Shared Leadership: An Exploratory Study
taking a Stakeholder Approach in Voluntary Organisations

Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at De Montfort University by Henry Mumbi PG Dip, MSc
Faculty of Business & Law Leicester Business School De Montfort University

September 2014
“You never conquer a mountain, mountains can’t be conquered; you conquer yourself”

James W. Whittaker (The first American to reach the summit of Mount Everest)

Acknowledgements

I take this opportunity to extend my gratitude to my first supervisor Dr Demola Obembe for believing in me and providing the priceless guidance and support throughout the research process. His expertise and knowledge gave me the tenacity and impetus to persevere through turbulent moments and it is with no doubt that without his supervision I would have not reached this far. I would also like to thank my two other supervisors Dr Brahim Herbane and Dr Natalia Vershinina who joined the supervision team and brought in fresh ideas. I would also like to extend my thanks to De Montfort University for sponsoring me to present at an international conference in Australia. My thanks also go to Dr Steven Howlett and Professor Yvonne Guerrier for initially supporting me at the University of Roehampton.

It is also imperative to recognise the support I have received outside the university environment. My wife Regina has been very supportive and encouraging during this experience. There were many times when I totally ignored her and chose to do my research work. Despite all this she was there when I needed her. My children Chibeza, Musenga, Nsansa and Lwendo contributed immensely to this unique undertaking. Their patience helped me to focus on my work. I became isolated in the house but my children gave me hope and the fortitude to work hard. My mum Pauline Sakala has been instrumental and a beacon of inspiration throughout this journey. She totally understood my position as I stopped working and supporting her financially in order to concentrate on my thesis. I would also like to thank Father Clement Mukuka for being there for me through prayers and for providing moral and financial support. Vicky and Chrispin Matenga were outstanding in offering peer advice and proof reading my work. My mentor Dr Martin Mulenga was fabulous and always there when I needed advice.

It would have not been possible for me to collect data without the help of certain individuals. Therefore, I would like to thank Martin Houghton-Brown, Lord Victor Adebowale, Liza
Dresner, William Gemegah, Lisa Power, Natalie Duck, Sir Nick Partridge, Dr Edwin Mapara, Rebecca Mbewe, Angelina Namiba, Dr Siobhan Murphy, Justina Mutale, Simon Collins, Clement Musonda, Christabel Kunda and many others. In particular, I would like to thank all the participants and respondents who took part in the interviews and the survey.

Finally, I would like to thank God for protecting me throughout this expedition. There were occasions when I felt that I would not realise my dreams. I was hospitalised due to an illness in 2012 and I was also involved in a plane crash in 2013 and God shielded me. This has strengthen my faith and made me to be positive about life. You have to believe in your dreams in order to achieve them. Moreover, if I can see today there is the chance of seeing tomorrow and hope is the last thing to lose.
### Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Figures and Tables</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 1: Introduction</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Statement of Research, Core Research Questions and Objectives</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Structure of the Thesis</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 2: Literature Review</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Understanding the Notion of Leadership</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.1 Introduction</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.2 Defining Leadership</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.3 The Context Perspective of Leadership</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.4 The Process Perspective of Leadership</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.5 The Outcome Perspective of Leadership</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.6 The Concept of Power</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.7 Common Leadership Theories</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.7.1 Trait Theory</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.7.2 Behavioural Theories</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.7.3 Contingency or Situational Theories</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.7.4 Transformational Theories</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.8 Critical Perspective of Leadership Development</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Shared Leadership</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.1 Introduction</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2 Defining Shared Leadership</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3 The Dimensions of Shared Leadership</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.4 The Perceived Benefits of Shared Leadership</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.5 The Challenges of Shared Leadership</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Stakeholder Theory and Shared Leadership</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.1 Introduction</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2 Defining Stakeholders</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.3 Identification of Stakeholders</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.4 Applying Stakeholder Theory to Shared Leadership</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Conceptual Framework &amp; Research Framework</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.1 Introduction</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 5: Data Analysis Process

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Phase 1 Qualitative Data Analysis

