Candidate Support Pack

Leadership for Managers

F5GH 36

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Introduction

About this pack

Welcome to this candidate support pack. It has been designed to enable you to meet the requirements of the *Leadership for Managers* Unit (F5GH 36).

The Unit will enable you to develop the leadership skills and personal effectiveness that you will need to fulfil your role as a manager. It will also enable you to build a foundation for your future development and, in particular, start the process of developing your own approach to leadership. The Unit will help you to develop skills in influencing, negotiation and handling conflict which leaders need and which will help you to increase your personal effectiveness. Leadership is a critical aspect of modern management and this Unit should help you to perform effectively as a manager. The Unit will introduce you to a number of different theories and approaches to leadership and also to the key role that a leader has in implementing organisational change. The emphasis is on applying these to the work of a manager. In this way, you can operate more effectively as a manager and contribute fully to the overall performance of the organisation.

By undertaking this Unit and completing it successfully, you should be able to:

- evaluate approaches to leadership
- analyse the effect of inter-personal skills on leadership
- analyse the role of leaders in the change process.

How this pack is organised

This is an open learning pack — one that you can study on your own or with tutorial support. In this introduction there is an explanation of how this pack is organised and a description of the Unit.

The main part of the pack contains study notes covering all of the topics in the Unit. At intervals in the text there are activities which have three main purposes:

- to enable you to review your learning
- to prepare you for assessment
- to help you apply learning in your organisation.

Symbols used in the package

As you work through the pack you will encounter a symbol indicating a task which you will be asked to undertake to improve or consolidate your understanding of the subject in general or a particular feature of it.

indicates that you should undertake an Activity.

Remember that the Activities contained within the guide are intended to allow you to check your understanding and monitor your own progress throughout the Unit. You will understand that to obtain maximum benefit the Comments on the Activities should only be checked out after the Activity has been completed. The Comments on the Activities are at the back of this pack in the 'Suggested solutions to Activities' section.

Open learning and using this pack

If you are studying this Unit on an open learning basis you might want to take advantage of opportunities for:

- getting together with other people who are studying the same Unit
- finding a mentor with whom you can talk through your work
- obtaining tutorial support.

Recommended prior knowledge and skills

You should have a good working knowledge of what management and leadership involve, probably gained through work in a managerial position in an organisation. You should have good communication, analytical, evaluative and diagnostic skills which could be demonstrated by successful completion of management Units at SCQF level 8 such as Management: Plan Lead and Implement Change or through successful work experience and relevant training.

Core skills

There may be opportunities to gather evidence towards Core Skills in this Unit, although there is no automatic certification of Core Skills or Core Skills components.

Resources

Required resources

There are many suitable texts available and some of them are listed in the Bibliography at the end of this pack. It may be possible to find these texts in the reference section of your local library or college library. Access to the internet will also provide a very large resource for articles on the subject matter of the Unit and again, several useful websites are included in the Bibliography at the end of this pack.

How the Unit is assessed

This Unit can be assessed holistically by means of a report on leadership based on your normal work responsibilities in which you are required to lead a team through changes. Alternatively, you could be asked to undertake a task which will enable you to demonstrate the leadership skills and personal effectiveness required by the Unit. Your evidence should be based on your experience of leading in a change environment.

Your report, which should be around 4,000 words long, could be supplemented by oral questions to ensure all aspects of the Evidence Requirements are fully met.

Introduction to the study sessions

This pack provides the underpinning knowledge required by those studying this Unit and contains study notes for the three Unit Outcomes. The study notes are followed by a bibliography and a list of websites which provide sources of suggested additional reading or information.

The material includes a number of Activities. Their principal aim is to help make the pack an active experience for you but they can help you in a number of other ways by:

- encouraging you to think about how the ideas apply to your own experience
- giving guidance on how the ideas might be used by you to enhance their development as leaders
- directing you to additional sources of material which may help to reinforce your understanding.

Study Notes for Outcome 1 — Approaches to leadership

Introduction

These study notes cover Outcome 1, 'Evaluate approaches to leadership' and set the scene for the whole Unit. Their main purpose is to consider what leadership is and what it seeks to do. The remaining two Outcomes build on this by looking, firstly, at key inter-personal skills that can help leaders to work effectively and, secondly, at organisational change in which leaders can play a critical role.

The overall introduction has already pointed out that, although leadership is a term which is widely used, there are a number of different ways of looking at the idea of leadership in organisations. One aspect of this is whether there is a difference between leaders and managers. The term 'team leader', for example is now a common title in organisations of all kinds and has replaced job titles like 'supervisor' or 'section head'. This section starts off by considering how the work of leaders can be differentiated from that of managers and whether any distinction between leaders and managers is valid. It concludes that, while there are differences, leadership and management can be part of the same organisational role.

It moves on to look at what it is that leaders are supposed to do — what can be called the functions of leadership. There is some agreement in broad terms about what leaders do but there are many different views on what makes a good leader and how effectively leaders should behave. The next section considers some of the models of leadership that have been suggested. It is possible from these models to draw a number of conclusions about what leaders should do in order to operate effectively. Finally, we explore some of the factors that can affect the way leaders behave — and, in turn, how they influence effectiveness.

As you read though the study notes, you might like to think about how the ideas relate to your own experience of leaders and managers. You might also like to think about how these ideas could help you become an effective leader. Some of these ideas might seem more helpful to you than others. This is to be expected because, you will see, there is no one right way to behave as a leader. The activities that follow will encourage you to think about your experience of leaders and how effective you think they were. This experience can be invaluable in your own personal development and in helping you to work effectively in a leadership role.

Activity 1.1: Leaders I have known

‘Leaders I have known’ makes a good starting point. Think about two or more people whom you would describe as leaders. They can be living or dead; people whom you know personally; or people you have seen or read about but may never have met; they can be well-known to many people or people who others may not know; they can be people you have worked with or people from outwith your work experience.

Write down the names of the people you have chosen.

Make a list of the reasons why you would describe these people as leaders.

1.1 Differences between managers and leaders

These two terms are often used interchangeably. A person with the job title of ‘team leader’, for example, can also be described as having a role as a ‘first line manager’. However, the terms can be distinguished and this distinction between managers and leaders is significant for two reasons. Firstly, it is important to be aware of the ways in which the two roles are supposed to differ from each other. Secondly, the distinction is a good way of illustrating what it is that people in promoted positions are expected to do.

In what has rapidly become a classic article, Kotter (1990) argued that managers and leaders each have three main tasks but that they accomplish them in different ways. The three tasks are:

1. deciding what needs to be done
2. creating networks of people and relationships that can accomplish an agenda
3. trying to ensure that people actually do the job.

These are in fact very similar to traditional classifications of management such as Fayol’s planning, organising, command, co-ordination and control (see Mullins, 2005). Kotter (1990) argues, however, that managers and leaders approach each of these tasks in different ways, as follows:

Deciding what needs to be done

Managers concentrate on planning and budgeting, which involves:

- setting targets or goals for the future
- allocating resources to accomplish these plans.

Leaders, however, focus on setting a direction, which consists of:

- developing a vision of the future
- developing strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve them.

Creating a network of people and relationships

Managers are concerned with organisation and staffing, which involves:

- creating an organisational structure and a set of jobs for accomplishing plan requirements
- staffing the jobs with qualified individuals
- communicating the plan to the people
- delegating responsibility for carrying out the plan
- devising systems to monitor implementation.

Leaders, on the other hand, are concerned with aligning people, which involves:

- communicating the new direction to those who can create coalitions, who understand the vision and are committed to its achievement.

Trying to ensure that people do the job

Managers do this by controlling and problem solving which means:

- monitoring in some detail results achieved against the plan through reports, meetings and other tools
- identifying deviations from the plan
- planning and organising to solve problems.

Leaders focus on motivating people by:

- appealing to their basic needs and values, which keeps them moving in the right direction, despite obstacles to change.

In many respects Kotter's ideas echo those suggested by Zaleznik (1977) who identifies four dimensions where managers and leaders differ. These differences are summarised in the table below.

	Managers	***Leaders***
Attitudes towards goals	Adopt an impersonal attitude. Goals arise out of necessity and, therefore, have to be followed	Adopt a personal and active attitude towards goals — they shape goals rather than responding to them
Conceptions of work	Work is seen as a process which involves co-ordinating and balancing opposing views to get solutions. Choices are deliberately limited to ensure survival	Develop new approaches which involve risk. Present ideas as images that excite people and open up choices
Relations with others	Prefer to work with people but have low emotional involvement. Aim to convert win-lose into win-win and play for time	Attract strong feelings of identity and seek emotional commitment from others — so relations with others may be turbulent
Senses of self	See themselves as conservators and regulators of existing order	Seek opportunities for change

In broad terms, therefore, both Kotter and Zaleznik claim that leadership is about coping with change, while management is about coping with the complexity involved in bringing the order and consistency needed to maintain organisational activities.

Zaleznik, perhaps, puts an emphasis on risk in that leaders accept, and may actively seek out risk, whereas managers are risk averse.

Activity 1.2: Managers and Leaders

Return to your example in Activity 1.1.

To what extent do you think that the leaders you thought of display the characteristics of leaders suggested by Kotter and Zaleznik?

It is quite possible that your leaders also displayed some of the characteristics which Kotter and Zaleznik attribute to managers. Can you identify any? If so, what were they?

Kotter argues that management and leadership are complementary. Both are necessary if organisations are to succeed in a complex and changing environment. In his view, at the time of his article, organisations tended to be over-managed and under-led. They tended to emphasise long-term planning and the need to budget, organise and staff around these long term plans. As a consequence, they did not have a clear direction. They tended to be inflexible and could not cope well with change because they found it hard to motivate people as they found it hard to gain people's commitment to the future of the organisation.

Part of Zaleznik's purpose in writing his article was to argue for more leadership training. In this sense, too, his approach is similar to Kotter's. For change to be managed successfully, organisations require the attributes that leaders can bring as change will not otherwise take place.

The above demonstrates that it is possible to draw a distinction between managers and leaders. It does not, however, necessarily mean that the roles of leaders and managers should be filled by different people. It may be that people who are leaders or managers have to fulfil both roles at different times, depending on the situation in which the organisation finds itself.

As has already been noted, many organisations now use the terms 'leader' and 'manager' to mean the same thing. The implication of this is that those who hold positions like this are expected to fulfil the roles of both leader and manager.

There are a number of reasons to support this view. Mintzberg (1975) suggests, for example, in his classification of managerial roles that one of the inter-personal roles filled by managers is that of 'leader'. Mintzberg based his research on chief executives who could be expected to have a role in ensuring that their organisations successfully maintained current activities, while simultaneously ensuring that they were also able to meet new challenges.

Baradacco (2001) points out that successful leaders are often people who operate quietly and inconspicuously. They succeed because they follow four rules — they:

- buy time to make decisions by putting things off until tomorrow
- patiently pick their battles
- bend rules but don't break them
- find a compromise.

These rules have much in common with the roles of managers that Kotter and Zaleznik identify above. Badaracco's argument also helps to dispel the notion that leaders are always high profile and well known.

Another example of how the roles of leader and manager may mesh together comes from Collins (2001). He identified five levels of executive capabilities that could be ordered in a hierarchy, culminating in what he called 'the Level 5 Leader'.

The levels are:

Level 5 Executive

Builds enduring greatness through a combination of personal humility and professional will.

Level 4 Effective leader

Builds commitment and engenders a vigorous pursuit of a clear and compelling vision; stimulates the group to high performance standards.

Level 3 Competent manager

Organises people and resources toward the effective and efficient pursuit of predetermined objectives.

Level 2 Contributing team member

Contributes to the achievement of group objectives; works effectively with others in a group setting.

Level 1 Highly capable individual

Makes productive contributions through talent, knowledge, skills and good work habits.

Level 5 leaders are ones who have presided over a period of sustained success for their organisations. However, Collins' terminology suggests what is important is what these individuals did rather than how they are described.

Overall, therefore, leadership and management do differ but they can be seen as two sides of the same coin. Prentice (1961), who in many respects initiated the debate about leadership and management, defined leadership as 'the accomplishment of a goal through the direction of human assistants'. He went on to say that leaders achieve goals through their understanding of their fellow workers and the relationship of their individual goals to the group's aim.

This is in fact a well used definition of a leader. Buchanan and Huczynski (2004) for example quote a definition by Ralf Stogdill, who defined leadership as an influencing process aimed at goal achievement. This type of definition could equally well be applied to management especially in the twenty-first century.

Activity 1.3: What do you think?

Do you think that management and leadership can be seen as different aspects of what amounts to the same thing?

1.2 Functions of leadership

One way to further develop the distinction between managers and leaders is to consider the functions that leaders have. This means looking at the purposes of leadership or, in other words, what leaders are supposed to do. This might help also to clarify exactly what leadership entails.

It is possible to identify three main things that leaders are expected to do. They can be stated in terms of leading a team and they are to:

- develop a sense of direction or vision for the team — the strategic function
- achieve objectives and define the tasks necessary for the team to achieve the objectives — the task function
- maintain morale and cohesion among members of the team — the maintenance function.

Activity 1.4: What leaders do

Look back to the definition of leadership at the end of section 1.1. How well do you think these three functions fit with the definition?

Emphasising what leaders do is sometimes called the group or functional approach to leadership. Adair (1979) used this approach to develop what he described as action centred leadership. He argued that the effectiveness of a leader depends on meeting three needs within the work group or team.

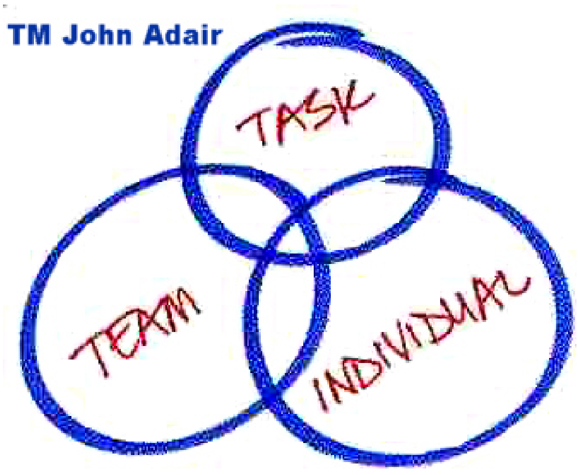
They are:

1 the needs of individual members of the group — equivalent to the strategic function above

2 the need to achieve a common task — equivalent to the task function above

3 the needs of the team as a whole — equivalent to the the maintenance function above.

These three needs can be represented as three overlapping circles.



Source: www.businessballs.com/action

The table on the next page gives examples of what the leader should do in order to meet the three different needs.

The diagram highlights the fact that action by the leader in one area will have knock-on effects in other areas. Ideally, all three areas should be fully integrated, which would mean that the three circles would be superimposed on each other.

As Mullins (2005) points out, this approach illustrates the close relationship between leaders and managers. Achieving the team task fits in with the management requirement to organise and plan, while team functions and meeting individual needs are part of the leader role of aligning and motivating people.

Looking at the functions of leadership draws attention to the fact that leadership does not always necessarily depend on being in a promoted position or having a formal title like team leader.

Informal leaders can emerge in organisations. These are usually people who carry out the functions above within a team and gain the respect of others as a result.

Individual functions (strategic)	***Task functions (task)***	***Team functions (maintenance)***
giving praise and status reconciling conflicts between the individual and the needs of the team, ie aligning individuals attending to personal issues, ie keeping people on board ensuring individuals are aware of the direction of the team	defining work tasks planning the work allocating resources	building team spirit setting standards developing communication systems within the team building cohesiveness among the team

Activity 1.5: Informal leaders

Think of someone in your organisation whom you would describe as an informal leader.

What is it that makes others see him or her as a leader?

The functional approach also suggests that members of the group are followers, in the sense that they follow the lead set by the leader. Heifetz (2003) has pointed out that thinking of leadership in terms of leaders and followers might not be helpful. The object of leadership in his view is to mobilise support — which, incidentally, is much the same as the definition of leadership in section 1.1. Mobilised people are better described as active participants rather than followers. This helps to emphasise that building commitment among team members is a key part of the role of a manager/leader in modern organisations.

Adair's work is useful because it helps to give leaders guidance in what they are expected to do. It is about the content of leadership and it implies that anyone can become a leader if they learn how to do the things that leaders are expected to do. It has, as a result, been widely used in management and leadership training in the UK although it has, perhaps, become less popular in recent years.

1.3 Models of leadership

Action centred leadership can be seen as one approach to, or model of, leadership. There are many different models of leadership and this section considers some of them. The different approaches can be grouped into a number of categories which, to an extent, reflect the ways in which thinking on leadership has developed historically. This section will look at the following approaches to leadership:

- the traits approach
- behavioural approach — which concentrates on leadership style
- contingency approach
- modern approaches to leadership including the transformational approach.

These models of leadership are helpful because they highlight factors that are important to leaders and which, therefore, can influence the performance and effectiveness of those who are in leadership roles. They are good, therefore, at pointing out the factors that leaders should take into account.

Traits approach

This approach was the one adopted in early studies of leadership. It argues that there are specific qualities associated with leadership. Leaders can, therefore, be distinguished from others on the basis of particular characteristics or traits which they possess but which others do not have. This approach, therefore, concentrates on what leaders are.

It assumes that leaders are born and not made. It is sometimes referred to as the 'great person' theory of leadership as studies tended to focus on people in important positions in industry and politics.

There have been many attempts to specify the precise personal qualities or traits which successful leaders have — Handy (1999) claims there have been more than a hundred. Typical lists include factors like self-confidence, initiative, enthusiasm, sociability, integrity, decisiveness, determination, dependability, judgement and imagination.

The problem, however, is that it proved impossible to identify a single set of traits that could be applied to leadership. Handy (1999) points out that, of all the studies, only 5% of traits were common. It became apparent also that successful leaders often had quite different personalities. Also, if leadership depends on having a particular set of traits, it is not possible to train and develop leaders. The only requirement is to select those who possess the requisite characteristics. Even then the traits were often vague and ill-defined so that, in practice, this would not be an easy task.

As a result of these criticisms, 'trait spotting', as Buchanan and Huczynski (2004) call it, fell into disfavour. Nevertheless, the idea of 'leadership qualities' survives. It is still possible to hear people talk about the need for leaders to 'have initiative', 'be innovative' and so on. Such statements should be treated with caution, as the above suggests.

Activity 1.6: Trait spotting

Try to find some advertisements for leadership positions. Newspapers are a good source but organisations often advertise positions 'in house'.

Can you find any examples of the traits approach?

Behavioural approach

This focuses on the behaviour of leaders, which can also be described as management or leadership style. The discussion in section 1.2 on functions of leadership is based on ideas originally developed as part of this approach. Action centred leadership can, in fact, be seen as an example of the models associated with the behavioural approach.

In the 1940s and 1950s researchers on separate programmes at Ohio State University and at the University of Michigan attempted to identify critical behaviours that differentiated between effective and less effective leaders. These studies identified two dimensions of leadership behaviour:

- focus on people — referred to as 'consideration' in the Ohio State studies and as 'employee-centred' in the Michigan studies. This, as the name suggests, relates to the extent to which the leader is concerned with meeting the needs of team members and establishing good relationships with them.

- focus on the task — referred to as 'production-centred' behaviour by the Michigan researchers and as structure in the Ohio state studies. This is about the extent to which a leader is concerned with structuring the work of a team towards achieving goals and targets.

To all intents and purposes these are the same as the task and maintenance functions of a leader given in section 1.2. These two dimensions were confirmed in many subsequent studies. The main consequence was the development of a notion of leadership or management style that identified the way in which leaders/managers behave towards members of their team or group.

