Part 1: Foundations

Chapter 2: Global Leadership: Key Concepts and Frameworks

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Abstract

This chapter provides an overview of key concepts and frameworks relating to global leadership. Spencer-Oatey starts by considering a range of definitions of leadership and then, drawing on those various definitions, argues that the enactment of leadership is a multiplex involving four key elements: leader, followers, purpose, and context. She explores each of these facets in turn, illustrating how they interact dynamically. She draws particular attention to the leader-follower relational dynamic and explains how Redeker et al's (2014) leadership circumplex, which was used in case study data collection, can offer helpful insights. The chapter ends by considering the notion of global leadership and by touching on the various routes that people can take to develop into a global leader.

Keywords: Defining leadership; leadership multiplex; leaders and followers; leaders and context/purpose; global leadership

2.1 Defining leadership

Leadership is notoriously difficult to define. Over 40 years ago, Ralph Stogdill (1974) argued that "there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (p. 7). Gary Yukl (2013), in his well-known book on leadership in organisations, recently argued along the same lines, maintaining that the following comment by Bennis (1959, p. 260) is as true today as it was back in 1959:

> Always, it seems, the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. So we have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it … and still the concept is not sufficiently defined. (Yukl, 2013, p. 18)

Nevertheless, people continue to put forward definitions, including Yukl himself, some referring to 'leaders' and others to 'leadership'. A few examples are given in Table 2.1.

Definitions of leaders and leadership	**Focus**
"Leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members." (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004, p. 15)	Ability/Competence
"… leaders must have the ability to induce 'cognitive redefinition' by articulating and selling new values and concepts or creating the conditions for others to find these new values and concepts. They must be able to bring to the surface, review, and change some of the group's basic assumptions. … the leader must be able not only to lead but also to listen, to involve the group in achieving its own insights into its cultural dilemmas, and to be genuinely participative in his or her approach to learning and change." (Schein, 2010, p. 382)	Ability

"Leaders need to shape the future, get things done, manage others, invest in others, and demonstrate personal proficiency." (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2012, p. 32)	Behaviour
"Leaders determine or clarify goals for a group of individuals and bring together the energies of members of that group to accomplish these goals." (Keohane, 2014, p. 152)	Behaviour
"Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives." (Yukl, 2013, p. 23)	Process
"Leadership is an activity or set of activities, observable to others, that occurs in a group, organization or institution, and which involves a leader and followers who willingly subscribe to common purposes and work together to achieve them." (Clark & Clark, 1996, p. 25)	Process
"Leadership is not a person or a position. It is a complex moral relationship between people based in trust, obligation, commitment, and a shared vision of the good." (Ciulla, 2014, p. xv)	Relationship

Table 2.1: Definitions of leaders and leadership and their foci

As Table 2.1 indicates, these definitions take different stances towards leaders and leadership, some focusing on the leader (his/her ability/competence and behaviour) and others focusing on leadership as a process and as a relationship. Is it possible, then, to gain an overarching perspective to what Ulrich and Smallwood (2012, p. 10) refer to as a 'hodgepodge of ideas' and 'concept clutter'? One possibility is to build on the definition given by Clark and Clark (1996) (see Table 2.1). They identify leadership as an activity or process that has a number of interconnected elements: a leader and followers, who work in a particular organisation or context and have a common purpose or aim. In this view, leadership is not simply the behaviour or qualities of the person in charge (i.e. the leader); rather it is the enactment of a complex and dynamic interaction of four key elements, as shown in Figure 2.1. We call this the leadership multiplex.

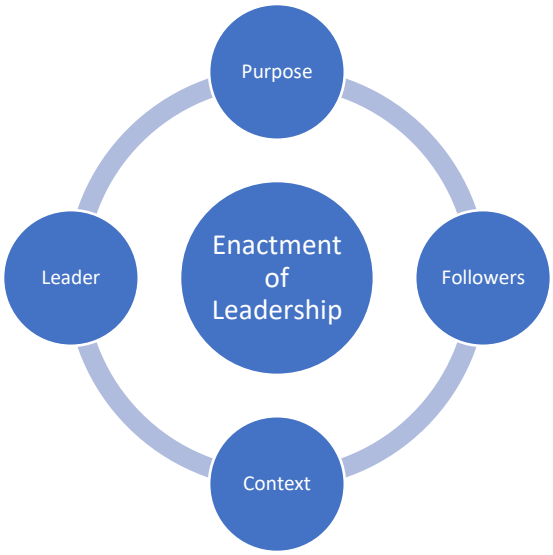

Figure 2.1: The leadership multiplex

This perspective is in line with that put forward by Ladkin (2010). She suggests that leadership is like a cube that can be viewed from different angles, and likewise proposes that there are four key elements. She argues that all people associated with leadership (traditionally labelled as leaders and followers) inevitably function within a context (a community that typically has a history and its own organisational culture) and have some kind of raison d'être or purpose. Moreover, all of these elements (leaders, followers, context, purpose) interact dynamically, in that the followers' interpretations of the purpose and the context (for example) will influence how they interpret what the leader says and does; similarly, the converse will be true of the leaders' interpretations.

