation or what Day sees as social capital.

The above overview of the academic research needs, in our view, to be seen as contributing to explaining just what we observe when we examine what leaders and managers do, as described earlier in the chapter. Unfortunately, rather than being seen as partial perspectives, the different models are seen as competing alternatives that vie against each other for prominence. However, we believe they are actually pieces of a jigsaw that need to come together for us to gain a better picture of how leadership and management operate and how they might be developed.

Developing Leaders and Managers

Our consideration of what managers and leaders do, and some of the key ideas and theories drawn from research, suggests that those involved the business of learning and development do have quite a lot to learn themselves in order to cope with the many challenges presented by our analysis.

One source of help, at least in terms of how to think about the choices, is provided by David Holman, a valued colleague of ours, who rather neatly sets out some ways of thinking about management and, we would argue, leadership development.[53] Holman suggests four conceptually different approaches:

1. Academic liberalism – the pursuit of objective knowledge as principles and theories to be applied rationally and relatively scientifically. Managers and leaders have the image of a 'scientist', applying ideas and principles gained from experts.
2. Experiential liberalism – rather than theories, experience is the source of learning which provides ideas and insights which can be used in practice. A crucial is skill is to become a 'reflective practitioner' to make learning from experience a deliberate

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52   See Day, D. (2001) Leadership development: a review in context, *The Leadership Quarterly,* 11: 581–613.

53   See Holman, D. (2000) Contemporary models of management education in the UK, *Management Learning,* 31(2): 197–217.

process, perhaps with others in a joint process or by taking responsibility for self learning and development.

3. Experiential vocationalism – organisations are where managers and leaders practice so what is needed is relevant knowledge and skills, as required. The image is that of a 'competent manager', as defined by an agreed a model of competences.

4. Experiential/critical – where 'emancipation' is sought by managers and leaders and others. While there is a body of knowledge drawn from critical theory, the image for managers and leader is of a 'critically reflective or reflexive practitioner' who seeks to work with others to deal ambiguous, paradoxical and intractable problems in a complex world.

All of these approaches to some extent inform what is offered as leadership and management development, and the chapters in this book certainly reflect aspects of the conceptual models.

MANAGERS AND LEADERS AS SCIENTISTS

We live in knowledge-rich world, so it is not surprising that there is a high expectation that managers and leaders will be able to analyse issues and apply theories and principles. Learning about leadership and management and the issues that need to be faced strategically is a significant part of any management and leadership development intervention, whether offered in-house or by external providers.[54] It is also often the unique selling point of programmes such as the MBA degree, learning through exposure to those 'experts' who know through formal instruction seminars, case studies and perhaps increasingly e-media and in-house access to databases.

Competent Managers and Leaders

We began our characterisation of past approaches to the development of leadership and management by suggesting their links to behaviourist approaches to development. The view here is that good leadership and management can be studied and desired behaviour subsequently developed through an appropriately designed instructional process. Over the decades, developers have sometimes seen this process in highly structured ways, such as in profiles of competences that need development. Often such approaches have been achieved through scientific processes such as the functional analysis of jobs. These assume close relationships between behaviour and performance. On the other hand, others[55] have built a great deal of flexibility into both the definition of the competence and the approach that might be used for its development. Whatever the approach, there is usually an instructional process through which the desired outcomes are obtained. Knowledge is seen in the form of a category, principle or definition that, if the process of development is followed properly, can be improved and measured. Although not often undertaken over the longer term, leadership performance is measured against these predefined objectives, which are often the stuff of annual appraisals.

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54   See Storey, J. (2004) *Leadership in Organisations*, London: Routledge.

55   Boyatizis, R. (1982) *The Competent Manager: A Theory of Effective Performance*, New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Although this approach is seen to benefit those involved with leadership and management development, it raises a number of issues. One issue, highlighted earlier in the chapter, relates to how different leaders and managers can achieve similar results in very different ways. If this is indeed the case, then knowing which approach is the correct one to adopt becomes extremely difficult. Add to this the uncertainty of the unknown, and complications become greater still. A pure behaviourist philosophy also assumes that the leader will adopt a passive role in their own development, whereas we have also shown the way managers and leaders often behave proactively and in ways that may be at odds with the immediate goals of the organisation.

Behavioural statements, when produced, also say little about the moral or ethical basis of leadership decisions: aspects of the role we have identified as important. In the management education literature, concerns have recently been expressed, particularly in respect to the MBA degree, that managers may not be taught enough about subjects such as corporate social responsibility, and their understanding may not be sufficiently embedded in a close knowledge of practice and so not be properly grounded in events, practices and experiences.[56, 57] This we see as extremely important, particularly where distributed leadership is concerned, as it is from the understanding of the practitioner's approach to the general that true understanding emanates.

MANAGERS AND LEADERS AS REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONERS

Recognising the limitations of the models above, many management and leadership developers have grasped the importance of situating and grounding development in the context of day-to-day reality. This has led to programmes that are both problem- and learner-centred. Starting from this position, a number of approaches to management and leadership development have emerged, including action learning, coaching and mentoring, where managers and leaders are helped to reflect on their day-to-day activities as well as the sense they make of their work for themselves. These are related to their current knowledge and understanding, as well as to their current practice needs. From this perspective, a view has developed that sees organisational development as inextricably linked to an individual's personal development and where learning takes place through reflection and as a consequence of problems and opportunities that the individual faces at work. Many also recognised that learning often occurs naturally, particularly as a consequence of significant work-related events,[58] whether these are problems or opportunities. From this perspective, it follows that learning and development can be significantly enhanced if the learning can be structured and captured, and if the issues the manager or leader faces can be reflected upon.

The process might be further enhanced if managers are encouraged to work through what a number of researchers[59, 60] have referred to as the learning cycle. This cycle includes

56   Khuana, R. (2007) *From Higher Aims to Hired Hands: The Social Transformation of American Business Schools and the Unfilled Promise of Management as a Profession*, Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

57   Starkey, K. and Tiratsoo, N. (2007) *The Business School and the Bottom Line*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

58   Davies, J. and Easterby Smith, M. P. V. (1983) Learning and developing from managerial work experiences, *Journal of Management Studies,* 21(2): 169–182.