Lewin *et al* (1939) originally identified three main types of management or leadership style based on the concern for people and the concern for task dimensions above. They are:

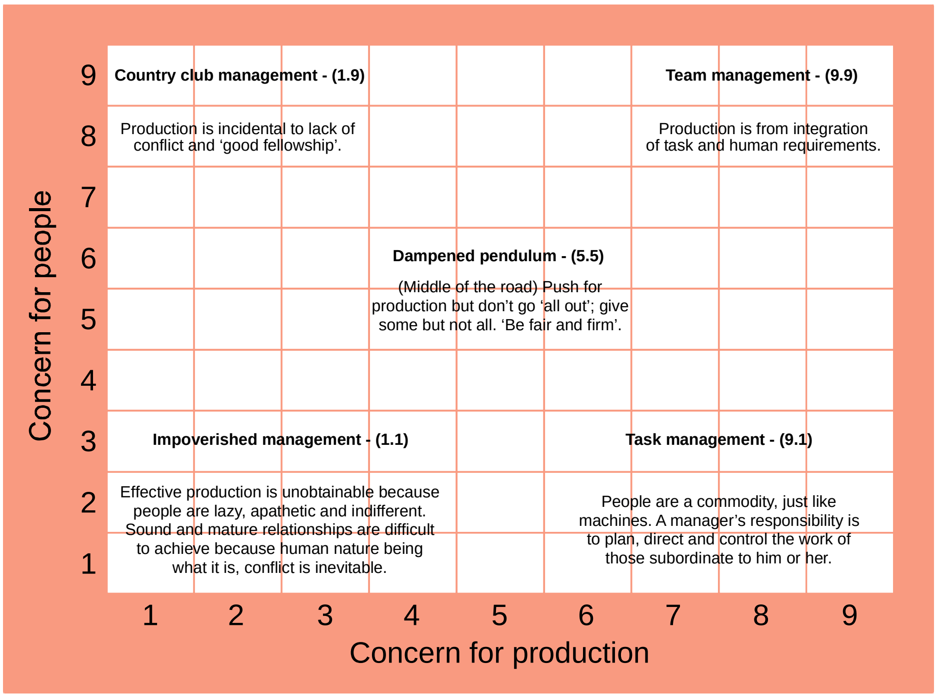
- autocratic (or authoritarian) style — where the leader concentrates on getting the job done: the leader takes responsibility for everything that is done, eg making decisions, allocating work, setting targets and ensures, through the use of rewards and punishments, that team members obey
- democratic (or participative) style — where the leader concentrates on the needs of the group or team: leadership is shared with team members who have a greater say in decision making, how tasks are allocated and so on
- *laissez faire* (or delegative) style — as its name suggests this is where the leader deliberately allows team members to decide what has to be done and how to do it: the leader is available for help and advice if needed but does not interfere.

Most attention has been devoted to the autocratic and democratic styles as the *laissez faire* style is, effectively, a form of deliberate abdication by the leader, even if it is for the worthy motive of allowing others to work things out in their own way.

The behaviour approach argued that effective leaders behaved in a way that took account of both dimensions. Leaders should, therefore, pay equal attention to getting the job done and to relationships within the team.

One of the best known models of leadership based on this approach is the managerial grid originally suggested by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1962. The grid, as shown in the following diagram, consists of two axes both using a scale of 1–9. The horizontal axis shows concern for production, while the vertical axis shows concern for people.

From the diagram, it is possible to locate various types of management or leadership style. Leaders/managers who are solely concerned with the production are referred to as displaying ‘task management’ style, while ‘country club management’ is the term used to describe the style of leaders/managers who concentrate solely on maintaining good relations among team members. The ideal management style is where leaders/managers show the same concern for production as they do for people — described as ‘team management’ in the managerial grid.



Adapted graphical representation of the Blake and Mouton Grid

Activity 1.7: The Managerial Grid

The managerial grid has been widely used as the basis of leadership and management development. Leaders can complete a questionnaire about their behaviour as leaders and from this they can work out their style in terms of the managerial grid.

There is a proprietary questionnaire specifically associated with Blake and Mouton's work which is used at official training and development programmes. However, there are other questionnaires that have been designed to enable people to find out their management style in terms of the managerial grid.

One such questionnaire can be found at on the following website:

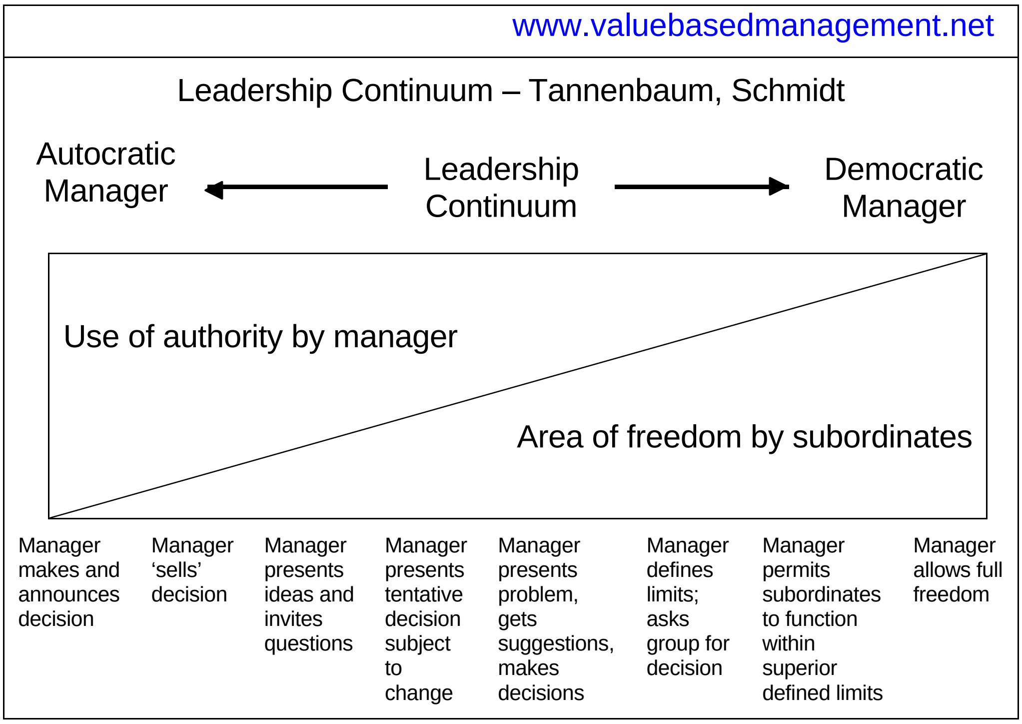
www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/bm_model.html

You could go to this site and do the questionnaire to find out where you would be on the managerial grid.

The behaviour approach suggests that there is one single best management or leadership style. This is where leaders/managers pay attention to getting the job done and to meeting the needs of members of their team. A difficulty with this, however, is that there is evidence that there are effective leaders who adopt other styles. In leadership, as in many other things, 'one size does not fit all'.

Another difficulty with the behavioural approach is determining precisely what behaviours do result in effective leaders. It was not clear, for example, just what leaders should do in order to maintain focus on both the task and the team.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) suggested a continuum of management or leadership behaviour. In their view, management style could be viewed as a continuum with autocratic management at the left hand end and democratic management at the right hand end. An autocratic management style is where the manager takes full authority and tells team members or subordinates what to do, whereas a democratic manager allows full freedom to subordinates. Between these two extremes lie a number of alternative styles which a leader/manager could adopt, as the diagram below shows.



Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973)

Tannenbaum and Schmidt argue that the different steps along the continuum represent choices that a leader/manager can make about his/her management style. This is a development of the basic behavioural approach exemplified by the managerial grid, because it no longer assumes that there is one best management style which will work in all situations.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt suggest that there are three factors or 'forces' that will affect the choice which leaders/managers make. They are:

- forces in the manager such as the confidence in subordinates, knowledge, background and experience
- forces in the subordinates such as readiness to assume responsibility, need for independence and knowledge of the issues faced by group or team
- forces in the situation such as the type of organisation, time pressure and the nature of the problem to be tackled.

Activity 1.8: The Behaviour Continuum

Think about your own experience of being a manager or being managed. Can you think of examples of each of the steps on the continuum?

For each example, try to think of the factors which might have influenced the manager/leader to behave in this way.

The continuum of leadership behaviour does address some of the difficulties of the behavioural approach. It suggests that leaders could adopt more than one style and removes the idea of a single best approach. It assumes, however, that leaders/managers have sufficient information on which to make a suitable choice. The continuum also makes an attempt to specify appropriate behaviours more precisely even if it does not address how leaders follow their choice of style through. It can also encourage leader and employee development as leaders can become more aware of the options open to them and of how these can be influenced by team members.

Contingency approach

The work of Tannenbaum and Schmidt paved the way for the next approach to leadership. In particular, this tried to address the notion that there is one single style of leadership which will be appropriate to all situations. Instead, this approach, known as the contingency approach, argues that effective leadership depends on the situation. In other words, it is contingent on the circumstances involved.

Leaders diagnose the situation in which they find themselves and adopt a style that is appropriate to their particular set of circumstances. This requires the leader to adjust his or her style to the situation that he or she faces.

There are a number of models of the contingency approach to leadership, four of which will be considered here. They are Fiedler's contingency model, House's path-goal theory, Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership and Goleman's leadership styles theory, which is linked to his idea of emotional intelligence.

Fiedler’s contingency model

Fiedler (1967) argued that the behaviour of leaders was contingent on three main factors:

- leader-member relations — this involves the amount of trust between the leader and subordinates and how far team members are willing to follow the guidance of the leader
- task structure — this covers the extent to which the task is clearly defined and whether there are standard procedures for carrying it out
- the power of the leader — this covers the position of the leader in the organisation and the extent to which s/he can influence team members eg by rewards or sanctions.

Fiedler’s research showed that a task-oriented leader would be most effective when there were good leader relations, there was a clearly defined task structure and the leader had a strong position. This is a situation which is favourable to the leader. A task-oriented leader would also be effective when circumstances were unfavourable to the leader. This would be when relations between the group and the leader were poor, the task was unstructured and the leader’s position was weak.

On the other hand, a participative people-oriented approach would be most effective where each of the factors was less clear cut. This would be where leader-member relations were satisfactory, where the task had some structure but was not fully defined and where the leader had some position power but was not especially powerful.

Activity 1.9: Fiedler’s contingency model

It is easiest to think about Fiedler’s model in terms of the extremes. Can you think of a situation where a leader adopted a task-oriented approach which worked?

Why do you think this was the case?

The main merit of Fiedler’s approach is that it provides a clear framework for leaders. It suggests that leaders should look at their relations with their team, their power and the structure of the task. On the basis of their assessment of these, leaders can determine what style to adopt.

Path-Goal theory

Path-goal theory is another contingency model of leadership. Originally proposed by House (1971) it is based on the expectancy theory of motivation. This argues that people will be motivated if they expect that effort on their part will lead to improved performance, which in turn will lead to what, in their view, are valued rewards. In other words, they will be motivated if their expectations are met.

Leaders, according to House, can influence the motivation of team members by offering rewards to team members for achieving performance goals, clarifying the paths that team members need to follow to achieve these performance goals and by removing any obstacles in the path. Leaders who are able to do this will meet the expectations of their team members.

House claims that there are four types of management styles which leaders can use to influence the motivation of team members. They are:

1 directive leadership — giving specific guidance and direction to team members (this is effectively the task oriented approach discussed earlier)

2 supportive leadership — using a friendly and approachable manner which shows concern for team members (this is the equivalent of the people oriented approach)

3 participative leadership — consulting with team members and listening to their views before the leader decides what to do

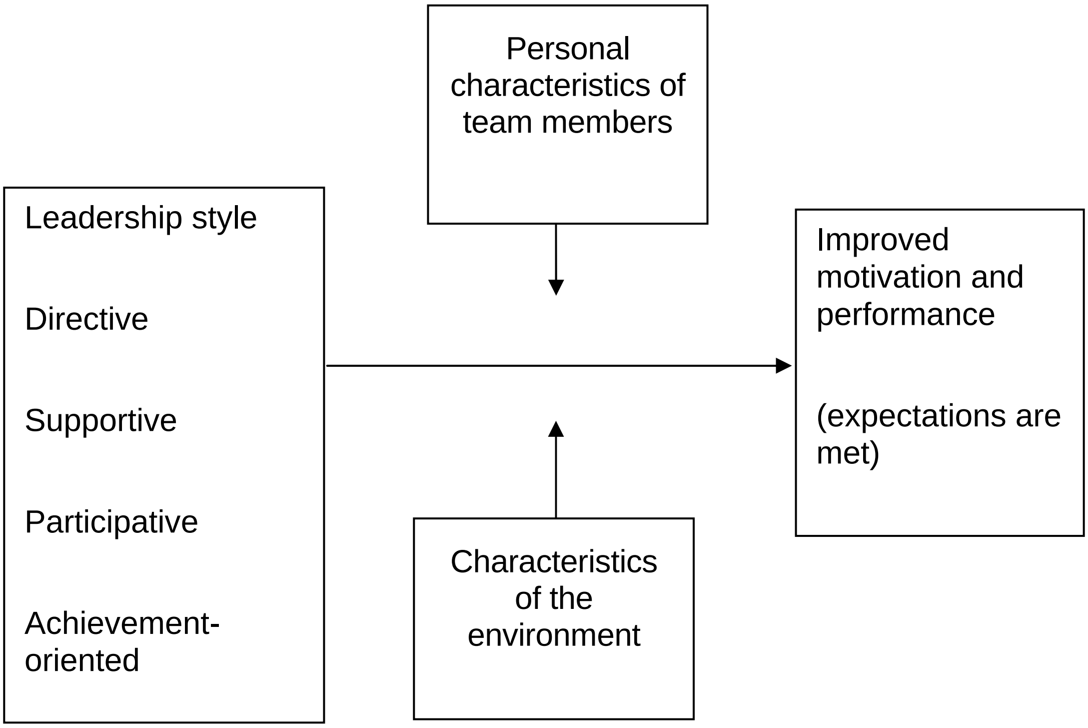
4 achievement-oriented leadership — setting challenging goals for team members and showing confidence in their ability to achieve them.

Essentially, these four styles represent different ways of meeting the expectations of team members. The question is, which style should leaders adopt if they are to be effective? House answers this by saying it will depend on two aspects of the situation faced by the leader. They are:

- the personal characteristics of team members — this can include factors like the subordinate's perception of their own ability; their wish for independence and so on (subordinates who see themselves as very able may be unhappy with a directive style, for example, but might respond to achievement oriented leadership)
- the characteristics of the environment — this covers the extent to which the task is routine and structured; whether the organisation has a formal or informal authority system and the support offered by the team as a whole (a non-routine and

completely unstructured task may suit participative leadership for instance).

This can be illustrated by a diagram.



The leadership is influenced by the situation. If a suitable style is chosen, then the expectations of team members will be met and the work of the leader will be effective.

Activity 1.10: Applying path-goal theory

How do you think leaders can make use of path-goal theory? Can you think of a specific example from your own experience?

Situational leadership

A third, more recent model of contingency theory is that of Hersey and Blanchard (1988). It is known as situational leadership. In this case, leadership style is contingent on the extent to which team members are ready to perform an individual task. Hersey and Blanchard identify four levels of 'readiness' which they name R1 to R4, a shown in the table below.

Low follower readiness → High follower readiness

R1	**R2**	**R3**	**R4**
Followers are unable and unwilling, or are unable and insecure	*Followers are unable but willing, or are unable but confident*	*Followers are able but unwilling, or are able but insecure*	*Followers are able and willing, or able and confident*

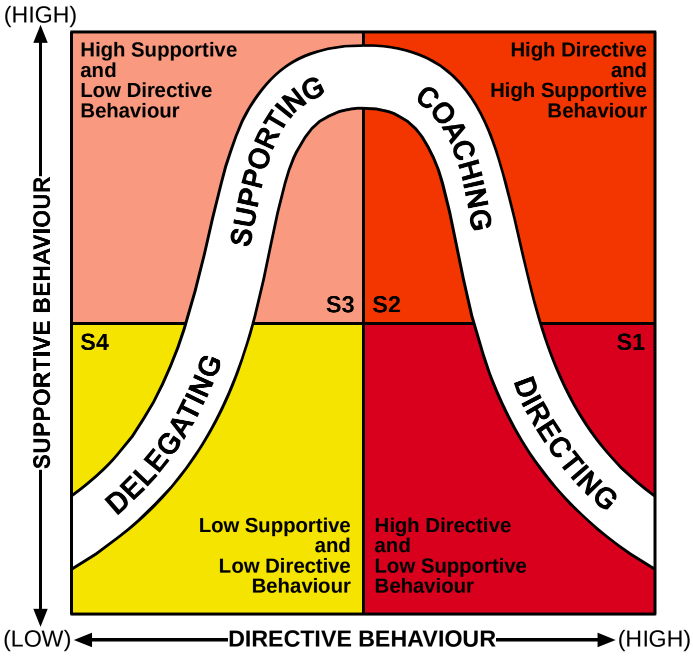
Willingness refers to the extent to which followers (or team members) are committed and motivated, while insecurity refers to team members who lack confidence in their ability.

Hersey and Blanchard make use of the two dimensions of leader behaviour which form the basis of the behaviour approach. One is directive behaviour, which denotes the amount of direction given by the leader to team members. The other is supportive behaviour, which refers to the extent to which the leader develops two way communication with team members and provides support and encouragement.

Four possible leadership styles can be derived from these two dimensions. They are described as S1–S4 and each corresponds with a level of readiness. S1 corresponds to R1 and so on. The four styles are:

- S1 — telling (or directing). The leader gives a lot of guidance and direction by telling team members what to do and how to do it but does little supporting
- S2 — selling (or coaching). The leader displays high amounts of both directing and supporting behaviour, eg telling people what to do but also interacting with them by providing support and encouragement
- S3 — participating (or supporting). The leader engages mostly in supporting behaviour by developing two way communications with team members but gives little direction
- S4 — delegating. The leader does little in the way of supporting or directing.

The diagram below illustrates these four styles.



The Four Leadership Styles

Hersey and Blanchard argue that leaders should be flexible and adapt their style according to the readiness of their team members. The model also has a developmental aspect to it. As a new team develops and team members develop skills and confidence the leader can change style to reflect the changes in the team.

Activity 1.11: Situational leadership

Think of the team with which you are familiar — it could be the team that you are presently a member of.

What stage of readiness do you think the members of the team have reached?

What style of leadership does the leader/manager adopt?

Do the two match?

Emotional intelligence

The final contingency theory is based on work by Daniel Goleman (2000) for Hay McBer, a management consultancy. It involved a sample of 4,000 executives from all over the world and makes use of Goleman's previous work on emotional intelligence (1996).

Emotional intelligence (or EQ for emotional quotient) is the ability to manage ourselves and our relationships effectively. It consists of five components, each of which has a number of hallmarks or competences, as the following table taken from Goleman (2004) illustrates.

Component of EQ	***Definition***	***Hallmarks***
Self-awareness	the ability to recognise and understand your moods, emotions and drives, as well as their effect on others	self-confidence realistic self-assessment self-deprecating sense of humour
Self-regulation	the ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods the ability to suspend judgement — to think before acting	trustworthiness and integrity comfort with ambiguity openness to change
Motivation	a passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status a propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence	strong drive to achieve optimism even in the face of failure organisational commitment
Empathy	the ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions	expertise in building and retaining talent cross-cultural sensitivity service to clients and customers
Social skill	proficiency in managing relationships and building networks an ability to find common ground and build rapport	effectiveness in leading change persuasiveness expertise in building and leading teams

From his research, Goleman (2001) identified six leadership styles which are summarised in the table below.