We feel this dynamic conceptualisation, which we label the leadership multiplex, is particularly helpful and we draw on it throughout the book. It also forms the organising principle for this chapter.

2.2 Focus on the leader

A very large proportion of the literature on leadership has focused on the person of the leader, seeking to identify the characteristics of 'great leaders'. This is typically done through studying and/or interviewing (highly) successful leaders and identifying their traits, characteristics and/or behaviours, in the hope of specifying the 'key ingredients' of a successful leader. Bird (2013) reports that over 150 different competencies have been associated with global leadership effectiveness, and a study by the Council for Excellence in Management and Leadership (2002) lists an even larger number of leadership competencies. This is clearly far too large a number for ease of handling, especially in terms of leadership development. However, as Bird (2013) argues, very often there are conceptual overlaps in such lists and some rationalisation is both needed and feasible.

House et al. (2004), in their GLOBE study, identified 21 primary leader attributes or behaviours, which they grouped into 6 categories, as shown in Table 2.2. Their aim was to explore the extent to which these characteristics are universally endorsed or are subject to contextual variation.

Leadership Behaviour	Gloss	Sub-scales
Charismatic/Value-based leadership	Ability to inspire, motivate and expect high performance outcomes from others based on firmly held core values	1. Visionary 2. Inspirational 3. Self-sacrifice 4. Integrity 5. Decisive 6. Performance oriented
Team-oriented leadership	Effective team building and implementation of common purpose or goal among team members	7. Collaborative team orientation 8. Team integrator 9. Diplomatic 10. Malevolent (reverse scored) 11. Administratively competent
Participative leadership	Degree to which managers involve others in making and implementing decisions.	12. Nonparticipative (reverse scored) 13. Autocratic (reverse scored)
Humane-oriented leadership	Supportive and considerate leadership, including compassion and generosity	14. Modesty 15. Humane orientation
Autonomous leadership	Independent and individualistic attributes	16. Autonomous leadership
Self-protective leadership	Ensuring safety and security of individual and group through status enhancement and face-saving.	17. Self-centred 18. Status conscious 19. Conflict inducer 20. Face saver 21. Procedural

Table 2.2: Project GLOBE's (House et al., 2004) conceptualisation of leader behaviour and attributes

Bird (2013) has similarly proposed a smaller set of core competencies. In his case he identified 15 competencies, divided into three categories. These are shown in Table 2.3. Bird (2013) further explains that each of these 15 competencies is a complex, multifaceted construct, spanning "predispositional, attitudinal, cognitive, behavioral, and knowledge aspects" (p.95).

Managing Self	Managing People & Relationships	Business and Organizational Acumen
1. Inquisitiveness 2. Global mindset 3. Flexibility 4. Character 5. Resilience	6. Valuing people 7. Cross-cultural communication 8. Interpersonal skills 9. Teaming skills 10. Empowering others	11. Vision & strategic thinking 12. Leading change 13. Business savvy 14. Organizational savvy 15. Managing communities

Table 2.3 Bird's (2013, p. 96) framework of nested global leadership competencies

A careful look at both House et al's (2004) and Bird's (2013) conceptualisations shows that although they were focusing on identifying the attributes or competencies of leaders, their listed competencies also incorporated other elements of the leadership multiplex. We discuss these in turn below.

2.3 Leadership and purpose/goal

Yukl (2013, p. 25) points out that an important indicator of leadership effectiveness is the extent to which goals are achieved and the performance of the organization or team is enhanced. Clearly, this is a very important element, and many companies try to measure it through a range of key performance indicators. However, it is very important to remember (as the leadership multiplex indicates), that goal achievement is affected by a number of factors.

More than 60 years ago, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1964), who were working on leadership development at the company Exxon, put forward a framework that has become a classic in the management/leadership literature. They argued that there are two key axes underlying leaders' behaviour: concern for task and concern for people. They maintained that most leaders can be categorised according to the relative importance they attach to each of the dimensions. Some have a high concern for task or production and low concern for people (authority/obedience manager), while some show the reverse tendency, paying great attention to people and attributing limited importance to task (easy-going, supportive manager).

One might assume that the most effective leader is one who pays great attention to both task and people – the Team manager in Blake and Mouton's terminology (1964). However, a more dynamic interpretation would suggest that the relative importance of each axis needs to flex and change according to the situation. Sometimes the emphasis needs to be on the task and sometimes on the people.