59   Kolb, D. A. (1984) *Experiential Learning*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

60   Honey, P. and Mumford, A. (2000) *The Learning Style Helpers Guide,* Maidenhead: Peter Honey Publications Ltd.

undertaking an activity, and reflecting on its outcome and result, how the learning from the activity might be captured and conceptualised, and the implications all this might have for learning and for future actions. This kind of development philosophy makes full use of an individual's experience and places the person firmly at the centre of the development process. It is also self-directed and action-oriented.

However, the approach is not without problems, as pointed out by academics such as Holman and others:[61] the approach predominantly focuses on individuals and, whilst not ignoring social relationships, does not explicitly take into account the interaction between individuals within the organisation. In addition, individuals are often seen as divorced from their social, cultural and historical context; and, in the way the learning cycle is characterised, the various components – for example, thinking and action – are portrayed as separate parts of a circular process. Although learning cycles have for many years been seen as the underpinning rationale for the management development vehicle of action learning, the latter can often, through careful discussion and facilitation, overcome these challenges. This is particularly so where individuals learn together in the context of their own organisation, and where conceptual knowledge and information are fed into the process to help managers make sense of complexity and, when they need to, find ways of viewing their organisations and themselves afresh. Programmes and 'tools' that promote reflection are important to the development of managers and leaders and they can often help managers see situations and their role differently. This focus on the development of managers closely links for the CEO the development of strategy with learning and change.[62, 63]

MANAGERS AND LEADERS AS CRITICALLY REFLECTIVE OR REFLEXIVE PRACTITIONERS

Models that emphasise knowledge, the right way of behaving or finding practical responses to problems through the development of reflective practices, can only ever offer partial success, because managers and leaders are frequently having to find responses to problems which, as Einstein was quoted as suggesting 'cannot be solved at the same level of thinking we were at when we created them'. Instead, managers and leaders need, according to Chia and Morgan,[64] to embrace 'the management of life in all its complexions'. So instead of simply embracing knowledge and skills that reinforce conventional wisdom and reflection that leaves assumptions unchallenged, managers and leaders need to consider their '*ignorance*', and challenge the abstractions which often become confused for truth and embedded in taken-for-granted ways of behaving and thinking. The challenge to this state of affairs is to encourage more critical approaches as part of the development process, but an inevitable tension is created by action-oriented,

61   Holman, D. and Pavilia, K. and Thorpe, R. (1996) Rethinking Kolb's theory of experimental learning: the contribution to social constructionist and activity theory, *Management Learning,* 25(4): 489–504.

62   Gold, J., Holman, D. and Thorpe, R. (2002) The role of argument analysis and story telling in facilitating critical thinking, *Management Learning,* 33(3): 338–371.

63   Gold, J., Thorpe, R. and Holt, R. (2007) Writing, reading and reason, management and the three r's of management learning. In Hill, R. and Stewart, J. (eds) *Management Development: Perspectives from Research and Practice*, London: Routledge.

64   See Chia, R. and Morgan, S. (1996) Educating the philosopher-manager: de-signing the times, *Management Learning,* 27(1): 37–64.

fast-paced development events which provide little time for critical challenge to the assumptions of managers and leaders that might change their thinking and by so doing find solutions for longer term problems.

A FINAL IMAGE: MANAGERS AND LEADERS AS PRACTICAL AUTHORS

We end this chapter with one of our own preferred images which serves to inform our own development activities – this is an image which carries elements of all the models outlined above. The image is one of a manager or leader as a practical author and is taken from the writing of John Shotter.[65] Shotter suggests that one of the key skills of a successful leader or manager is an ability to analyse and read situations so as to be able to find the subtext behind situations or actions observed. Managers and leaders must evaluate problems or situations critically and arrive at preliminary judgements. Whilst this competence would undoubtedly give some managers and leaders an advantage over others, reading situations is not the only thing that leaders need to be able to do. In addition to simply reading situations from different perspectives, managers and leaders need also to generate order out of situations that have become for others perhaps chaotic, confusing or contradictory. Taking this argument further, we see attempting to restore order and clarity in situations of ambiguity and, by so doing, establishing new and more stable flows of activity, as an important task.

If conversations are central to communication, and the processes of learning and leadership are central to change, then what becomes important are the ways in which conversations can lead to the promotion of learning and purposeful action by others and how these people can be developed within organisations.

In most organisational contexts (particularly where professional or technical staff are concerned), it is often the case that the person in charge – the leader – knows little more about the job role and its content than those they are managing.[66] Even when the employees are not professional leaders, the person in charge perhaps needs to be aware that staff often make use of tacit and informal knowledge to make sense of their work and that, by its nature, this kind of knowledge is often well hidden from view. Nevertheless, as researchers have identified, it remains an essential ingredient in maintaining an efficient work process. Given this, one implication (as we have already seen) is that greater knowledge does not necessarily translate into greater authority; the implication for leadership is that the activity needs to be seen less about imparting 'superior knowledge or vision' to those who know, and more about facilitating or acting as a catalyst to groups of individuals, all of whom have a common purpose and who, given the opportunity, might well be capable of painting in the details themselves. To achieve this, they need to tune into conversations and argue persuasively in order to create alignment; this is part of the process of learning about distributed leadership.

From this perspective, leaders and managers serve to help others to make sense of situations and to develop connections within and between a whole range of perspectives

65   See Shotter, J. (1993) *Conversational Realities: Constructing Life Through Language,* Inquiries in Social Construction Series, London: Sage.

66   Barnley, S. (1996) Technicians in the workplace: ethnographic evidence for bringing work into organisation studies, *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 41: 404–441.

and tasks. This in turn supports the task of promoting understanding and action, and in developing ways in which this can be more effectively achieved.