Leadership style	***What the leader does***	***The style in a phrase***	***Underlying EQ competences***	***When the style works best***
Coercive	Demands immediate compliance	'Do what I tell you'	Drive to achieve, initiative, self-control	In a crisis; to kick start a turn-round; with problem employees
Authoritative	Mobilises people towards a vision	'Come with me'	Self-confidence, empathy, change catalyst	When changes require a new vision; when a clear direction is needed
Affiliative	Creates harmony and builds emotional bonds	'People come first'	Empathy, building relationships, communication	To heal rifts in a team; to motivate people in stressful circumstances
Democratic	Forges consensus through participation	'What do you think?'	Collaboration, team building, leadership, communication	To build buy-in or consensus; to get right input from valuable employees
Pacesetting	Sets high standards for performance	'Do as I do, now'	Conscientious-ness, drive to achieve, initiative	To get quick results from a highly motivated and competent team
Coaching	Develops people for the future	'Try this'	Developing others, empathy, self awareness	To help an employee improve performance or develop long-term strengths

Goleman describes the coercive and pacesetting styles as having a negative influence on the working atmosphere and on performance. All the other four styles have a positive effect on performance and on the working atmosphere. In his view, effective leaders are people who can move flexibly between all six styles as the occasion demands. There will be few occasions when the coercive or pacesetting styles will be suitable and, for this reason, he argues that leaders who can use the four positive styles are most likely to produce a good working atmosphere and achieve good levels of performance.

Goleman concedes that few people will have all six styles in their repertoire. This suggests that leaders should endeavour to expand the range of styles which they can use. They can do this, according to Goleman, by understanding and developing the aspects of emotional intelligence that underpin the various leadership styles. In principle, the more emotionally intelligent leaders are, the more styles they are likely to be able to use. Hence, the more effective they will be as leaders.

Activity 1.12: Emotional intelligence

You may like to assess your own emotional intelligence. A full comprehensive assessment can only be done through professional assessment and development companies. It is possible, though, to get a rough idea using free resources. Questionnaires on emotional intelligence are available on a number of websites including www.haygroup.com/TL/ (then click on the link to Emotional Intelligence Quiz).

Goleman's work is slightly different from other contingency theories. He argues that leadership style is a matter of continuous adjustment. Other theories take the view that leaders should match their behaviour to the context. Once the leader has done this, the implication is that the chosen style will lead to effective performance.

Overview of contingency theories

Overall, contingency theories argue that there is no single best style of leadership. There is some evidence, however, that styles which involve participation of team members are generally more effective than those which do not. In terms of contingency theories, this suggests that there are more situations where participative-type styles will be effective than situations which demand highly task-oriented, autocratic-type management styles.

Contingency theories are helpful because they draw attention to the various factors which can affect the style that a leader should adopt. They also emphasise that leaders need to be able to use more than one style if they are to be effective in a number of different situations. Paradoxically, this is also a criticism of them. Leaders might find it difficult to develop different styles. Even if they can do this, it is by no means certain that they will have the flexibility to move from one style to another. Leaders might also have difficulty in making an accurate judgement of the circumstances they face and may, therefore, adopt a style which does not fit with the situation.

Activity 1.13: Lessons for the leader

Review the four models that exemplify the contingency approach to leadership.

What factors do they have in common?

What practical lessons do they suggest for leaders?

Modern approaches to leadership — transformational v. transactional

Recent thinking on leadership has been influenced by developments such as globalisation and developments in information and communications technology. One consequence is that organisations of all kinds have had to find ways to cope with increased competition and with continuous change. This has focused attention on the role of leaders in creating organisations that can function effectively in this rapidly changing environment. It has also highlighted the role of formal and informal leadership at all levels in organisations.

Leadership, therefore, is seen as a key factor in transforming an organisation into one that will meet the new demands of the 21st century. Not surprisingly, it has produced a model known as transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership argues that the role of the leader is to build motivation among team members (or followers) so that they will be committed to the organisation and will be prepared to go beyond compliance with requirements to improve organisational performance. Developing awareness of the importance of the organisation's purpose or vision among followers is, therefore, a critical part of the leader role.

Transformational leadership is associated with the work of Bass (1990). He claims that, for transformational leadership to occur, leaders must make use the four key factors, known as the '4 Is'. They are:

- Individualised consideration — this involves showing care to followers about their development needs and about them as individuals
- Intellectual stimulation — leaders encourage followers to see what they are doing from different perspectives, to challenge existing ways of doing things and to find creative solutions to problems
- Inspirational motivation — motivating followers by raising expectations and inspiring them to exert effort to achieve the organisation's mission
- Idealised influence — this is based on the charisma of the leader and can involve acting as a role model to gain the respect and admiration of followers.

Transformational leadership is often contrasted with transactional leadership. The latter claims that the leader/follower relationship is based on an exchange of mutual benefits. The leader gives followers what they want and, in return, they do what the leader requires.

Activity 1.14: Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership looks very similar to the behavioural and contingency approaches to leadership considered earlier.

Do you think this is the case? If so, why?

Transformational leadership is, therefore, seen as qualitatively different from other approaches to leadership. Its influence is reflected in the functions of leaders discussed in section 1.2. The behavioural and contingency approaches emphasised the task and group maintenance functions but the transformational model stresses the strategic function.

Transformational leadership is sometimes seen as the same as charismatic leadership, particularly because of the aspect of idealised influence. Charisma is seen as a special type of relationship which exists between leaders and followers, rather than the possession of particular charismatic traits. Mullins (2005) points out that charismatic leaders are able to transform followers by creating changes in their goals and aspirations. They do this by appealing to their values and personal identity. In other words, following a charismatic leader will enable people to set and achieve goals that are important to them as individuals.

Despite these apparent similarities, transformational leadership can be distinguished from charismatic leadership. To begin with, charisma is only one of the '4 Is' and is, therefore, not enough on its own for transformational leadership. There is a danger, also, that charismatic leadership can include leaders who use their charisma to make followers weak and dependent on them. Examples could include political leaders such as Robert Mugabe and Saddam Hussein. Transformational leadership, on the other hand, emphasises the role of the leader in developing followers and encouraging them to act independently.

Activity 1.15: Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership has been criticised because it suggests a return to the idea of 'heroic' leaders and the 'great person' approach.

Do you agree?

In some respects, modern approaches to leadership take into account ideas from all the different approaches to leadership and management. They have developed in response to the need for organisations to cope with rapid change. They serve to emphasise, perhaps, that those in promoted posts need to operate in both a leadership and a management role. They also confirm that there is no one successful leadership style.

1.4 Influences on leadership behaviour

This section brings together many of the points made so far. Its aim is to consider the factors which may influence what leaders do. Section 1.2 explained the functions of a leader/manager and identified that the behaviour of the leader involves strategic, task and group maintenance functions.

Section 1.3 looked at some of the factors which can influence the approach which leaders can take. The behaviour of leaders can be affected by:

- those who report to the leader — Fiedler drew attention to the attitudes of team members while Hersey and Blanchard show

that the behaviour of the leader can depend on the ‘readiness’ of team members
- the leader him or herself — Goleman, for example, pointed out that the level of emotional intelligence can influence the styles which a leader can utilise. The behavioural approach suggests that leaders may be predisposed to a task or people orientation
- the nature of the task — tasks may be more or less structured and this can influence the way a leader behaves, as most of the contingency models illustrate
- the organisational environment or culture — culture can be described as the ‘way we do things around here’. For example, a leader might work in a culture where specific procedures have to be followed, or in one where the risks are high and feedback can be very quick. Leaders have to operate within this culture. Organisational culture can also affect the attitudes and behaviour of team members and the nature of the task.

Activity 1.16: Influences on leader behaviour

Activity 1.13 on ‘Lessons for the leader’ refers to four factors — the leader, the led, the task and the environment — as four key contingency factors for leaders. It suggests that a leader should adopt a style which achieves a fit between these four factors. They are, of course, the four factors listed above.

Think of a leader you know — perhaps yourself or your own team leader. How do each of the above affect this leader’s behaviour?

There are two other factors related to the organisation within which a leader works which may affect the behaviour of leaders. They are the expectations of others such as colleagues and the organisation life cycle.

The expectations of others refers, as might be expected, to how other people expect the leader to behave. These other people might be colleagues at the same level or those in more senior positions.

Activity 1.17: Expectations of others

How do you think that expectations of (a) those at the same level and (b) those at a higher level influence the behaviour of a leader in your organisation?

The organisation life cycle refers to the stage of development that the organisation has reached. It is argued that organisations grow very much like human beings. They begin as new creations, which have to find their feet in new surroundings. If successful, they go through a growth phase where activities and personnel expand, procedures and processes are developed and so on. This could be a period when the organisation undertakes a lot of innovation. The growth phase leads to a maturity stage characterised by consolidation and a need to ensure that existing activities are properly maintained and so on. There is usually less innovation during this phase and an emphasis on efficiency. Finally, the organisation enters the decline stage. It might become smaller as its functions become less important or are replaced by activities of other organisations.

There are no specific time scales attached to any of these phases. Many organisations in fact remain at the mature stage for a very long time.

Activity 1.18: Organisational life cycle

What stage is your organisation at?

How might this affect the behaviour of leaders? When considering this, it could help to think about how the behaviour of leaders might be different if the organisation were at another stage in its life cycle.

Socio-cultural factors can also influence the behaviour of the leader. These are factors in the wider society such as values and norms, which are shared by members of the society. A simple example is queuing. In the UK it is expected that people wait in order until it is their turn. A person who leaves the queue has to rejoin at the end. In other countries, different conventions are observed. In some African countries, for example, people can mark their place in the queue and leave. They can then rejoin at the point where they marked their place. In both cases, the behaviour is seen as normal.

One way to consider the impact of socio-cultural factors on leadership is to consider cross-cultural studies. Hofstede (1994) carried out research on cultural differences based on 116,000 questionnaires from people in more than 70 countries. All, incidentally, were employees of subsidiaries of IBM. He identified four cultural dimensions but one, power-distance, is sufficient to illustrate how socio-cultural factors can affect the behaviour of leaders.

Power-distance refers to the differences between those in superior positions and those in subordinate positions. It is high when superiors are encouraged to exert the power of their position and where subordinates respect the power given to those in a superior position. Hofstede found that countries in Southern Europe such as France and Spain had high power-distance while those in Northern Europe such as Sweden, Holland and the UK had low power-distance. Management style was much more paternalistic and task-oriented in countries with high power-distance than those where power-distance was low.

Activity 1.19: Socio cultural differences

You can find out more about Hofstede's work and how it can be applied at his website at www.geert-hofstede.com/ which gives details of his work.

How do you think that expectations of (a) those at the same level and (b) those at a higher level influence the behaviour of a leader in your organisation?

Socio-cultural factors also have an effect on many of the factors discussed so far. The behaviour of team members and colleagues, for example, will reflect the social and cultural norms and values of the society since most of them will have grown up in it.

The final factor that can influence the behaviour of a leader is diversity. In some ways, this is a reflection of socio-cultural norms. Perhaps the most important aspect of diversity, as far as leaders are concerned, is that leaders must make sure that their behaviour does not discriminate in any way, even unintentionally, against any other person. Leaders can, in fact, have a responsibility to act as a role model for members of their team.

Activity 1.20: Diversity and leaders

How does diversity affect the behaviour of leaders in your organisation?

Some brief closing comments

Outcome 1 has covered a lot of material. Much of it is quite theoretical. The theory does illustrate, though, that there are many different views on leadership. In this sense, the main conclusion has to be that there is no one right way to be a leader. However, there are things that good leaders tend to do, even if they approach them in different ways. The following list summarises the key lessons for leaders and would-be leaders.

- Leadership in the twenty-first century takes place at all levels in an organisation — it is possible to distinguish between leaders and managers but those in promoted posts are expected to fulfil both roles.
- Leaders have three main functions — task, group maintenance and strategic.
- Good leaders are able to make use of different styles of leadership — they can tailor their style to the demands of the situation.

Being a leader/manager is a challenging task. It is clear from the discussion in the text that leadership is a key factor in the success of modern organisations. Perhaps the best way to finish is to list the things that an effective dynamic leader in a modern organisation should do. As you look at the list which develops work by Kanter (1983), you can see that it covers all four sections of Outcome 1.

Dynamic leaders aim to do the following:

- communicate a clear vision
- be tuned in to the wider environment
- promote a culture of excellence by networking and team-working
- act in a people-oriented manner and foster two-way communication
- develop positive self-regard, perseverance and consistency.

In this way they can be both effective and serve as a role model.

Study Notes for Outcome 2 — Inter-personal skills and leadership

Introduction

These study notes cover Outcome 2, 'Analyse the effect of inter-personal skills on leadership'.

Outcome 1 explored the functions of leadership and also looked at a number of different approaches to leadership. A common thread running through the study notes was that leadership involves inter-acting with people. Outcome 1 had much to say about the behaviour of leaders in general but very little about the actual skills that leaders are expected to use. Outcome 2 takes up this theme and considers some key inter-personal skills that leaders are likely to use.

Successful and effective leaders/managers require a range of inter-personal skills such as listening, asking questions, giving feedback, being assertive and so on. The study notes do not attempt to cover the full range of these skills but concentrate on three particular aspects. They are:

- influencing — trying to get someone to do, or to think, something that they might not otherwise have done
- managing conflict — coping with disagreements between people (in broad terms)
- negotiating — making a bargain with others to arrive at a mutually acceptable outcome.

Each of these will be considered separately, although they do overlap. Influencing and negotiation can, for example, be possible options which a manager/leader has for managing conflict. Negotiation involves an exchange of benefits and might be a way of influencing someone.

Using these inter-personal skills is not just a matter of knowing what they are, being aware of when they are suitable and of having the ability to deploy them effectively. It is also about the use of power. All leaders/managers have some power and it affects all aspects of how they operate. It is, however, particularly important in dealing with others and, therefore, when exercising inter-personal skills.

For this reason, we start by examining the sources of power that a leader/manager might have. This should help you in several ways:

- understand the context within which leaders use inter-personal skills
- enable you to assess the power you have in any situation
- appreciate how using power wisely can enhance your effectiveness as a leader.

Overall, understanding power is critical to the work of a leader/manager. It can influence the approach to leadership and how the skills discussed in the text are utilised.

2.1 Sources of power

Before considering the bases or sources of power that leaders/managers (and others) might have, it is important to consider what power is.

Definition of power

Power is an abstract concept and can be difficult to define. One common approach is to say that power is the ability that A has to make B behave in accordance with A's wishes — see Robbins (2001). In other words, power exists when one person is able to impose their wishes on someone else, so that this other person does what the first party requires.

At first glance, this might seem to have rather sinister implications. It is not difficult to think of situations where power can be abused. However, power is a part of everyday life and does not need to be exercised in an undesirable way. Allocating work to team members, for example, can involve power. Team members can, however, be quite willing to do what is asked of them and recognise that the leader has the final say.

As well as the possible abuse of power, the definition raises a number of aspects of power that are important to leaders:

Power is about relationships

The definition draws attention to the fact that power can only exist when one person interacts with another. Power, therefore, depends on the relationship between the two parties. B, for example, can be seen as a follower who does what A wants because B perceives that A can provide rewards and/or sanctions for B, or possesses expertise that would help B. This can be referred to as 'relational power'.

Power is about context and beliefs

The fact that power is about relationships suggests that the context in which power is exercised is important. Leaders can appear to be powerful but, if others do not accept this, then any power they might appear to have is of no use. The beliefs of followers, therefore, are important for power. If people believe a leader can provide rewards or sanctions, then the leader may be able to exercise power. Power may, therefore, be in the eye of the beholder. In other words, power is about perception in that it only exists if it is perceived to exist.

There are people, however, who appear to be powerful regardless of any particular context in which they may operate.

Activity 2.1: Powerful people

Can you think of an example from your own experience of someone who could be described as ‘powerful’ regardless of any particular situation which they may be in?

Power is not necessarily one-sided

This is linked to the previous point. People often believe that they have no power. However, this is rarely the case as most power relationships are two-sided. Leaders can encounter ‘followers’ who say ‘no’ or who are able to frustrate what the leader wants to do by being unco-operative in one way or another.

Power is about difference

Power arises because people and groups are different. A leader/manager, for example, is different from a team member and can derive power from being in a higher position in an organisational hierarchy.

All the above suggests that power can be difficult to pin down and that leaders/managers should reflect carefully on what power they have and how it can be used. The power that leaders/managers have can determine which inter-personal skills a leader should use in any given situation and how effective these skills are likely to be.

This raises the question of where the power that a leader/manager has comes from.

Sources of power

French and Raven (1959) suggested a classification of the sources (or bases) of power, which has been widely used.

They argue that power comes from five sources:

- Reward power — based on the belief that the leader is able to provide valued rewards to people
- Coercive power — based on the belief that the leader is able to punish or use force or impose other unwelcome sanctions
- Referent power — based on the belief that the leader has desirable, personal attributes and personality (others have described this as personal power, since it is derived from the personal qualities that an individual possesses, which encourage others to follow that person; it is also known as charismatic power)
- Legitimate power — based on the fact that the leader has authority by virtue of her/his position in an organisation, which enables the leader to enforce organisational rules (this is sometimes referred to as position power).

Activity 2.2: Power and authority

The discussion on approaches to leadership covered different types of management style. How do you think legitimate power or authority might affect management style?

- Expert power — based on the belief that the leader has expertise or knowledge that others do not have and that will be valuable in particular situations. French and Raven stress that these sources of power are related to each other and may change over time. For example, a leader might develop expertise that increases the amount of power which he or she has. The use of coercion can reduce the amount of referent power which a person has, as people might think less of a person who uses sanctions to get their way. Legitimate power appears to be something that exists independently of the leader, as it depends on the leader's place in an organisational hierarchy. However, it can be strengthened or weakened depending on the way a leader chooses to exercise it. A referee at a football match, for example, will gain or lose the respect of players by the way in which yellow or red cards are administered.

Other writers have developed French and Raven's initial classification and added to the list. Other commonly cited sources of power include the following:

- Information (or knowledge) power — based on the belief that the leader possesses information or knowledge that others do not have. In many respects this is similar to 'expert power', since expertise could include knowledge and information. One reason for making a distinction, however, is that power can stem from the fact that information or knowledge is withheld from others — perhaps deliberately.
- Resource power — based on the belief that the leader has access to, and/or control over, resources. This can be associated with reward power in that access to resources may give the leader power to reward others. A leader who controls a training budget, for example, can reward individuals by allowing them to attend courses which could enhance their personal development. It can be distinguished from reward power in that some rewards, such as giving praise, might not be dependent on access to resources.
- Social power — based on the belief that the leader has connections within and outwith the organisation that can be used to the benefit of others such as team members.

Activity 2.3: Sources of power

What sources of power do you have? Remember, power is exercised in a context. So, think about what sources of power you have in relation to your boss.

What sources of power does your boss have in relation to you?

Take each of the above sources in turn and think of how it could form the basis for power in each of the above two scenarios. You can use the table below to summarise your ideas.

Source of power	***Me***	***My boss***
Reward		
Coercive		
Referent		
Legitimate		
Expert		
Information		
Resource		
Social		

The balance of power is particularly important in the inter-personal skill of influencing. The above exercise, therefore, provides a good introduction to influencing, which is the first of the three inter-personal skills for leadership which we have to examine.

