Part One

Setting the Context

Reflections on leadership

> It is not good enough just to preach the doctrine you have to live the life
>
> Victoria Woodhull, US presidential candidate, 1872 (Gilbert, 2005, p.3)

An American businesswoman once remarked to one of the present authors that she heard a great deal of talk about strategy in her corporation but saw little evidence of it in practice! Leadership is another concept, like strategy, that is much bandied about but often misunderstood. The word 'leadership' is often associated with:

- 'world leaders' – presidents and prime ministers who are dubbed 'the leader' because of their role, not necessarily because of leadership qualities which they display; or
- the 'death or glory' hero depicted in Hollywood films and played by Clint Eastwood or Bruce Willis – talking tough and chewing on a cigar!

The word is tinged with macho and blockbuster connotations, and yet we also use it to describe people we read about in the papers, those we work with, or even children we observe .You often hear a remark by an adult in a school playground, concerning a child that: 'he or she is a natural leader'. With such a wide-ranging use one commentator has argued that:

> Leadership is an elusive concept. Like many complex ideas, it is deceptively easy to use in everyday conversation. We may say that someone is a great leader or used great leadership in a particular situation, and others seem to understand what we mean. Nevertheless, it has proved very difficult to arrive at a precise and agreed definition of leadership. (Wright, 1996, p.6)

Yet, just as we may say about a painting: 'I don't know much about art but I know what I like', we can probably also say: 'I can't theorise about leadership, but I can recognise a leader when I meet one, and I can point out the way they are and the things they do which makes them a leader in my eyes'. (See also Goffee and Jones, 2005; Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo-Metcalfe, 2009)

One of the main thrusts for writing this training resource is to propose that leadership is a necessary component in all organisations, and both found and required at all levels. For individuals, families, groups, neighbourhoods, communities, clubs, public/private/voluntary organisations, and countries to make progress, leadership is essential. (see Van Zwanenberg, 2010).

As George Eliot wrote in Middlemarch, about her heroine, Dorothea:

> Certainly those determining acts of her life were not ideally beautiful. They were the mixed results of young and noble impulse struggling amidst the conditions of an imperfect social state, in which great feelings will often take

> the aspect of error, and great faith the aspect of illusion. For there is no creature whose inward being is so strong that it is not greatly determined by what lies outside it. ... Her finely touched spirits had still its fine issues, though they were not widely visible. Her full nature, like that river of which Cyrus broke the strength, spent itself in channels which had no great name on the earth. But the effect of her being on those around her was incalculably diffusive, for the growing good of the world is partly dependent on unhistoric acts, and that things are not so ill with you and me as they might have been is half owing to the number who lived faithfully a hidden life and rest in unvisited tombs. (Eliot, 1872, p. 811)

Dorothea did nothing famous but she was a force for good in the lives of those around her.

When one of the present authors (Peter) was in the Army, he had the good fortune to work with Captain, later General, Sir John Wilsey, now retired as commander of UK Land Forces, but the army inculcated leadership at all levels in the organisation by using small teams to ensure that everybody played a leadership role. In the different field of social work, Peter's first placement had an outstanding leader, Bridget Ogden, as area director. She was someone who combined a deep knowledge of practice with an ability to instil high standards in those she managed. At the next level down the team leader, Jean, was constantly motivating her team to push for higher standards and develop community initiatives as well as sound casework. At the practitioner level, Bob, was a constant source of leadership in terms of a role model, sound advice and support. (see Gilbert, 2005, Case Study 1, p. 7)

We are all likely to have our own examples from around us, but it may also be helpful to consider some major current or historical figures, for example:

Nelson Mandela, in the field of world statespeople, who opposed the apartheid regime in South Africa, was imprisoned for his beliefs, released in 1990, and was voted in as his country's first black president. Mandela wrote about his experiences in *The Long Walk To Freedom*, when he said:

> I was not born with a hunger to be free. I was born free – free in every way that I could know. ... It was only when I began to learn that my boyhood freedom was an illusion, when I discovered as a young man that my freedom had already been taken from me, that I began to hunger for it. At first, as a student, I wanted freedom only for myself. ... But then I slowly saw that not only was I not free, that my brothers and sisters were not free. I saw that it was not just my freedom that was curtailed, but the freedom of everyone who looked like I did. … That is when ... the hunger for my own freedom became the greater hunger for the freedom of my people. ... I am no more virtuous or self–sacrificing than the next man, but I found that I could not even enjoy the poor and limited freedoms I was allowed when I knew my people were not free. Freedom is indivisible; and the chains on any one of my people were the chains on all of them, the chains on all of my people were the chains on me. (Mandela, 1994, pp. 16-17)

Mandela's obvious qualities are:

• His integrity in holding firm to his beliefs; in willingness to sacrifice his personal happiness and comfort; and the forgiveness shown to his captors and political opponents.

• The formation and articulation of the vision for a new multiracial South Africa. His political opponent, ex-president de Klerk, said of Mandela:

> The ordinary man would get to the top of the hill and sit down to admire the view. For Mandela there is always another peak to climb and another one after that. For the man of destiny the journey is never complete. (quoted in Gilbert, 2005, p. 62)

• The energy to take on the presidential role in his 70s and to tour other countries on behalf of South Africa.

• His ability to live the vision – for example, wearing the Springbok rugby jersey, with its Afrikaner connotations at the final of the Rugby World Cup, held in South Africa, and the mutual embrace with Francois Pienaar, the Afrikaner Captain of the team.

This and eleven further examples are featured in the appendix at the end of this manual.

What is leadership?

> Leadership is a priceless gift which you earn from the people who work with you and you have constantly to earn that right.
> (Sir John Harvey-Jones, former Chair of ICI, 1988, p. 27)

To understand the meaning of a word it is sometimes important to return to its roots. we spoke of 'strategy' at the beginning of this part. The word is from the ancient Greek 'strategia' – generalship, and relates to an overarching plan of campaign in politics, business, war and so on. Many organisations confuse strategy with 'tactics' which are the day-to-day manoeuvres to deal with immediate circumstances.

The word 'leadership' is derived from the old English word, 'Laedan': a road, a way, the path of a ship at sea, and is related to another old English word 'Lithan' – 'to travel'. So, a leader is a person who discovers the right direction in which to travel; takes other people with them; guides them and supports them on the journey; and keeps the goal always in their mind's eye (see Gilbert and Scragg, 1992; Adair, 2002).

'Management' stems from two words: Latin noun 'manus' – a hand – and its derivative, the Italian verb 'maneggiare' – to handle or train. It epitomises control but also a 'hands on' coaching to increase skills and produce from something or someone with raw talent a controlled source of power and skill. Leadership, then, quite simply has a more dynamic ethos than 'management', with leadership's connotations of a vision of a better future, adventure, exploration and pilgrimage. The two go hand in hand, as we shall see in the next section. But leadership adds value to management and takes it on further, in

the same way that management is much more than simply good administration. The review of the needs of a modern NHS, undertaken by Lord Darzi stated clearly that:

> Leadership has been the neglected element of the reforms of recent years. That must now change. (Department of Health, 2008, p.8).

The cross-departmental report *Putting People First*, made the point that leadership was an essential element if system-wide transformation was to happen (Department of Health, 2007).

As suggested in the concept of the leader as pathfinder, the ability to keep the aim of the organisation and the goals of particular tasks in mind is crucial. As it is rare that anybody can accomplish the whole task by him- or herself, the creation of the right team and their motivation is essential, especially as an enterprise expands. Also, as the strength of the team is often only as strong as its weakest link, then the leader must encourage, support and develop each individual in the team.As it has been pointed out by one commentator:

> Admittedly, there is a common theme which runs through most definitions of leadership. Most include the notion that leadership involves influence in one form or another (Yukl, 1994) …. What leaders do is to influence the behaviour, beliefs and feelings of other group members in an intended direction. (Wright and Taylor, 1994, p. 113)

John Adair (1983) in his work with the Industrial Society, produced a useful model of what he called Action-Centred Leadership (see slides 8-11).

It is reassuring that there is nothing magical about this model or the actions contained within it. We can easily be pressured into thinking that we cannot lead unless we are a Joan of Arc, Nelson Mandela, Richard Branson or General MacArthur, but the ‘great leaders’ may have faults as large as their virtues. Many high-profile leaders are better at building the engine of an organisation then driving it; others drive for long periods and then step down from the cab having failed to develop any successor, so as to ensure that the engine continues along the chosen path.

Max Hastings, in his book on the war of the east during World War II, considers General Douglas MacArthur in the context of the ‘man of destiny’ view of history. (Hastings, 2008) MacArthur was recognised as someone of considerable intellect and inspirational leadership, but he seemed bent upon ‘becoming the lone star of America’s Pacific war’. Hastings makes a number of pertinent comments about MacArthur’s leadership style:

> MacArthur displayed a taste for fantasy quite unsuited to a field commander, together with ambition close to megalomania and consistently poor judgement in choosing subordinates... He made no jokes and possessed no small talk, though he would occasionally talk baseball to enlisted men, ‘in attempts to deceive them that he was human’. Marshall (General Marshall) observed that MacArthur had ‘a court’, not a staff
>
> (Hastings, 2008, pp. 20-23).

This criticism links closely with Jim Collins' research into North American companies, which is suspicious of untrammelled idiosyncratic leadership (Collins, 2009).

The vision of the 'charismatic leader', if not centred on some basic values, such as respect for other human beings, can become a nightmare for those around them. Napoleon Bonaparte – still a hero in France – put in place long-standing reforms of French governance, which are still in place and effective today. His obsession with conquest, however, not only ended in France's defeat in 1815, but also a number of historians, such as Michael Roberts, have placed on Napoleon's shoulders the blame for the subsequent rise of both German militarism and the advent of communism.

Harold Geneen, legendary chief executive of the ITT company was credited with building up the strength of that organisation in a spectacular fashion. His extreme control over every facet of the organisation, and his management style, created a vacuum after his departure which led to a rapid fall from grace of the company he had built up.

The research by Sydney Finkelstein (2004) and Jim Collins (2009) demonstrates the importance of an approach which builds leaders at all levels of an organisation. Goffee and Jones (2006) remark that:

> When we ask CEO's what is their biggest problem they face, they unerringly reply: "our organisations need more leaders at every level (p. 9).

Some Conservative Party commentators, with an historical perspective, have queried whether Margaret Thatcher partially caused the election defeats for the party in 1997 and 2001, through a centralising of power in Whitehall, and a withering of the Conservative Party's grass roots in the country at large (see Blake 1997, Jenkins, 1995).

One of the main dangers for individual leaders and organisations as a whole occurs when they reach an apparent peak, and atrophy and complacency set in.