These images of leaders and managers do provide differing views for learning and developing. The images of managing and leading as scientific or standardised by the definition of competences both imply development as a more formal process which can be deliberately planned and specified in advance. By contrast, images of leaders and managers as reflective practitioners or critically reflective/reflexive both imply a more involved and engaged view of development which has to be recognised, often retrospectively, but takes account of the moral and ethical work of managers and leaders, the often complex and difficult decisions to be made and the informal nature of how learning occurs. We therefore can suggest a dimension of deliberate and more emergent options of leadership and management development, shown as Figure 1.2, with our fifth image, managers and leaders as practical authors, oscillating between the two poles of the spectrum.

Conclusion

As this chapter suggests, there are a variety of reasons why an investment in the development of managers and leaders might be viewed as a necessity, including dealing with the many challenges facing our economies, dealing with rapid change, embracing the global agenda, improving public services, promoting diversity and embracing more ethically and socially responsible behaviour within our practice at all levels. Although there has been scant evidence to prove that leaders are directly responsible for a better-performing organisation, nevertheless there has of late been a revival of interest in leadership development, a feature of which has been the bifurcation between leadership and management which in some ways might have been somewhat overstated, particularly in the light of recent evidence that suggests the importance of local leaders who must also manage.[67]
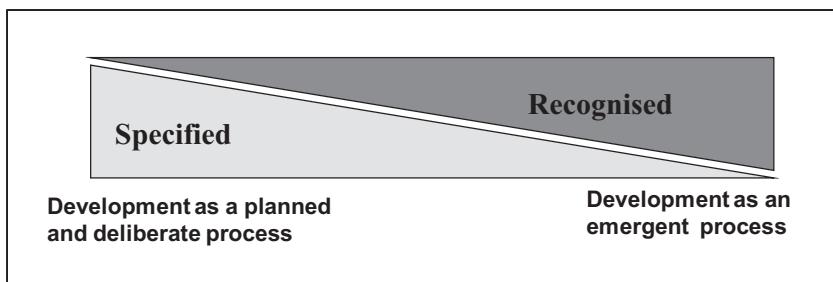
Figure 1.2   A dimension of deliberate emergent options of leadership and management development

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67   See Alimo-Metcalfe, B. and Alban-Metcalfe, J. (2005) Leadership: time for a new direction, *Leadership*, 1(1): 51–71.

In this chapter then, we have presented some of the key ideas from research, theory and practice that raise issues for the choices that need to be made when learning and development is considered. We have identified a variety of perspectives and shown the importance of leaders and managers embracing a more holistic approach to development. The scientific/behaviourist approaches take developers some way along the road, but we show how over-specification of behaviour can lead to only partial solutions and also be problematic. We also show the importance of leaders and managers being well grounded in the context of their organisation and work. Real knowledge, we believe, is embedded in practice and the ability to understand this practice through reflection and where necessary, a critique of assumptions made that hinder effective action is an important quality.

We have also argued that good leadership is not simply the ability to read situations; it also requires leaders to understand fully the organisations in which they work. Only by doing this will they be able to explain to others what needs to happen when perhaps for many all that is seen are vague contestable positions not readily understood without the benefit of the clarity of explanation provided by the leader. For us, the essence of leading is giving a sense of shared significance that offers direction and a sense of purpose to others who already share feelings, however vague, and then having the commitment to continue to work hard to argue for it persuasively for the sense they make of the direction the organisation should travel.

Our view remains that those charged with development continue to offer a rather narrow focus when developing individual leaders and managers. However, as we indicate, it is our view that it has now become an imperative that individuals learn about the distribution of influence in and between organisations. We argue strongly that leadership and management development activities need to address both distributed forms and the way in which leaders and managers need to develop a greater awareness and vision for the future, make judgements and act creatively. This aspect we refer to as 'making history'. Retrospective sense-making takes individuals only so far in a rapidly changing world: what is also required is imagination, judgement and vision.

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2 National and International Developments in Leadership and Management Development

KAI PETERS

Introduction

Two distinct fault lines can be traced across the landscape of international management development literature over the past 20 years. The first was unleashed by Geert Hofstede's oft-cited work[1] from the early 1980s looking at cultural similarities and differences between international managers at IBM. The second literature stream is anchored around a post-colonial perceived inappropriateness of a Western, specifically American, economic world view. Both often generate 'how-to' guides which provide checklists of what to do where.

In parallel, there is a much more sophisticated literature which looks at management development through a conceptual lens. What is missing, however, is a general overview of the strands of the international literature, and more critically, a synthesis of the international literature with conceptual management development frameworks. This chapter, therefore, sets out to fill this gap. By thus anchoring the international components of the management development challenges within a more holistic overall model, the chapter seeks to provide an approach which both advances the academic conceptualisation of international management development but, importantly, also provides practitioners with a useful approach to management development design which transcends the excessively narrow approaches too often found in individual international management development articles.

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1   Hofstede, G. (1980a) *Culture's Consequences*, London: Sage; (1980b) Motivation, leadership and organisation: do American theories apply abroad? *Organisational Dynamics,* Summer: 42–63; (1993) Cultural constraints in management theories, *Academy of Management Executive,* 7(1): 81–94.

Background Literature

A 1988 article by Clement[2] surveyed the literature on management development between 1981 and 1988 and found that most significant was 'a trend towards management development in the international realm' both in terms of international assignments and of the development of international managers in their domestic markets. Much of this literature was influenced by the pioneering work on intercultural differences conducted by Geert Hofstede who, between 1967 and 1973, had developed an extensive database of survey responses which looked at cultural values among IBM employees across the world. This work was popularised through the 1980 appearance of the book *Culture's consequences, international differences in work-related values*, in which value continua were described in terms of individualism, power-distance, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. Subsequently, when an Asian data set was added, a further dimension, long-term orientation, was added.