2.2 Influencing

Power, influence and authority

The study notes for Outcome 1 included a definition of leadership as an influencing process aimed at goal achievement. Influencing has, therefore, a claim to be the critical skill that a leader must have. In the introduction to the study notes for this Outcome, influencing was described as trying to get someone to do, or to think, something that they might not otherwise have done. Section 2.1 discussed power, which was defined as the ability of A to get B to do something that B would not otherwise have done.

It is clear, therefore, that power and influencing are closely related. They are not the same, however, and it is important to be aware of the distinction between them. Power is about the ability to get someone to do something. It is something that a person or a group has in relation to someone else. Influencing, on the other hand, is about the process by which one person gets another to do something. It is about the use of power.

Another related idea is authority. This is the right to use power. This right is given to people by virtue of their organisational position. People can be described as being ‘in authority’ or ‘having authority’ to do something. Leaders and managers have authority because of the position they hold. Authority, in fact, is the consequence of ‘legitimate power’ which, as section 2.1 pointed out, is one of the sources of power that leaders and others can have. It is different from the other sources of power because it is made valid by the organisation.

It is not possible to have authority without also having power, because authority confers power on someone like a leader/manager. It is possible, though, to have power without authority. People can have knowledge or expertise, for example, which gives them power. Remember, also, that while leaders do have authority, this might not be the only source of power available to them. Leaders/managers could have access to resources that is denied to others, for instance.

Influencing is an important inter-personal skill for leaders, because getting others to do things is a critical aspect of being effective. As a leader/manager, you have authority and can use this to get others to do what you want. You can, for example, allocate specific tasks to members of your team. In these situations, influencing might well be automatic.

However, as indicated in Outcome 1, leaders might not always wish to rely on their authority. Tannenbaum and Schmidt’s continuum, for example, shows that there is a range of options for getting things done. A leader might find it more effective to use other ways to try to get someone else to act or think in a particular way.

There are also cases where the authority of a leader is not clear-cut. A leader can, for example, have formal authority to decide on contracts that a team accepts. In practice, the decisions will probably be taken by the team members who will actually do the work because they have the necessary expertise and customer knowledge. In situations like this, it could be difficult for the leader to use the formal authority to countermand a decision made by a team member.

In addition, leaders often have to work with others over whom they have no authority. These could be people within the organisation such as higher levels of management (who have greater authority) or others at the same level (who have similar authority). Leaders often also have to interact with people who are not part of the organisation. In these situations, authority does not confer power and trying to get others to think or behave differently cannot be achieved through the exercise of legitimate power.

Activity 2.4: Power, influence and authority

Think of a person in authority with whose work you are familiar.

Try to identify an example of:

(a) when they use the authority they have

(b) when they try to get things done by other means. (In this case, what do they do?)

The above activity should help to demonstrate that influencing is widespread in organisations. Possible examples could be trying to get someone else to swap shifts or exchange slots in a holiday rota. Another could be trying to get your boss to agree to you going for a hospital or other appointment during working hours. On a larger scale, it could be lobbying for a change in working procedures. From the point of view of a leader, it could be trying to get a team member to work overtime, persuading someone to undertake training or staff development or encouraging someone to take on new responsibilities within your team.

Influencing strategies

The next step is to consider the methods that leaders can use to exert influence over others. Trying to influence someone else is a process and there are several different ways in which leaders can carry it out. These are known as influencing strategies.

There are different ways of classifying influencing strategies, but six main ones can be considered here. They are as follows:

1 Reason — using reason and logical argument to convince someone to act or think in the way the influencer wishes.

2 Assertion — making a direct request for what is required. This can include expressing how the influencer feels about the situation. It may involve persistent requests. It differs from reason in that no argument is used to support the request.

3 Exchange — offering an exchange of benefits in order to secure a change of behaviour or in thinking. This means bargaining or negotiating with the other party to arrive at a mutual acceptable outcome.

4 Courting favour — this is sometimes referred to as friendliness and involves being friendly or positive to someone in order to encourage them to behave in the required manner. It could, perhaps, be described as 'buttering up', although it does not necessarily involve cynical or other questionable motives.

5 Coercion — using, or threatening to use, some kind of sanction. This could be a positive sanction in the form of punishment or a negative one such as withdrawing co-operation. Coercion could be associated with the use of authority conferred by legitimate power, but it can also be associated with other forms of power such as expert power.

6 Partnership — gathering the support of others both inside and outside the organisation. This can include building a coalition of like-minded individuals, as well as appealing to others who have more authority (this is sometimes referred to as 'upward appeal').

These strategies can be used in combination. A partnership, for example, could use reason to help get its point across to the person or group it is trying to influence.

Also, some strategies are more effective in some situations than others. In particular, the balance of power between the parties can affect the influencing strategy used. Exchange, for example, is effective when the person being influenced has the power to cause considerable disruption. Reason is preferable when the balance of power between the parties is roughly equal. It could also be an alternative to exercising authority when one party, such as a leader or manager, has more power than the other. Courting favour works when the person seeking to influence has little power relative to the person or group he or she is trying to influence.

Activity 2.5: The balance of power and influencing

Think of a situation when you have tried to influence someone.

(a) What sources of power did you have?

(b) What sources of power did they have?

(c) What was the balance of power? (eg was it in your favour or theirs — and why?)

What influencing strategy did you use?

On reflection, how effective do you think it was and why?

Finally, some writers distinguish between 'push' strategies and 'pull' strategies of influencing. Push strategies are ones that push the other party into accepting what the influencer wishes. Pull strategies on the other hand are ones that aim to persuade or pull the other party into accepting what the influencer wants.

In terms of the six strategies given above, coercion would be a push strategy. All the others, to a great or lesser extent, could be considered examples of pull strategies.

Styles of influencing

Leaders (and other influencers) are likely to adopt a particular approach or style when trying to influence someone. This may result in some people preferring some strategies to others. An autocratic leader, for example, may prefer a coercion strategy. Also, different leaders will use a particular strategy in different ways. Some leaders, for example, may prefer to prepare the ground thoroughly before embarking on an attempt to influence someone. They might, for example, gather information to support a reason strategy. Others will grasp opportunities as they arise.

Manning and Robertson (2004) have suggested six possible influencing styles.

1 Strategist — this is where the influencer is clear about what he or she wants to achieve and has thought about it beforehand. A strategist style tends to favour reason, assertion and partnership strategies of influence.

2 Opportunist — this style involves responding opportunistically to the situation facing the influencer. An opportunist style tends to make use of courting favour and exchange strategies. An opportunist is unlikely to prepare much beforehand but will attempt to grasp chances that come his or her way.

3 Collaborator — this style, as its name suggests, involves collaborating with others for the overall good. A collaborator style concentrates on partnership, reason, exchange and courting favour strategies. Leaders who favour consensus are an example of the collaborator style.

4 Battler — this where the influencer concentrates on what they want and the sanctions they will use if they do not achieve this. A battler style tends to make use of coercion and assertion strategies. A battler style is associated with people who want to get their own way and are reluctant to take no for an answer.

5 Shotgun — this style involves attempting to influence others on a frequent basis and to use a number of different strategies to do so.

6 Bystander — those who adopt this style tend to engage in relatively few influencing attempts and make use of a restricted range of strategies.

The above is useful for leaders because it suggests that influencing can be approached in several different ways. This, in turn, suggests that particular people will find some strategies more effective than others. Leaders who want to influence someone should choose a strategy that is compatible with their style of influencing.

Activity 2.6: The balance of power and influencing

Which style of influencing do you think fits you most closely?
On the basis of your style, which influencing strategies are likely to suit you best?

Leaders and influencing

The above discussion suggests a possible way in which leaders can approach a situation where they wish to influence somebody.

The first step would be to work out the balance of power between yourself, as leader, and the person or group you wish to influence. You can do this by going through the sources of power for each party.

On the basis of the relative balance of power, you can then choose a suitable influencing strategy or strategies. When doing this, you should make sure that, as well as being compatible with the balance of power, the strategies fit in with your style of influencing.

Successful influencing, however, also involves making effective use of inter-personal skills such as listening, not interrupting, questioning and stating your point of view clearly and concisely. People might not want to change their behaviour or think in the way that the influencer wants. Hence, attempts to influence others can meet with dissent and disagreement.

The final point is to remember that influencing does take place in a context. Any attempt at influencing someone, whether it is significant or relatively minor, is likely to be affected by what has happened before and what the parties believe will happen in the future.

2.3 Managing conflict

There are times when your work as a manager/leader will require you to deal with conflict. On some occasions, you might be able to use the influencing strategies discussed in the previous section and the power you have will help you in handling conflict. ‘Conflict’, however, can be a tricky concept. For example, there could be disagreement about whether a conflict exists or, if it does, what should be done about it.

Before going any further, therefore, think about what the term ‘conflict’ means to you.

Activity 2.7: What do I mean by conflict?

Note down some examples of situations at work which you would describe as conflicts. They can include examples in which you have been directly involved as a party to the conflict as well as ones which you have observed. Four or five examples should be more than sufficient.

Now look through your examples and see if they have anything in common. If they do, what is it?

The activity you have just done raises several of the issues that will be explored in this section. It begins by considering a number of different aspects of conflict, as these affect the way in which conflict is managed. This sets the scene for the primary objectives of this section, which are to look at causes of conflict and ways of handling it. Both of these are critical for managers/leaders who have to deal with conflict.

Definition of conflict

A commonly used definition of conflict is one by Robbins (1996). He describes it as: 'a process that begins when one party perceives that another has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party cares about.'

As Buchanan and Huczynski (2004) point out, this definition suggests that conflict is a state of mind. If the parties concerned do not perceive anything, then there can be no conflict between them. This is the case even if a similar situation has caused conflict elsewhere, or if others who are not involved believe that conflict is possible. The definition also draws attention to the fact that conflict involves opposition by one party to what another party is doing or intends to do.

The definition above does not clarify what is meant by parties. It is to be expected, though, that organisational conflict will take place at different levels. The Comment on Activity 2.7, in the suggested solutions to activities section, mentions some of the parties and levels that could be involved. Your response to it will probably add some more to the list.

Following on from the idea that conflict can take place at different levels is the notion, also implicit in the definition, that conflict can be on a small or a large scale. Further, it can spill out into open disagreement and arouse strong feelings, or can take the form of resentment, which remains largely hidden. Remember, too, that conflict is not always a one-off. It could, for example, be the result of historical factors such as traditional groupings or attitudes within an organisation. In these cases, similar conflicts could surface from time to time. A well-known example is relations between management and employee representatives. Conflict could also be the culmination of a series of events — the 'straw that broke the camel's back'.

Activity 2.8: Hidden conflict

Open conflict is usually easy to spot. Some conflict remains hidden. This doesn't necessarily mean that it is less important or that no action need be taken to deal with it. However, hidden conflict is not always easy to detect.

From your experience, what kind of things might suggest that there is some hidden conflict:

Perspectives on conflict

Different people see conflict in different ways. For some, conflict is seen as a problem which, when it arises, has to be dealt with by some form of managerial action. This view is associated with the 'unitary' or 'unitarian' view of organisations. In this perspective, organisations are seen as having common goals which all parts of the organisation are committed to achieving. Conflict, therefore, is something that can disrupt the harmonious working of the organisation and for this reason is likely to be bad. Where it does occur, it is likely to be the result of the activities of troublemakers.

Others, however, see conflict as a normal feature of working in an organisation. This is part of a pluralist view of organisations, which sees organisations as a collection of individuals and groups, each of whom has different interests. Inevitably, these different interests mean that groups and individuals will come into conflict with each other. However, where this arises, it might not necessarily be disruptive, since conflict can result in beneficial consequences. It could, for example, result in suggestions that lead to agreement on new ways of working.

Some believers in the pluralist view, described sometimes as 'interactionists', go further than this. They argue that conflict is a necessary part of organisational growth and development. They claim that an absence of conflict could be an indication of complacency.

These different perspectives have an impact on the management of conflict. The unitary view, for example, might favour approaches that appeal to common objectives such as 'we must all pull together'. Alternatively, it can seek ways to marginalise or attack those seen as responsible for the conflict. There might also be a temptation to suppress or avoid conflict.

From the pluralist perspective, conflict is something that has to be managed so that differences of interests do not become disruptive. Handling conflict is an ongoing process which seeks to reconcile different interests in a way which is mutually acceptable to everyone. Interactionists for whom conflict is a necessary part of organisational progress would see occasions where it could be necessary to stimulate or encourage conflict.

It is important to remember that none of these views can be seen as ‘right’ or ‘wrong’. However, they can and do have an impact on how leaders or managers are expected to behave when dealing with conflict.

Positive and negative conflict

It is apparent from the above that adherents of pluralist perspectives see conflict as both positive and negative. This can also be referred to as ‘constructive’ or ‘destructive’ conflict. In a similar way, conflict is also sometimes described as ‘functional’ or ‘dysfunctional’. It is argued that conflict has several potential benefits such as:

- conflict enables opposing parties to gain a better understanding of each other’s views and enables them to work together more effectively
- conflict is an essential part of the process by which a team becomes an effective working unit (forming, storming, norming and performing are well-recognised stages of group development)
- conflict leads to alternative suggestions being made, which help to produce a better solution to a problem
- conflict helps to implement a change successfully — particularly if it makes everyone aware of the difficulties attached to the change
- conflict leads to an agreement that establishes a framework for future working — negotiations between employers and employees about pay or conditions of employment, for example, can result in a win-win outcome where both sides feel they have benefited.

Both pluralist and unitary perspectives on conflict recognise that it can have adverse consequences. Most of these are well-known. Conflict can, for example, be painful and unpleasant for the individuals involved in it and could leave long-lasting emotional scars. Conflict can prevent an organisation from achieving its objectives and can take up valuable management time, which could be put to other uses.

The benefits gained from conflict usually only occur when conflict is successfully resolved. This highlights the importance for leaders/managers of handling conflict in an effective way. However, it also indicates that some of the adverse effects of conflict can apply even when the benefits of a conflict exceed the drawbacks. Feelings may run high, for instance, before a conflict is ended, while the process of handling conflict may divert management attention from other issues.

Activity 2.9: Is conflict good or bad?

We have seen that there are different perspectives on conflict. Some see it as undesirable, while others see it as having both positive and negative aspects.

What do you think? What effect do you think your view could have on how you handle conflict as a leader/manager?

Causes of conflict

It is not always easy to pinpoint the cause or source of any conflict. One reason for this is that the parties involved will probably give different versions of what the conflict is about. Another complicating factor is that a conflict tends to have a number of dimensions, so that several different causes are tangled up with each other.

In looking at causes of conflict, it is helpful to follow the Open University Capable Manager course (1994), which sees organisational conflict as comprising a number of inter-related layers. Any conflict is likely to involve several of these layers in which different kinds of disagreements and sources of conflict are combined together.

The main layers are:

- misunderstandings — a genuine misconception about what has been said or done — 'getting the wrong end of the stick'
- differences in values or beliefs — these are disagreements about what the purpose of the organisation should be. They are based on people's ethical and moral views and are likely to be about goals or objectives. They can cover matters such as the organisation's attitude to safety, its approach to customers or clients and what services it should deliver. These are much more fundamental differences than misunderstandings
- differences in viewpoint — these are disagreements about the way in which the organisation should be run. People sometimes agree on the purpose and goals of an organisation but disagree on how they should be achieved. Different parts of a police organisation, for example, can be united in the view that it exists to tackle crime but disagree on how to achieve this. One group may favour efforts on apprehending those who commit crimes, while another may believe it is more important

to develop alternative measures aimed at reducing the number of crimes that occur
- differences in interest — these arise because different people in organisations have different interests, for example, senior management and customer-facing workers; operational and marketing departments. People often wish to protect the resources, position or status that they have. Handy (1999) refers to these as differences about territory
- interpersonal differences — where people do not 'get on'.

Layers of conflict are useful because they draw attention to factors that can be helpful in managing conflict. For example, they highlight that some conflicts, such as misunderstandings, can be relatively minor but others, such as differences in values, are much more important, more sensitive and long lasting. In some cases, conflict is complex and involves several layers: differences in viewpoint, for instance, often stem from differences in values and can be exacerbated when they involve people who do not like each other. Layers also highlight that it can sometimes be very difficult to work out what the real cause of any conflict actually is. What appears on the surface will mask much deeper feelings and reasons.

In many ways, the layers of conflict can be seen as general causes of conflict. When a conflict actually occurs, however, it will have specific causes related to the particular situation involved. It's useful, therefore, to identify some of these specific causes. They can include:

- interdependencies — disputes between departments, sections or groups which depend on each other; for example, one department may not provide information required by another
- organisational structure — this can provoke inter-departmental conflict but could also lead to imbalances of power which lead to conflict between, for example, managers and employees. Hierarchical structures may be particularly prone to conflicts of this type
- rules and regulations — conflict can arise because of a perception that someone is not acting in accordance with organisational rules and regulations, or because of differences of interpretation in the rules and regulations
- access to resources — the resources available to organisations are limited and disputes may arise over how resources should be allocated, or because some areas seem better resourced than others. Conflict is more likely at times when resources are tight or when cutbacks have to be made
- ways of working — conflict can arise because of different approaches to carrying out work tasks. These, in turn, can be

the result of an age gap or differences in education or previous experience
- treading on other people's toes — conflict can arise because an individual or a group is perceived as doing something that is not part of their remit.

Activity 2.10: Causes of conflict

Think of some conflicts that have arisen at work. They can be ones in which you have been involved or ones which you have observed. You can go back to Activity 2.7 if you want and use the same examples.

In each case, what do you think was the cause (or causes) of the conflict? Try also to think about what layers of conflict were involved.

Handling conflict

The discussion so far, and Activity 2.10 in particular, shows that dealing with conflict is not always straightforward. Nevertheless, it is something that leaders/managers have to tackle. This section considers approaches to managing conflict and provides some general guidelines for managers/leaders.

Both of these represent actions that individuals can take. However, conflict can also be managed at an organisational level. Organisations have to co-ordinate the various activities that they undertake in order to achieve their purposes. The measures used to do this can contribute to reducing conflict by, for example, making it clear what the interests of a particular part of the organisation are expected to be. Co-ordination can be achieved in a number of ways including:

- rules and procedures — many of these are routine and cover operational activities such as ordering equipment, claiming expenses, health and safety. Their purpose is to set common standards of behaviour
- remits and referrals — these set boundaries on what can be done by an individual, a group or a department and specify the occasions when others need to be involved. In many cases, referral means going up the hierarchy but this does not have to be the case — there could be operational activities that require participation by more than one department or section
- targets and goals — these are less prescriptive than rules and remits since they concentrate on what has to be done rather than how things should be done. However, they can have the

same co-ordinating effect. Targets can clarify exactly what a part of the organisation or an individual is expected to do.

Although measures like this can help to reduce conflict, they can also be a source of conflict. As we have seen, people can disagree with rules or believe that their remit is inappropriate and not act in accordance with it. This is a reminder that efforts to handle conflict by individual managers/leaders take place within an organisational framework.

The strategies that managers/leaders can use for handling conflict will vary, depending on the situation involved. One starting point is to consider the ways in which people behave when faced with a conflict. One of the most widely used approaches on handling conflict is that of Thomas (1976), who suggested that there are five styles for handling conflict. They are:

1 Avoiding — this means doing nothing to tackle the conflict. It could be pretending that a conflict does not exist but could also be putting things off until a more appropriate time, or making a diplomatic exit.