If we accept that leadership is guiding people along a path then, if like Alexander the Great you reach a point, at the end of the known world, when your troops mutiny, and you subsequently die without having developed a structure to nurture your achievements, then perhaps the result is failure, albeit in some terms a glorious one. In like fashion, the new industrial or commercial organisation, the cancer unit, the school, the football club which declines sharply when the founder or the high-profile leader departs may have been built on sand.

Sometimes the wisdom of the ancients may be a useful guide. The Chinese philosopher, Lao Tzu, writing in the 6th century BC set out his views thus:

> The best of all the leaders is the one who helps people, so that, eventually, they don't need him [or her].
> Then comes the one they love and admire.
> Next comes the one they fear.
> The worst is the one who lets people push him around.
> When there is a lack of trust people will act in bad faith.
> The best leader talks little, but what he says carry's weight.

> When his work is completed and his aim fulfilled, the people will say: 'we did it ourselves'.
> (Modern translation, Wilhelm, 1985. Quoted in Adair, 1983, p. 106)

Leadership integrated to practice

> They can because they think they can
>
> Virgil (670 BC)

The 1980s and 1990s in the UK saw a very strong dichotomy between attitudes towards professional practice and management. Professionals felt that being a proficient engineer, lawyer, doctor, accountant, politician, care worker, therapist, clergyperson and so on was sufficient unto itself and they didn't need to consider the bigger picture.

Handy (1978) introduced the image of the network organisation of loosely grouped professionals: the 'existential cultural type' of organisation ('Dionysus' as the particular 'god of management' in Handy's typology) has its strength in high standards in an area of expertise, and its weakness in an undeveloped sense of corporate identity and shared goals. GPs in Britain are a good example of the network organisation. In such a situation a loosely bound practice may benefit individual patients, but fail to effect positive changes in the local health economy as perhaps accomplished by a neighbouring practice which operates to a common set of objectives.

Managers believed that they had a mission to sort out 'undisciplined and hopelessly individualistic professionals'. Management's problem is that, in a world where 'knowledge', however defined, is perceived as increasingly important, expertise is personalised. As Scott (2000, p. 6) rightly points out, knowledge: 'tends to walk out of the building each night!' Kate Skinner (2010, p. 44) states that 'intellectual capital is the life blood of modern post-industrial organisations. In fact, there need to be both mutual respect between practitioners and managers and also some permeability between the two roles. While there are some dangers inherent in holding on to professional issues (see below), there is a lot to be said for having an insight into, and empathy with, 'the business' and those who carry it out 'at the sharp end'. The Greek general and writer, Xenophon, believed that there was small risk of a leader being 'regarded with contempt … If, whatever he {*sic*} may have to preach, he shows himself best able to perform' (quoted in Gilbert and Scragg, 1992, p. 113). For those at the front line who fear that a move into management will be 'selling out' it is worth considering the attributes that need to be constant across both roles. It is to these that we now turn.

Personal values

To survive and prosper everybody needs a bedrock of self-belief and/or a belief in something greater than the individual. Of course, this may be a very individualistic sense of self-confidence and perhaps a driving ambition to be a highly proficient practitioner or manager, or to gain a particular position. We all have to interrelate with other people, however, and if there is an absence of integrity and a surfeit of personal ambition, that will be evident and will tend to undermine working relationships which are based considerably on trust. Most of us will have come across in our working lives 'the person who

trusts nobody, and nobody trusts'. That kind of person, in the end, damages the organisation they work for and ultimately themselves. As Covey (1992) argues in his book on principle-centred leadership, personal integrity is at the core of being an effective leader. (see also Aris and Gilbert, 2007; Gilbert 2009a).

In his fascinating study of leadership issues in Shakespeare's plays, Corrigan (1999) quotes Macbeth musing: 'To know my deed 'twere best not to know myself' (p. 116). So, the tyrant has cut himself off from his own value system, so that: 'The portrayal of ambition here is like a malignant growth in Macbeth, once it has touched him it eventually takes him over. There are similar experiences in modern organisations' (p. 116).

Lack of mutual confidence can undermine even the most confident personalities. During World War Two Field Marshal Rommel, the German general most respected by the British, began to lose his sparkle, drive and even his immense tactical acumen, because of waves of mistrust emanating from the 'Men in Grey Suits' at HQ. As his biographer points out:

> Professionally, Rommel was deeply unhappy. It seemed to him that his opinion on military essentials had recently been disregarded and overruled. He felt he was no longer trusted. (Fraser, 1994, p. 404)

Level	*Principle*
Organisational	Alignment
Managerial	Empowerment
Interpersonal	Trust
Personal	Trustworthiness

(Covey, 1992) Figure 1: Four levels of principle-centred leadership, with key principles

The NHS Confederation's document on *The Challenges of Leadership in the NHS* (2007) , Zoe Van Zwanenberg's work on social care, and writings from the world of business and commerce, all stress the need for personal integrity; values espoused and lived; an authentic presence; and a distinctive voice of the leader which encourages others to show leadership in the transformation of the organisation (NHS Confederation, 2007, Van Zwanenberg, 2010, Covey, 2004). As Goffee and Jones point out, nobody wants to be led by a robotic leader, or to feel that one is being 'worked' (p. 3). As modern life and organisations increasingly demonstrate, leaders often have to work, in Julia Middleton's words: 'beyond authority', using influence and persuasion rather than command and control (see Middleton, 2007).

Increasingly, mindfulness is seen as a helpful way of developing self-awareness in both practice and management contexts for leading to better outcomes. Steven Hick suggests that the practice of deep listening enables us to 'become aware of our own dark side and own it as part of ourselves' (p.21). This is akin to Jim Collins' dictum that real leaders look into the mirror to apportion responsibility and lean out of the window to give praise (Hick, 2009).

Professional values

When consumers seek services from a professional they expect, and increasingly demand, certain values and standards. Some professions have written statements, setting out a code of behaviour, and increasingly these are defined by competencies which can be monitored for performance. The Hippocratic Oath in respect of the medical profession has a clear opening statement about not doing harm as a primary function of medicine. But tragedies, such as the Bristol Hospital children's heart surgery scandal (see Kennedy, 2001) have helped to undermine the public's confidence in the efficacy of the medical profession, because: children and their parents were not listened to and talked to honestly and openly; there was an absence of self-criticism among the senior doctors and a lack of openness to alternative views from the junior members of team; young lives were lost when they might have been saved had they been directed to more effective treatment centres.

Mannion *et al*. (2005) feature the Bristol Royal Infirmary and the Kennedy Report in their overview of NHS cultures. They point to the fact that the Infirmary had a 'club culture' 'which focussed excessive power and influence around a core group of senior managers' (p. 3). Kennedy highlighted a number of shifts in the culture of the NHS needed to make it more sensitive and responsive to the needs of patients. Sir Ian Kennedy was later made chair of the Healthcare Commission. Unfortunately, tragic events at Maidstone and Stafford General Hospitals in the last few years have highlighted how an overemphasis on narrow targets can blind management teams to the need to focus on the quality of care. The Healthcare Commission (2009), in its criticism of Stafford District General Hospital commented that the Trust's management board did not routinely discuss the quality of care.

Engineers will have a code for constructing sustainable bridges, power stations and so on, so that, when the Millennium Bridge in London had to be closed because it was unstable, many national newspapers carried pictures of bridges from Roman times to the present day which had been both stylish and safe! In fact it would be worth adding a fifth circle to Covey's diagram – professional values, with ethics as the key principle. The British Association of Social Workers has a code of practice (2002) with a commitment to five basic values:

- human dignity and worth;
- social justice;
- service to humanity;
- integrity; and
- competence.

Responsibilities as a manager, with clear links to practice, are set out so as to clearly interlink the two parts of practice and management.

While it is often mentioned that our perceived clashes between managers – those in 'grey suits', and clinicians – those in 'white coats', effective leadership, which listens to concerns at the front line and builds on sound public sector values to produce a clear vision of an improved future service, can overcome perceptual problems.

As people move from being leaders in a purely professional sense to becoming leaders for a whole group or organisation, then their professional skills and ethics can add value to their wider role, as long as professional codes don't become an excuse to hide behind (see below).

The potential negative side of professionalism is the elitism and arrogance inherent in the notion that: 'the professional knows best'. The creative side is offering an array of skills and possibilities that the consumer is not aware of. An obituary on the inspirational producer and broadcaster, John Walters, quoted him as stating: 'We are not here to give people what they want. We are here to give people what they didn't know they wanted' (*The Guardian,* 1 August 2001). There is a very thin dividing line between aspiration and arrogance.

In an interview, Ian McPherson, the Director of the Government's National Mental Health Development Unit, speaks of his experience of depression and being a mental health service user, and how this is vital in allowing him to 'understand what it feels like' to be seen as separate or 'that person over there with a mental illness'.(O'Hara, 2009).

The effective social or health service practitioner will move from positive listening to positive action. Egan (1986) writes:

> Helpers are seen as competent because they are active, because they listen intently … talk intelligently … are understanding, genuine and respectful. (p. 27)

In all this, Egan argues that 'helpers must be able to deliver'. These attributes are just as crucial in the industrial and commercial worlds where attentiveness to the consumer, the finance houses and all the parts of the vertical integration chain are vital.

Managing oneself

In introducing a new course in developing leadership potential at Roffey Park Management Institute in 2001, the programme director, Chris Lake, announced that the leaders we are most impressed with tend to be:

> almost without exception … people with high self-esteem, whose actions are congruent with their espoused views, who understand their own beliefs and values and who have a strong sense of their own direction. To be truly effective as a leader, you've got to be comfortable with who you are and what you are about. Essentially, concentrating on leading yourself is a powerful way to grow your ability to lead others.
> (quoted in Gilbert, 2005, p. 1)

Just as values and direction are vital for an organisation, so are they for each individual leader. It is very difficult for staff to follow someone who has no value compass; who doesn't appear confident in themselves; has left the map at the start of the journey; and is constantly wandering up culs-de-sac! (See also Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo-Metcalfe, 2009; Gilbert, 2009).

Thinking things through and thinking ahead

The well-motivated and orientated practitioner will be both concentrating on the job in hand and centred in their present but also looking ahead. The surgeon, the advertising copywriter, actor, salesperson, junior commander in the armed services, clergyperson and so on has to do ‘a really professional job’ of work in the here and now, based on their personal and professional values; but they must also look ahead to the latest research and practice, so as to challenge themselves and those around them to improve products and services.

This is at the heart of good management, effective leadership, and their combination. We shall develop this in the next section.