The need for flexibility in leadership styles has been refined and developed into a widely used leadership model, known as situational leadership, by Hersey and Blanchard (1988). The fundamental principle of their model is that there is no single "best" style of leadership. Effective leadership is on the one hand task-relevant, and on the other hand successful leaders are those who adapt their leadership style to the performance readiness (ability and willingness) of the individual or group they are attempting to lead or influence. In other words, effective leadership not only varies with the task, job or function that needs to be accomplished, but also depends on the person or group that is being influenced because the people can never be ignored.

While a conventional view of leadership expects the leader to develop a vision which sets the goal or purpose, and then to promote its adoption across the organization, Raelin (2006, p. 65) asks the fundamental question: "What happens if people in the ranks don't truly 'believe the message'?" Ladkin (2010) explains this as follows:

> The leader may well sight the far-off realm but mobilizing towards it requires stepping back into the maelstrom of followers' realities. It involves discussion, debate, compromise, experimentation, uncertainty, ambiguity, giving up long-held beliefs and taking on new ones on the part of all of those involved, including the 'leader'."
> Ladkin (2010, pp. 124-125)

This brings us to the important role of 'followers' in the leadership multiplex, which we turn to next.

2.4 The relational dynamic between leaders and followers

At this point it is important to distinguish between leaders and leadership. Often the two are treated as virtually synonymous, and the definitions given in Table 2.1 might have given that impression, as the terms 'leader' and 'leadership' are both included in the same table. However, as Figure 2.1 shows, leadership is a multiplex of several factors, all of which interact. In relation to this, Ladkin

(2010) draws a distinction between 'headship' on the one hand, which is held by the person in the group or team with the highest level of authority or hierarchical power, and leadership on the other, which is a process of influence that moves among different individuals as they contribute their different areas of expertise in completing a task. In terms of French and Raven's (1959) conceptualisation of power, a head or leader has legitimate power, but different members of a team or organization may have different types of expert power and they may each perform leadership at different stages of a project when one or other takes the lead over certain aspects.

Nevertheless, 'heads' or 'leaders' may take different stances towards this, as we have already indicated in our discussion above of Blake and Mouton's leadership grid (1964). In fact, several theories of leadership style that revolve around the leader–follower dynamic have been proposed, with two important ones being transformational leadership and servant leadership. Burns (1978) initially brought the notion of transformational leadership to prominence and it was further developed by Bass (1985) who identified a number of key transformational leadership characteristics (cited by Harrison, 2018, pp. 47-48):

1. Leaders behave in ways that inspire and motivate their followers;
2. Followers view leaders as role models;
3. Leaders stimulate their followers to be creative and innovative;
4. Leaders treat their followers differently, promoting each follower's personal growth.

These ideas are taken a step further by Greenleaf (1977/2002) who proposed the notion of servant leadership and the following basic precepts (cited by Daft with Lane, 2014):

1. Put service before self-interest: the organization exists as much to provide meaningful work to the person as the person exists to perform work for the organization;
2. Listen first to affirm others: one of the servant leader's greatest gifts to others is listening authentically.
3. Inspire trust by being trustworthy: servant leaders build trust by doing what they say they will do, being honest with others, and focusing on the well-being of others.
4. Nourish others and help them become whole.

Despite the positive-sounding nature of transformational and servant leadership, they have still been criticised (e.g. by Yukl, 2013). For example, it is not clear how a servant leadership style can cope with effectively periods of organisational turbulence and the need to downsize.

An alternative framework that can capture the leader–follower relationship in a more nuanced way is one proposed by Redeker, de Fries, Rouckhout, Vermeren, and Filip (2014). Their model is based on a widely accepted premise among psychology scholars (e.g. Acton & Revelle, 2002; Wiggins, 1979) that interpersonal interactions are best summarised by two main dimensions, agency and affiliation, which in turn relates to the circumplex model of interpersonal behaviour developed by Leary (1957).

The scale ends of these dimensions have been variously named as follows:

- Dimension 1: Agency: Control/dominance/authority vs. flexibility/submission/disengaged
- Dimension 2: Affiliation: Warm/friendly/trusting vs. cold/hostile/distrustful

These two dimensions or axes have been shown to underlie a much larger set of interpersonal traits that have been organised into a circumplex. Redeker et al. (2014) have proposed that the same fundamental conceptualisation can be applied to leadership, focusing on the interactional styles that leaders may have with their followers. Their leadership circumplex is shown in Figure 2.2 and

explanations of the different leadership styles are given in Table 2.4. As we explain in Chapter 5, we used this framework as a key foundation for some of the data collection for each of the case studies.