5.2.1 Descriptive Coding

5.2.2 Topic Coding

5.2.3 Analytical Coding

5.3 Phase 2 Quantitative Data Analysis

5.4 Phase 3 Qualitative Data Analysis

5.4.1 Descriptive Codes

5.4.2 Interpretative Codes

5.4.3 Overarching Themes

5.4.3.1 Stakeholder Conceptualisation of Leadership

5.4.3.2 Stakeholder Conceptualisation of Shared Leadership

5.4.3.3 Differentiation and Integration of Shared Leadership

5.4.3.4 Stakeholder Conceptualisation of Leadership

5.4.3.5 Voluntarism

5.4.3.6 The Supported and the Neglected

5.4.3.7 Outcomes, Benefits, Drivers, Conditions of Shared leadership

5.4.3.8 Limitations, Difficulties and Drawbacks of Shared leadership

5.4.3.9 Self-Leadership

5.5 Summary

Chapter 6: Findings

6.1 Introduction

6.2 Phase 1 Findings of the Semi-structured Interviews

6.2.1 The Patterns of Meaning of Leadership

6.2.2 The Process of Leadership or Leading

6.2.3 The Dimensions of Leading

6.2.4 The Resistance to Delegation

6.2.5 The Benefits of Delegation

6.3 Phase 2 Findings of the Survey

6.3.1 Descriptive Statistics of Variables 1 to 10

6.3.2 Frequency Distribution of Variables 1 to 10

6.3.2.1 Frequency Distribution for Variable 1 ‘I am consulted in decision-making’

6.3.2.2 Frequency Distribution for Variable 2 ‘I am actively involved in decision-making’
Chapter 7: Discussion and Conclusions

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Interpretations of Research Findings

7.2.1 Meaning of Leadership

7.2.2 Meaning of Shared Leadership

7.2.3 Outcomes of Shared Leadership

7.2.4 The Environment

7.2.5 Organisational Flexibility

7.2.6 The Element of Power

7.2.7 The Delegation Aspect of Leadership
List of Figures and Tables

Figures

2.1 The Managerial View of a Firm ................................................................. 56
2.2 Theorising the nature of Shared Leadership ........................................ 60
2.3 Conceptualisation of Stakeholder Theory ............................................. 62
2.4 The Stages of Stakeholder Identification, Management and Engagement .... 63
2.5 Theoretical Framework ........................................................................... 67
5.1 Phase 1 Steps of Data Analysis for semi-structured interviews .................. 134
5.2 Analytical Framework ............................................................................ 151
6.1 Crosstabulation between Variable 13 and Variable 1 ............................... 184
6.2 Crosstabulation between Variable 13 and Variable 2 ............................... 185
6.3 Crosstabulation between Variable 13 and Variable 3 ............................... 186
6.4 Crosstabulation between Variable 13 and Variable 4 ............................... 186
6.5 Crosstabulation between Variable 13 and Variable 5 ............................... 187
6.6 Crosstabulation between Variable 13 and Variable 6 ............................... 188
6.7 Crosstabulation between Variable 13 and Variable 7 ............................... 188
6.8 Crosstabulation between Variable 13 and Variable 8 ............................... 189
6.9 Crosstabulation between Variable 13 and Variable 9 ............................... 190
6.10 Crosstabulation between Variable 13 and Variable 10 ............................ 191
7.1 The Model of Shared Leadership .............................................................. 237
Tables

2.1 Stakeholder Salience .................................................................................................................. 51
2.2 The Integrated Research Dimensions ...................................................................................... 63
3.1 Annual Gross Income of Charities registered in England & Wales ................................. 79
3.2 Distribution of Income among Charities in England & Wales ........................................... 88
3.3 Characteristics that represent Good Leadership of the Voluntary Sector ...................... 97
4.1 List of Respondents for the semi-structured interviews ......................................................... 121
4.2 The Shared Leadership Questionnaire developed by Khasawneh 2011 ......................... 124
4.3 Breakdown of Survey Respondents ...................................................................................... 126
4.4 The Number of People interviewed and Organisations involved ..................................... 128
5.1 Guidance to the Initial Data Analysis Questions at Descriptive Coding .......................... 136
5.2 List of Codes generated at the Topic Coding Stage .............................................................. 138
5.3 List of Integrated Codes at the Topic Coding Stage .............................................................. 140
5.4 Themes Generated and Data Representation ...................................................................... 142
5.5 Types of Variables and Allocated Labels ............................................................................ 144
5.6 List of merged Descriptive Codes ...................................................................................... 148
5.7 List of Interpretative Codes .................................................................................................. 150
6.1 Descriptive Statistics for Variable 1 to 10 ........................................................................... 177
6.2 Frequency Representation of Variable 1 to 10 ................................................................... 179
6.3 R-Matrix ................................................................................................................................ 192
6.4 Multiple Regression Analysis Model Summary .................................................................. 194
Abstract