Leadership and management

> I keep six honest serving men
> (they taught me all I know)
> Their names are what and why and when
> And how and where and who
>
> Rudyard Kipling (1865-1936)

Context

In the 1950s most organisations in the UK were administered, not managed. The inter-war years had seen a profound sense of disillusionment from the economic and social optimism of the Victorian era and the Liberal reforms of the early 20th century. The loss during the Great War of so many leaders, and often whole communities in the ‘pals battalions’, coupled with class conflict in the 1920s and the sense of betrayal in the perceived breach of the postwar ‘social contract’, bred cynicism and stagnation. The aftermath of the Second World War saw a greater sense of social cohesion and a belief in an underpinning welfare state. But it also bred complacency and the sense that the war had been the great effort, and therefore leadership need not be taken into the peacetime era. Britain was seen as a leader in ‘administration’: the civil service, the judiciary, colonial administration, the professions – all fields in which the UK saw itself as a world leader. But as America, western Europe and the Far East moved forward in radically different ways, Britain found itself left behind, not only in wealth creation but in social welfare as well.

Although Britain made the right decision in trying to ‘win the peace’ at the same time as striving to ‘win the war’, through the support given to the work of William Beveridge, and the development of the NHS, social insurance, national assistance and childcare, the country made the fundamental mistake of not rethinking its role in the world. The government still saw Britain as a world power and its expenditure and commitment to those aims undermined progress in other fields. Midwinter, in his excellent overview of social history in Britain claims that: ‘the nation was now in the position of the [wo]man with champagne tastes and beer pockets’ (1994, p. 93).

While foreign commentators praised: 'the English way of reconciling respect for liberty with a very high degree of public order and co-operation' (Martin Wiener, US academic, quoted in Midwinter, 1994, p. 106), the reforms were essentially gradualist, and where they were more radical, as in housing policy with the proliferation of high-rise ghettos, the approach was mistaken, with long-term, adverse social and economic consequences. Midwinter comments on the role of women in society: 'the welfare state improved the lot of women without *changing* it' (p. 108, emphasis added), is a constant complaint for the postwar years.

In British industry the most often quoted example is that of British Leyland, with its reputation for shoddy work – the 'Friday car', and divisive industrial relations. But, just as undermining in the long term was a failure within senior management to plan ahead a viable range of models that the public wanted to buy. With a lack of customer responsiveness in models and reliability, pleas to 'buy British' (reinforced by films such as 'The Italian Job') fell on deaf ears.

The country was alarmed to find that it seemed to have 'won the War' but 'lost the peace', both in economic terms and then in what its economy could purchase in terms of health and welfare. Technological innovation was often spectacular but undeveloped, while the institutions and professions were unreformed, with inadequate internal and external scrutiny. As Leadbeater (1999) remarks:

> We are timid and cautious where the Victorians were confident and innovative. We live within the shell of institutions the nineteenth century handed down to us. Our highly uneven capacity for innovation is the source of our unease. We are scientific and technological revolutionaries, but political and institutional conservatives. (p. x)

Sound administration came to be seen as useful but insufficient in itself, and belatedly Britain began to consider management as a way of coping with the increasing complexity of organisational change.

	Administration	*Management*
Objectives	Stated in general terms and reviewed or changed infrequently	Stated as broad strategic aims supported by more detailed short-term goals and targets reviewed
Success criteria	Mistake avoiding Performance rarely measurable	Success seeking Performance mostly measurable
Resource use	Secondary task	Primary task
Decision making	Has to make few decisions but affecting many and can take time over it	Has to make many affecting few and has to make them quickly

	Administration	*Management*
Structure	Roles defined in terms of areas of responsibility. Long hierarchies; limited delegation	Shorter hierarchies maximum delegation
Roles	Arbitration	Protagonist
Attitudes	Passive: workload determined outside the system. Best people used to solve problems	Active: seeking to influence the environment. Best people used to find and exploit opportunities
	Time insensitive	Time sensitive
	Risk avoiding	Risk accepting but minimising it
	Emphasis on procedure	Emphasis on results
	Doing things right	Doing the right thing
	Conformity	Local experiments: need for conformity to be proved
	Uniformity	Independence

Figure 2: The different characteristics of administration and management (Gilbert and Scragg, 1992, derived from Rees, 1984)

Sir Gerry Robinson, in his foreword to the NHS Confederation *Challenges of Leadership* document points out that: 'there is not much history of management in the NHS. It has been about administration rather than leadership. I felt that managers do not believe they have the right to manage … it probably feels safer not to do something than to stick your neck out' (2007, p. 2). In his BBC series *Can Gerry Robinson Fix the NHS?*, Robinson had some difficulty in persuading the Chief Executive that it was important for him to come out of his office and engage with the front line, so as to comprehend the patient experience; gather ideas for service improvement from those undertaking the actual work face to face and day to day; and to demonstrate to staff that he was interested in their work and their welfare. A middle manager recently commented to one of the present authors that her Director of Adult Services was: 'Professional; passionate about service delivery; challenging, yet warm; a good listener; and inspirational – a real person'. We would probably all like to work for someone like that!

Kotter (1988; 1990) has charted the changing scene for modern businesses: the heightened complexity of the business environment; the pace of change; the intricate nature of organisations and organisational relationships; and the interaction between individuals, organisations and the state. For Kotter (1988, p. 15) a 'world of intense competitive activity among very complex organisations' will be one where bureaucratic managers become not only irrelevant but dangerous, and in which even the best 'professional' managers may be ineffective unless they can also lead.

The medium-sized manufacturing company feeling inured against change by a stable market and patents on its products; the building society relying on a fixed customer –

base and a small number of product lines; the acute hospital which presumes that its local GPs will continue to refer their patients whatever the quality of service; these are all living in a world which is passing. Charles Handy's work has concentrated in large part on the effects of a changing world. One example from the past he uses is that of the indigenous peoples of South America, with their advanced civilisations, failing to recognise the threat posed by the fleet of the Spanish conquistadors, because never having seen a European sailing ship before, they thought the sails were clouds (Handy, 1989).

The 2008/09 credit crunch and subsequent recession appear to have been the result of considerable strategic blindness and lassitude by politicians and regulators. Most of the practices defied basic logic, or as Vince Cable puts it: 'hubris is giving way to nemesis' (Cable, 2009).

For many organisations today, a failure to identify a growing complexity within, or to ascertain increasing threats from without, spells the beginning of the end.

What managers do depends partly on:

- What they see their job as being.
- How they see their staff as being motivated.
- The external pressures as a whole.
- The day-to-day pressures which mean 'the urgent' pushes out the 'important'.

Carlson (1951) and Mintzberg (1973) in major research on the nature and scope of the work managers do, found their actual working day incredibly fragmented – with very little time spent in the serene, reflective creation of strategy; and a great deal spent in fire-fighting of various kinds, administrative routine and office politics (see Stewart, 1985).

As the doyen of management theory, Peter Drucker, writes:

> In fact, executives might well be defined as people who normally have no time of their own, because their time is always pre-empted by matters of importance to somebody else. (1986, p. 9) (See also Drucker with Maciarello, 2008)

However their role is defined, managers will inevitably start to shape the job in their own way. Some may consciously copy the director in Blanchard and Johnson's *One Minute Manager* (1983), who has a clear desk after his weekly goal-setting meeting. Others will be spending more time with those who work for them, because theirs is a people-intensive business, or the pace of change requires more personal contact; another may be devoting considerable time to working laterally with other departments within the organisation; another with customers; and yet another with stakeholders of different kinds, including the board, shareholders, political committees and so on.

To ensure that the manager keeps his or her eye on the goals of the organisation, they need to have methods of ensuring that these multifaceted activities, meritorious in their own right, actually contribute to a coherent whole. The basic question: 'How is what I'm doing contributing to the goals of my team/organisation?', is a good prompt to ensure that the individual is on the right track, as are Kipling's words at the beginning of an ear-

lier section. It is easy to jump from the 'why' and the 'what' of strategic management to the more tactical tasks of 'who' is going to do something, 'how' and 'when'. Cunningham (1999), in his work on strategic learning in organisations, is clear on how central the 'why' questions are to clarifying and maintaining strategic direction. See Figure 3 below.

'Everything I have learnt', writes Sir John Harvey-Jones, 'teaches me that it is only when you work with rather than against people that achievement and lasting success is possible.' (1988, p. 7). The key word here is 'lasting'. Management practice which is oppressive and lacks integrity may provide short-term wins but is essentially limited.

Organisations as a whole, as much as individual managers, need to discover ways of motivating employees in ways which recognise a demographic shortfall of labour, a lacuna in specialist skills and a desire in the workers to have more self-fulfilment and empowerment.

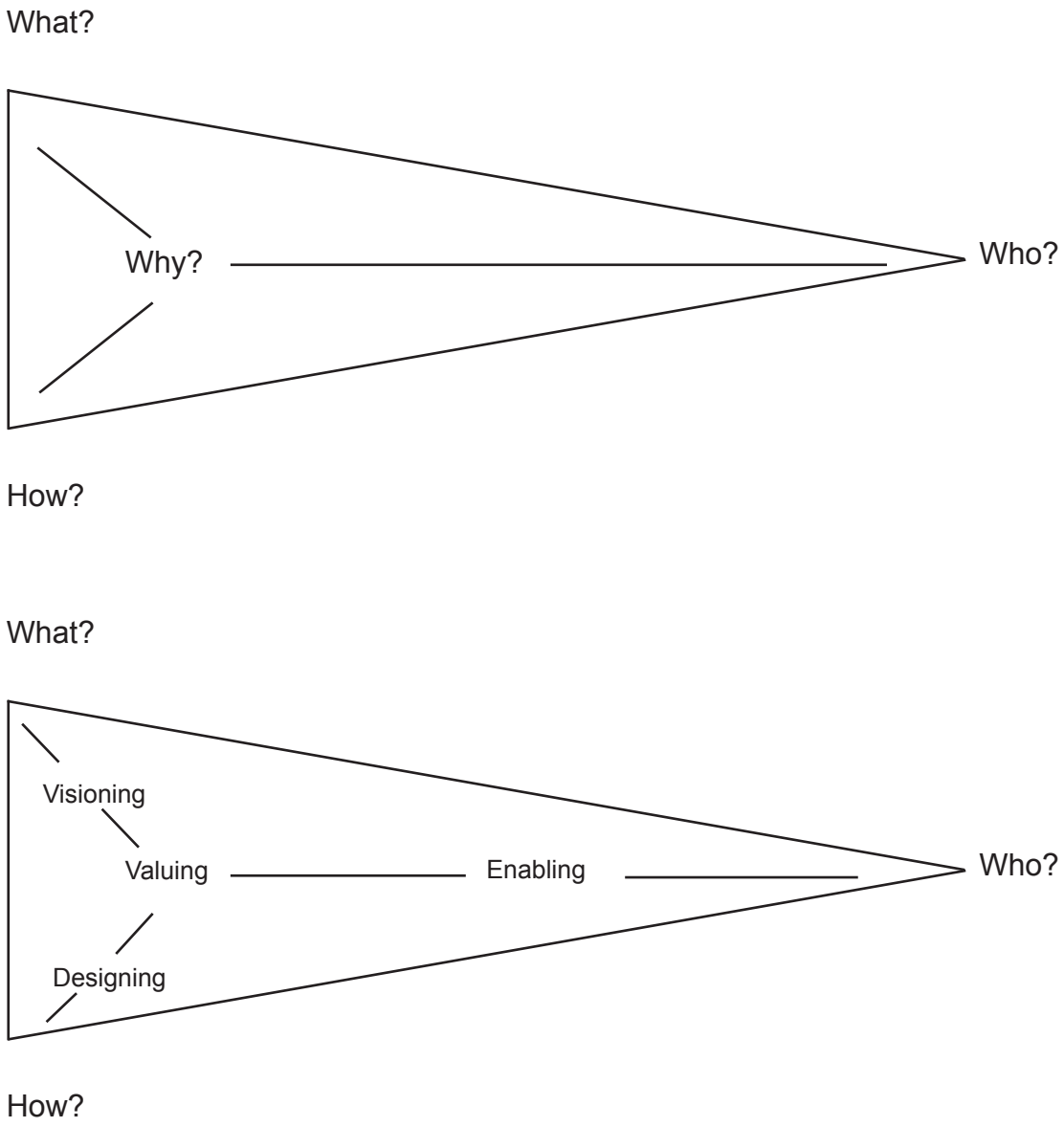

Figure 3: Managing change through leadership, Cunningham (1999)