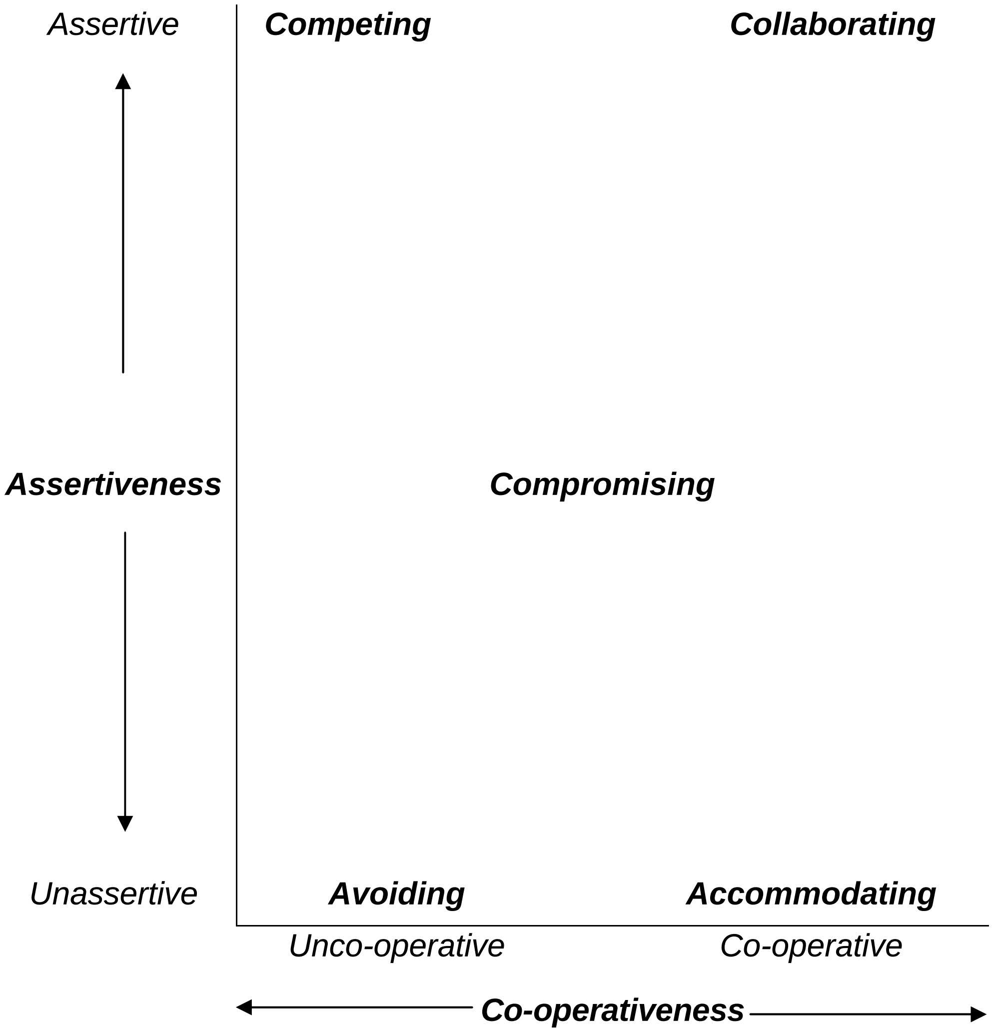
2 Accommodating — this means accepting the existence of the conflict. It can be conceding to the other party but could also be allowing the conflict to run its course.

3 Compromising — this involves some form of bargaining or negotiation, for example, to establish common goals or bring about a mutually acceptable change. It requires that both parties give some concessions in the interests of a mutually acceptable settlement.

4 Competing — this is the opposite of accommodation and means pursuing the interests of one party at the expense of the other. Resolution occurs when one party backs down.

5 Collaborating — this is working out a solution that is acceptable to both parties and meets all their concerns. It involves exploring the reasons for the conflict and finding a solution which satisfies both parties.

These styles can be illustrated on a diagram.



The diagram shows that the five conflict-handling styles are based on two types of behaviour. One is assertiveness, which is seen as the extent to which someone wishes to satisfy their own concerns. The other is co-operativeness, which is the extent to which they would wish to satisfy the concerns of others. Competing, for example, is totally assertive and involves no co-operation at all. Collaborating on the other hand reaches a solution which fully satisfies the concerns of all parties. The diagram also highlights that handling conflict can involve winning and losing. Collaborating can be a win-win situation while accommodating and competing both involve win-lose.

Different styles of conflict-handling are likely to suit different types of situation as the following table, adapted from Senior (2002), shows.

Conflict handling style	***Can be used when:***
Avoiding	issues are trivial; there is no chance of you resolving the conflict; others are better placed to take action; allow breathing space
Accommodating	you are in the wrong; to maintain harmony; build up credit for later; allow people to learn from their mistakes
Compromising	getting a solution is important; parties have equal power
Competing	there is an emergency and a quick solution is essential; an action vital to the organisation's future must be taken
Collaborating	it is important to gain long term commitment; where the issues are too important for compromise

These conflict-handling styles ideas can be a very useful way of identifying the options available to a manager/leader when faced with the need to deal with conflict.

Activity 2.11: Conflict-handling styles

Look at each of the five conflict-handling styles and see if you can think of a conflict that could have been resolved using that style:

Avoiding

Accommodating

Competing

Compromising

Collaborating

Do you think that you might use one of these styles as your preferred approach to handling any conflict you might meet as a leader/manager?

The five styles are approaches to handling conflict. There are, however, other aspects to handling conflict. The styles, for example, start from the basis that conflict has already occurred. They, therefore, include what could be called a preventing strategy. This could involve creating a climate where conflict is less likely, perhaps by encouraging people to be open about differences or by anticipating possible conflicts and dealing with them before they arise. In some cases, it might not be possible to resolve the conflict and the best way forward could be to reduce or contain it.

The styles do not cover methods available for handling conflict. These would be used in conjunction with a conflict-handling approach and can include:

- arbitration — where both sides present their case and an arbiter decides between them
- mediation — where a mediator intercedes between the parties and tries to establish some way by which the conflict can be resolved
- separation — where the parties are kept apart, perhaps by transferring one to a different part of the organisation
- influencing the parties in some way
- appeals to a higher authority — such as asking a higher level manager to intervene
- arranging for the parties to discuss their issues.

Some of these methods work better in association with some styles than others. Mediation, for example, could be the first step in collaboration, while influencing might be used to help bring about a compromise.

Summary guidelines for dealing with conflict

Overall, the discussion above suggests the following set of guidelines that leaders could use for dealing with conflict:

- try to spot any conflict as early as possible
- try to understand the causes of the conflict, for example, what layers are there? What kind of conflict is it? How do each of the parties see it? Is it positive or negative?
- find a suitable way to handle the conflict — ideally this would be a win-win but you may have to settle for a win-lose or do nothing
- act at the right time — the best time is to head off the conflict before it begins, which means anticipating that it might occur. This is not always possible and many situations involve coping with matters once a conflict has begun. It is important to keep your emotions under control even if others are unable to do so
- check out the resolution to the conflict — once things have settled down you can monitor the situation and make sure that the resolution has been successful.

2.4 Negotiation

Negotiation has already been mentioned. Exchange was one of the influencing strategies identified in section 2.2 while compromising was one of the approaches to handling conflict management in section 2.3. Among other things, this helps to emphasise the fact that the inter-personal skills discussed here overlap. It also highlights that, as a leader, you might have to make choices about which techniques to use in any particular situation. Your decision, in any given situation, will be influenced by your style as a leader as well as by the balance of power and the context in which you are working. You will see in Outcome 3 that negotiation is also an option that leaders can use in managing change.

As sections 2.2 and 2.3 indicate, negotiation is a process of bargaining, as a result of which the parties involved come to an agreement. Negotiation may take place between two parties as is the case when a leader negotiates with a team member. It can also involve several people or groups. A team leader could, for example, negotiate with all members of his or her team at the same time, perhaps to decide on how to tackle a problem which the team is facing.

Activity 2.12: My experience of negotiation

Think of some examples of situations (at work and outside work) where you have been involved in some form of negotiation. Four or five examples should be more than sufficient.

Negotiation, then, is one way of resolving differences between people. This section concentrates on two factors which can have a significant effect on whether any negotiation is likely to be successful. They are:

1 The stages in the negotiating process — knowing what these are can help you work through the process effectively, as well as helping you to adopt behaviours suitable to each stage of the process.

2 Negotiating behaviours — there is evidence that some types of behaviour can help a negotiation and also that some behaviours can hinder negotiations.

However, before embarking on these, it is helpful to spend a little more time considering some aspects of the negotiation process. The notion of 'win-win' is a good starting point for this. The remainder of this section assumes that negotiation takes place between two parties although, as has been pointed out, this does not have to be the case.

Win-Win

This phrase describes the ideal outcome of a negotiation. It is where both parties gain from the negotiation. The alternatives are win-lose, where one party gains but at the expense of the other and lose-lose, where both parties are worse off after the negotiation.

One example of win-win is in influencing where agreement is reached, as a result of an exchange of benefits. For example, A tries to influence B to swap shifts. A gains if the change is agreed, while B benefits from the fact that s/he can, in the future, get A to return the favour. Lose-lose can be exemplified by resolution of conflict through compromise. To reach an agreement, both parties give something up and will feel that they are worse off than before. This is not, of course, an inevitable outcome but it is a possible danger of forcing a compromise for the sake of an apparent agreement. This is a reminder that an agreement to resolve conflict might not, in the longer term, be successful.

Giving up something of value in a negotiation does not necessarily result in one or both of the parties losing. It is perfectly possible to give something up but get something more valuable in return. Resolving a conflict successfully, for instance, can bring benefits to both parties that will outweigh any concessions they have made to reach the agreement.

Win-lose is often associated with the view that negotiation is a battle of wills, which ends when the stronger party is able to impose his or her wishes on the other party. Traditionally, negotiations between employers and trade unions are seen in this light. From a leader's perspective, however, this type of approach is unlikely to be constructive. If negotiation is to be worthwhile and effective, the objective should be to aim for win-win. Among other things this is likely to establish, or continue, a pattern of co-operation within which differences can be resolved.

There are situations where two parties come into contact and the outcome is that one wins and the other loses. Sporting contests are a common example. These are not examples of negotiation, since there is not usually an intention to bargain and to come to an agreement.

If for some reason, a win-win outcome does not appear to be possible, the leader might need to try some other approach. For example, section 2.2 discusses other influencing strategies which leaders can use, while section 2.3 coves other options for managing conflict. This is an example of what Fisher and Ury (1981) call a BATNA which stands for Best Alternative to a Negotiated Agreement. In its simplest form, it states that a leader has the choice not to negotiate if the outcome of the negotiation will lead to a less favourable outcome than not negotiating at all. It suggests that leaders and others involved in negotiation should explore what other options they have, rather than being pushed into participating in a negotiation and having to accept an outcome they think will be unsatisfactory.

Activity 2.13: Win-win

Can you think of an example of a negotiation in which you have been involved that was (a) win-win; (b) win-lose; (c) lose-lose? In each case, how did you feel after the negotiation was over? How do you think the other person felt? What do you think are the advantages of win-win?

This discussion of win-win also emphasises the importance of power in negotiation. Like influencing, the outcome of a negotiation could well depend on the balance of power between the parties. On the surface, this might suggest that a win-lose outcome is more likely when one party is in a more powerful position than the other. This is, however, not necessarily the case, especially as the benefits of a win could be temporary. It is also important to remember that benefits are a matter of perception. In this sense, they resemble power. Both parties to a negotiation could view an outcome as beneficial but see it in different ways. Agreements to sell are a good example. The same selling price, for example, could represent a good profit for the seller but a bargain for the buyer.

Finally, you will remember that Zaleznik (1977) claimed that managers looked for win-win, while leaders were prepared to accept more turbulent relations with others. This suggests that negotiation is not a skill leaders are likely to use. This seems to be questionable for two main reasons. Firstly, it is clear that those in positions of authority have to act as both leaders and managers. Also, to a considerable extent, negotiation can be seen as an aspect of influencing and this is the critical, defining aspect of leadership.

Stages in the negotiation process

Successful negotiations, therefore, aim to conclude with a win-win outcome. Recognising the main stages of the negotiation process is a key factor in reaching a win-win outcome. This is because it helps negotiators to give a structure to any negotiation. It also helps to ensure that critical aspects of any negotiation are not ignored.

The process of negotiation can be split into four main stages. They are preparation, opening phase, getting movement to reach agreement and closing the negotiation. Each will be considered in turn.

Stage 1 — Preparation

This takes place before the negotiation actually starts and covers planning and preparing for the actual negotiation. It includes activities such as:

- gathering good quality information — about the subject of the negotiation and about what the other party might want from the negotiation
- identifying key objectives — this involves being as precise as possible about what the negotiator hopes to achieve from the negotiation
- establishing the issues that should be covered in the negotiation
- preparing as strong a case as possible — good negotiators try to make this as clear and simple as possible; they also try to make it appeal to reason and to emotions.

At this stage, good negotiators often identify a range of possibilities. They decide on their ideal position which is the best outcome they feel that they can achieve. They also work out their fallback position. This is an outcome that the negotiator would accept but anything less than this would not be considered suitable. A seller, for example, might think that £1,000 is the best possible price but be willing to accept £900. Both parties will, of course, go through the preparation phase. A buyer could decide that £850 is the ideal price but be prepared to pay up to £950. In this case, there is some common ground and the negotiation will be successful if the parties are able to find this common ground and reach an agreement within it.

Stage 2 — Opening phase

This, as its name suggests, is the start of the actual negotiation. It covers:

- creating a positive climate for the negotiations with the other party
- dealing with the content of the negotiation
- stating the negotiator’s case and finding out what the other party’s case is
- seeking to create common ground between the parties.

This is the point at which both parties seek to establish the issues involved in the negotiation. Each party will probably have different issues. In many respects, this is the stage where the parties share information and where they can set the pattern for the negotiations as a whole. A win-win outcome is more likely if the parties spend time building an understanding of what is important to each of them.

Stage 3 — Getting movement to reach agreement

This is where the negotiation begins to move towards an agreement that is acceptable to both parties. It is at this stage that bargaining and agreement actually take place and it includes activities such as:

- each party challenges the case made by the other party
- each party also responds to challenges to their own case
- there may be trading about issues (for example, by agreeing to postpone or delay some issues to another occasion in order to reach agreement on the remaining ones)
- issues may be linked together to make trade-offs more acceptable — negotiations between employers and employees, for example, often link issues of pay and conditions of employment.

Inexperienced negotiators tend to rush into this stage, perhaps because they become too focused on actually getting agreement and do not pay enough attention to the process of getting there.

Stage 4 — Closing the negotiation

This is the final stage. It covers finalising the outcome of the negotiation but also looking towards the future. Its activities include:

- each party checking the understanding of the other party to make sure that they interpret the agreement in the same way
- summarising and recording the agreement
- making arrangements to monitor the operation of the agreement and how it should be reviewed.

Again, this is a stage which is often hurried. Negotiators are so pleased to have reached an apparent agreement that they forget to check out carefully that the other party understands the bargain in the same way. Agreements often fail because it becomes clear that each party had a different understanding of what was agreed. It is not unknown for people to deliberately make an ambiguous agreement, as this saves them from accepting something they do not want. This is another example of a BATNA. In cases like this, negotiation might not be the best way to resolve the issue.

The four stages do not always follow neatly from one to the other and overlap between them is frequent and to be expected. This is especially true of Stage 2, the opening phase, and Stage 3, getting movement to reach agreement. It may be necessary, for example, to go back and discuss what issues are relevant after bargaining has begun. The four stages do, however, provide a structure that effective negotiators can use to think about what goes on during a negotiation. For this reason, they are important to leaders for whom negotiation might be a valuable inter-personal skill.

Activity 2.14: Stages of negotiation

Go back to the previous activity and your examples of (a) win-win, (b) win-lose and (c) lose-lose.

In each case, how well were the four stages of negotiation followed? How did this affect the success of the negotiation?

Negotiating themes and behaviours

Successful negotiators, however, do not just give a structure to negotiations by following the four stages above. They also adopt behaviours that help negotiations to be effective. Equally importantly, they avoid behaviours that could hinder negotiations and make it more difficult to come to an agreement that suits both parties.

These behaviours will be considered shortly but underlying them are three themes that govern what effective negotiators do. They are:

1 Clarity of focus

Good negotiators are clear about what they would like to achieve from a negotiation and about the final outcome. They gather a lot of information from a variety of sources. They present their points clearly and concisely.

2 Flexibility of strategy

Good negotiators are not wedded to a particular outcome and are prepared to consider any suggestions that could lead to their objectives being achieved. They have a flexible agenda during discussions to ensure that all points which are of concern to both parties are dealt with. They are prepared to make concessions if this will help and will not prejudice the objectives they wish to achieve. Often in negotiations, something which is relatively insignificant to one side is very important to the other. In these circumstances, making a concession can be an important step to a successful conclusion.

3 Working for a win-win

In many respects, this is the key theme. Good negotiators see negotiation as a process of coming to a mutually satisfactory agreement. They try to find out what the other party wants and try to target their own case on what the other party sees as beneficial. They allow the other party time to present their case and to respond to the case that they are making.

A critical part of working for a win-win in negotiation is the behaviours that negotiators adopt during the negotiation process. Behaviours that help or hinder negotiation were originally identified as a result of research by Rackham and Carlisle (1978).

According to the research, the following behaviours by negotiators are likely to lead to a successful win-win outcome:

- summarising and testing understanding
- seeking information and asking questions
- personal warmth and encouraging co-operation
- signalling concessions — ie making it clear that there has been a concession to the other party
- adjourning the negotiations if necessary to allow time for reflection
- remaining calm and controlled
- recognising disagreement and approaching it as a matter to be discussed and resolved
- supporting their case with a small number of crucial reasons — there is a danger that giving a lot of reasons can dilute the negotiator's argument and allow the other party to concentrate on the weaker aspects of the case.

On the other hand, successful negotiators avoid the following behaviours since they could prejudice a successful outcome to a negotiation:

- irritators — these are words or phrases that can annoy or irritate the other party and, therefore, become counter-productive. An example could be a reference to 'our fair and generous offer' when the other party clearly does not agree
- counter proposals — this means responding to a proposal with another proposal. This prevents the initial proposal being explored and could also suggest that the other party is not interested in it
- defend/attack spirals — this is when negotiations become heated and emotional. One party makes statements that are personal attacks. Once started, these tend to spiral as those who have been attacked defend themselves
- blocking — this is when one party makes a statement that inhibits further discussion. Examples are phrases like 'I think that is unreasonable' or 'you must know that we cannot agree to that'.

Activity 2.15: Behaviours to avoid in negotiations

Once again, go back to the previous activities and look at the examples of negotiations you have been involved in.

Can you think of examples of each of the behaviours that could hinder effective negotiation? In each case what effect did each one have?

Using negotiation as a leader

The above suggests that negotiation can be a successful aspect of being an effective leader. However, it is only one option among many that a leader has for resolving differences. It is also one that has many myths attached to it such as the view that it is about winning and losing. This is why BATNA is such an important idea. As a negotiator, you might not want to allow the other party to think that there is a better alternative. On the other hand, the behaviour of the other party might lead you to consider other options that you could pursue. Remember, too, that, like influencing, negotiation could be part of sequence of events.