Since then, Hofstede has applied his work not only in his original field of social psychology but invariably also in management development, as have many others. Given that Hofstede himself has data sets for 56 countries and that the questionnaire is available for others to use in their own research, it is not surprising that in a world with close to 200 countries, the literature is extensive. As an indication, Richards[3] looked at Brunei and noted low individualism, strong uncertainty avoidance and high power distance. In discussing the implications for management development, Richards notes that open discussions around organisational goals and challenges were undermined by strong organisational hierarchies which did not allow for Western-style agenda-setting and problem-solving. Kirkbride and Tang[4] look at the Nanyang Chinese societies of South East Asia (Indonesia, Hong Kong, Macao, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Taiwan and Thailand) where, based largely on Hofstede, they note the Confucian characteristics of strong family values and the related long-term orientation. Jones[5] looks towards Africa. Basing his study on managers and their subordinates in Malawi, he concludes that transplanted Western concepts around discussion-based problem solving are unsuccessful and offers Hofstede-based advice on how to design management development initiatives. Jones, together with Blunt,[6] revisits Africa in an article contrasting African and Asian management development – again drawing attention to the different cultural values at play and how they are different from those values prevalent in Western societies. McFarlin, Coster and Mogale-Pretorius[7] focus on South Africa. Mbigi and Maree[8] survey Africa

2   Clement, R. W. (1988) Management development in the 1980s: a field in transition, *Journal of Management Development,* 7(1): 45–55.

3   Richards, D. (1991) Flying against the wind? Culture and management development in South East Asia, *Journal of Management Development,* 10(6): 7–21.

4   Kirkbride, P. S. and Tang, S. F. Y. (1992) Management development in the Nanyang Chinese Societies of south-east Asia, *Journal of Management Development,* 11(2): 32–41.

5   Jones, M. (1986) Management development: an African focus, *Management Education and Development,* 17(3): 202–216.

6   Blunt, P. and Jones, M. L. (1997) Exploring the limits of Western leadership theory in East Asia and Africa, *Personnel Review,* 26(1/2): 6–23.

7   McFarlin, D. B., Coster, E. A. and Mogale-Pretorius, C. (1999) South African management development in the 21st century, *Journal of Management Development,* 18(1): 63–78.

8   Mbigi, L. and Maree, J. (1995) *Ubuntu: The Spirit of African Transformation Management*, Randburg: Knowledge Resources.

generally. Bollinger[9] performs the same service for Russia, this time from the perspective of a French management development consultant, noting that Russia and France have similar values. Littrell and Valentin[10] compare and contrast Romania, Germany and the UK. Branine[11] looks at China. Liu and MacKinnon[12] compare Europe and China.

Suffice it to say that the literature is extensive and the conceivable permutations and combinations endless. In some cases, advice is based purely on a Hofstede-derived perspective. In the majority of cases, Hofstede forms part of a discussion anchored around aspects of culture and how that should guide a management development initiative.

The second strand of literature vigorously notes the inappropriateness of a Western-derived management paradigm and the related distrust of Western management development approaches without reference to Hofstede. Many begin with a historical overview deemed to have been overlooked or misunderstood internationally. Kiggundu[13] writes that 'the problem is that most scholars write of Africa as if there was no organised African political economy before the colonial era' and then proceeds to list examples of historical good governance ranging the great empires of Ghana to the construction of the pyramids. The article concludes with a checklist of 'practical guidelines for management development professionals for Sub-Saharan Africa'. Neal and Finlay's[14] article title is enough to provide an indication of its orientation – American hegemony and business education in the Arab world – with, in this case, a focus on business school students in Lebanon.

Templar, Beaty and Hofmeyr[15] write more dispassionately about the challenges of management development in South Africa, again anchoring management development within the historical and socio-economic context of the South African environment. Cases for specificities historically embedded in society are made in many further articles focusing on any number of countries and regions. Manning and Poljeva[16] outline the post-Soviet situation and the challenges of management development in the Baltic States in the twenty-first century. Avery, Donnenberg, Gick and Hilb[17] look to the German-speaking countries and Mitku and Wallace[18] seek to prepare East African managers for the twenty-first century. Very recently, a literature has been emerging focusing specifically on

9   Bollinger, D. (1994) The four cornerstones and three pillars in the 'House of Russia' management system, *Journal of Management Development,* 13(2): 49–54.

10   Littrell, R. F. and Valentin, L. N. (2005) Preferred leadership behaviours: exploratory results from Romania, Germany, and the UK, *Journal of Management Development,* 24(5): 421–442.

11   Branine, M. (2005) Cross-cultural training of managers: an evaluation of a MD programme for Chinese managers, *Journal of Management Development,* 24(5): 459–472.

12   Liu, J. and Mackinnon, A. (2002) Comparative management practices and training: China and Europe, *Journal of Management Development,* 21(2): 188–132.

13   Kiggundu, M. N. (1991) The challenges of management development in Sub-Saharan Africa, *Journal of Management Development,* 10(6): 32–47.

14   Neal, M. and Finlay, J. L. (2008) American Hegemony and business education in the Arab World, *Journal of Management Education,* 32(1): 38–83.

15   Templar, A., Beatty, D. and Hofmeyr, K. (1992) The challenge of management development in South Africa: so little time and so much to do, *Journal of Management Development,* 11(2): 32–41.

16   Manning, P. A. and Poljeva, T. (1999) The challenge of MD in the Baltic States in the 21st century, *Journal of Management Development,* 18(1): 32–45.

17   Avery, G., Donnenberg, O., Gick, W. and Hilb, M. (1999) Challenges for management development in the German-speaking nations for the 21st century, *Journal of Management Development,* 18(1): 18–31.

18   Mitku, A. and Wallace, J. B. (1999) Preparing East African managers for the 21st century, *Journal of Management Development,* 18(1): 46–62.

the challenges generated through the nationalisation initiatives in a number of locations. Rees, Mamman and Bin Braik[19] can be cited as an example by way of their article 'Emiratization as a strategic HRM change initiative: case evidence from a UAE petroleum company'. No doubt a survey article will soon appear comparing and contrasting such initiatives in countries like Saudi Arabia, South Africa and the United Arab Emirates as there are many similarities.

Making sense of this labyrinth of national values, traits and characteristics is indeed a challenge. Littrell[20] had obviously hoped that some clustering was possible. Instead, Littrell's study looking into leadership behaviour in Hong Kong, Singapore and Taiwan among Chinese speakers, found that very little was transferable to mainland China. This research result was confirmed anecdotally from the personal experience of the author. Intuitively, one could expect that were the study to be conducted again today, thereby taking China's development into account, there would be more similarities.