Scott (2000) identifies 'eight waves of reinvention' from 1985 to 1999:

- quality movements;
- downsizing;
- re-engineering;
- core competencies;
- mergers and acquisitions;
- outsourcing;
- networked computing; and
- empowerment.

All these movements have achieved cost efficiencies in both private and public sectors, but with decreasing returns in terms of cost benefits, and an increasing alienation of employees. As one annual audit of employee attitudes put it:

> It is disturbing to report such an erosion of loyalty amongst internal customers (ie staff) when most firms are so validly pursuing loyalty campaigns with their external customers. (Scott, 2000, p. 8)

Executives need to be clear about how they see the factors which motivate demotivate those who work for them. It was the American social scientist, Douglas McGregor (1960) who worked up his theory X and theory Y, based on a pessimistic/optimistic or 'original sin'/perfectibility dichotomy, and that is depending on our model of humanity. In theory X people are seen as naturally lazy and needing a stick and carrot approach; in theory Y workers are seen as basically self-motivated but requiring a favourable environment in which to work. In the 1980s, Peters and Waterman (1982) and William Ouchi (1981), were instrumental in trying to puzzle out why companies in the 'Tiger Economies' of the Far East were more successful than their US and UK counterparts. Ouchi came up with Theory Z. See Figure 4 overleaf.

The seminal work of Herzberg (1960) is useful in pulling these theories together. When he interviewed workers in the United States, his survey groups identified two sets of factors: hygiene or maintenance factors, which would cause dissatisfaction if they were absent, and motivators which gave a positive incentive. The hygiene or maintenance factors were company policy, administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, status, a salary, security and the impact of the job on personal life. The motivators were achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, interesting work, and the possibility of personal growth.

Clearly many of these interlock and it is the responsibility of managers to look at individual and small group methods rather than the blanket approach that proved so unsuccessful as incentives in the old Soviet Union economy or the British car industry of the 1980s.

There is often very little room for manoeuvre in the public sector which has over-relied in the past on 'job satisfaction'. Here an even more imaginative approach must be used with recognition, career structures for advanced practice, opportunities for personal growth and the building of effective teams which enjoy working and possibly recreating together. The administrative burden needs to be lifted as far as possible within the

Theory X	*Theory Y*	*Theory Z*
People dislike work and try to avoid it	People see work as fulfilling part of their psychological need to find value and meaning	People identify with a corporate vision, value system & presentation which is accurate and explicit
People work only if you use a 'carrot and stick' approach	Most people can be motivated if given a realistic and noble goal to aim for	Workers respond to clear and achievable organisational goals
People avoid responsibility at all costs	Self-discipline is far more effective than that imposed from outside.	Teamwork and intensive socialisation have worked well for Japanese firms in Europe, the USA and Japan
Money and fear make things happen!	People enjoy the challenge of responsibility if given guidance and support	Individualised performance-related pay is a motivator
People are only creative when it's a case of trying to buck the system	The desire to realise our full potential is even more powerful	Each individual should feel a hero/heroine in trying to improve own performance
	There is a great deal of untapped creativity waiting to to be released	Creativity exists but organisations have the responsibility to ensure that knowledge and skills are made available to workers so as to translate motivation into performance.

Figure 4: Theories of individual motivation (Gilbert and Scragg, 1992, derived from McGregor, 1960, and Ouchi, 1981) (See also Scragg, 2009)

constraints of public accountability, and employees need much greater feedback that the work they are doing day by day is having a positive effect and changing people's lives. Alan Fowler, considering the issues from a public sector perspective, makes eight key points:

> • How well people work is influenced as much by attitude and motivation as by competence.
> • Motivation is affected by an amalgam of influences – personal, job related, environmental and managerial.
> • Managers need to understand that each employee is a unique individual.
> • Jobs need to be meaningful and interesting, and people need feedback on their performance.
> • Work needs to be seen as partially a social process, and motivation is affected by group attitudes.
> • In organisations, general culture has a strong motivational influence.
> • Motivation can be stimulated by effective systems of recognition and reward.
> • Managerial leadership is vital: qualities such as consistency, commitment, fairness, decisiveness and communication are common factors.

Fowler stresses that:

> for managers, the requirement is to know each employee well and so understand the individual characteristics which are likely to influence each person's motivation. (1988, p. 64)

For the manager who is tempted to delude themselves that frontline workers will be fooled by facile motivators, a good corrective is to read Scott Adams' books featuring the archetypal employee, Dilbert. One of the most famous cartoons has the managing director saying:

> I've been saying for years that employees are our most valuable asset. It turns out that I was wrong. Money is our most valuable asset. Employees are ninth. (Adams, 1997, p. 53)

One of the employees replies: 'I'm afraid to ask what came in eighth?', to which the managing director responds: 'carbon paper'!

Wheatley (1999), poses the enduring questions:

> How do we create structures that are flexible and adaptive, that enable rather than constrain? How do we simplify things without losing what we value about complexity? How do we resolve personal needs for autonomy and growth with organisational needs for prediction and accountability. (p. 79)

The managerial tasks

Researchers, theorists and management practitioners (Clutterbuck and Crainer, 1990; Adair, 1983; Kotter, 1990; Hunt, 1991; Clegg *et al.* 2005;) agree that there are a clearly defined set of managerial tasks where the skills can be learned:

1. Creating the agenda

Developing a plan for future action – a map of how to achieve the objectives plus the financial resources to achieve success. This is the 'why' and the 'what', and the agenda needs to have both an overarching map and a number of specific objectives and sub-tasks to achieve it. The plan must be realistic and able to be assessed to see if it is successful. As Adair puts it:

> All leaders need this skill of quarrying objectives out of aims, and then cutting steps into the objectives so that they can be achieved. (1983, p. 79)

It is worth reflecting on Field Marshal Rommel's dictum that: 'no plan survives contact' (Fraser, 1994, p. 418). The bureaucratic manager will be at a loss when that brilliantly created plan hits practical problems from productive capacity, market demand, shareholder confidence and so on. The leader is likely to have the ability to rethink and plan anew. Peter Drucker recalls that the American president, Franklin D. Roosevelt, who masterminded the American recovery from economic recession and their success in World War Two, found that, when he became president in 1933, his plan for economic recovery was upset by changed circumstances.

> Roosevelt immediately substituted a political objective for his former economic one. He switched from recovery to reform. He knew that he had to change his plans radically to have any hope of success (Drucker, 1967, p. 129)

2. Organising and human resources

Getting the right people for the job in hand, with potential to grow in the job is essential. The American chief of staff in World War II, George Marshall, had a maxim that, if someone was not up to the task in hand they must be replaced, but that each person would almost certainly have skills which could be used productively elsewhere, and these should be ascertained and utilised. Staff have to be communicated with intensely on the aim; briefed on the objectives and tasks; listened to and worked with; and enthused.

When one of the present authors (Peter) was the Director of Operations for Staffordshire Social Services, working through both cultural and service change, he coined a simple phrase to be used in respect of users and carers, staff and stakeholders: 'Listen – Hear – Respond – Act' - a quick check, integral to the change process. In both practice and management listening needs to be active.

MAPPING → SERVICE → VALUES → CULTURE → MISSION → VISION → PRINCIPLES

Figure 5: Vision and change processes in social services (Gilbert, 2005)

Of course 'hearing' does not necessarily mean that you do what others want you to. But the more complex and unpopular the decision, the greater the need for good communication.

3. Controlling and problem solving

Managers monitor progress on the plan from a number of perspectives, remembering that shareholders and financial markets in the private sector and central government in the public sector will have their own view as to what constitutes successful adherence to the plan.

It is essential that not only the lessons of success and failures are learned (and there is the temptation either to want only the good news or, conversely, opine, like Aristotle, that people only learn from failure, never from success), but also that the learning processes themselves are studied – that is, 'double-loop learning', rather than the 'single loop' of the issue itself. (Argyris and Schön, 1974; Cunningham, 1999).

A useful checklist of the functions and tasks, set out to be congruent with Adair's model appears in the appendix of this manual.

So, where does leadership come in, and is it different from management?

> If you do not know which port you are sailing to, no wind is favourable
>
> Seneca (64BC)

At the time of a crisis, war or rapid technological, political, democratic or economic turbulence, countries and organisations of all types and sizes need people at the helm who can initiate change and lead through it – riding the white waters of change. The leader

must have both a clear eye for where they want to get to on the other side of the rapids and a keen eye for the boulders coming up immediately in front of the raft. At the same time, the leader will have to encourage the crew, who may be frightened, apathetic, weary or underskilled.

Times of change are both dangerous and an opportunity, but it is easy to hit the rocks or be thrown out of the canoe. As the old master, Niccolo Machiavelli wrote:

> Nothing is more difficult to handle, more doubtful of success, and more dangerous to carry through than initiating changes in a state's constitution. The innovator makes enemies of all those who prospered under the old order, and only lukewarm support is forthcoming from those who would prosper under the new. (1981, p. 51, originally published 1514)

Machiavelli also asserts that the effective ruler will look ahead to map the possible futures, even when the waters are calm. For, as he puts it, the wise ruler not only copes with present troubles but also with ones likely to arise in the future, and assiduously forestalls them:

> When trouble is sensed well in advance it can be easily remedied; if you wait for it to show itself any medicine will be too late because the disease will have become incurable. (p. 39)

Paul Corrigan's book on Shakespeare's plays and their lessons for today's managers (Corrigan, 1999) uses *Henry the Fifth* to portray the different ways a leader has to manage through danger and trauma to reach his or her goals. Some of the decisions political and military leaders have to make most of us hope will not be a cross we have to carry but, as Corrigan writes of Henry, he took dark decisions as well as those where he is seen as a knight in shining armour: 'The greatness of the play is that leadership is not simple, but full of ambiguities' (p. 149).