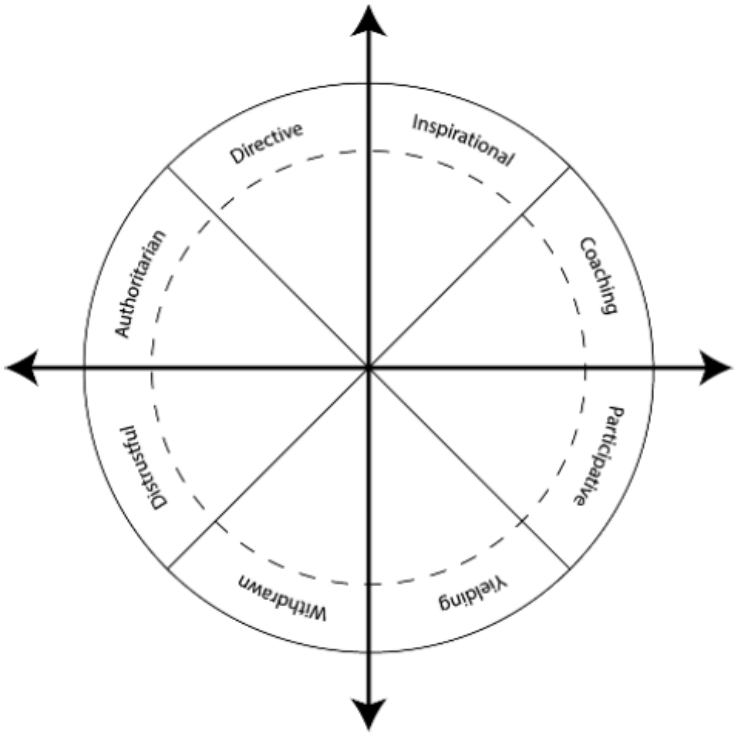

Fig. 2.2: The leadership circumplex (from Redeker et al., 2014, p. 442)

Leadership Style	Gloss (Tendencies to …)
Coaching	… show their appreciation for their subordinates and let them know how important they are; stimulate their subordinates through positive communication; listen to the opinion of their subordinates
Inspirational	… stimulate and persuade subordinates through a clear vision; act decisively when performance and/or organizational problems arise, and motivate subordinates to perform optimally
Directive	… try to reach success competitively; actively monitor and correct subordinates; behave strictly towards subordinates
Authoritarian	… force subordinates to obey them, be harsh on subordinates, and to not accept criticism
Distrustful	… be suspicious of the motives of subordinates; be quick and negative in their judgement; stay distant from their subordinates
Withdrawn	… be personally and professionally absent; avoid confrontations and responsibilities; act too late when problems arise
Yielding	… be very flexible when interacting with subordinates; be hesitant to provide guidance; put the subordinates' interest above the company's interest, and avoid being the centre of attention
Participative	… include subordinates in all processes; easily accept and incorporate subordinates' propositions; show their understanding of the feelings and emotions of their subordinates

Table 2.4: Leadership styles of the leadership circumplex (Redeker et al., 2014, p. 441)

Redeker et al. (2014) do not evaluate whether some styles are 'better' than others; their aim is to demonstrate the psychometric validity of the model. Yet the labelling seems to suggest that certain leadership styles are positive while others are negative; for example, styles that combine warmth with control (inspirational and coaching styles) sound positive while styles that combine coldness with disengagement (distrustful and withdrawn styles) sound very negative. However, the situation is likely to be more complex than this. On the one hand, each end of the two core dimensions could have positive and negative versions, as Figures 2.3 and 2.4 illustrate.