Safavi[21] tries at the very least to describe the potential categories to which one could allocate the various national typologies. The author differentiates between a *polycentric orientation* which 'has claimed that development needs of managers are different in just about every country and thus require individually designed programmes for each nation and, at times, for diverse ethnic groups within a nation'. The second option is a *regiocentric orientation* that assumes 'that management development needs within a geographic region are sufficiently similar for application of a unified approach'. The final perspective is described as an *ethnocentric orientation* which is 'focused on similarities between the development needs across national boundaries' which 'has faith in the universality of management functions, and global applications of the North American management development model'. The author suggests that countries like South Africa and Vietnam are polycentric while a number of areas like the German-speaking countries, the Baltics, East Africa and Australia/New Zealand can be bundled in regional groupings.

Limitations of the Literature

Two distinct challenges arise within the international management development literature as described above. The first is simply the challenge of the broad range and mix of nationalities on offer. Litrell and Valentin's[22] article on Romania, Germany and the UK, for example, presents rather a random selection of countries to focus on. Jones's[23] article on Malawi, similarly, may genuinely provide guidance when in Malawi, but Malawi is actually quite small. Are the lessons learned useful in neighbouring Tanzania or Mozambique? Furthermore, there is a huge potential bias which is not acknowledged in the cultural differences literature on management development which concerns the origin of the author and in practical management development terms of the provider of

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19   Rees, C. J., Mamman, A. and Bin Braik, A. (2007) Emiratization as a strategic HRM change initiative: case study evidence from a UAE petroleum company, *International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 18(2): 33–53.

20   Littrell, R. F. (2002) Desirable leadership behaviours of multi-cultural managers in China, *Journal of Management Development,* 24(5): 421–442.

21   Safavi, F. (1999) The evolving world of management development: salute to the 21st century, *Journal of Management Development,* 18(1): 5–17.

22   Littrell, R. F. and Valentin, L. N (2005) op. cit.

23   Jones, M. (1986) op. cit.

training. There is no intention of belabouring this point here, although this issue figures prominently in the anthropology literature and is seen as a genuine concern.

The second major limitation of the articles which have been reviewed above is that there is not tremendous clarity on what types of management development initiatives were studied and how they relate to each other. Branine[24] describes a seemingly straight 'chalk and talk' United Nations Development Programme, thus a short, open attendance programme, aimed at explaining capitalism to managers from Chinese state-owned enterprises, evidently in the late 1990s or in the early 2000s. Jones's[25] study also focuses on a short open programme in Malawi. Bollinger[26] covers the establishment of training centres for entrepreneurs in Almaty, Kazakhstan in 1992. If one wants, one can also search for other articles which look at the challenges presented specifically by international MBA programme participants, for example, Peters.[27] Kirkbride and Tang's[28] study is much broader and describes a whole range of activities covering formal courses, self-development, coaching, job rotation as well as action learning and more esoteric transactional analysis in Hong Kong and beyond.

From a management development perspective, there are simply worlds of difference between individual coaching, straightforward content transmission open courses, and an entrepreneurship training centre in 1992 Kazakhstan. These differences manifest themselves in the design, delivery and reception and the intervention: in who will say what where; in whether the intervention is designed to help the individual or the organisation; and in who delivers what, whether they are an academic, a trainer or a coach. All of these factors call into question many of the assertions which are made in the previously cited articles about how people are, what they like, and about what is a cultural taboo which must be avoided in the classroom and what is a prize winner .

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT WITHOUT THE 'INTERNATIONAL'

These same differences between types of interventions also, of course, apply to national courses, in national contexts, provided by national providers in whatever one considers to be a 'national market'.

Thus, to begin to put some order into the interesting but occasionally frustrating literature around international management development, it is worth taking a step back and looking at some definitions of leadership and management development more generally. Wexley and Baldwin[29] differentiate between management education – cognitive, MBA-type courses; management training – time management and delegation skills for example; and on-the-job experience like action learning, job placements and mentoring. Paauwe and Williams[30] introduce a special journal issue of the *Journal of Management*

24   Branine, M. (2005) op. cit.

25   Jones, M. (1986) op. cit.

26   Bollinger, D. (1994) op. cit.

27   Peters, B. K. G. (2001) Recruitment and selection of lecturers for international classrooms. In Farkas-Teekens, H. (ed.) *Teaching and Learning in the International Classroom*, Den Haag: Nuffic Press.

28   Kirkbride, P. S. and Tang, S. F. Y. (1992) op. cit.

29   Wexley, K. N. and Baldwin, T. T. (1986) Management development, *Journal of Management,* 12(2): 277–294.

30   Paauwe, J. and Williams, A. R. T. (eds) (2001) Of management development from a Dutch perspective, *Journal of Management Development,* 20(2): 90–105.

Development by also citing Baldwin, this time with Patgett[31] about the differentiation between education as knowledge acquisition; training for a specific task; and management development as 'the complex process by which individuals learn to perform effectively in managerial roles'.

They posit that each of these goals has a different delivery mechanism and place special emphasis on the fact that the transition from classroom-based to real life learning requires four elements. First, the issue(s) must be seen to be important. Second, some analysis must be involved. Third, creativity must be called on and fourth, importantly, practical application is necessary. Thus, it is only through active participation that effective management performance can be developed.

In the same issue, Jansen, van der Velde and Mul[32] outline a typology of management development from a different perspective, looking not from management development cognition, but from organisational style and structure. In looking at nearly 100 organisations spread across the private, public and not for profit sectors in the Netherlands, they classify organisations by their level of development. Some organisations are classified as administrative organisations likely to provide life-long employment, others as organisations in technological and innovative environments in which human capital is valued and required. Another group is classified as up-or-out companies where management progression and management development are directly linked and strictly planned. Finally, a group of organisations is classified as being 'turbulent'.

To try and make sense of these differences, the authors created a small table (Table 2.1) to illustrate how these different types of organisations balanced the personal development and organisational development components of management development.