As we saw earlier, leadership comes with its accent on change processes. It is a different concept from management, with its accent on control. The first produces necessary change to steer country, company, public body and so on through the rapids (to continue our white water analogy); the second ensures the sails and oars are in good condition, and the boat is well supplied with food.

Leadership is different from management, but neither is sufficient on its own. Management on its own never produces significant and necessary change; leadership, left without the anchor of good management, can lead to chaos in its wake. In a modern context both are essential for the survival and growth of the organisation. Strong management without the leadership factor can lead to stifling, bureaucratic entities producing order for order's sake. Leadership without sound management can result in being forced into change for change's sake, or pulled in a messianic and destructive direction. The best example of the latter is Hitler's Germany, a story of brilliant and diabolical mass manipulation which still haunts us today. Keegan's (1987) text in military leadership, *The Mask of Command*, demonstrates this, as does Kershaw's (1991) study of Adolf Hitler, which gives a fascinating insight into the fact that the Nazi state was far from monolithic and, in fact, was poorly managed, with a divide and rule technique. (See also Kershaw, 2009).

John P. Kotter's work on leadership is very concise and easy to follow. He sets out the relationship between leadership and management in a number of key texts (1988, 1990, 1996). A brief summary of the relationship between vision, strategies, plans and budgets is shown below:
Leadership:

- Inspires a vision – an appealing, stretching, yet practical picture of the future.
- Creates strategies – setting out how the vision can be achieved in practice.

Management:

- Produces plans – mapping out the 'hows', 'whens' and 'whos' to implement the strategies.
- Formulates budgets – plans are translated into financial projections and goals.

(see Kotter, 1996)

Theories of leadership

1. The singer not the song: charismatic leadership

Some of the first theories of leadership were around the concept of the charismatic persona (see Smith and Peterson, 1988). It is easy to see the attraction of this idea and to concentrate on some of the high-profile current and historical figures who appear to embody particular characteristics.

Keegan's (1987) study of Alexander the Great shows a man of:

- great vision;
- extraordinary energy;
- personal (in fact reckless) courage;
- excellent logistical sense;
- cultural sensitivity and inquiry;
- an ability and willingness to encourage talented subordinates;
- a demonstrative empathy with his soldiers; and
- a talent for weaving stories to reinforce his vision.

The historian, Arrian, tells us that, after a battle, Alexander:

> showed much concern about the wounded, visiting each, examining their wounds, asking how they were received, and encouraging each to recount and even boast of his exploits. (Quoted in Keegan, 1987, p. 46)

Edwards and Townsend (1965) discerned a number of qualities in successful business people:

- strength of character and willingness to work hard;
- perseverance and single mindednes;
- commercial flair;

- a willingness to take risks; and
- an ability to inspire enthusiasm.

Argyris (1953), observing American executives, drew up a list of ten characteristics, though by no means all of these would be found in each individual:

- a high tolerance of frustration;
- the ability to engage full participation from people;
- self-questioning, without self-doubt;
- an understanding of the 'laws of competitive warfare';
- the ability to express negative feelings tactfully;
- the ability to accept victory with controlled emotions;
- recovery from setbacks;
- an understanding of the need for bad news to be given;
- identification with groups; and
- realistic goal setting. (p. 53)

Peter Drucker was exceedingly sceptical about this approach. 'I soon learned,' he wrote, that there is no 'effective personality …. all they [effective executives] have in common is the ability to get the right things done' (1967, p. 18). As a footnote, he adds caustically that he knows many highly effective – and successful – executives who lack most, if not all, of Argyris's 'characteristics'. 'I also know quite a few who, though they answer to Argyris's description, are singularly ineffective!' (ibid.).

Drucker puts forward five elements of 'competency' which he believes anyone can attain and which lead to effectiveness:

- the management of time;
- a focus on results;
- an ability to build on strengths – their own and those of superiors, colleagues, subordinates and the situation overall;
- concentration on a few major areas where superior performance will produce outstanding results; and
- making effective decisions – taking the right steps in the right sequence.

The problems with the charismatic or trait theory of leadership are:

- The emphasis tends to be on the individual, not the people who have to carry out the vision and tasks, or the environment in which the organisation operates. It is too much 'I' and not enough 'we'.
- The charismatic leader, often an entrepreneur in a business sense or a states(wo)man setting up a new nation state may be excellent at starting something off, but hopeless at embedding an organisation/state which can carry the vision forward.
- Such people often don't know when to step aside, or believe themselves to be so much part of the country/company that they are irreplaceable. No successors are groomed and what is left is a lack of leadership to take over, or, in Alexander's case, too many strong leaders and the almost immediate break up of his empire. (See Collins, 2009)

> • Separation from 'the followers' (citizens, employees, communities and so on) can take place, leading to disintegration. Corrigan's study of Shakespeare's Roman general 'Coriolanus' shows him as initially successful but isolating himself from all his followers. As one of his soldiers describes him: 'he is himself alone' (Coriolanus, Act 1, Scene 4). By contrast, St Benedict of Nursia, in his Rule, which has endured for many centuries in building effective communities, urged that his chief executive, the Abbot should call the whole community together when anything important was to be decided, because sometimes the most junior would have the best ideas (The Rule of St Benedict, c540AD, English version, 1982; See also Jamison, 2006). Followers are essential, as Kelley (1988) argues.
>
> The leader who engages with and encourages good followership, and also demonstrates it him- or herself when appropriate, is likely to be hugely influential.
> • The direction of the charismatic leader may be one that leads to evil outcomes as easily as good ones. As Peter Senge (1990) has pointed out, leaders: must be able to help people understand the systemic forces that shape change. It is not enough to intuitively grasp these forces. Many 'visionary strategists' have rich intuitions about the cause of change, intuitions they cannot explain. They end up being authoritarian leaders. (p. 123)

However, despite the potential problems of the charismatic leader, most of us wish to work with and for people who bring meaning to the workplace; who move us; who resonate with us (see Boyatzis and McKee, 2005). 'Resonant leaders', to use Boyatzis and McKee's phrase, are good at weaving stories which promote a common approach to overcoming obstacles and reaching new goals (see Bates and Gilbert, 2008).

2. Cometh the time, cometh the (wo)man: situational leadership

To return to Machiavelli again, the canny Florentine advises leaders to select the qualities and strategies they need to suit the situation they find themselves in. From history, he suggests that a ruler in a time of instability would wish to select qualities from the Emperor Severus (soldier and statesman) – who could be both 'lion and fox' to 'establish his state', and the attributes of Marcus Aurelius (philosopher and statesman), when skills are needed to maintain the state, 'after it has been established and made secure' (Machiavelli, 1514, p. 114).

In modern times, Robert Tannenbaum and Warren Schmidt believed that managers should consider three interrelated factors:

- their own character and qualities;
- those of their subordinates; and
- the situation at the time.

Managers' characteristics that are important in deciding how to manage include:

- their value system;
- the confidence or not they have in their subordinates;
- their leadership style; and
- their ability to cope with ambiguity.

The characteristics of their followers include:

- their dependence/independence;
- the ability to assume responsibility;
- their tolerance of uncertainty – the need to be directed or their preference for greater choice in decision- making;
- identification with the goals of the organisation; and
- experience and expertise.

The characteristics of the situation include:

- the type and culture of the organisation;
- the effectiveness of the teams;
- the scale and nature of the challenge; and
- the amount of time available to make decisions.

(Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958, quoted in Stewart 1985).

This was further developed by Hersey (1984) and Ken Blanchard's *One Minute Manager* series. In *Leadership and the One Minute Manager*, Blanchard *et al*., (1986) set out four basic leadership styles to be utilised appropriately:

1. *Directing* – the leader provides specific instructions and closely supervises task accomplishment.
2. *Coaching* – the leader continues to direct and closely supervise, but also explains decisions, solicits suggestions, and supports progress.
3. *Supporting* – the leader facilitates and supports subordinates' efforts towards accomplishing the task, and shares responsibility for decision making with them.
4. *Delegating* – the leader turns over responsibility for decision making and problem solving to subordinates.

3. 'Both/and' not 'either/or'

Peters and Austin (1985) speak of a need to find a new way of inspiring people:

> for the last 25 years, we have carried around with us the image of manager as a cop, referee, devil's advocate, dispassionate analyst, professional, decision-maker … The alternative we now propose is leader ... as cheer-leader, enthusiast, nurturer of champions, hero finder, wanderer, dramatist, coach, facilitator, builder. (p. 267)

This is a model which relates back to our earliest traditions of leadership, as a reading of Greek literature and Anglo-Saxon history and poems will demonstrate.

While the management role is sometimes referred to as 'transactional leadership' (a process of exchanges: votes for political office; salary for work; training to meet assessed needs), at times of change, there is a need to transform people and organisations and actively bear upon situations, hence, 'transformational leadership', or what Kotter (1988) calls 'the leadership factor'.

Managers:

- focus on systems and structures;
- maintain;
- ask **how** and **when**;
- concentrate on planning and budgeting;
- have their eye on the bottom line;
- are deductive and rational;
- ensure the accomplishment of plans by controlling and problem-solving;
- cope with current complexity; and
- do things right.

Leaders:

- focus on people;
- develop;
- ask **what** and **why**;
- set a direction and align people;
- have their eyes on the horizon;
- are inductive and intuitive;
- achieve goals through motivating and inspiring people;
- cope with change; and
- do the right thing.

Figure 6: Leadership and management compared, Kotter (1988)

It was James McGregor Burns who initially spelled out the radical difference between the two:

> Transforming leadership, while more complex than transactional leadership, is more potent. The transforming leader recognises an existing need or demand of a potential follower. But, beyond that, the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. (1978, p. 92)

As we have said, both management (transactional) and leadership (transformational) need to be in place for an organisation to prosper in a variety of situations.

As success for banks, hospitals, hotels, airline companies, political parties, sales centres and so on increasingly depends on each and every person in the chain of production and supply working at their very best, leadership, management and followership skills are required at every level.

Finkelstein's work (2004) points to the fact that leaders who are successful for a particular cycle for the organisation's life, may not learn sufficient lessons to take the organisation forward, and may in a sense be victims of their own success. Jim Collins' latest work (Collins, 2009) charts a number of international companies which began their fall from grace with a stage one which Collins terms: 'hubris (the Greek for the kind of pride that

precedes a fall) borne of success' and moves on to the 'undisciplined pursuit of more'; 'denial of risk and peril'; 'grasping for salvation'; and, finally – 'capitulation to irrelevance or death'.