The following is a summary, based on Jeffrey (1998) of how to approach a negotiation:

- prepare thoroughly beforehand
- assess the balance of power — what is your BATNA? What is the other party's BATNA?
- adopt a win-win approach
- go through all four stages of negotiation
- use behaviours that help a negotiation and avoid those that do not
- keep calm and controlled
- take a break if things get hard
- make sure that both sides agree to the same thing.

Activity 2.16: Getting help in negotiation

There are several sources of help for negotiation. www.mindtools.com is one of many websites that give some advice. Its site includes, for example, a worksheet on preparing for win-win.

You should go to www.mindtools.com/CommSkll/NegotiationSkills.htm and follow the link to the worksheet.

You should then work through it. It is also useful to compare this with the discussion on stage of negotiation above.

(This activity needs no comment — hopefully the above will help you become a more skilled negotiator. Remember the old adage: 'fail to prepare — prepare to fail'.)

Study Notes for Outcome 3 — The role of leaders in organisational change

Introduction

These study notes cover Outcome 3, ‘Analyse the role of leaders in organisational change’.

Leadership and change are closely related to each other. You will remember from Outcome 1 that dealing with change was one way of drawing a distinction between the role of leaders and the role of managers. Leaders are concerned with change but managers are more involved with maintaining existing operational activity.

We are now going to look at organisational change in more detail. At first glance, it seems easy to decide what organisational change is but, sometimes, things are not quite as straightforward as they look. We begin by considering what change is and the various levels at which it happens. You will see that the term ‘organisational change’ covers a wide range of situations.

This leads on to the reasons why change occurs, which can be described as the driving forces for change. However, change can, and does, meet with opposition, so it is important also to look at resistance to change and at methods that can help to overcome resistance to change.

This sets the scene for a discussion of force field analysis, which is a well-known technique for comparing the drivers for change and the resistors to it. This process of exploring the drivers for change and the resistors to it can be seen as the first phase of organisational change. It will be followed by other stages such as implementing the change. After force field analysis, therefore, we go on to look at the various stages of change and conclude by exploring possible strategies which can be used for introducing change.

As you read about change you might want to think about whether change is a key part of the role of leaders and whether it is something that does differentiate between leaders and managers. The activities encourage you to think about your experience of change and, in particular, how this change was carried out and what you felt about what was taking place.

Activity 3.1: My experience of change

Before you go any further, this might be a good point to summarise your experience of change.

Think of changes that you have been involved in recently and make a list of them. You can use this list as you go through this Outcome. Try not to make your list too long and try to concentrate on changes that you felt strongly about.

3.1 Organisational change

All organisations are subject to internal and external pressures. They have to respond to changes in society, to changes in government policy and to changes in what other organisations do. They also develop, on their own initiative, new ways of carrying out their business. It is possible, therefore, as Richard Daft (1993) does, to define organisational change as 'the adoption of a new idea or behaviour by an organisation'.

Another way of thinking about this is to see organisational change as closing a gap. Organisational change is about moving an organisation from its existing 'present state' to a 'desired future state'. This is because there is a gap between where the organisation is at the moment and where it wants to be. Some kind of change is needed to enable the organisation to close this gap.

Organisational change, therefore, is a process by which organisations maintain an appropriate match between themselves and the environment in which they operate. It is a way of ensuring that organisations can continue to achieve the purpose and objectives that they have.

Organisational change is likely to have a number of other features. The following list, based on Buchanan and Huczynski (2004), gives some of them:

- Organisational change is triggered by some internal or external pressure, for example a realisation that the organisation is not meeting its targets. It can occur as a result of pressure from above (top-down), pressure from below (bottom-up), as a result of judgements made by knowledgeable persons (experts) or a combination of all three.
- Organisational change can be messy and untidy. It can, for example, involve 'one step forward, two steps back'. In some cases, it may be a knee-jerk reaction to an unanticipated trigger. Some people can adapt more quickly than others to any change.

- Organisational change does not take place in isolation. Change produces interdependencies in that change in one aspect of an organisation has knock-on effects on other aspects of the organisation.
- Organisational change can cause conflict within organisations, particularly between management and other employees, This can, in turn, lead to frustrations such as resentment at not being consulted or involved.

Different people in an organisation can play different roles in organisational change. Kanter et al (1992) distinguish between three different types of people. They are:

- change strategists or initiators — who initiate change and set the direction for it
- change implementers — who co-ordinate and carry out the change
- change recipients — who are affected by the change.

In terms of the distinction between managers and leaders, change strategists are usually leaders while managers are usually change implementers.

It is common to speak of 'organisational change' as if it always means the same thing. It can, however, take many different forms. One important factor is the scale of change. It can take place both on a large and a small scale. Senior (2002), using ideas based on Dunphy and Stace (1993), identifies four main types of change:

1 Fine-tuning — where minor adjustments are made to ongoing processes such as changing job roles or revising existing procedures.

2 Incremental adjustment — this involves small scale modifications such as introducing new technology or placing increased emphasis and resources on particular products or services.

3 Modular transformation — a major change centred on one or more departments or divisions in an organisation such as departmental restructuring or introducing significantly new ways of working.

4 Corporate transformation — change which involves the whole organisation such as cultural change or major re-organisation.

Types 3 and 4 can be seen as radical or 'frame-breaking' change, sometimes also referred to as 'transformative' change. Types 1 and 2, on the other hand, are more about ongoing developments and improvements. Radical change usually occurs as a response to significant alterations in an organisation's environment which could threaten its existence in its current form. In this sense, these types are discontinuous and could be said to be revolutionary.

Ongoing change is evolutionary. It is more like a process of continuous adaptation to gradual shifts in an organisation's environment.

Activity 3.2: Types of change

Which of the changes you listed in Activity 3.1 could be described as radical?

Which of the changes in Activity 3.1 are ongoing developments?

Much of the literature on organisational change has traditionally concentrated on radical change and major initiatives. It has been common also to argue that change is something that happens all the time. The implication from this is that, in order to survive in today's rapidly changing environment, organisations will be in a process of constant, rapid change.

Buchanan and Huczynski (2004) point out that this could be counter-productive and that continual major change can bring some problems. For example, initiative decay can occur. This describes a situation where the benefits of a previous change are lost when a new initiative is introduced. In addition, initiative fatigue may set in as people become cynical and exhausted with the constant stream of different change programmes. They suggest that major change initiatives should be undertaken sparingly against a background of continual small adaptations. As they say, when looking at change it is also important to consider what is not changing.

3.2 Levels of change

Organisational change can take place at different levels within an organisation. It can occur at an individual level, at a group level or at the level of the whole organisation.

Organisational change at the individual level, for example, can involve someone carrying out their work in a different way. The use of information technology to receive and distribute information is one example. At the group level, organisational change can be where a team assumes new responsibilities or develops more autonomous ways of working. Changes at these levels are more likely to be on a small scale and resemble the fine-tuning and incremental change of types 1 and 2 above.

This does not mean that change at individual or group level takes place in isolation. If one team has changed responsibilities this will, for example, affect the way in which it interacts with other teams. This reinforces the point made above that interdependency is a key feature of organisational change.

Organisational level change covers the whole organisation. This is usually large scale change where a significant transformation is anticipated to close a perceived gap in some aspect of what an organisation does. This is the radical change or frame-breaking change of types 3 and 4 above. It will, of course, also involve changes at group and individual levels.

Thinking about levels of change is useful because it highlights the time required for a change and the difficulties of achieving change in organisations. Generally, the higher the level of change, the more difficult it will be to carry it out successfully and the longer it will take.

Levels of change and types of change can influence the debate on whether there are differences between managers and leaders. Large scale transformative changes seem to be associated with leaders, although it could be managers who are responsible for the implementation of these changes at group and individual levels.

However, some organisational change at individual and group level is closely related to day to day managerial work. Not all change at these levels is the consequence of large scale organisation wide change. Introducing new ways of team working might be a way of maintaining its operational effectiveness and, therefore, something that is part of what a manager or team leader would do.

Activity 3.3: Leaders and managers

Look back at your list in Activity 3.1 and make some notes on the following questions.

Which of the changes you listed involved people who could be said to be (a) managers and (b) leaders?

What role did the manager/leader play in each case?

In the light of your notes, do you think that involvement in change does differentiate between managers and leaders?

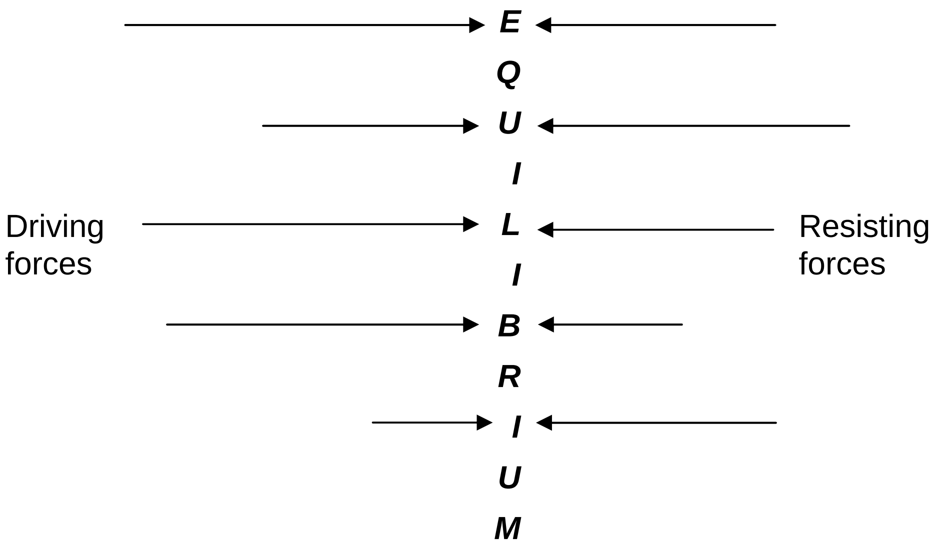
You can also return to your response to Activity 3.2 and see if you think that leaders were involved with radical change and managers with ongoing change.

As you read on, bear in mind that there are different types of change and that change takes place at various levels in an organisation. The term 'organisational change', therefore, covers many things. Many of the points discussed apply to any organisational change but some relate more closely to large-scale radical change initiatives than to smaller scale ongoing change.

3.3 Force field analysis

Originally devised in the 1950s by the American psychologist, Kurt Lewin, this is a technique for analysing the internal and external pressures that can influence any organisational change. It takes account of both the forces which may promote change (driving forces or drivers) and the forces that may constrain it (resisting forces or resistors). It can be applied to any type of change but it is probably more important when used in connection with large-scale transformative change.

The underlying idea is that in any situation, there will be forces that exert pressure for change and opposing forces that resist change. Where the forces for change are equal to the forces resisting change no change will take place. In this case, there will be equilibrium and nothing will happen. This can be illustrated in a force field diagram.



Force field diagram

Each arrow depicts a different driver or resistor while the length of each arrow represents the strength of the force for or against change. Change will take place when the driving forces exceed the resisting forces. This could occur when the driving forces are increased and/or the resisting forces are reduced. It is possible, of course, for those responsible for change to influence the strength of drivers or resistors.

Force field analysis has a number of advantages, including:

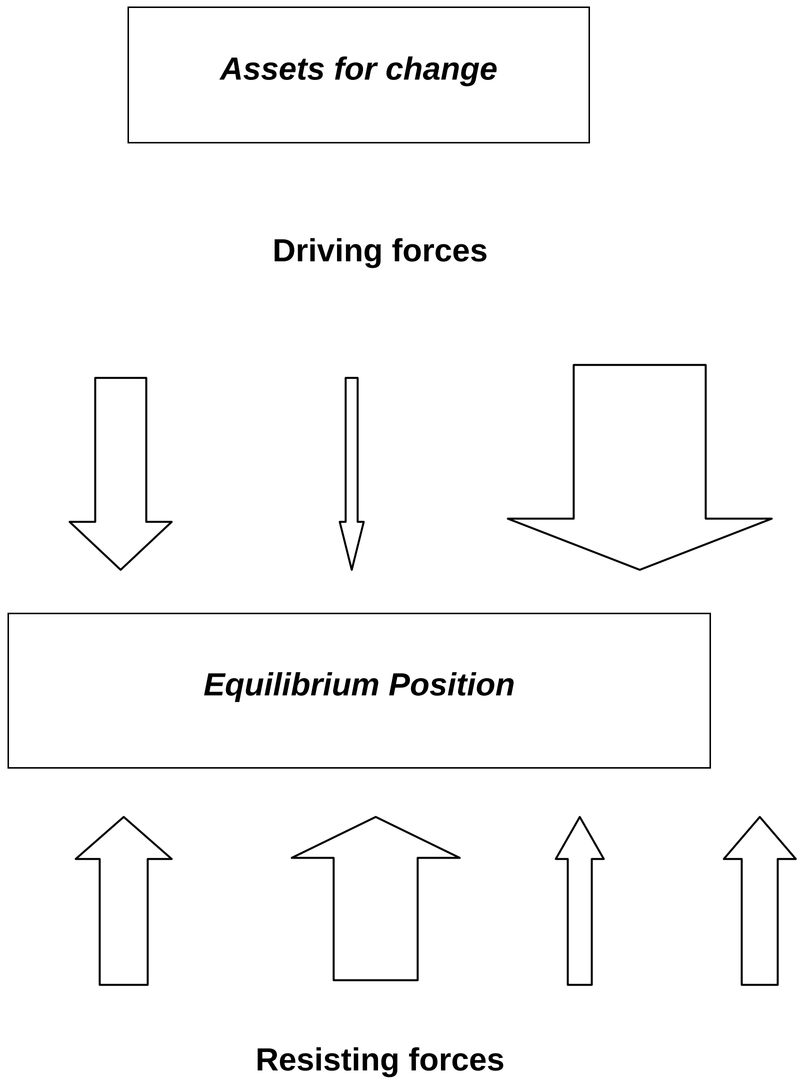
- it can help to identify all the forces that impact on change — one common approach to this is to base them on categories of people, resources, time, external factors and corporate culture
- it can be used to highlight the fact that some forces might be stronger than others
- it can help assess if an organisation is ready for change
- it can be a quick and simple way of assessing whether a proposed change is likely to be successful
- it can provide a guide to action, for example it can draw attention to an important resistor that might need to be addressed if any change is to be carried out successfully.

It also has some drawbacks, including:

- it is subjective, as the identification of drivers and resistors depends on who carries out the force field analysis
- it is imprecise, because the strength of any force cannot usually be accurately determined and also has to rely on the subjective judgements of those involved in the analysis
- it is a snapshot at a point in time — as a result it can quickly become out of date, especially if the organisation's environment is changing rapidly.

Nevertheless, it can be a useful starting point for anyone involved in organisational change. The leader of a change initiative, for example, could develop a force field analysis to help identify the various factors that they will have to take into account.

Force field diagrams can also be shown horizontally as well as vertically. Personal preference dictates which style is used.



Assets for change are a refinement of the basic force field diagram. They are factors which are not currently driving forces for change but have the potential to assist in any change. One example might be financial resources, which could be made available to help a change but which could be used for other purposes. Another could be goodwill built up in the past, which could be exploited.

Instead of drawing different sized arrows, it is possible to have a diagram where all arrows are the same size. However, each is given a number (eg between 1 and 5) to indicate how strong it is thought to be. A rating of 5 means high strength, while 1 means low strength.

Drivers for change

These include external and internal forces. External forces leading to organisational change can be identified by analysing the organisation's external environment. One technique for doing this is known by the acronym PESTEL, which stands for:

Political

Economic

Socio-cultural

Technological

Environmental

Legal.

This technique provides a checklist for scanning the external environment of an organisation. Each category is taken in turn to see how aspects of it may impact on the organisation's current and future situation. The most important external pressures on the organisation can then be extracted from the list.

The following gives some examples of each category and the effect they may have on particular organisations.

These are not hard and fast categories. For example, Political and Legal can overlap since government policy can result in legislation: taxation could be seen as Political or Economic. This does not matter as the purpose of PESTEL is to provide a framework to help identify the pressures which may trigger organisational change.

Political	This covers government regulations and policy. Police forces, for example, may be affected by government policy on crime.
Economic	This includes economic growth, inflation, market trends. Economic growth leads to higher income, which means people have more to spend. If they buy more cars, for example, this will lead to a need for more public parking spaces.
Socio-cultural	This is a wide-ranging category covering things like the size and distribution of population, lifestyle, and age structure of the population. As the average age of the population rises, the need for residential homes may increase and that for schools fall.
Technological	This covers all aspect of new technology. Developments in Information and Communication Technology may affect the way organisations operate, as well as what they can do.
Environmental	This includes all aspects of the environment. Oil companies, for example, come under pressure from environmental groups about how they extract oil and where they get it from.
Legal	As its name suggests, this category is about the impact of legislation either national or international, for example emanating from the European Union. Legislation outlawing smoking in public places can affect bars and restaurants as well as local authorities, which are made responsible for enforcing the legislation.

Activity 3.4: PESTEL

Use the PESTEL framework to analyse the environment faced by your part of your organisation.

(By looking at your part of the organisation rather than your organisation as a whole, you can focus more closely on just how the broader environment can affect what you do.)

As a result of your analysis, what, in your opinion, are the main pressures that your part of the organisation is facing at the moment?

What organisational changes might be needed to make sure that your part of the organisation can cope with these pressures?

There are also internal forces for organisational change. They are sometimes less easy to identify than external forces, perhaps because there is no equivalent technique to PESTEL. However, this does not mean that they are necessarily less important.

Internal forces for change can include the following:

- managerial aspirations — managers (or leaders) within an organisation may want to make changes which they think will improve the performance of the organisation
- organisational growth — as an organisation grows it may need to make changes (eg in its structure) to make sure that it can continue to operate effectively
- organisational culture — this could, for example, be built around continuous improvement or excellent customer service
- previous initiatives — an organisation might in the past have embraced changes that produce pressure for subsequent change, for example signing up to schemes like Investors in People (IiP) and the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) can commit an organisation to continuous development.

Activity 3.5: Internal forces for change

What internal pressures for change are there at the moment in your part of your organisation?

What organisational changes might be needed to make sure that your part of the organisation can cope with these pressures?

Resistors

There are many possible sources of resistance to change. They are likely to vary considerably depending on the change involved. One widely used classification suggests that there are four main reasons for resisting change.

Parochial self-interest	People resist change because they think that their position will be threatened by it and it will make them worse off. Change can bring a loss of prestige or disturb existing patterns of behaviour, which people have become used to. One response to this is to try to protect these vested interests by forming pressure groups, which aim to prevent the change taking place or make sure that it does not work.
Misunderstanding and a lack of trust	People resist change because they misunderstand or misinterpret the reasons behind the change and the benefits it is intended to bring. This is often because there is a lack of effective communication about the change and people do not trust what they are told. A common outcome is the spread of rumours that often exaggerate the consequences of a change and strengthen resistance to it.
Different assessments	People see change in different ways as the comments on Activities 3.4 and 3.5 suggest. In particular, those leading the change may have different perceptions from those less closely involved. This can result in disagreement and conflict between different groups in an organisation.
Low tolerance for change	Some people resist change because they fear that they will not have the ability and skills to cope with the new situation. This fear of the unknown is particularly likely when the change involves new technology or significantly different ways of working. People seek excuses for not becoming involved in change and try to hold on to current arrangements as long as possible.