Table 2.1   How these different types of organisations balanced the personal development and organisational development components of management development

High personal development (strong emphasis on PD within organisation)	*Leading* MD aimed at developing the skills of leaders so that they can help the rest of the organisation get through the turbulence	*Partner* MD in which human capital and social capital is jointly developed in order that intelligent individuals can create something greater through cooperation than from individual initiative
Low personal development (no attention paid to PD by organisation)	*Administrative* MD aimed primarily to keep stability	*Derived* MD with strict planning and a close link to the strategy of the organisation rather than to the development of the individual
	Low organisational development (no attention)	High organisational development (strong emphasis)

Adapted from Jansen, van der Velde and Mul.[33]

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31   Baldwin, T. T. and Patgett, M. Y. (1994) Management development: a review and commentary. In Cooper, C. L. and Robertson I. T. (eds) *Key Reviews in Management Psychology*, New York: Wiley.

32   Jansen, P., van der Velde, M. and Mul, W. (2001) A typology of management development, *Journal of Management Development,* 20(2): 106–120.

33   Jansen, P., van der Velde, M. and Mul, W. (2001) ibid.

It is not only across organisations, however, that these types of differentiation come into view, but within organisations as well. There are clearly different levels and calibres of individuals within a company – the high potential managers of the future are different from the pool of technical specialists who are again different from the pool of competent and capable, but not high-flying middle managers.

Lubitsch et al.[34] and Blass and April[35] set out to explore this territory within the organisational context. Their report expands the perspective considerably by viewing management development not in isolation but within an overall talent management framework. The framework is a continuum ranging from recruitment and selection, through retention, reward and development because all of these areas are critical for an organisation's ability to benefit from the skill of their people, right through to exit. While this may sound simple enough, 'talent management is a controversial territory and even the first step of defining what is meant by talent can force organisations into some difficult internal debates'.

Within the talent management literature, there are not only debates on the size of the talent pool which range from all of those who are above average, thus the top 50 per cent, through to the idea of a high-performing elite of 3–5 per cent of the organisation.[36] Furthermore, there are debates about how to identify talent. Should it be based on past performance, future potential or on a combination of the two? The logical extension of this thought process is that somewhere between 50 and 95 per cent of the organisation is not to be considered as 'talent' by these definitions. As one can imagine, this may not be universally acknowledged by those individuals in the organisation who have been classified as not having talent.

Peters,[37] without suggesting ratios, suggests a model which addresses both the challenge of the 'talent' and 'non-talent' pools within an organisation. In the model, basic business competence forms the groundwork. As such, this basic business understanding should be widely diffused within the organisation among all staff. At the next level, there is a need for an understanding of the context in which the organisation operates and how that influences the present and potential future strategy. The author suggests that this is a point at which 'talent' should be more extensively involved. At a third level, an ability to influence people must be developed. Implementing a strategy involves working with others so that goals are shared across the organisation rather than simply being understood theoretically by senior management. This is not a simple task. Lastly, strong reflective skills are required for those in or reaching an organisation's highest level. These reflective skills promote a well-rounded view of the needs of the individual manager with an ability to understand others and by extension reflect well on the overall direction and culture of the organisation.

Such a typology sees leadership development as having a closed level where there are information transfer goals aimed at creating alignment with an organisation's way of doing things. Thereafter, there are open learning goals which seek to create the future

34   Lubitsh, G., Devine, M., Orbea, A. and Glanfield, P. (2007) *Talent Management – A Strategic Imperative*, Berkhamsted: Ashridge Consulting Report.

35   Blass, E. and April, K. (2008) Developing talent for tomorrow, *Develop,* 1: 48–58.

36   See Berger, D. R. and Berger, L. A. (eds) (2004) *The Talent Management Handbook*, New York: McGraw-Hill.

37   Peters, B. K. G. (2006) The four stages of management education, *Biz Ed,* May/June: 36–40.

for the organisation. Everyone should understand the closed learning goal while 'talent' must be given free reign in the second realm.

Much of the material concerning closed learning goals can be delivered through a traditional classroom or e-learning setting, whether in open programmes attended by delegates from a variety of organisations or from a group specific to an organisation, increasingly delivered internally through a corporate university or otherwise in conjunction with a business school or increasingly, through the larger consultancies who have increased their presence within the educational arena. Thereafter, however, the individual and organisational development goals tend to involve a broad range of activities ranging from seminars and action learning groups through to mentoring, consulting and coaching and job placements both nationally and internationally. These different interventions will then also be delivered by different people with faculty, consultants, behavioural coaches and psychometricians all playing their part.

INNOVATION IN MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

In the past few years, research has tended to focus on the modes of delivery for the more open learning goals required for senior management levels. There is an extensive literature on appreciative inquiry, action learning and applied, hands-on activity and a lesser focus on traditional, passive, classroom information transfer. The former is something interesting and innovative while the latter is seen to be a commodity.

Voller and Honore,[38] as an example, conducted a study into innovation in international executive education on behalf of Unicon, the International University Consortium for Executive Education. The authors confirm the trend to the commoditization of knowledge and the delivery of the knowledge deemed useful by a specific organisation to that organisation's internal mechanisms. Competency frameworks combine generic management skills and abilities with organisation-specific approaches. These frameworks then lead to curriculum design which can be centrally planned and broadly rolled out, often in a combination of face-to-face and electronic delivery.

What is interesting in this realm is that while electronic delivery of generic content cannot be described as something new or particularly interesting, the sophistication of electronic delivery platforms continues to develop. Electronic learning management systems which incorporate audio and video clearly improve asynchronous learning.

In the middle ground, combinations of proprietary information and proprietary platforms are being linked with consumer-led social networking platforms like wikis, chat and blogs to create asynchronous/synchronous hybrids. By combining structured content with user input, learning is becoming increasingly active. Additionally, an increasing use of publicly available material is being added to the learning environments. Thus, even within the domain of generic or organisation-generic content, environments are being created which add to the learning in a cost-effective manner.