Collins also warns that 'a culture of bureaucratic mediocrity can gradually replace a culture of disciplined excellence' (p. 56). This is particularly relevant for public sector organisations which can sometimes turn bureaucracy into an art form. A review of UK defence spending, published in October 2009 stated 'that the system is failing to procure the equipment we **don't** need (emphasis added). The report on the crash of an RAF Nimrod plane in Afghanistan in 2006, killing 14 personnel, was investigated by Charles Haddon-Cave QC. He declared that the MoD's safety system was not fit for purpose. The provider failed to deliver a safe system and the Ministry, as commissioner and consumer failed to check it was getting the right product. Haddon-Cave criticised an organisational culture which 'has allowed business priorities' to overcome concentrating on airworthiness (Haddon-Cave, 2009).

Bass and Avolio (1994) have taken Kotter's leadership tasks further and linked them with an inspirational approach, which they refer to as the Four 'I' approach:

1. *Idealised influence* – Transformational leaders behave in ways that result in their being role models for their followers. The leader shares risks with subordinates and is consistent rather than arbitrary.

2. *Inspirational motivation* – the leader motivates and inspires, and creates clearly communicated expectations that people wish to meet.

3. *Intellectual stimulation* – the stimulation of innovation and creativity is important. Staff are encouraged to try new approaches – for example, Kemal Attaturk, the creator of the Turkish state, well-known for somebody who, even in private life, would always be encouraging of the people around him to raise difficult questions and try to answer them.

4. *Individualised consideration* – Transformational leaders pay special attention to each individual's needs for achievement and growth.

To ensure that the transformational approach is not just an end in itself – an organisational 'feel-good factor', Nicholls (1999) has added a third stage:

> Value-centred leadership – directing the energy within transformational leadership towards the fundamental purpose of creating and delivering value to the customer, patient, citizen and so on – thus creating strategic leadership, that moves forward the transactional functions of management and the transforming powers of leadership, with a depth of purpose and extended vision for the future. (p. 17)

• *Stage 1: Managerial leadership*: Two components: supervsiory (hands) and strategic (head). Important in going beyond mere administration.

• *Stage 2: Transforming leadership:* Inspirational leadership (heart) is added to hands and head. This engages people in a vision and gives them 'headroom' to perform.

• *Stage 3: Value-centred leadership:* 'Managers with positive Values, apply Transforming Leadership to the fundamental business purpose of creating and delivering Value to the Customer'

Figure 6: Moving to a higher management level (derived from Nicholls, 1999)

As the former President of South Africa, F.W. de Klerk, said of his successor:

> Mr Mandela has walked a long road and now stands at the top of the hill. A traveller would sit down to an admire the view, but the man of destiny knows that beyond this hill lies another and another – the journey is never complete. (quoted in Gilbert, 2005, p. 62)

Creating an effective culture

To ensure the delivery of the outcomes the organisation requires, managers must be able to check that they have engaged with all the different elements relevant to the organisation – both externally and internally. A useful model is the Seven 'S' approach of McKinsey, as discussed in Peters and Waterman (1982) and Hampden-Turner (1990). The model has the following elements:

Have a clear set of SHARED VALUES
Develop the STRATEGY
Hire the right STAFF
Train them in the relevant SKILLS
Manage them in an appropriate STYLE
Install the correct SYSTEMS
Shape a STRUCTURE to perform the function.

At the heart of the model, however, has to be some key elements which are essential if the whole process is not to become soulless and sterile. These elements are:

• *Leadership* – a desire and ability to be a pathfinder for the organisation.
• *Shared values* – fundamental beliefs about the way we act in the world, and that are held in common.
• *Core goals* – which are at the epicentre of the strategy.
• *A positive culture* – which gives congruent messages about the company and its people through a variety of mediums, and is ultimately tested by the experience of the customer and stakeholders. (See Gilbert, 2005, p.30)

What is culture?

Edgar Schein, a leading figure in the study of organisational culture, defines it as:

> a pattern of basic assumptions – invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration – that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (1985, p. 9)

Much simpler versions are: 'how we do things around here' (Ouchi, 1981) and 'a hidden, yet unifying theme, that provides meaning, direction and mobilisation' (Kilman, 1985 – both quoted in Newman, 1996, p. 14).

Newman (1996), in her comprehensive and eminently readable work on shaping organisational cultures identifies two major themes in the literature:

- the 'corporate culture' approach (Hampden-Turner, 1990) which sees culture as a variable that can be managed in the same way as structures and systems can be: 'It is something which an organisation has, rather than what an organisation is' (Newman, 1996, p. 15).

- the 'interpretive approach' (for example, Sackmann, 1991), where a culture is actively created by organisation members through their social interactions.

One formulation which links closely with Bass and Avolio's Four I approach, where communication, both corporately and individually, is so important, is that when culture:

> represents a web of understanding that we need in order to make sense of and cope with the complexity and confusion of organisational life. This web then gives shape to what we do and the ways in which we do it. (McLean and Marshall, 1988, p. 11)

The transformational leader understands, and is able to cope effectively with, the 'web of understanding' so that he or she has a chance in turning around a problemnatic culture, energising a moribund one, or harnessing the potential of one that is able to deliver the value-based leadership which Nicholls (1999) describes.

Culture is complex

Organisational culture is likely to have the following features:

1. It will manifest itself at various levels and in different ways. Schein's (1985; 2004) model shows three distinct layers, some easily visible and some less so:

Artifacts and creations – visible but often not decipherable:

- Technology
- Art
- Visible and audible behaviour patterns

Values – greater level of awareness:

- Testable in the physical environment
- Testable only by social consensus

Basic assumptions – taken for granted and invisible:

- Relationship to environment
- Nature of reality, time and space
- Nature of human nature
- Nature of human activity
- Nature of human relationships

2. It will be embedded in the informal organisation, demonstrable in the cartoons on the notice board, and the jokes around the coffee maker and so on.
3. It will be taken for granted, and therefore needs to be identified as soon as possible by the leader before they have an opportunity to be sucked into it.

4. Through the culture of a corporate body, or specific team, events are given meaning within a particular worldview.

5. Culture is learned. It is passed on from individual to individual or group to group:

> Culture is like language: we inherit it, learn it, pass it on to others, but in the process we invent new words and expressions - it evolves over time. (Newman, 1996, p. 17)

Usually it evolves, but sometimes it can get stuck for decades. The branch bank at Little Barset-on-the-Hill (if not closed by now in a branch restructuring programme!) will probably have had the same office culture, for good or ill, for many years along the lines of: 'it's the way we do things here'.

It is a building society which Johnson and Scholes utilise in their exploration of strategy formation as a cultural process (Johnson and Scholes, 1989). They believe that a strategy is likely to fail unless the 'recipe' of the culture is understood and taken into account. This 'recipe' is made up of:

- symbols;
- rituals and myths;
- power structures;
- organisational structure;
- control systems; and
- routines.

Each 'ingredient' is likely to be mutually reinforcing, except at times of change, when one or more components will begin to act to change the 'recipe'.

6. It is unrealistic to talk about a single organisational culture in a large entity.

Even with a strong corporate identity, individual sections will be likely to operate in ways which make the overall culture complex and multilayered. This is especially true in professional areas, such as health, social care and education. In the 1990s, for example, the new NHS trusts attempted to create organisational coherence, but always struggled because each area of physical activity within, for example, an acute hospital, is likely to create its own distinct culture.

Russell Mannion and his colleagues have undertaken a comprehensive survey of cultures in acute hospitals in England and describe three main organisational cultures in a multidisciplinary setting, which will be easily recognisable:

> • Integrated – when there is a broad-based consensus on the values, beliefs and behaviours within the organisation.
> • Differentiated – when different professional groups adhere to their own values and cultures so an integrated approach may be difficult.
> • Fragmented – where in extreme cases there may be mutual incomprehension of each other's approaches, or even antagonism (Mannion *et al.,* 2005, p. 30).

In the commercial/industrial world, some companies may consciously strive for variable cultures – for example, a very tight, homogeneous corporate HQ, with work bases (for example, in an IT conglomerate) having quite a different feel from the HQ and each other, precisely because of their different requirements.

Assessing and creating organisational culture at a time of mergers and acquisitions can be particularly convoluted. Merging an acute and community NHS trust with strongly antipathetic management mores is an exercise requiring considerable effort and involvement:

> Achieving cultural change is a complex journey requiring constant revival and review. It also demands unyielding commitment from the trust board. (Spreckley and Hart, 2001, pp. 28-9)

The leader's role

'The only thing of real importance that leaders do', writes Schein (1985), 'is to create and manage culture.' He goes on to say: 'and that unique talent of leaders is to create and manage culture' (p. 2). Culture and leadership, Schein believes, are two sides of the same coin. Leaders, therefore, must:

> 1.Identify the cultural recipe and how malleable it is.
>
> 2. Diagnose its features and its layers (see Handy, 1978; Harrison and Stokes, 1990; Schein, 2004; Goffee and Jones, 2003; Mannion *et al.*, 2005).
>
> 3. Ascertain how appropriate the recipe is for the desired strategy.
>
> 4. Use transformational values and skills to mould the culture, by acting on ingredients within the recipe. For example, managers going 'back to the floor' and working with staff. Gerry Robinson's BBC TV series demonstrated that

some senior mangers simply do not understand the concept of interacting with the front line, and what a revelation it is to them when they do so.

5. Will not only inspire by example (walk the talk) and learn a great deal, they will also begin a weaving of stories and relationships which create a powerful force for positive development.

Inspirational and influencing leadership will mean using oneself in:

- Living the value and the vision;
- Creating meaning for people;
- Coping creatively with ambiguity and paradox;
- Being aware of the symbolic nature of our actions. As Peters (1989) wrote, 'managing at any time, but more than ever today, is a symbolic activity' (p. 71).
- Changing language and behaviour to model values and goals;
- Conceiving a sense of pathfinding as a team. As one follower said of their leader, who had led them through a series of gruelling challenges, he was a leader:

we followed because he had ideas and because, for a brief moment in our lives, he made us bigger than ourselves. (Hickey, 1992, p. 120)

Barriers to effective leadership

One of the challenges in using current examples of leadership is that no sooner have you written about their glorious achievements than they come crashing down to earth! Corrigan (1999) quotes the example of Martin Taylor, who was brought in by Barclays bank in the late 1990s as the chief executive thought most able to relaunch the bank on a modernisation programme. Taylor was regarded as a major intellect, ideal for the kind of visionary leadership to create the forward drive for a banking institution. Problems with his investment strategy and other issues, however, meant that the board suddenly lost confidence in him. As Corrigan writes: 'understandably, an unexpected and shattering blow to someone used to being adulated for their brain power' (p. 39).