The aim of this study is to explore the involvement of stakeholders in the functions of leadership within the context of voluntary organisations in the UK. What is intriguing about the study is that business and management research has focused mainly on ‘vertical leadership’ that stems from an appointed or formal leader as opposed to ‘shared leadership’ that is distributed across the organisation. This study therefore, seeks to advance scholarly knowledge on the phenomenon of ‘shared leadership’ focusing on voluntary organisations taking a stakeholder perspective. A review of the current literature focusing on shared leadership indicates that the definition of shared leadership has converged around numerous underlying dimensions. However, the key distinction between shared leadership and other leadership paradigms is that the influence process emanates from different directions rather than the tradition top to down approach. This study attempts to explore the level of shared leadership at the organisational level in the context of voluntary organisations by employing a pragmatic approach to research. The research involved three phases; Phase 1 is qualitative, Phase 2 is quantitative and Phase 3 is qualitative. The research methods have included semi-structured interviews (Phase 1) with 10 participants, a survey (Phase 2) that had 126 respondents and in-depth interviews (Phase 3) involving 30 stakeholders. The findings suggest that the level of shared leadership in voluntary organisations is relatively high. However, the involvement of the stakeholders has been more on a ‘consultative’ level rather than on a ‘participative’ one. Moreover, the status or position of the stakeholder in the organisation is a significant factor in determining the level of shared leadership. It was revealed that some stakeholders are merely involved in low level activities. The findings of this research have implications on the Human Resource Management in terms of stakeholder engagement in the leadership process.
Chapter 1: Introduction

Shared leadership is becoming a popular subject in the leadership discourse both from academics and practitioners. For instance, recent works on the concept of shared leadership have included Pearce et al (2013), Hoch and Dulebohn (2013), Barnes (2013), Erkutlu (2012), Khasawneh (2011) and Manz et al (2010). The researcher has taken a keen interest in this concept because it focuses on a group of people rather than an individual. What is interesting about this research is that it attempts to capture the voices of those people who are usually forgotten in the achievement of organisational objectives such as volunteers and employees in lower ranks. The motivation for conducting this research therefore stems from working in the voluntary sector as an employee, volunteer and trustee. Working in this sector gave the researcher an opportunity to have a veritable experience as a stakeholder. Moreover, it provided a fundamental illumination on practical leadership through interactions with different individuals.

Leadership is typically founded on a human behaviour approach. In this respect, leadership could be viewed as a social process that is based on the interactions of different players that will be addressed to as ‘stakeholders’ in this thesis. It is equally accurate to perceive that the behaviour of the individual or group leads to disasters or achievements in organisations (Schyns and Schilling, 2010). Many recent scandals involving organisations such as BP, Royal Bank of Scotland, Barclays Bank and News International have resulted in blaming the leadership behaviour of the individuals at the top of these organisations. In order to deepen our understanding of the leadership phenomenon from a theoretical perspective of shared leadership, it is vital to use the stakeholder theory based on the work of Edward Freeman; this is because a leader or leaders are involved in managing the needs of a diverse group of people who have different expectations and interests in the organisation. However, the influence of these stakeholders could depend hugely on who they are in the organisation.

This thesis is attempting to advance knowledge on the involvement of internal stakeholders in the leadership process through the concept of ‘shared leadership’ within the context of voluntary organisations in the UK. The general framework being employed involves three phases; Phase 1 is qualitative, Phase 2 is quantitative and Phase 3 is qualitative. The research methods have included semi-structured interviews (Phase 1) with 10 participants, a survey
(Phase 2) that had 126 respondents and in-depth interviews (Phase 3) involving 30 stakeholders. The research contributes extensively to the subjects of Human Resource Management and Organisational Behaviour through the achievement of the stated research objectives.