If one fast-forwards these developments and thinks creatively, one will most certainly end in a virtual world of learning. At present, most of leadership and management development initiatives in virtual worlds are at the experimental stage with meeting simulations and classroom simulations, primarily in Second Life. Once virtual worlds

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38   Voller, S. and Honore, S. (2008) *Innovation in Executive Education: A Case-based Study of Practice in International Business Schools*. Berkhamsted: Ashridge and Unicon Report.

are no longer constrained by the need to install extensive software on local computers, but can instead be accessed freely without the need to download, the second wave of development will begin. This is dependent on Internet bandwidth sufficiency which will surely be available within the next few years.

More prosaically, Voller and Honore[39] signal a change in the approach to time taking place within leadership and management development initiatives which go beyond the transfer of knowledge to focus on strategy formulation and implementation. On the one hand, specific interventions continue to shorten. Whereas events lasting multiple weeks were not uncommon in the past, face-to-face activities have gravitated to two- or three-day sessions spread over time and supported electronically. That said, the view of what constitutes development has lengthened to a talent management based view of continuous development spanning many years.

In terms of pedagogy, the trend to an emphasis on experience rather than classroom learning has been noted earlier. There is nevertheless very much that remains unknown around the role of experience in learning. McCall[40] discusses how different experiences can provide different learning opportunities. These, in turn, are taken up differently by participants who have had different previous experiences to build on and who may well also react differently to different experiential activities. Additionally, experience does not automatically provide learning or at least not learning which is deemed valuable by the individual and the organisation. To increase the likelihood that learning is effective, forethought must be given to the nature of the assignment and senior management sponsorship must be secured. Even then, the action learning intervention tends not to stand on its own, but may well require facilitation, debriefing or coaching in order to generate something worthwhile.

In parallel to the increased domination of action learning is an ongoing trend Voller and Honore describe as active learning. This domain includes business simulations, games, improvisation, outdoor learning and a whole host of increasingly esoteric learning metaphors ranging from African drumming through to horse-whispering and community engagement. The goal is generally to create a time-compressed simulation of getting something done collectively. This provides the facilitator with the opportunity to facilitate a discussion about leadership and group interaction around a completed assignment. Additionally, the experience is not the same as a normal workday – something that can be used to overcome normal organisational patterns. At their best, these interventions bring participants to see things from another perspective and inspire change. Alternatively it is also possible that they tend to simply be a bit of fun. This can also be fine when an active learning activity is used to refresh participants through a change of scenery. There is, however, also a potential downside. At their worst, these activities can be seen as pointless or more worryingly as offensive if issues of hierarchy, gender, diversity and good behaviour are not taken into consideration up front.

Not surprisingly, initiatives which aim to go beyond the learning of the individual to incorporate organisational learning require significant cooperation between providers of leadership and management development services and the organisations which use them. Interventions are increasingly co-designed and co-delivered with senior organisational managers providing internal perspectives. Furthermore, external providers often

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39   Voller, S. and Honore, S. (2008) ibid.

40   McCall, M. W. (1988) Developing executives through work experiences, *Human Resource Planning,* 2(1): 1–12.

transcend the expected training and development to the participants by also training internal trainers in consulting skills, coaching skills or organisational development design in the process.

From 20 respondents to the study interviewed by Voller and Honore[41] from around the world, six in-depth case studies were conducted among business schools in South Africa, Australia, the US, the UK and Norway concerning innovative customised programmes developed for clients. In order to genuinely apply recent leadership and management development thinking, it became clear that the client organisations needed to have a culture which allowed for experimentation and acknowledged that deep learning required the active engagement and taking of responsibility among participants. This strongly suggests that not all organisations are willing or able to engage in such projects.

When the characteristics of the projects brought forward by the overall pool of 20 schools were mapped in terms of the interventions' purpose and delivery methodology, similarities emerged. Overall, projects were initiated which sought to develop holistic, global leaders who were in it for the long term and who focused strongly on the needs of the organisation. To accomplish these goals, programmes were experiential and discussion based and aimed to promote reflection through the extensive use of storytelling and action learning. All programmes were firmly grounded in the realities and culture of the host organisation rather than based on external case studies or generic management knowledge. Given that managers prefer short, intensive management development initiatives, projects relied extensively on intense, high-energy interventions coupled with an ongoing use of technology to promote longer term learning and continued learning once often multiple-session interventions had come to an end.

Of the six specific projects investigated further, two were technology-based. The first used technology to encourage executive experience-sharing and the second to facilitate culture mapping and online narrative capture. Two cases discussed the up-front use of theoretical leadership and development frameworks which incorporated the extensive self-responsibility of the learner for learning. The last two focused on experiential learning. The first programme, involving the use of historical narratives *in situ*, by, for example, bringing Norwegian managers to London to learn about leadership by using Queen Elizabeth I as an anchor. The second intervention simulated real management challenges by forcing participants to take charge in a programme that looked completely disorganised and fraught with disasters which were changed depending on how programme participants reacted to this particular style of experiential learning.

REFLECTIVE LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT – A CAVEAT

The examples sited above were selected to highlight the possibilities available to encourage in-depth reflection about leadership. While participant feedback was generally positive, the interventions also generated a small but significant volume of criticism from the subset of participants who simply did not feel that simulation and reflection worked for them. In some cases participants stated that they did not feel that unstructured learning was right and they preferred something 'more organised'. In other cases, participants simply are not interested in reflecting on how their own behaviour impacts on others and on the environment. This is a genuine challenge to overcome when the problem

41   Voller, S. and Honore, S. (2008) op. cit.

is indeed that the manager's own behaviour hinders the cooperation and coordination required in organisational life. Highlighted here is the point at which learning blends into the psychology of the individual and content is replaced by a need to overcome individual denial.

To tackle these challenges, both the provider and client for leadership and management development initiatives need to cooperate in tackling these issues. This problem arises sporadically in a number of situations, for example when managers senior to the management development team within the organisation prove to be a problem and the organisation is not willing to act upon the challenge. More generally, this type of an issue arises in environments in which performance rewards for the individual are based more on the results of that individual rather than of the organisation overall, even when that leads to overall suboptimisation. Examples here often come from finance and from professional service firms.