The credit crunch of 2008/09 has demonstrated the difficulty of commercial organisations balancing risk with appropriate safeguards. In the political sphere, Gordon Brown, as Britain's Prime Minister, was greeted with some degree of warmth for his catchphrase: 'not flash, just Gordon', but was then criticised for not being as good a communicator as his predecessor. In the USA, President Obama's inauguration was greeted positively, but as the enormity of the major challenges facing him have continued his ratings have fallen.

A main barrier to effectiveness is the inability to channel the contact with one's own emotions. As Corrigan points out in the example above, leaders can become cut off from the people in their organisation as they move up the career ladder, but they can also cut themselves off from what they are feeling, and the conduits between head and heart, as work crowds out personality. Again using Shakespeare's *Coriolanus* as an example, the armour that he has literally and metaphorically wrapped around himself cannot prevent

him from being pierced by the emotions conjured up by his mother and her companions at the gates of Rome:

> Touched just briefly by the humanity that he thought he was separated from, all his separation evaporates and he cannot operate at all. He is destroyed by the contact with the very relationship that he denied could affect him. (Corrigan, 1999, p. 131)

The psychologist, Daniel Goleman believes that the secret behind the success of some people with comparatively few academic gifts and the surprising failures of some with a high IQ 'often lies in the abilities called here emotional intelligence, which include self-control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself' (Goleman, 1996, p. XII – see also the forthcoming *Learning for Practice* manual, *The Intelligent Organisation*). The ability to be in touch with one's thoughts and feelings and connect them; and further to have an empathic relationship with those senior to us, at the same level, our subordinates and customers/stakeholders – without becoming overwhelmed by self-criticism, external criticism or competing demands, is crucial to being an effective leader in a variety of circumstances. This links clearly with the section on self-leadership below.

Clement and Ayers (1976, quoted in Hunt, 1991) defined nine skills that become less or more important as the manager progresses:

> Increase in importance by level in the organisation:
>
> - communication;
> - decision making;
> - planning; and
> - ethics.
>
> Decrease or increase and then decrease by level in the organisation:
>
> - human relations;
> - counselling;
> - supervision;
> - technical; and
> - management science.

It is not surprising that technical skills become less important (though a continuing empathy with those that produce goods and services does not), but human relations is also seen as a variable, and that is because the leader with a widening span of responsibilities and the need to initiate often painful change processes, must be both completely approachable and human and also utterly distant. This apparent paradox exists because they cannot afford to be 'captured' by any one person or interest group.

Mant's (1984) work on 'Binary' and 'Ternary' managers is helpful here. The former has a two-dimensional approach and is described by Mant as a 'raider'. He or she is obsessed with a 'Route One' approach, to achieve objectives without due process, often in a 'win/lose' situation. The 'Ternary' personality or 'builder' brings in other, higher dimensions to their work. As the external environment gets tougher and change becomes con-

stant, the third dimension of an ethical stance, and a basic fairmindedness, even in tough decisions, is an anchor for the crew tossed about on the waves of change. As the philosopher, Friedrich Nietzsche (1844-1900) wrote: 'he who has a "why" to live by can bear almost any "how"' (quoted in Gilbert and Scragg, 1992, p. 17).

The skills we have considered in the previous section are mainly what Flamholtz and Randall (1989) term 'the outer game of management'. Much more difficult to handle is 'the inner game'. Anyone who watched the enthralling 2001 Wimbledon men's tennis final between Goran Ivaniševic and Pat Rafter will know that the former always looked likely to win if he could successfully handle his own internal conflicts between what he wryly called 'the good Goran and the bad Goran'!

Flamholtz and Randall set out three requirements for playing the 'inner game' successfully, namely being able to manage your:

- own self-esteem so that you derive satisfaction from the things managers are supposed to do – that is, enabling rather than doing;
- need for direct control over people and results; and
- need to be liked, so that it does not interfere with performing the managerial role.

Many managers find it very difficult to break away from their trade or professional roots and want to continue in that role, rather than utilising that knowledge and empathy in a wider strategic approach. A valuable perspective on this is Kennedy's report into the child deaths at a Bristol hospital (DoH, 2001) in which John Roylance, former chief executive, is criticised for lacking strategic vision:

> Dr Roylance lacked strategic vision and allowed the directorates to become 'isolated from one another' ... 'The most dangerous management style of all is that of the exercise of power without strategic vision, accompanied by 'divide and rule', it concludes. 'Dr Roylance's style could be so characterised.' (Editorial, Health Service Journal, 2001)

Self-awareness of our strengths and weaknesses and what is required in any one role or situation is vital, and that brings us to the next subject.

Self-leadership

> Know yourself
>
> Socrates (469 BC)
>
> With the realisation of one's own potential and self-confidence in one's ability, one can build a better world
>
> The Dalai Lama (2001, p. 15)

Many practitioners remark that they find it difficult to see themselves assuming a management or leadership role but, in fact, the majority of effective practitioners are good managers through:

- the channelling of appropriate emotions;
- keeping themselves 'in good shape' physically and mentally;
- organising their life – we do not mean being obsessional – and their day, so that they can make decisions and see them through; and
- communicating with those around them – we have all known the brilliant individual who sabotages a project by simply going their own sweet way without bringing people with them.

And effective leaders by:

- developing their own narrative and vision for themselves and their work;
- stretching themselves mentally, emotionally, physically and spiritually;
- pushing forward the boundaries of practice; and
- developing others

The main thrust of eastern and western philosophies can be enshrined in two words, respectively: 'being' and 'becoming'. The ability to harness these two aspects of our lives is a vital ingredient in human development, and therefore in becoming a truly effective leader.

Self-awareness

Gardner (1996), in his depiction of ten modern leaders, quotes Charles Cooley as saying: 'all leadership takes place through the communication of ideas to the minds of others' (p. 41). The leaders Gardner brings into focus weave stories through how they live or what they do; they may extract stories from a group and rework them into a powerful motif; or they may create a new story – especially so for the nation-builder, company-founder and so on.

To weave stories or to transmit ideas, however, we have to have a narrative or concept within us to relate. Ursula LeGuin, in her novel *The Lathe of Heaven* (Le Guin, 1977) tells of a progenitor of stories who is tricked by his therapist so that the latter takes over the dream-making. Because the therapist has no inherent values himself, however, the dreams that become reality are grey and lifeless and begin to suck dry reality itself. As Shakespeare put it: 'The man [or woman] who has no music in himself is fit for treasons, stratagems and spoils' (*The Merchant of Venice*, Act 5 Scene 1).

The music must come from within ourselves, and that can only be developed by an awareness of who we are; what our story is; how we relate to others; and how we can develop a narrative that is of mutual benefit to those we live in community with.

Without in any way advocating a long period of introspection – often almost as destructive as a blithe unawareness of self, it can be useful to consider the broad psychological types; how we perceive reality; and how/why we may feel threatened or secure. People with major insecurities are probably the most difficult to work with, because they neither

trust nor like themselves, and therefore, mistrust the motives of others, however well-intentioned.

Rowe (1998) describes two main psychological types in relation to the experience of existence:

> Those of us who experience our self as being a member of a group, as the relationship, the connection between our self and others, see the threat of the annihilation of the self as complete isolation, being left totally, utterly and forever alone thus withering, fading away, disappearing into nothingness.
>
> Those of us who experience our self as the progressive development of our individuality in terms of clarity, achievement and authenticity see the threat of the annihilation of the self as losing control of your self and your life and falling apart, falling into chaos, fragmenting, crumbling to dust. (p. 25)

This does not mean recommending a long course of psychotherapy! Far from it, an overinvestment in therapy, as opposed to the benefits of a more focused approach, can lead to too much introspection and a separation from colleagues and friends.

What is worth exploring are insights into your personality which assist you to:

- ascertain your areas of strength and developmental needs;
- explore issues around security and insecurity;
- gain insight into how you learn and behave, and how to gain more from experience;
- evaluate your interactions with others and how to become more effective; and
- promote a greater integration between aspects and areas of your life.

Many people are familiar with:

1. The Belbin team matrix (Belbin, 1993) which assesses aptitudes in a team context. This fairly straightforward approach can be a revelation in itself. If you individually, or your team as a whole, produce wonderfully creative ideas but no end products, then you/they may be a ‘plant’. Changing the team structure so as to bring in ‘shapers’ and ‘completer finishers’ may gain creativity and results together!

2. Myers-Briggs, (see Goldsmith and Wharton, 1993) based on Jung’s psychological insights, identifies where each individual is on a continuum of four poles:

Extravert	Introvert
Sensing	Intuitive
Judging	Perceiving
Feeling	Thinking

3. The Enneagram – which is compatible for use with Myers-Briggs uses a nine-point personality profile (see Palmer, 1995; Hampson, 2005). This method gives valuable insights into your personality. It is much more complex than seeing oneself as one ‘type’,

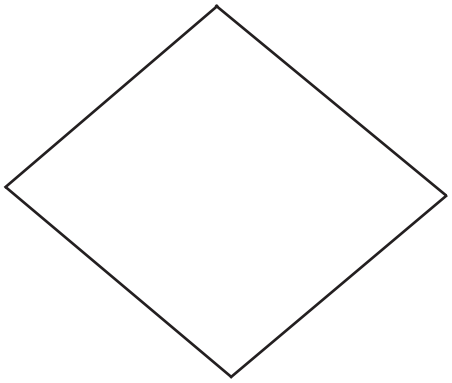

Figure 7: The diamond of self and others (Gilbert 2005, p. 13)

but also, crucially in the work setting, it shows how one is likely to react under pressure; and how one can constructively interact with superiors, subordinates and other stakeholders, with differing personalities.

An holistic approach

> 'If you don't *believe* … you can't solve these problems and you can't even survive them.' – Harold Macmillan, former British Prime Minister (Horne, 1989, p. XIII, emphasis added)

Jagdish Parikh's masterly book, *Managing Your Self: Management by Detached Involvement* (Parikh, 1991) brings together the western 'know yourself" with the eastern 'become yourself' and places the manager in a situation where he or she has a realistic chance of bringing together in a congruent whole:

- self;
- family and community;
- the world of work;

- the internal game; and
- mind, body, emotions, senses and spiritualness.