1.1 Statement of Research, Core Research Questions and Objectives

The study is aimed at exploring and developing the idea of how leadership is ‘shared’ among stakeholders in voluntary organisations in the UK. The core empirical question of the research is; Do stakeholders take part in the process of leadership, if so how and if not, why not? In addition, the research has the following objectives;

1. To capture the process of leadership from the perspective of stakeholders (accomplished by Phase 1 of the research)

2. To find out how stakeholders get involved in the leadership process (accomplished by Phase 2 of the research). In line with this objective, the research is concerned with establishing the magnitude of shared leadership and identifying key indicators or factors by presenting the following questions;
   - What is the level of shared leadership among stakeholders in organisations?
   - What are the key factors that could affect the process of shared leadership among stakeholders in organisations?

3. To explore the relationships of stakeholders and gain their understanding in the process of leadership and identify the implications on organisations and individuals (accomplished by Phase 3 of the research).

It is hoped that by addressing the above mentioned objectives through the stakeholder approach, scholars will be able to have a greater understanding of the shared leadership process grounded in a diverse perspective. The methodology is based on what works and is guided by the principles of pragmatism. A pragmatic approach to methodology that has been adopted will be justified in the methodology chapter.


1.2 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into 8 chapters. Chapter 1 is the introduction to the research project. It highlights the emerging interest in the studying of the concept of shared leadership by various scholars. It also explains the motivation behind the undertaking of this research. Moreover, Chapter 1 outlines the core research questions and the objectives that guide this empirical work. It also acts as the map for the thesis by providing a detailed structure.

Chapter 2 is the literature review about the notion of leadership and the phenomenon of shared leadership. The chapter explores the different models of leadership and critically analyses some of the shortcomings of the traditional theories. Shared leadership is also reviewed by outlining the available work and the identification of gaps in the literature in order to present a critique that is based on the evidence. In addition, shared leadership is also reviewed in relation to stakeholder theory to give a coherent picture of the analysis and application. Chapter 2 also presents the theoretical framework of the research project based on the literature review and the research objectives.

Chapter 3 is an analysis of the voluntary sector in the UK to give an insight of the field of study. This chapter is an important one as it tries to give a coherent picture of voluntary organisations by analysing the issues that are significant and unique. The chapter therefore contributes immensely to the emerging theories on the voluntary sector such as that on governance, volunteering, voluntary income, values and leadership. The chapter goes on to articulate the possible challenges facing the sector.

Chapter 4 is an overview of the methodology used for the research. It outlines the adopted research design that reflected a mixed method research as it incorporated both qualitative and quantitative paradigms. The chapter also discusses the theoretical perspectives undertaken and their justification. The chapter further explores the philosophical standpoints of the research by extensively discussing the ontology and the epistemology of the research. In particular, the philosophy of pragmatism is conversed as it forms part of the methodological framework. Furthermore, the chapter addresses the ethical issues of conducting a research of such magnitude. Chapter 4 also outlines the research strategy and the justification of the triangulation of data. Potential limitations of the research and the reflection on the key learnings are also presented.
Chapter 5 presents the data analysis process of the three phases of the research. It starts with the analysis of semi-structured interviews that were conducted at Phase 1 of the research. The qualitative data analysis of these interviews is discussed in the framework of ‘themecodification’ and also in the adoption of Richards (2009)’s work that is based on the identification of descriptive, topic and analytical codes. The chapter also draws on the analysis process of the survey that provided a quantitative feel of the research at Phase 2. The process included descriptive statistics, crosstabulation, correlations and multiple regression. Chapter 5 also discusses the data analysis process of the in-depth interviews that were carried out at Phase 3 of the research. The approach to data analysis for Phase 3 is based on King and Horrocks (2010) and involved the production of descriptive codes, interpretative codes and overarching themes.