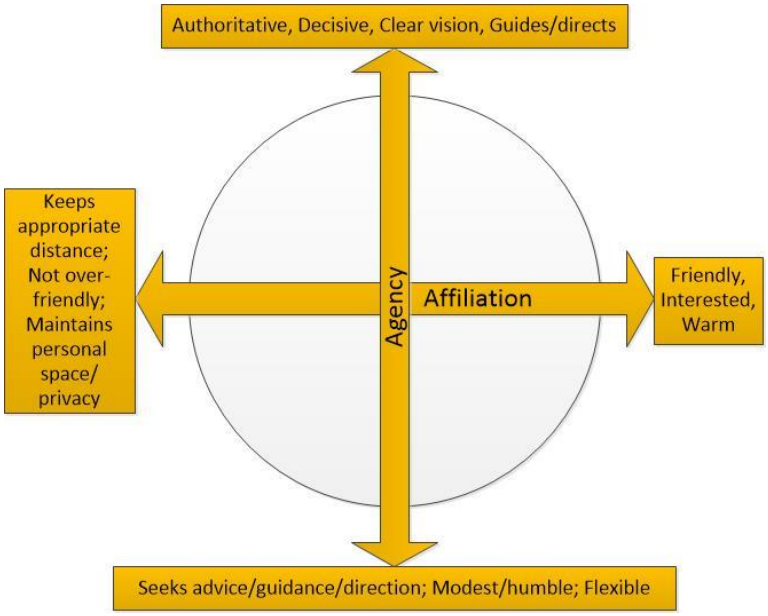

Fig. 2.3: Adaptive variant of the interpersonal circumplex

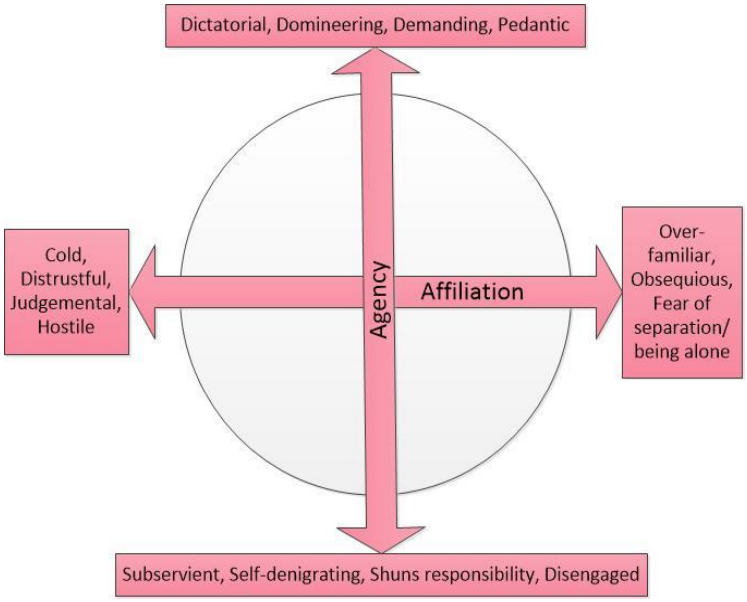

Fig. 2.4: Maladaptive variant of the interpersonal circumplex

A second complexity is that the quality of the relationship between leaders and followers is to a large extent dependent on the expectations of leadership that they all hold. If they are compatible, then everyone may feel satisfied, but if leaders and followers hold differing expectations, then tensions and dissatisfaction are likely to arise. For example, if followers want and expect their leader to give clear instructions, and this is what the leader does, then their respective expectations match

and all is well. On the other hand, if the followers want and expect their leader to give clear instructions while the leader prefers a more participative style, both parties may be dissatisfied. As Molinsky (2013, pp. 6-7) illustrates with an authentic story of an American manager in India, the followers may interpret the lack of instructions from their boss as evidence of incompetence, while the leader may judge the followers as not showing enough initiative. A similar mismatch of expectations is evident in several of our case studies, especially between young and senior leaders.

In the next section we consider the potential sources of such different expectations, but here we note another important aspect of the dynamic between leaders and followers – the power of stories. As Ladkin (2010) points out, it is normal for stories about leaders to circulate widely among followers. The leader him/herself is very rarely present when such stories are told and re-told, and typically has very little control over their spread. Sometimes the stories may be positive, but equally often (or perhaps more often) they may be negative. In large organisations, the only way in which some followers will know anything about their leaders is through the stories that are told about them, and they will have little or no opportunity to assess how accurate or otherwise those stories are. From a leader's point of view, it is important to be aware that however accurate or inaccurate the stories are, they inevitably impact on the leader's reputation, either enhancing it in the eyes of the followers or else undermining it. Stories are thus enormously powerful influences on the dynamic of the relationship between leader and follower, with the power to shift it positively or negatively. It behoves leaders, therefore, to be very consciously aware of this phenomenon, even though they can rarely control stories per se since such stories are first and foremost socially constructed and interpreted by others. In our case study chapters, we report a number of stories about leaders that their followers shared, as well as stories about followers that their leaders referred to. Clearly the stories not only reflected the dynamics of the leader-follower relationships but also helped construct those relationships and hence impacted them.

2.5 Leadership and context

The fourth element of the leadership multiplex is context. Context can be interpreted in numerous ways. One way is in terms of dyadic relations, such as the relationship between a leader and an individual follower, including their various previous interactions and hence the history of their relationship. These previous interactions will affect how well they understand each other, how much they know about each other's viewpoints and can anticipate each other's reactions, how much they like each other and trust each other, and so on. These personal histories then set up expectations as to what the other will do or 'should' do, and then if expectations are not met, this can lead to disappointment and negativity. Each may judge the other to have 'fallen short', yet often those expectations are subconscious and only emerge when something goes wrong. As Ladkin (2010, p. 39) points out, followers very rarely say to a new leader 'this is what I expect of you', and yet when those subconscious expectations are not met, they typically feel annoyed and let down.