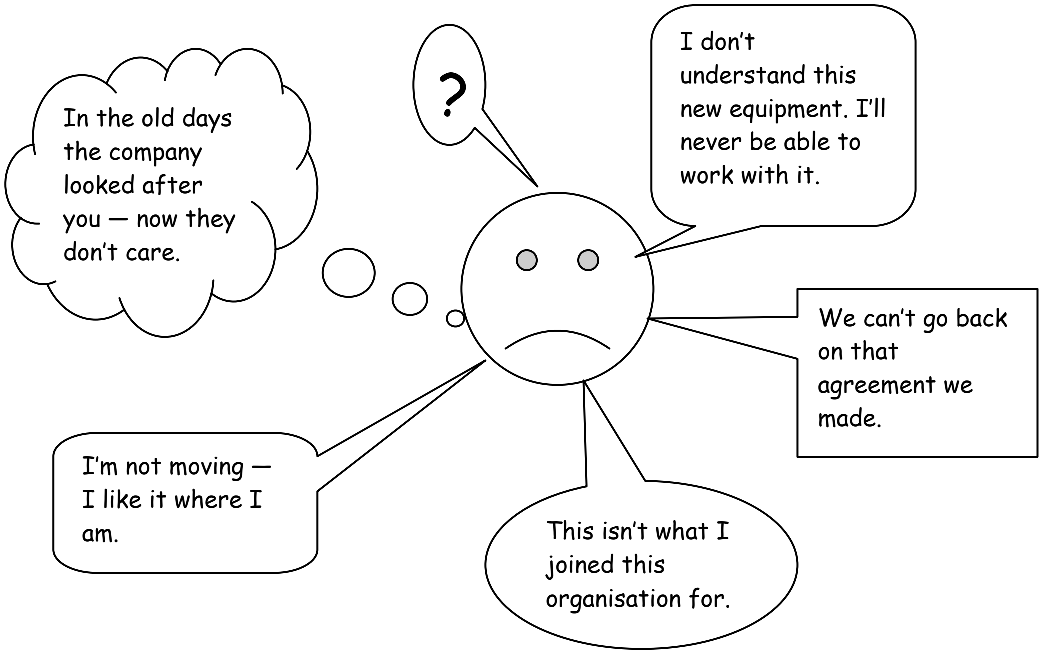
The above is a good starting point to think about resistance to change, although it does not cover all the possible reasons for resisting change. Initiative decay and initiative fatigue can lead to resistance, for example. People oppose change because they think the perceived rewards offered by the organisation are not enough. Resistance to organisational change can occur even when the change is likely to result in benefits to those resisting it.

Strebel (1996) argues that employees resist change because it disrupts what he describes as the ‘personal compact’ between employees and the organisation. This represents the reciprocal mutual obligations between an organisation and each employee. It covers formal obligations as set out in the terms and conditions of employment but also informal obligations that are usually implicit and not written down. These can be psychological, such as trust and personal commitment, and social, such as how the company makes decisions. Organisational change affects these informal obligations, which can have a significant impact on employee commitment. These informal obligations are also frequently ignored by the leaders of a change because they are implicit and informal.

The factors mentioned so far can all be described as individual resistors to change. Resistance can also stem from organisational factors. Organisations might, for example, be committed to previously agreed investment programmes that cannot easily be changed, or could have entered into agreements with others, such as suppliers, which limit what they can do.

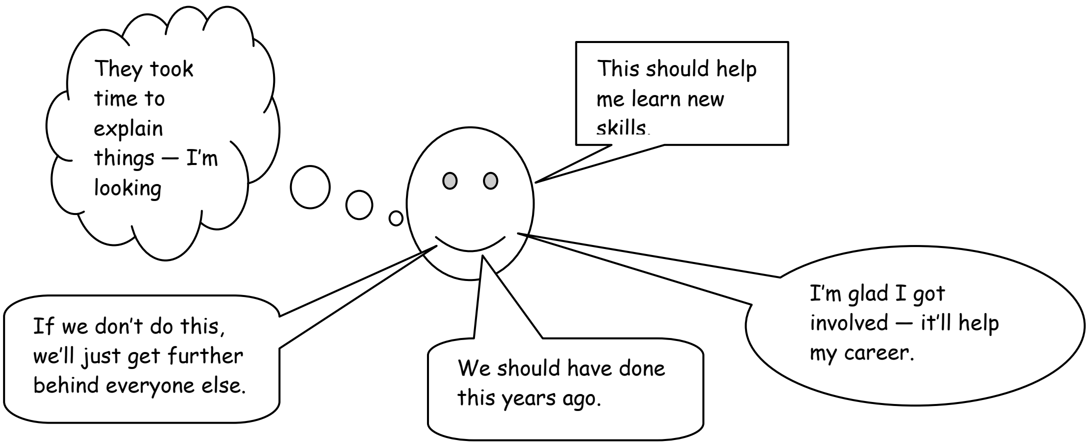
Activity 3.6: Resistance to change

The following diagram shows some examples of resistance to change. Can you think of any other phrases to add to the ones included already?



Some concluding comments on force field analysis

Force field analysis can be a useful technique for leaders and managers involved in change. It can help to pinpoint critical factors and provide the basis for discussion on whether a change is likely to be successful. It also illustrates that gaining support for organisational change can involve reducing resistance to change and increasing the drivers for change.



Activity 3.7: Your own force field analysis

Pick a change with which you have been, or are currently, involved. It could be one from Activity 3.1.

Go back to the start of the change and draw a force field diagram to represent the driving forces and resisting forces for the change at that time.

You can use a horizontal or vertical version of the force field diagram but try to include only the most important drivers and resistors. You can add in assets for change if you wish.

3.4 Methods of overcoming resistance to change

These are often part and parcel of strategies for change, which will be discussed in a subsequent section. Traditionally, they are seen as something that precedes change but overcoming resistance is something that permeates all aspects of change.

In an article that has become very influential, Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) identified six methods for overcoming resistance to change. They are summarised in the following table.

Method	***What it involves***	***Commonly used where:***
Education and communication	Educating people beforehand by providing training, counselling, information, holding meetings etc	There is a lack of information or where that which is available is inaccurate; as a result there can be a lot of misunderstanding
Participation and involvement	Involving those who might resist in some parts of the design and implementation of the change	Strong commitment to change is needed and potential resistors have skills and knowledge that are required to facilitate the change and which the change initiators lack; resistors must be willing to co-operate
Facilitation and support	Helping people to cope by training, emotional support etc	People are finding it hard to adjust to a change because of fear and anxiety but they do have sufficient information about what is to happen
Negotiation and agreement	Reaching a mutually acceptable compromise with potential resistors, eg by offering them incentives	Some of those affected by the change have sufficient power to stage effective resistance attempts
Manipulation and co-option	Making covert attempts to influence people, eg by co-opting resistors into positions where they can endorse the change and using information selectively to present a ‘rosy’ picture	Other tactics will not work or are too expensive
Explicit and implicit coercion	Forcing change through by the use of threats and sanctions	Speed is essential and change initiators have a lot of power

Activity 3.8: Advantages and disadvantages of different methods

What do you think are the likely advantages and disadvantages of each of the six methods for overcoming resistance to change? Note down your ideas and then check them against the following table.

Method	***Advantages***	***Disadvantages***
Education and communication	People become aware of what is involved; trust and commitment can be developed; people may help to implement the change	Time-consuming, especially in a major change where many people may be involved
Participation and involvement	Participation improves commitment to a change and builds ownership of it	Time-consuming; participation can alter the change so that key objectives are not achieved
Facilitation and support	Directly addresses doubts and fears about change	Time-consuming; expensive; no guarantee of success
Negotiation and agreement	Can avoid confrontation; more straightforward than first three methods	Can be expensive; can create a precedent for future changes
Manipulation and co-option	Can be quick; inexpensive	Can backfire if people realise they are being manipulated
Explicit and implicit coercion	Where change has to be done quickly	Can lead to resentment and reduced commitment in future

The choice of method will depend on the nature of the change and the resistance to it, as well as on the possible long-term impact of the method used. The methods can be used in combination.

One way to decide which method to use is to make use of stakeholder analysis. Stakeholders are those affected by the change and the first step is to identify who they are. They can then be categorised on the basis of:

- those who may gain from the change
- those who may lose out as a result from the change
- those who have power to resist the change
- those who have information that is important to the change.

Once this has been done, suitable methods to overcome resistance can be chosen. For example, facilitation and support may help those who fear they may lose out while those who will gain may be prepared to participate in the change. The methods chosen can be tailored to suit the needs of different stakeholders.

3.5 Stages of change

Force field analysis can be seen as one of the first steps in organisational change. It enables leaders of change to decide whether a proposed change is likely to be feasible and successful.

From this, leaders of change can move on to implement the change project. This is usually much more complicated than simply deciding what to do and carrying it out, particularly when it is a large-scale initiative. Leading a change project can involve considerable uncertainty and ambiguity and, as the introduction to this Outcome pointed out, the process of organisational change can be messy and untidy.

For this reason, it can be helpful to think of organisational changes as a series of inter-connected phases or stages. This can be applied to all types of organisational change but is more important in transformative changes because they usually take place over a longer period of time.

Kurt Lewin, the originator of force field analysis, suggested that there are three main stages of change which he called unfreezing, change and refreezing.

The unfreezing stage is a preparatory one during which things are made ready for the change. This is a ‘loosening up’ phase when people come to terms with the change. Leaders might, for example, spend time tackling resistance to change and gaining commitment for it.

The change or movement stage is the implementation phase when the change actually takes place. During this stage old arrangements are discarded, to be replaced with new ones. Those leading the change will be involved in overseeing and monitoring the progress of the plans they have made.

The refreezing stage is where the change is consolidated. A potential danger of change programmes is that once they have been implemented, the organisation reverts back to its previous ways of working. During the third of Lewin's stages, leaders aim to make sure that change is institutionalised and becomes a normal everyday part of what the organisation does.

Lewin's model is well-known but it is simplistic and, perhaps outdated. For example, it suggests that the change follows a clear sequence, whereas in practice the three stages may well merge with each other, particularly if some parts of major change proceed more quickly than others. Also, where change is constantly happening in an organisation, there may be no refreezing stage because one change is immediately followed by another, or because several change initiatives are taking place at the same time.

Another criticism is that it ignores or plays down some critical aspects of the change process. The unfreezing stage, for example, seems to cover all stages before the change takes place and does not differentiate between planning for the change before any action is taken and the process of gaining commitment, which is likely to involve the enactment of the plans. The refreezing stage does not include any evaluation of the organisational change, such as whether the benefits expected from the change were actually achieved. To address these points, some commentators have suggested an expanded version of Lewin's model:

Recognising the need for change

↓

Prior planning and other preparation for change

↓

Unfreezing

↓

Change

↓

Refreezing and cementing the change

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Evaluation

Despite its limitations, Lewin's model can be useful to change leaders in mapping out the various phases of a change process. It also helps to highlight that major change can be a lengthy process and might take longer than anticipated to reach a successful conclusion.

Activity 3.9: Stages of change and managers and leaders

Lewin's stages of change model provides another chance to reflect on the differences between managers and leaders. Which of the stages are more likely to involve managers and which stages are more likely to involve leaders?

As you think about this, compare Lewin's model with changes you have experienced. Pick a change you have experienced and ask yourself which stages of the model could be applied to it. Did they overlap? Were any missed out? If so, why?

3.6 Strategies for change

The term ‘strategies for change’ refers to ways of managing or leading change. They can also be described as ‘approaches to change’. In terms of Lewin’s stages of change model, the strategy for change is the approach used to implement the change during the change or movement phase.

Every organisational change is different and there is no one best approach that will fit all situations. It is the task of the change leader to decide which strategy will be most effective for the organisational change in question. It is quite possible that more than one approach will be needed.

Many writers have explored strategies for change. This section looks at two different suggestions, one by Thurley and Wirdebius and the other by Storey. Their suggestions overlap with each other but this helps to reinforce the point that there is no one strategy that will bring about successful organisational change. Choosing a suitable approach or approaches to leading change is not always easy and this section also considers Kotter’s ideas on why major change initiatives often fail.

Thurley and Wirdenius (1973) identify five strategies for planning and implementing change.

Change strategy	***What is involved***
Directive	Leaders decide what is to be done and use their authority to impose this on others.
Negotiating	Leaders initiate change but negotiate and bargain with other groups on the implementation of the change.
Normative (hearts and minds)	Leaders aim to change people's overall attitudes, values and beliefs to get commitment to shared organisational aims. Commitment and support for the particular change and for other change initiatives follows on from this.
Analytical (or problem solving)	Leaders identify problems but make use of experts, often in project teams, to devise and implement a solution.
Action-centred (participative)	Used where problems are less clearly defined and it is not obvious what changes are needed. This strategy can involve trying out solutions to problems and moving forward on the basis of what happens in each case. Leaders may adopt a less dominant role and these 'action centred' activities often involve people who will be affected by the change.

Activity 3.10(a): Strategies for change

What do you think are the advantages and disadvantages of each of these strategies as approaches to implementing organisational change?

John Storey, quoted in Hall et al (1999), suggests four different approaches.

Change approach	***What is involved***
Total imposed package	Those at the top of an organisation plan the change without consultation with others.
Imposed piecemeal initiatives	These are introduced as and when required to bring about organisational change. They are decided by those in charge.
Negotiated piecemeal initiatives	These are also introduced as and when required but in this case they are the subject of bargaining and negotiation with those involved and are not imposed directly from above.
Negotiated total package	Those at the top of an organisation devise a total change package but negotiate with those involved on the various aspects of it.

Activity 3.10(b): Strategies for change

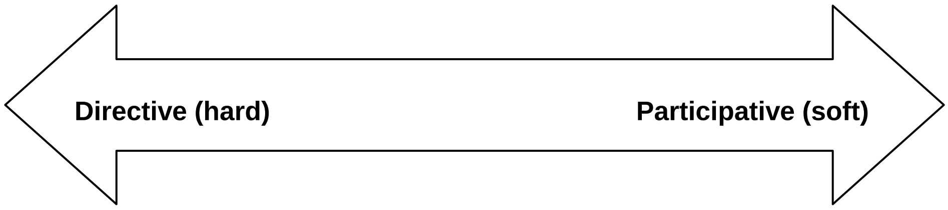
Compare Storey's four approaches to change with the five strategies suggested by Thurley and Wirdenius.

What do you think are the differences and similarities between them?

One advantage of both the above classifications is that they highlight the options available to change initiators. Remember that these are strategies for managing organisational change as a whole. They are, therefore, intended to cover all aspects of introducing organisational change. They are not the same as the methods for overcoming resistance to change that only cover part of any strategy for change. Clearly, however, strategy and methods for overcoming change are closely related to each other. It is important when carrying out change to make sure that the two are consistent with each other. The directive strategy of Thurley and Wirdenius and Storey's imposed strategies, for example, would fit with the explicit and implicit coercion method of overcoming resistance to change. Conversely, participation and involvement as a method of overcoming resistance to change is unlikely to succeed if it is accompanied by a directive strategy.

Factors affecting the choice of strategy

Choosing a suitable strategy is a vital part of the work of a change initiator. One way to tackle this is to use what is known as the ‘strategic continuum’ or the ‘change continuum’.



Directive ***Expert*** ***Negotiating*** ***Analytical*** ***Action Centred***

Imposed ***Piecemeal***

Short term — fast	Medium to long term — slower
Urgent action required	Lack of urgency
Carefully planned	Little planning at the outset
Little involvement of others	Considerable involvement and participation
Time scales clearly defined	Time scales not clear
Clear objectives	Objectives ambiguous
Resistance can be readily overcome	Reducing resistance will take time
Initiator has a lot of power	Power of initiator is limited
Perception of problem shared by all	No consensus on the problem
Interest in problem limited and well-defined	Interest in problem widespread and ill-defined
Source of problem is internal	Source of problem is external

(Adapted from Kotter and Schlesinger (1979)
and McCalman and Paton (1992))

The continuum covers the range of strategies but it could also represent time. The items below the continuum list the various factors that could influence the choice of change strategy. For example, where there is an urgent need for change and the change initiators have a lot of power, a directive or an imposed strategy would be suitable. If, however, a lot of resistance is anticipated, it might be necessary to move along the continuum to the right and choose a less directive approach, such as a negotiating strategy.

The diagram maps the change continuum with the ideas of Story and Thurley and Wirdenius. Neither of the approaches, however, matches perfectly and the mapping should be seen as only a rough approximation.

Activity 3.11: Choosing a strategy for change

Go back to the list of changes you made in Activity 3.1 and pick one change.

For each characteristic under the change continuum, locate this change on the continuum. (You can do this by placing a cross for each characteristic on the diagram above.)

On the basis of your crosses, decide where the change would fit on the overall change continuum.

Finally, think about the strategy that was followed for the change. Was it appropriate?

If so, why? If not, why not?

Bringing it all together: Leadership and change

This Outcome has stressed that organisational change can take many forms. One important distinction, though, is between large-scale transformative change and small-scale ongoing change. Much of the literature on organisational change concentrates on large-scale change and the implication is that the leaders play a key role in this change. Any large-scale change will impact on day-to-day operations which are seen more as the responsibility of managers. Leaders may be involved in smaller scale changes but some changes of this type relate more to operational improvements. Managers usually take responsibility for changes of this type.

Perhaps, as Outcome 1 suggests, the difference is one of semantics rather than substance. All organisations have to respond to internal and external pressures. As a result, some change, whether large or small, is a fact of organisational life. Whether those who initiate and implement change are described as managers or leaders is probably not important. What is important is that where change is made, it is effective and improves the way the organisation works. As we have seen, this also means recognising that change is a process and that there are several stages to organisational change. It also involves choosing suitable strategies for change and, where necessary, appropriate methods to overcome resistance to change.

Despite this, there is no doubt that the characteristics used to describe leaders are also associated with the requirements for carrying out successful transformational change. Perhaps, therefore, it is appropriate to end by returning to the work of John Kotter.

In an article called 'Leading Change' published in the Harvard Business Review in 1995, he identified eight factors that lead to successful transformational change. He also identified eight parallel errors that result in unsuccessful attempts to bring about transformative change. The table below lists both sets of factors.

	Steps to transforming an organisation	***Errors***
1	*Establishing a sense of urgency*	Not establishing a great enough sense of urgency
2	*Forming a powerful coalition*	Not creating a powerful enough guiding coalition
3	*Creating a vision*	Lacking a vision
4	*Communicating the vision*	Under-communicating the vision by factor of 10
5	*Empowering others to act on the vision*	Not removing obstacles to the new vision
6	*Planning for and creating short-term wins*	Not systematically planning for and creating short-term wins
7	*Consolidating improvements and producing still more change*	Declaring victory too soon
8	*Institutionalising new approaches*	Not anchoring changes in the corporation's culture

Activity 3.12: Final thoughts

What do you think? Is there a difference between managers and leaders?

What about major changes you have experienced? Can you apply Kotter's eight steps and/or eight errors to them? If you can, do they help to explain what happened?

There are no comments on this activity — it's now time for you to decide how you can use the ideas in this Outcome to analyse the role of the leader in managing organisational change in your part of the organisation.

You have now completed the support pack for Leadership. We hope you have found it enjoyable and informative.

Suggested solutions to Activities

Comment on Activity 1.1

When faced with a question like this people usually choose someone they admire. Favourites are well-known historical/political figures such as Winston Churchill, Martin Luther King and Mahatma Gandhi or football managers such as Alex Ferguson and Jock Stein — choices like this depend on what your interests are, of course! Business people like Richard Branson and Anita Roddick are also sometimes mentioned. Other common suggestions are bosses who have inspired people, often because they have helped them or others through difficult circumstances.

It is likely that the people you chose will have had a history of achievement and success in the field in which they work or have worked. This does raise the question of whether someone has to be successful in order to be a leader.