The findings section is discussed separately for each phase in Chapter 6. The chapter begins with the outline of the findings of the semi-structured interviews that were conducted at Phase 1 of the research. The findings are divided into five major themes that include 1) the patterns of meaning of leadership 2) the process of leadership 3) the dimensions of leading 4) the resistance to delegation and 5) the benefits of delegation. The chapter then goes on to present the findings of the survey that formed the Phase 2 of the research. The results are presented taking inconsideration of the ten variables of the shared leadership dimensions. The descriptive statistics and frequency distribution of these variables are also tabulated. The crosstabulations between the variable of position in the organisation and the 10 shared leadership dimensions are also displayed. The results of the multiple regression analysis are then presented that showed the significance of the variable of position in the organisation. Chapter 6 also outlines the findings of the in-depth interviews at Phase 3 of the research. The findings were reflected in the major themes that included 1) stakeholder conceptualisation of leadership 2) stakeholder conceptualisation of shared leadership 3) differentiation and integration of shared leadership 4) stakeholder involvement and participation 5) voluntarism 6) the supported and the neglected 7) outcomes or drivers of shared leadership 8) limitation or inhibitors of shared leadership and 9) self-leadership.

Chapter 7 is a discussion section of the thesis that integrates the empirical and theoretical findings of the research. It compares the findings of the research to the discussed literature review and the analysis of the sector under study. The chapter goes on to summarise the
contribution to knowledge and the implications for future research. It also highlights the theoretical implications of the research by presenting the proposed model of shared leadership based on the research findings. It ends with a conclusion of the thesis. The next part of the thesis is therefore chapter 2 that presents the literature review.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Understanding the Notion of Leadership

2.1.1 Introduction

This chapter will review briefly the concept of leadership to provide a foundation for understanding the phenomenon. The phenomenon of leadership is hugely popular among scholars and work has included value-centred leadership (Nicholls, 1999; Fry and Kriger, 2009), authentic leadership (Walumbwa et al. 2008; Costas and Taheri, 2012), the social scientific study of leadership (House and Aditya 1997; Hogg, 2001), self-leadership (Stewart et al. 2010) and many others. This has produced an enormous literature on the concept of leadership. It is aimed that this chapter of the thesis will briefly identify the major ideas and some of the gaps in the conceptualisation of leadership. The chapter will attempt to highlight some of the shortcomings of the traditional view of leadership that is mainly centred on an individual (Carson et al. 2007; Hoch and Dulebohn, 2013; Khasawneh, 2011; Manz et al. 2010). In so doing, the literature review outlines the different dimensions of leadership by looking at the definition, perspectives and the common theories. It will then introduce the literature of the concept of shared leadership and end with the development of the theoretical framework.

In the twentieth century the most traditional models of leadership were based on the consideration of a leader as the ‘classical administrator’ pioneered by the founding father of the ‘classical school’ of management Henri Fayol under his general theory of business administration (Cole, 2004; Hannagan, 2002). On the other hand, Fredrick Winslow Taylor who is considered as the father of scientific management also played an important role on work design and management. This is reflected in his monograph (Taylor, 1911). However, Fayol (1916) who identified six primary functions of management that he called forecasting, planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling had greater influence on the topic of leadership. Fayol’s view of management influenced a lot of commentators and authors of leadership to focus on ‘commanding and controlling’ as the role of the leader. However, Kotter (1999) has argued that management is different from leadership as it is about coping with complexity whereas leadership is about coping with change. Hence, most of the traditional models of leadership could not clearly distinguish between the two.
The twentieth century conception of leadership concentrated on the identification of successful individual leaders who were considered to have specific traits (Nystedt, 1997; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991). The resultant implication of this is that leadership was seen as a sole function of an individual (House and Aditya, 1997). However, in the twenty first century organisations have evolved and structures and systems have to reflect this change because the environment in which these organisations operate is dynamic.