Another way of interpreting the context is in terms of community or social group. Members of the same social group often have widely shared expectations about what leaders should or should not do and what followers should or should not do. These expectations are associated with their cultural beliefs and practices, and so it is important to explore this further. Culture is notoriously difficult to define (for an overview of the concept, see Spencer-Oatey, 2012; Spencer-Oatey & Franklin, 2009, chapter 2) and one simple but helpful approach is that used by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL, 2015). They conceptualise manifestations of culture in terms of widely shared products, practices and perspectives. Moran (2001) also takes this approach, and Table 2.5 provides paraphrases of his interpretations, applying them to the workplace context.

Products	These are the 'concrete' or 'codified' aspects of culture. They include physical objects such as buildings, office furniture, office equipment, and how they are arranged (e.g. open plan or individual offices). They also include less immediately visible aspects, such as a company mission statement.
Practices	These are the regularities of behaviour that group members typically display, such as shaking hands or bowing when meeting a new client. They include common patterns of handling meetings – who chairs (the leader or a follower), who can speak when, turn-taking patterns and rights, and so on. These practices reflect the rules, conventions and norms of the social group in which we are interacting.
Perspectives	These are the deep-seated and often unconscious attitudes, values and beliefs that we hold about life and our interactions with people, such as attitude towards hierarchy, the need for modesty or self-promotion, and the relative importance of independence and self-sufficiency.

Table 2.5: Manifestations of culture according to Moran's (2001) threefold categorisation

Most cross-cultural research to date has focused on perspectives – the deep-seated values that people hold. Key figures who have taken this approach include Hofstede, 2001; House et al., 2004; Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961; Schwartz, e.g. 2011, and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 2012 (for an overview of these various frameworks, see chapter two of Spencer-Oatey & Franklin, 2009). This has resulted in a number of different conceptualisations of a range of cultural value dimensions, many of which are relevant to leadership. Some key values that are particularly pertinent are as follows:

1. *Attitude to power/hierarchical difference*: the extent to which people accept that power is/should be unequally distributed.
2. *Strength of ties among group members*: how strongly in-group and out-group members are differentiated and treated differently.
3. *Gender*: how far gender roles are differentiated.
4. *Uncertainty*: how far people accept and feel comfortable with uncertainty or have a strong need for predictability.
5. *Time*: whether people's orientation is short-term or long-term, and how far they want to plan in advance.
6. *Attitude towards the environment*: whether people feel they can and should master/control nature, seek to work in harmony with it, or submit themselves to the higher forces of nature.

The first three can particularly affect the dynamic of leader-follower relations, while the latter three can affect the goals that are set (i.e. 'purpose' in the leadership multiplex), the timeframes that are planned for achieving the goals, and how ambitious they are. Moreover, the value dimension, uncertainty–predictability, is particularly relevant to the notion of change. Leaders often instigate change of different kinds and this can have a major impact on followers. Conversely, as followers' beliefs and attitudes change (e.g. in their attitudes towards power and involvement in decision making) and as they start expecting their leaders to alter their leadership style accordingly, this can bring uncertainty to leaders, who may be more or less open to such change. Our case studies reveal that this seems to be a widespread issue, with a desire for more people-oriented leadership, including servant leadership, often being mentioned.

The cultural value dimensions mentioned above are regarded as etic concepts; in other words, they are taken as universal and thus valid for research across different societies, including for comparison purposes. However, other research focuses on specific societies and aims to identify context-

specific, emic concepts. *Ubuntu* is one such emic concept that is important in certain regions of Africa and emerged in some of our case studies.

Originally in the field of cross-cultural psychology it was implicitly assumed that people's deep-seated values directly affected their behaviour. While this can sometimes occur, it is now clear that there are two fundamental problems with this assumption. Firstly, values can be manifested in behaviour in numerous different ways; in other words, there is no one-to-one relationship between values and behaviour. For instance, suppose someone has a strong belief in hierarchical relations and is being introduced to a new senior member of staff. In one cultural context the respect may be manifested through bowing and use of honorifics/politeness particles, while in another it is shown through use of formal address terms and avoidance of colloquialisms. This can be partly because of differences in linguistic features (e.g. some languages do not have a system of honorifics) but more broadly simply because of different cultural practices. This therefore brings us to the second level of cultural manifestations – practices.

Some practices can operate at a national level (e.g. whether we drive on the right or the left), but more frequently they are quite localised and apply to smaller social groups. Let us take, for example, the handling of meetings. There can be numerous differences in terms of how much debate takes place in meetings, who chairs the meetings (the most senior 'head', another leader, or a more junior colleague), whether decisions are made by those present or whether the meetings simply ratify decisions made beforehand by a select group, and so on. Both leaders and followers build up expectations around these practices and start believing that meetings 'should' proceed in a certain way; in other words, in Cialdini's (2012) terms, the practices can become injunctive norms. Needless to say, all this can affect the dynamics of the leadership multiplex.