TOWARDS A HOLISTIC FRAMEWORK

Up to this point, this chapter has provided an in-depth look at the international management development literature and a short snapshot view of the directions in which management development has been progressing today. In drawing these various strands together, an overall framework can be developed which can guide thinking about the design and delivery of management and leadership development, whether that be national or international in nature (Table 2.2).

At the highest level, leadership and management development is anchored within an overarching purpose of generating the highest possible outcomes from the people working for an organisation. To this end, one seeks to recruit the best possible staff available at that time and place.

From that point forward, one seeks to develop people so that they can perform to the best of their ability within the context of the present and future challenges faced by the organisation, something which is easier said than done. Immediately, two major challenges must be faced by designers of leadership and management development interventions. First, for the broad range of people within the organisation, what are the actual requirements in terms of knowledge, skills and self-development which are required by individuals and groups of individuals? Second, how does one define the present and future context in which the organisation will be required to act successfully? Thereafter,

Table 2.2   A holistic talent framework

Talent management	Recruit/develop/reward or remove
Purpose	Competencies of knowledge, skills and self-development/world view
Context	External to company (international or technology development) as well as internal to company (industry, stage of development)
Methodology	Formal or informal (ranging from courses and coaching to mentors and models)

the biggest challenge of all arises: how does one draw these two interlinking challenges together?

Storey, for instance, notes wrily that 'management development really ought to be closely tied to corporate planning'.[42] It is easy to arrive at a complete atomisation if one thinks logically in these terms. A young engineer in a multinational company who works in a new acquisition in a Kazakh oilfield has completely different leadership and management development needs from a board member who is based in London, whose background is in accounting and who is originally from the Philippines.

The challenge, however, is in thinking in practical terms. There are clearly some common goals which apply across an organisation which are function and geography independent. These goals must be commonly shared and must permeate all management development initiatives. Thereafter, there are knowledge competencies and skills which are shared by groups of people within the organisation. These can also be mapped out with a reasonable level of detail and can generally be divided into specific technological requirements for a variety of roles and more general functional business skills. By mapping competencies against groups of people within the organisation, one arrives at a basis framework of purpose. In general, the framework is simpler for the broader rank and file than for those identified as talent.

This framework must then be reflected against the realities of the organisation, taking into consideration a whole host of issues ranging from the characteristics of a particular industry through to the stage of development of the specific company. These issues, from the author's experience, tend to influence leadership and management development significantly and are as, if not more, important than national cultural traits and characteristics. Young technology companies around the world look remarkably similar, sharing a fast-paced engineering world view. State-owned, or recently state-owned infrastructure organisations around the world also look remarkably similar with long histories, extensive bureaucracies and a tendency to move slowly. As an example, an Indian IT company is more influenced by the fact that it is an IT company than by the fact that it is Indian. Within that company, Indian software developers will have more in common with other, international software developers based in California or Cambridge than they will with their Indian colleagues in the marketing department.

None of this is to deny that national traits and characteristics are not an important consideration. It is simply to state that national specificities must be considered within a much broader framework rather than as ends in themselves. National characteristics do not lead the design process for management development but simply form a part of the consideration of management development.

This focused approach also applies to the specific methodologies of delivery, where world views and learning styles have a tremendous influence on what can and should be done. Some people like courses, others do not. Some like coaching, others do not. Here again, the challenge of not atomising arises. Decisions must be made about which approaches provide the best management development outcomes that are actually deliverable to smaller or larger groups, in different geographies, over time.

The reality, unfortunately, is that tremendous atomisation is rampant in many organisations. Over time, decentralisation processes have led to national and operating

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42   Storey, J. (1989) Management development: a literature review and implications for future research, Part 1: conceptualisations and practices, *Personnel Review,* 18(6): 3–19.

company autonomy. This is exacerbated by years of merger and acquisition activity. In all too many cases a hodge-podge of leadership and management development activities has arisen involving thousands of different courses provided by hundreds of different organisations in many different languages – all with different design principles employing different methodologies – which are then tracked by complicated software products, simple card files or not at all. Not only is this tremendously costly as the wheel is constantly reinvented, but it is also a major hindrance for mobility, as no one is quite sure about who is where and what they have done. It also means that there is little chance to develop an organisation-specific culture of shared goals and values.

There is also another genuine danger in thinking in terms of specific nationalities. Even in cases where there is a relative homogeneity within the national part of an international organisation, or within a large purely national organisation, ever-increasing globalisation means that managers do come into contact with international colleagues or business partners. Designing for a specific national group, in a way which specifically suits the need of that group, can actually be counterproductive.

Leadership and management development initiatives can purposely be designed to challenge acceptable cultural approaches so that managers can experience the different perspectives they are likely to encounter when they interact with other cultures. This is not cultural imperialism, but purposeful design. When done well, such purposeful dissonance can create extremely powerful learning experiences which draw out new insight among participants. Such approaches naturally require careful consideration as it is quite possible to lose the goodwill of participants because the leap from the accepted to the challenging is done too quickly for a particular culture. By gradually introducing a more participative, reflective learning style and by signposting the reasons why one is doing this, participants acknowledge and accept something different.

One must acknowledge limits, though. There is a continuum between the untried and unknown and the uncomfortable and unacceptable. Encouraging participation is one thing; criticising the company or the boss is another. Mixing genders in the classroom in the Middle East is possible even if uncomfortable. Mixing genders in experiential outdoor learning exercises during which there is a need for physical contact is much beyond what is possible.

Case Study

A multinational non-governmental organisation (NGO)

The client, a multinational development bank with headquarters in the US and field operations throughout the world, sought to develop a set of common values to ensure corporate social responsibility was pursued in the investment process, while at the same time ensuring that the diversity required in field operations was acknowledged and respected. Following extensive interviews with staff from the head office and from the field operations, a design was developed which created a common experience for a trial group of 20 individuals split evenly between the two groups and thus involving participants from countries as diverse as India, Pakistan, Senegal, South Africa, Cameroon, Mexico, Macedonia and Hungary. Additionally,