2.1.2 Defining Leadership

Leadership is a multifaceted phenomenon that has several meanings. In this vein, many reviewers and researchers acknowledge that there is no unifying definition or theory of leadership (see Higgs, 2003; Grint, 2005; Kotterman, 2006; Trethewey and Goodall, 2007; Rost, 1993 and Williams, 2009). In particular Williams (2009: 127) sums up that ‘leadership is a popular concept with multiple meanings, and has given rise to an extensive literature’. Rost (1993) has challenged all leadership authors to define the term in their articles adding more complexity to the highly contested concept. However, embarking on the venture of defining the concept of leadership could be an intricate one as the phenomenon of leadership has eluded many people mainly because of its complexity and ambiguity. This is summarised by Livi and colleagues who state that:

Leadership is a fascinating and multifaceted construct that has created great interest in the social and behavioural sciences. No doubt part of that interest derives from the fact that the construct operates simultaneously at multiple levels. (Livi et al. 2008: 246)

The interest in the subject of leadership has resulted in an enormous body of knowledge. The implication for leadership to operate concurrently at numerous levels (Livi et al. 2008) has the connotation that the phenomenon involves a variety of processes and players. A multiplicity of leadership theories assumes implicitly or explicitly that leadership operates at a multiple level of analysis (see Fry and Kriger, 2009; Holmberg and Tyrstrup, 2010 and Stewart, Courtright and Manz, 2011). In this view, Holmberg and Tyrstrup (2010: 367) define leadership as ‘setting suitable tasks for co-workers followed by careful supervision or even coaching in the performance of those tasks’. This is framed to insinuate that leadership is not only by action but also about other events and activities that are usually not planned. Holmberg and Tyrstrup (2010)’s work was based on how to capture people’s everyday
experiences, understanding leadership in a particular context and how to investigate the events and developments that matter most. However, in contrast to the events and developments that matter most Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003: 1437) assert that ‘the meaning and significance of leadership may be more closely related to the mundane than to the carrying out of great acts or colourful development’. They found out that listening was an important feature of leadership.

Similar to Holmberg and Tyrstrup (2010)’s definition of leadership is that of Daft, Kendrick and Vershinina (2010: 565) who define leadership as ‘the ability to influence people toward the attainment of goals’. Setting suitable tasks for people requires the leader to have an influence. Identical to Daft and colleagues’ definition is Hogg (2001: 194)’s definition of leadership that consider leadership as ‘a process of influence that enlists and mobilizes the involvement of others in the attainment of collective goals’. This is premised on authority and power that is vested in the leader. The definition of viewing leadership as an influence process in setting suitable tasks for people is reflected in the managerial leadership framework. The problem with defining leadership in this way is the continuous focus on ‘superior-subordinate’ relationships as argued by House and Aditya (1997).

A departure from Holmberg and Tyrstrup (2010) and Daft et al (2010) definitions of leadership is Hogg (2001: 194)’s definition of leadership that considers leadership as ‘a process of influence that enlists and mobilizes the involvement of others in the attainment of collective goals’. It acknowledges leadership to be an influence process however it brings in the element of involving others in the achievement of organisation’s goals. Hogg (2001) further argues that it is not about exercising power over others through a coercive process. The influence comes to the picture due to the position of the leaders rather than the exertion of power and also by the depersonalisation process (Hogg, 2001). Osborn et al. (2002: 798) have also argued that ‘leadership is not only the incremental influence of a boss toward subordinates, but most important it is the collective incremental influence of leaders in and around the system’. However, it could be argued that the position of the leaders gives them the power to carry out their work that is mainly influential in nature.

The literature regarding the definition of the concept of leadership is massive and diverse. In this view, Clawson (2008: 174) suggests that ‘it is not clear that we need any more commentary on leadership since the shelves are full’. However, despite the vastness of the
literature on leadership, the concept is widely misunderstood, giving rise to many paradoxes. For instance, Cole (2004: 52) asserts that ‘leadership is a concept which has fascinated humankind for centuries, but only in recent years has any kind of theory of leadership emerged’. It could be argued that the theories of leadership have been around for quite a long time and the implication for this is that many philosophers and researchers have come up with different views or meanings of the concept due to variations in perspectives.

The next section of the chapter will review the spheres of context, process and outcome in detail. It has to be acknowledged however that some of the definitions of leadership overlap within these spheres. For instance it could be possible for a model of leadership to be perceived as a context phenomenon and also as an outcome phenomenon depending on the perspective being derived.