This approach can lead to becoming a more effective leader and a more complete person. It may also lead to a wholesale change of lifestyle. Some people decide that what they are being asked to do no longer accords with their values. Others, like Mike Grabner, CEO of Energis, decide to leave and start a new working lifestyle at 50 (*The Sunday Times*, 20 May 2001). As Professor Nigel Nicholson of the London Business School states in the same article:

> People are looking at different lifestyles and values. It's an aftermath of the selfishness of the 1980s and 90s and people have come to value a more balanced lifestyle … and are working to live rather than living to work. (p. 32)

Working in Britain in recent years has tended to produce a very one-dimensional workaholic culture. Looking at ourselves holistically we need to consider our:

- *Social/emotional needs*:
  - ✓ relationships: loving and being loved
  - ✓ security
  - ✓ acknowledgement and expression of feelings
  - ✓ kinship
  - ✓ friendships
  - ✓ community involvement
  - ✓ empathy
  - ✓ appreciation of creation

- *Mental or cognitive needs*
  - ✓ opportunities for fresh thinking
  - ✓ reading, and reflection on the texts
  - ✓ planning ahead
  - ✓ creative writing
  - ✓ visualising positive futures
  - ✓ films and plays

- *Spiritual needs*
  - ✓ recommitting to core values
  - ✓ meditation and contemplation
  - ✓ relaxation
  - ✓ exploration of 'being' and 'becoming'

- *Physical needs*
  - ✓ a healthy diet
  - ✓ physical fitness
  - ✓ a sense of well-being and being better able to cope with the pressures of work
  - ✓ gaining asleep and awake time balance

- *Creative needs*
  - ✓ using our senses
  - ✓exploring new ways of working/leisure
  - ✓ developing creative hobbies

These five elements interact. For example, the leisure firm, Cannons, undertook some partnership work with the mental health charity, Mind. In a survey of the health club's members, 75 per cent used exercise to reduce stress; 67 per cent said they used exercise to maintain their mental health, like lifting 'low' moods; 64 per cent reported improved self-esteem; 64 per cent reported boosted energy levels; 58 per cent reported improved motivation and 35 per cent said their performance at work had also improved. According to Foresight, a Government think-tank, research indicates that mental well-being is founded on a number of fairly obvious precepts: connecting – developing relationships with family, friends and colleagues so as to enrich life and bring support; being active and maintaining mobility and fitness; appreciating the beauty of everyday moments and reflecting on them; continuous learning; and altruism – giving to others provides more long-term satisfaction than buying things for ourselves (Foresight, 2008). De Mello (1988) brings together eastern and western philosophy in his work on spirituality. He quotes the great German mystic, Meister Eckhart as saying:

> you should be less concerned about what you have to do and think much more about what you must be. For if your being is good, your work will be of great value. (p. 56)

Learning for the future as well as the present

As Scott (2000) has pointed out, knowledge is 'the only real generic source of differentiation for western companies', and knowledge 'is personalised. It tends to walk out of the building each night'! (p. 6). As organisations transmute, restructure and transmigrate, bonds between firms and workers decay, and the 'savvy knowledge-worker is concerned about their own career, the development of their skills and their personal equity, independent of their immediate employer' (ibid).

Because the organisation (and therefore the corporate and individual role) of today is not that of tomorrow, public companies and private bodies need to appoint people adaptable enough to be competent in the job they have to perform immediately and the role they will have to fulfil in the near future. Managers, to survive and prosper, have to know themselves, their strengths and needs, how they learn, and what will increase their personal and employment proficiency.

In this climate, self-managed learning would appear to be an increasingly potent approach, as opposed to a blanket method, neatly encapsulated by the graffiti which Cunningham quotes in his book on strategic self-managed learning: 'five hundred million lemmings can't be wrong' (1999, p. 3).

Self-managed learning is about individuals managing their own learning – taking responsibility for decisions about:

- what they learn;
- how they learn;
- when they learn;
- where they learn; and, most fundamentally,
- why they learn (Cunningham *et al*., 2000)

The approach has its own seven 'S' model to match that of the rounded organisation (Bennett, 2000):

- Strategic – long term with the big picture in mind
- Syllabus-free – driven by the real needs of individuals and organisations
- Self-managed – taking responsibility for own learning
- Shared – integrating learning with others and the organisation's needs
- Supported – supporting people in achieving their goals
- Structured – provides a clear structure for learning
- Stretching – demands real, significant, learning.

As a rounded individual, working within an organisation, or working for yourself, you have to manage a number of roles in life and work, and a number of styles, depending on the people and the situation you are interacting with. Ultimately, you also need to be integrated within yourself because it is you that you have to live with most!

Conclusion: Serve to lead

> Trust and credibility come through everyone's observation of the manager's symbolic integrity, not his or her "policy document"
>
> Tom Peters (1989, p. 149)

'Serve to Lead' is the motto of RMA Sandhurst, Britain's military academy, and in one sense, it may seem an odd adage for such an establishment. In fact, however, leadership is a privilege and a service to be delivered to 'the customer' – whether someone buying a personal computer, or a widow and her children being protected by peacekeeping troops in a war-torn country.

Leadership is not magic. Leaders may be charismatic in the conventional sense, but they don't have to be to be effective in their chosen field. Maureen Oswin, the campaigner for people with disabilities, demonstrated leadership through her knowledge; her determination and persistence to improve the lives of children with disabilities and the light of integrity and dedication which seemed to shine through her.

With the state of society and business (in its widest sense) today, it is in any organisation's best interests to nurture leadership in its myriad forms, so as to move the corporation forward in a positive direction. Because most of us cannot be a Sir John Harvey -Jones, Carly Fiorina, Norman Schwarzkopf, Florence Nightingale and so on, it is worth considering the quietism of leaders – that is:

• Why have so many spiritual leaders – for example, Teresa of Avila, Benedict of Nursia and Thomas Merton – had such a seminal effect on their contemporaries and down the ages, when they lived a secluded life?

• How many of your colleagues are well-respected leaders in their local communities/leisure time activities and so on, and yet work clearly does not 'turn them on'? How can we wake 'the sleeping giant' of each individual's potential?

If we accept that people need to be good leaders and good followers in different situations, it is sensible to look at the views of their followers – the consumers of leadership – and how they define leadership. James Kouzes and Barry Posner (1990, 2007), in their research on leadership credibility, state that: 'leadership is in the eye of the follower' (p. 29).

The attributes they identified were:

• *Integrity*

People want to work with someone they believe is honest and truthful, and has character and convictions. We do not want to serve someone who is only fuelling their own career. When the chips are down, and the shots ring out, do you and your colleagues cover your own backs or protect those of your comrades?! Kouzes and Posner write that:

> if a leader behaves in ways consistent with his or her stated values and beliefs, then we believe we can entrust to that person our careers, our security, even our lives. (p. 30)

Trust works both ways, and one of the most important characteristics is the trust leaders display in those who work for them.

• *Competence*

This does not necessarily mean technical competence, and indeed, clinging onto professional or technical skills at all costs may become a barrier to effective leadership. But, people look towards leaders who have an empathy with the 'customer'; the product or service being created, and those who deliver it; have a track record of success; and are able to inject extra ingredients – for example, strategic or marketing skills – into a firm which has a good product, but is poor at selling it.

• *The ability to create a vision*

Leaders must know where they are going and to what horizon they are pathfinding people to. Of course, this vision creation can be a false dawn. Marconi's switch into majoring on telecommunications led to their marked decline during 2001. But to do nothing in a world of change can be disastrous with the added problem of complacency, and lack of awareness when danger surfaces. The modern manager needs to have the capacity for 'helicopter vision' to get above

the ground level and scan the wider perspectives. But they must also be aware of the need to 'land' and communicate their vision to those still 'on the ground'.

• *Inspiration*

Both to keep going when things get tough, and/or remain a daily grind, or to cope with the seismic shift required at times of change, the leader must create a climate of inspiration (as well as perspiration) and generate excitement and passion. If the leader appears to have little enthusiasm for the task in hand, or to strike out for the new world ahead, why should anyone else?

We would like add two further attributes:

• *Emotional connection and embodied leadership*

Allied to inspiration is emotional connection and integration. Work and life are two sides of the same coin and the emotional content of each invades the other. Following the attacks on New York (9/11), Rudi Guiliani, then the Mayor of New York, not only went into his city (placing himself physically at risk while expressing in a very personal way his solidarity with the victims, the bereaved and the rescue parties), but also spoke the right words – epitomising the spirit of the city and its people. Leaders have to go out in front but they have to bring others with them – or they are very lonely and not much use to anybody! Leaders need to be translators, communicators, bridge builders and embodied (Webster, 2001; Guiliani ; 2003).

• *The ability to build effective teams*

Although Hollywood movies still persist with the myth of the singleton hero, riding into town, more realistic is the film, modelled on the Japanese 'Seven Samurai' – that is, 'The Magnificent Seven'. Leaders usually achieve lasting success through the teams they build in the present, and teams they leave behind them when they move out of town.

John Alban-Metcalfe and Beverly Alimo-Metcalfe, in their latest research, speak about an essential connection between the personal qualities and values which a leader has; the leadership competencies they develop; and the 'engaging' behaviours which they demonstrate. Nelson Mandela (see Biography 1) provided iconic leadership during his days of captivity. He did not need to 'do' anything, his 'being' was enough to inspire people nationally and internationally. This could be said of many spiritual leaders. But running a complex organisation in the modern world will require a set of competencies, which embrace the transactional and transformational. Finally, leaders cannot do everything themselves. They depend on teams of people, and the customer experience is found at the front line as the Alimo-Metcalfe's say, 'competencies can be likened to Brighton Pier, very fine in their own way, but not a good way of getting to France!' (Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo-Metcalfe, 2009a, p. 17).

Kouzes and Posner (1990) add five fundamental actions which people said built the credibility of those they wanted to lead them:

- Know your constituents.
- Stand up for your beliefs.
- Speak with passion.
- Lead by example.
- Conquer yourself.

They quote the Himalayan climber, Jim Whitaker: 'you never conquer a mountain. Mountains can't be conquered, you conquer yourself, your hopes, your fears' (p. 33).

In the end, in a rapidly changing world where you are almost certain to lose some battles along the way – internal and/or external – whatever your façade of confidence may show, it comes down to us:

- What we believe;
- How we demonstrate it;
- The vision we have and how we articulate it;
- Our ability to take people with us; and
- How we learn and how we encourage learning.

Bobby Kennedy once pondered that the Gross National Product of a nation contained nothing of fundamental value in terms of building a better future for its citizens. In a very different context, Pierre d'Harcourt explored essential values in relating his experiences in Buchenwald concentration camp. In the end, he believed: 'only one thing prevailed, strength of character. Cleverness, creativeness, learning, all went down; only real goodness survived' (cited in Philpot, 1986, p. 153).

Individuals, organisations and nations must ask: What are we about and why, and how do we do what we set out to achieve? Many of the companies lauded by Peters and Waterman have now fallen from grace – empires rise and fall. Socrates' challenge to us all still resonates:

> Citizens of Athens, aren't you ashamed to care so much about making all the money you can, and advancing your reputation and prestige, while for truth and wisdom and the improvement of your souls you have no thought or care.
>
> 'Crito', cited in Hollis (2001, p. 92)