2.6 Global leadership

Up to now in this chapter we have not distinguished between leadership and global leadership. What then is the difference? Caligiuri (2006, p. 220) identifies ten tasks that she found to be common among – or unique to – people in global leadership positions:

a. Global leaders work with colleagues from other countries.
b. Global leaders interact with external clients from other countries.
c. Global leaders interact with internal clients from other countries.
d. Global leaders may need to speak in a language other than their mother tongue at work.
e. Global leaders supervise employees who are of different nationalities.
f. Global leaders develop a strategic business plan on a worldwide basis for their unit.
g. Global leaders manage a budget on a worldwide basis for their unit.
h. Global leaders negotiate in other countries or with people from other countries.
i. Global leaders manage foreign suppliers or vendors.
j. Global leaders manage risk on a worldwide basis for their unit.

Even a cursory glance at this list shows that 'global' is equated with 'national difference' and, in one case, with language differences. Yet this may be too narrow an interpretation. Cabrera (2012), past president of Thunderbird School of Global Management, comments as follows:

> Truly global leaders act as bridge builders, connectors of resources and talent across cultural and political boundaries. … The global mindset allows leaders to *connect* with individuals and organizations across boundaries.

In a similar vein, the World Economic Forum (2019), in relation to their Global Leadership Fellowship programme, describe global leaders as follows, also linking it with systems leadership:

> dynamic, engaged and driven individuals who possess a high degree of intellectual curiosity and service-oriented humility; an entrepreneur in the global public interest with a profound sense of purpose regardless of the scale and scope of the challenge.
>
> Systems leadership is about cultivating a shared vision for change - working together with all stakeholders of global society. It's about empowering widespread innovation and action based on mutual accountability and collaboration.

These descriptions make it clear that global leadership entails connecting across a wide range of boundaries, not just national and linguistic ones. There are all kinds of boundaries in the workplace (and beyond) that people need to work across, such as age, religious belief, professional group, and so on, and all these various boundaries can affect interaction and the leadership multiplex. This is because different cultural groupings, whatever their size, can have their own cultural practices and perspectives, which can give rise to different expectations and evaluative judgements. Figure 2.5 illustrates (not comprehensively) some of the different types of groupings that can occur. Sometimes smaller groups are nested within larger groups (e.g. a department within an organisation), but sometimes smaller groups may cut across larger groups (e.g. a team may be made up of people from different departments). Moreover, individual people can be members of multiple groups, with different individuals showing different membership constellations. In addition, of course, individuals have their own personal characteristics, such as personalities, senses of identity, personal histories and so on.

Recent theorising on leadership, diverse teams and the issue of boundaries has led to the development of a particularly useful theory: faultline theory (e.g. Chrobot-Mason, Ruderman, Weber, & Ernst, 2009; Chrobot-Mason, Ruderman, Weber, Ohlott, & Dalton, 2007; Gratton, Voigt, & Erickson, 2007; Lau & Murnighan, 1998). This theory helps explain why sharp boundaries or faultlines may appear among staff members and what leaders can do about it. Gratton et al. (2007, p. 25) offer the following overview:

> In the geological analogy to faultlines, various external factors (such as pressure) have an impact on how a fault actually fractures. … Strong faultlines emerge in a team when there are a few fairly homogeneous subgroups that are able to identify themselves. … Strong faultlines can create a fracture in the social fabric of the team. This fracture can become a source of tension and a barrier to the creation of trust and goodwill and to the exchange of knowledge and information.

Gratton et al. (2007), Chrobot-Mason et al. (2007) and Chrobot-Mason et al. (2009) all point out that managing faultlines is a major leadership challenge. Gratton et al. (2007, pp. 27-28) go on to make a number of recommendations for leaders when in charge of a diverse project team:

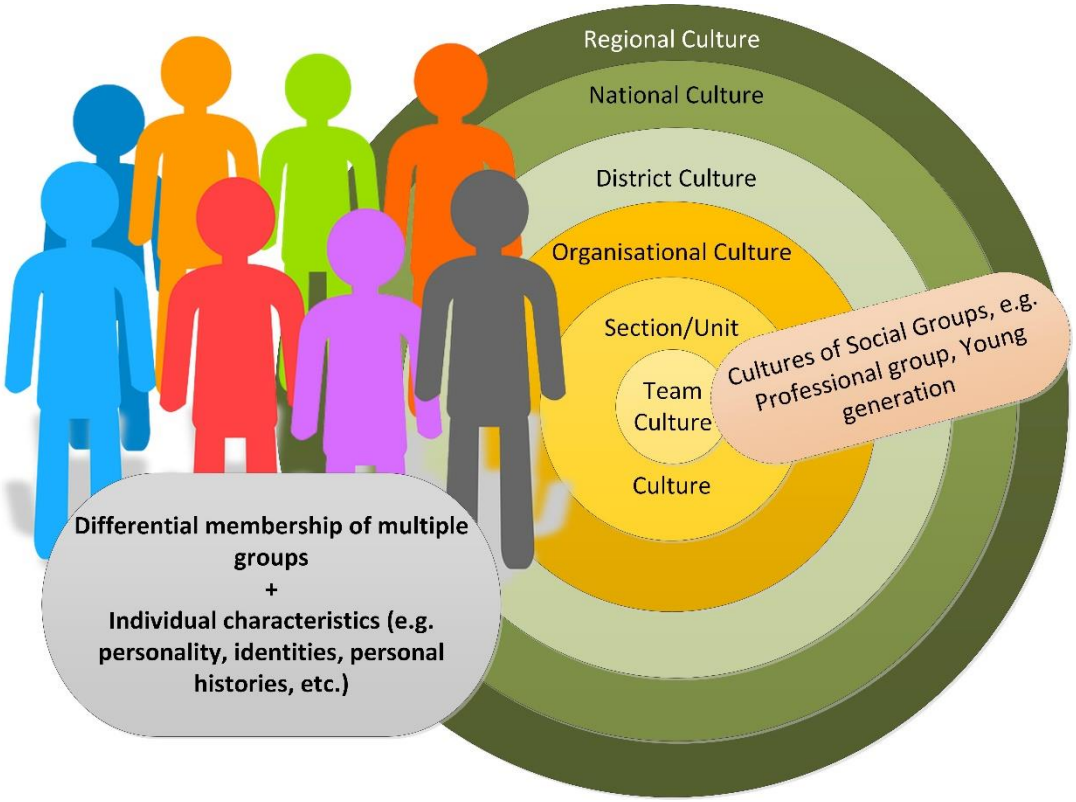

Fig. 2.5: Potential cultural groupings and boundaries that 'global leaders' need to span

1. Diagnose the probability of faultlines emerging;
2. Focus on task orientation when a team is newly formed;
3. Learn when to make the switch to a relationship orientation;
4. Switch to relationship building when the time is right

Yet strong boundaries or faultlines are not necessarily restricted to project teams – they can apply to any group of people. This is illustrated by our case studies, where age and the differential treatment of younger and older employees has emerged as a noticeable faultline source.

2.7 Route(s) to becoming a global leader

How then can individuals develop the qualities needed to become an effective global leader who can manage the various facets of the leadership multiplex with dexterity and flexibility? There are innumerable "self-help" books on leadership, and many specify a series of steps that people need to take in order to climb up the leadership ladder. For example, Maxwell (2018, p. 8) identifies five levels of leadership, arguing that people should aim to move from Level 1 to Level 5:

The five levels of leadership
Level 1 (Rights): People follow because they have to.
Level 2 (Relationships): People follow because they want to.
Level 3 (Results): People follow because of what you have done for the organization
Level 4 (Reproduction): People follow because of what you have done for them.
Level 5 (Respect: People follow because of who you are and what you represent.

The associated chapters in such books describe how to move from one level to the next. For example, Radcliffe (2012) identifies three key elements:

1. Make your practice Conscious Practice
   Most learning and growing as a leader takes place in real-life situations
2. Build your support team
   A personal support team is essential
3. Know and go beyond your limits
   Don't limit yourself – notice and reduce the ways in which you limit yourself; focus on what you're like when you're at your best.

Baum (2007) digs even more deeply than this and, in analysing a large number of successful (and less successful) leaders, points to the following elements that helped the effective leaders climb up the leadership ladder (Table 2.6).

Context/Circumstances	Attitudes	People
• Undesirable circumstances (e.g. poverty, dead-end job) lead to a strong desire for something better; • Early experiences of leadership provide a taster; • Difficult circumstances provide an opportunity to learn.	• Willingness to move out of one's comfort zone and to 'swim in water over one's head' • Willingness to learn from failure ("what really matters is how fast you get up after you're knocked down" (p.158); • Confidence to embrace risk.	• Key qualities (e.g. self-confidence) fostered by others, e.g. a parent, a teacher; • Observes and learns from others – both what to do and what not to do; • Builds contacts – for support and for a resource network; • Connect with others – understand and support other staff

Table 2.6: Factors aiding the routes to leadership (derived from Baum, 2007)

Our case studies illustrate the role of many of these factors.

2.8 Concluding comments

In this chapter we have provided an overview of key concepts and frameworks associated with leadership. We have argued that leadership is not simply the responsibility of the leader, but rather is a dynamic process that is enacted by leaders and followers in a particular context and for particular purposes or goals.

Given the major importance of context for understanding leadership, the next chapter explore this historical/political context of leadership in Africa.

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