Another interesting point is that the term ‘leader’ is often associated with high profile individuals.

Comment on Activity 1.2

Your answer might well depend on the leaders you chose. However, it is quite likely that they were involved with a change of some sort, for example in attitude or performance, and that they had a clear idea of where they wanted to go. It is likely too that they took some risks and did inspire personal loyalty by aligning people to them. They might well have upset some people along the way too.

If you did find that your leaders also behaved like managers, what do you think this says about the difference between leaders and managers?

Is it possible, perhaps, that, at different times, the same people can act more like leaders and, at other times, behave more like managers?

Comment on Activity 1.3

There is no right answer to the question. The important thing is to recognise that those in promoted positions have to deal with maintaining existing activities and implementing change. In other words, they have to act as both managers and leaders. This will be the case regardless of whether they are referred to as first line managers or as team leaders.

It is also the case that leadership is no longer the prerogative of senior management. Modern organisations expect a leadership approach at all levels in the sense that those in promoted posts are expected to influence others to achieve goals.

Comment on Activity 1.4

Again, there is no right answer. However, if leadership is about influencing people to achieve goals, then the functions seem to fit quite well. If members of a team or a group are to get things done, they have to make sure that they know where they are going (strategic) and that they have specific things to do (tasks). Also, the group will have work together (maintenance).

Comment on Activity 1.5

Most organisations have people like this. These are the people who seem able to bind others together and to build a common purpose. In some cases, they are more of a leader than the person who is supposed to take the leader role.

Informal leaders are usually good at defusing difficult situations and at building communication between team members.

Comment on Activity 1.6

The use of terms like ‘self-starter’ or ‘flexibility’ is still common. However, organisations often try to be more precise in what they mean. For example, advertisements often carefully specify the context in which leaders will work and also how performance will be measured.

Handy points out that these terms are often used as shorthand for the criteria to be used to judge applicants for positions. In advertisements, there is not always enough space to give full details of exactly what is required.

Comment on Activity 1.7

What did you think about where you were placed on the managerial grid? Do you think it accurately reflects your style as a leader?

Remember this is a short questionnaire and it might not be a particularly good guide to what you would do, or actually do, as a leader or manager.

Comment on Activity 1.8

You might not have been able to think of examples for every step. However, this exercise should help you to get to grips with the various styles that Tannenbaum and Schmidt suggest.

You could compare the factors that could have influenced each example. Which of them were attributable to forces in the situation, which to forces in the subordinates and which to forces in the manager?

You might have found, for example, that where things were urgent and there was a set procedure to be followed, leaders tended to adopt a style to the left of the continuum. Where subordinates and leaders were very familiar with the situation, the style of the leader would probably have been towards the right of the continuum.

Comment on Activity 1.9

One example could be a situation which is not routine but does happen fairly frequently, for example where there are clear procedures to be followed and a senior person usually takes charge. This person would have strong position power. If they are also respected, then it is likely that they will operate in a task-oriented way by emphasising the need to get the job done. They may pay little attention to anything else.

Comment on Activity 1.10

One example could be leading a team of new people with limited knowledge of the work to be done and who perhaps lack self-confidence. In this case, a directive style is likely to work well as people like this will need considerable guidance and direction.

Look at Dr Woolard's website at www.drwoolard.com. It contains some advice on how leaders can use path goal theory. It also has a questionnaire on locus of control, which is a term to describe how independently-minded a person is. Team members with a high locus of control are less likely to respond to a directive style.

Comment on Activity 1.11

There are many possibilities here. However, if there is a match, why has it arisen? It could have happened by coincidence, perhaps, or maybe the leader has been able to adapt his or her style.

If there isn't a match what consequences does it have? It could be, for example, that team members are frustrated at being told what to do when they feel perfectly capable of working out what is required for themselves. Alternatively, team members might be floundering because the team leader thinks that they know what to do and is not giving the direction that team members would like.

Comment on Activity 1.12

What do you think of your EQ or EI score? Is it valid?

Questionnaires like the ones above do not usually give a detailed analysis, so it's not often easy to work out which components of EQ represent strengths or weaknesses as far as you are concerned. This means it can be difficult to apply the results of any test like this. However, it might help you to think about whether developing your EQ would help you to become a more effective leader or manager.

Comment on Activity 1.13

There are several common factors. Most theories have some reference to the task-oriented and people-oriented styles identified by the behaviour approach for example. There are similarities in the contingent factors which they also identify — Fiedler, path goal theory and Hersey and Blanchard all emphasise members of the team, although not always in the same way. All four consider the role of the leader — in motivating team members in path-goal theory and in developing emotional intelligence for example.

The main lesson is that leaders should consider the fit between the various factors in any situation. The theories differ in the degree of flexibility that leaders are expected to have but all share the notion that effective performance arises when leadership style is consistent with the demands of the situation.

Put another way, leaders are likely to achieve effective performance when there is a match between the leader, the led, the task to be done and the organisational environment.

Comment on Activity 1.14

Transactional leadership is frequently presented as a shorthand for the various approaches to leadership that preceded transformational leadership.

The behavioural approach illustrates the transaction idea well. Leaders pay attention to the needs of team members and in return team members get the task done. Contingency approaches are more sophisticated in the sense that they recognise that the situation may affect the nature of the exchange. In the directing stage of Hersey and Blanchard's model, for example, team members need a task-oriented approach as otherwise nothing will get done — leader and followers both wish to avoid the adverse consequences of poor team performance and recognise that a directive style will succeed in preventing this from happening.

Comment on Activity 1.15

It is easy to see why this criticism has been made. Transformational leadership seems to concentrate on changing whole organisations. People who have done this (like Steve Jobs of Apple Computers) are often presented as larger-than-life figures who possess special personal characteristics.

On the other hand, transformational leadership is compatible with leadership taking place at all levels in the organisation, including the very top. This is partly because transformation cannot take place unless this is the case. This is also why the strategic function is part of the functions of leadership. As already noted Collins (2001) and Baradacco (2001) are sceptical of the idea of a heroic leader.

Nevertheless, transformational leadership suggests that there are some people who do have particular qualities that help them to become successful leaders. These qualities vary from individual to individual. Possession of them helps some people to become successful leaders but it does not mean that only these people can act in a leadership role. It is possible for people to be trained as leaders, for example by developing their emotional intelligence as Goleman suggests.

Comment on Activity 1.16

You might find that your answers are quite similar to the points made earlier about contingency theory. If the team are experienced and skilful, then the leader's behaviour may concentrate on maintaining team morale and cohesion as the task and the strategic direction may look after themselves.

Comment on Activity 1.17

There is no one right answer to this question, as the impact can vary from time to time and between organisations.

Colleagues at the same level have, perhaps, a more indirect influence than more senior colleagues. The latter can influence what tasks a leader has to accomplish (and perhaps how structured they are). They are also be able to influence which people join the leader's team. Colleagues at the same level are able to exert peer pressure to behave in a consistent way so that members of different teams do not compare some leaders unfavourably with others.

Comment on Activity 1.18

Most organisations are at the mature stage and yours may be no exception. It is possible, though, for parts of an organisation to be at different stages, for example a mature organisation might have set up a subsidiary operation that is quite distinct from the parent organisation and might be at either the birth or the growth stage.

Mature organisations have established procedures and usually have a settled culture. These, as we have seen, influence what a leader can do and how it is done in very specific and precise ways. They can limit the styles that are open to a leader, for example.

New organisations do not have settled procedures and leaders, therefore, have to spend time structuring the task for team members. On the other hand, team members might well be highly motivated.

Comment on Activity 1.19

If you look at the site you'll see that most of the applications are of relevance to people who work in different cultures.

If a leader works in one culture only, it will be less easy to work out how socio-cultural factors influence the leader's work. One reason for this is that it is hard to recognise our own cultural norms and values because we have grown up with them.

Usually our own values and norms only become apparent when we come into contact with someone from another cultural background.

Comment on Activity 1.20

Your response will obviously be affected by your own organisation.

However, you should be able to identify specific aspects of diversity that affect the task, maintenance and strategic functions of a leader. For example, leaders may be required to help articulate the organisational vision by developing an organisation that respects and values diversity. This could make the strategic function more important for some leaders than it was previously.

In a multicultural society, leaders can find that their behaviour has to be sensitive to cross-cultural issues. As we have seen, this can impact on the style which a leader uses.

Comment on Activity 2.1

A powerful person could be an individual who has a high rank in an organisation, such as Chief Constable or the Captain of a ship.

Individuals like this may be obeyed without question, regardless of the kind of interaction in which they are involved.

However, it might be that this only applies within the context of their organisation. A Chief Constable might not be quite as powerful when dealing with outsiders.

Comment on Activity 2.2

Authority is the main sanction that leaders have. In many respects leadership style is about how a leader chooses to exercise the authority he or she has been given. An autocratic management style, for instance depends heavily on the power that the leader has by virtue of his or her position in the organisation.

Comment on Activity 2.3

You might have found it difficult to complete all the sources in each case. For example, you might not have any position power relative to your boss (although you could have it in other situations). There may be cases, though, where the opposite is true. You could have expert or knowledge power in relation to your boss, whereas she or he might not have any, or very little, in relation to you.

This exercise will help you realise that you have more power than you might have originally thought. It helps, as well, to emphasise that power can come from a variety of sources. It will also cause you to reflect on how power is exercised in the relationship between you and your boss.

From this you can go on to think about leaders and how they use power.

Comment on Activity 2.4

Your response to (a) will probably come from day-to-day operational activities. In this case, it is likely to be something that you accept and consider reasonable, such as being asked to carry out tasks or duties that are part of your job role.

Your response to (b) could also be an example of routine operational work. It could, however, be a situation that is not strictly part of your normal work. Examples could be a request for overtime or to return to something that you had thought was finished and that has recurred through no fault of yours.

Comment on Activity 2.5

This activity should help you think about whether the strategy you chose for influencing was appropriate, given the balance of power between yourself and the person or group you were trying to influence.

With hindsight would you have done things differently?

Comment on Activity 2.6

It isn't always easy to decide which of the styles fits any one person best. Many people use elements of more than one and some people use different styles on different occasions.

However, this activity can help you to reflect on how you become more effective at influencing others. You could, for example, make sure that you use influencing strategies that fit your influencing style. You might want to develop new styles so that you can deal with different situations in different ways.

You could also make sure that your style of leadership matches your styles on influencing and that you choose influencing strategies accordingly.

Comment on Activity 2.7

Your list will probably include some of the following:

- conflicts involving different types of people, for example between two individuals; between a team member and the team leader; between two groups of people; between one department and another; between senior management and other employees; between a member of your organisation and someone else such as a customer or a member of the public
- 'do or die' conflicts which arouse very strong feelings can often come out into the open
- temporary disagreements that are difficult at the time but are resolved amicably — these may have been quite brief, such as someone losing their temper
- conflicts that have led to resentment but which may not have spilled out in the open, for example when someone did not get what they felt was their due.

Comment on Activity 2.8

You will probably have mentioned some or all of the following:

- one person making disparaging comments about another
- a department being slow to respond to a request from another department
- uncomfortable silences during conversations or at meetings
- change in behaviour, for example someone who was previously co-operative becomes obstructive
- attempts to avoid someone, for example unwillingness to deal with a particular customer or client
- hostility or jealousy between different parts of an organisation.

Comment on Activity 2.9

If you think conflict is a bad thing, you could be taking a unitary perspective. This may lead you to see those involved in conflict as 'troublemakers' and there may be a danger that you overlook legitimate grievances. On the other hand, it might also help you to work quickly towards a solution which minimises any disruption but also tackles the source of the conflict.

If you think conflict can be constructive or destructive, you are taking a pluralist perspective. This could lead you to play down the notion of 'troublemakers' and find ways to minimise the destructive aspects of any conflict, while seeking to gain benefits from it. This in turn could lead you to give priority to handling conflict over other managerial tasks.

If you think conflict is a necessary element of progress, you are likely to see conflict as constructive rather than destructive. Your approach to handling it will emphasise making sure that it doesn't get out of control.

NB The above are ideas only and are not 'right' or 'wrong'. They will help you to reflect on your own work as a manager/leader and the work of other managers/leaders that you have come across.

(Handy (1999) refers to factors like the above as 'symptoms of organisational conflict'.)

Comment on Activity 2.10

You have probably identified some quite specific causes — for example X asked Y to do something and Y refused; Department A did not tell us what they were going to do.

These specific causes can be related to the layers. For example, X and Y do not get on; Department A thinks their work is more important than anyone else's and that everyone should do things their way.

You will have found too that it isn't always easy to identify the cause(s) of a conflict. Sometimes, even those who are parties to a conflict may not always know exactly why it arose.

Comment on Activity 2.11

It's quite possible that more than one of the styles was used in a particular situation. However, think about how the conflict situations you identified differ from each other and compare them to the table above. How appropriate were they and did they succeed in resolving the conflict?

Most people instinctively prefer some of the styles to the others. This can provide a useful lesson. There are likely to be circumstances when your preferred style(s) may not help you to resolve the conflict. In these circumstances the five styles may help you decide what to do or help you realise why you are having difficulty in resolving the conflict.

Comment on Activity 2.12

It's quite likely that you have been able to think of quite a lot of different examples. Some will be routine aspects of your day-to-day work such as agreeing with others how to approach a particular task at work, or swapping duties with someone else. Others will be more formal, such as negotiations about pay and conditions. You might also have thought of examples from your domestic life such as agreements with your partner over who will undertake particular tasks. Other examples could be haggling in markets when on holiday or agreeing the price of a house or a car.

Comment on Activity 2.13

After a win-win, the chances are that both parties felt comfortable with the outcome and would be happy to negotiate again. After a lose-lose, both parties will have been disappointed. This could spill over into lingering resentment or anger and could jeopardise any future negotiations. One of the parties after a win-lose might have been very pleased but the opposite will have been true of the other. It is possible too that any benefits will only be short-term as, in the longer term the losing party will attempt to re-assert their position. They could also attempt to frustrate the agreement. A common outcome of labour agreements is that absenteeism and labour turnover increase if the employee side sees the outcome of negotiations as unsatisfactory.

This activity should also help you to reflect on why win-win is considered to be the ideal outcome of a negotiation.

Comment on Activity 2.14

Your examples will probably illustrate the fact that the stages overlap and it's not always clear when one stage moves into the next. The stages will, however, help you to see why some negotiations were less successful than others. They will also draw attention to some of the pitfalls of negotiation such as:

- coming to an ambiguous agreement
- not finding out what issues were important to the other party
- not establishing any common ground
- not taking time to reach an agreement.

NB The above are only some examples of possible problems that arise in negotiation. You might have thought of others.

Comment on Activity 2.15

This activity will help you to realise that we often engage in these behaviours unconsciously. It is easy, for instance, to use an irritator without recognising the effect that it has on the other party. Arguments between parents and teenage children are often good examples, where both sides use these behaviours.

Comment on Activity 3.1

Your list probably has several different types of change. You might have been involved in introducing some, while others may have been imposed on you by other people. You could have been in favour of some changes but opposed to others. In some cases you might have been against the change but, afterwards, felt it had been beneficial. Some will have worked well but others will have been less effective and may even have been abandoned. Some will have met a lot of resistance while others have passed off very smoothly.

The impact of the change will probably have been influenced by those responsible for the change. If your list has examples like this, think about what those in charge did and how this fits in with what you have already read about leadership.

Comment on Activity 3.2

Activity 3.1 asked you to focus on changes you felt strongly about. You probably felt much more strongly about radical changes. As a result, all the changes you listed may be radical. You could reflect on whether this means that ongoing change is less controversial than radical change.

Comment on Activity 3.3

There is no 'right' answer to the last question. However, try reflecting on the idea that the same person may have to act as a manager in some cases and a leader in others. Perhaps leaders are mostly involved in radical change, while managers have a greater involvement in small-scale change.

Comment on Activity 3.4

Again, there are no 'right' answers to this activity. Remember that using PESTEL, like force-field analysis, is subjective and your perception of what is happening can have a big effect on your conclusions.

Persuade someone else in your part of the organisation to attempt this activity and compare your response with theirs. Alternatively, comparison with another student's PESTEL analysis of their part of the organisation can be useful in highlighting different views.

Comment on Activity 3.5

Your response will be even more subjective than that for Activity 3.4 because there is no common framework to structure your thoughts. Remember that this doesn't make it invalid — it is just your thoughts.

Again, explore whether others in your part of the organisation would identify the same internal forces for change as you have done.

There could be lessons for leaders who deal with change here too. If you are leading change, check your views against those of others. They might not see things in the same way.

There is no comment on Activity 3.6.

Comment on Activity 3.7

Think about the following issues:

- Do the drivers exceed the resistors? If so, why?
- Which is the strongest driver and which is the strongest resistor? Why do you think this is the case?
- If you had to lead a change, how could you make use of this force field diagram?

Again, discuss your diagram with someone who is familiar with the change and see how far they agree with your assessment of the drivers and resistors.

You could also look at www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newTED_06.htm which has an example of a force field analysis.

There is no comment on Activity 3.8.

Comment on Activity 3.9

Leaders usually play a key role in the unfreezing stage, while managers are often more involved in the refreezing stage. Both have parts to play in the change stage but leaders focus on the overall direction of the change leaving managers to look after the day-to-day operational aspects of implementation. These are general statements though and each change is likely to be different.

A common experience is that little attention is paid to the refreezing stage, or it is missed out completely. This can mean that things slip back to what they were before the change.

Comment on Activity 3.10

3.10(a)

To some extent the advantages and disadvantages depend on the particular organisational change concerned. A directive strategy can be very quick and may be the only available option if change is urgent, even though it may cause some resentment. An action centred strategy involves other people and can be a good way of building commitment. It is time-consuming, but this will not cause difficulties if change is expected to be a gradual process of working out the best ways to move forward. An action centred strategy and an analytical strategy both work well for small-scale changes, whereas a normative strategy would suit a large scale transformative change.

3.10(b)

Storey's seems to concentrate on imposed and negotiated approaches, which seem to correspond to the directive and negotiated strategies of Thurley and Wirdenius. In this sense his is a less comprehensive view of the possible strategies available.

On the other hand, his distinction between piecemeal initiatives and total packages highlights the fact that organisational change covers both large-scale and small-scale changes and can take place at different levels. It also draws attention to the fact that organisational change may consist of ongoing small developments interspersed with big transformative initiatives. In addition, because they are piecemeal, on-going small scale developments will not always fit well together.

Comment on Activity 3.11

As before, there is no 'correct' answer. However you might have found some of the following:

- your crosses for the various characteristics are scattered along the continuum — this suggests that any organisational change is complex and does not fit neatly into pre-determined categories
- your change could have involved several strategies and not just the one implied by the Activity — again this is normal and reinforces the point that a change initiator may have to follow more than one strategy

- some characteristics do not operate along a continuum, for example change is urgent but there is substantial resistance to it – again this illustrates the complexity of organisational change.

There is no comment for Activity 3.12

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NB The above covers most of the material referred to in the text. It includes two well-known management textbooks. They are:

Buchanan, D. and Huczynski, A., *Organisational Behaviour: An Introductory Text*

Mullins, L. *Management and Organisational Behaviour*

Both are readily available and provide useful further reading.

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This is only a small selection of the websites available. There are many others, which contain useful ideas, material and exercises. One way to find out which ones could be relevant is to use Google or another search engine and type in the appropriate theory, model or concept. The results can sometimes be daunting! Typing ‘path goal theory’ into Google for example gets almost 28 million hits.