2.1.3 The Context Perspective of Leadership

Osborn, Hunt and Jauch (2002) argue that the ethos of conceptualising leadership is explained by considering the interplay of leadership with the four contexts of stability, crisis, dynamic equilibrium and edge of chaos. Osborn and colleagues also identified some key aspects of contextual leadership that included hierarchical level, organizational performance, leader’s attention patterning and leader’s networking and analysed these within the four contexts. The idea of leadership being embedded in these four contextual domains could be challenged as contexts vary. For instance, Shamir and Howell (1999) examined leadership in the context of organizational environment, life-cycle stage, technology, tasks, goals, structure and culture as well as the leader's level in the organization and the circumstances surrounding his or her appointment. However, the organisational culture that is embedded in the values of the organisation is an important contextual element. Values are considered paramount as they promote the principles of togetherness such as collaboration and strong interpersonal relations (Liden and Antonakis, 2009). The contextual elements are numerous and this creates an intricate environment for organisations. Osborn et al (2002) explain that four contexts of stability, crisis, dynamic equilibrium and edge of chaos encourage researchers to reassess temporarily some issues involving causal relations, unit of analysis and dependent variables that are in line with the social construction of human agency. The implications are that leadership is viewed as a socially constructed phenomenon where the context and history matters.
Nicholls (1999) identifies three fundamental usages of the word leadership by referring to inspirational (heart), strategic (head) and supervisory (hands). Nicholls (1999)’s conceptualisation of leadership is premised on a three stage leadership progression. The first stage in the progression is referred to as managerial leadership, the second as transforming leadership and the final stage as value-centred leadership. According to Nicholls (1999) managerial leadership is the basic leadership that is needed by a manager due to the position held with the context. Transforming leadership is the outcome of the application of inspirational leadership. Whereas, value-centred leadership is the leadership that is ‘directed towards the achievement of a fundamental business purpose’ Nicholls (199: 313). The consequence for this contextual view of leadership is that a leader is regarded as the person who knows everything within that context as the metaphor of heart, head and hands insinuates that the leader has it all.

Clawson (2008: 74) considers leadership as ‘managing energy, first in one’s self and then in others’. In other words it is vital to conduct a self-evaluation before assessing others; this would help to conserve some energy. In the same vein, Kets de Vries (2006: 26) has argued that ‘people who don’t know themselves get locked unwittingly into dysfunctional behaviour patterns and furthermore are poor judges of other people’. This contextual view of leadership has given rise to self-leadership (Stewart et al. 2011) that is developed on the notion of self-influence and that of authentic leadership (Walumbwa et al. 2008; Zhu et al. 2011; Costas and Taheri, 2012) that is based on being true to oneself. In describing authentic leadership Costas and Taheri (2012) argue that the approach advocates a departure from heroic and authoritarian leadership. According to Zhu et al (2011: 805) authentic leaders are ‘those who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others’ values/moral perspectives, knowledge and strengths’. Thus, the approach is claimed to oppose hierarchical relationships between the leader and the follower as well as the traditional authoritarian structures. In this sense, authentic leadership is premised on the notion of viewing leadership that is based on ‘flatter hierarchies’ that are perceived to be more flexible and allow stakeholders to be empowered due to informal leadership practices that foster power sharing (Alexander et al. 2001) and collective responsibility. Costas and Taheri (2012) assert that authentic leadership brings consistency between what leaders say and what they do. It is also premised on the assumption of shared power and values that are embedded in ethics and the common good. Thus, the concept of
power is a significant aspect of context based leadership as it helps to determine the level of self-leadership.

The concepts of self-leadership and that of authentic leadership are concerned with the identities of stakeholders in the organisation. Hogg (2001) describes ‘social identity’ of leadership that is centred on self-categorization and self-esteem as the main driver of self-leadership. However one could argue that it is imperative to consider other inter-related factors that connect leaders to the people they lead besides looking at the ‘self’. For instance, Elliott and Stead (2008) show how upbringing, environment, focus and networks and alliances impact on the concept of leadership. The implication for Elliott and Stead (2008) identification of environmental factors that impact on leadership is an interesting one because leadership is affected by relationships of the leader with others and the physical aspects that create the context.

The context perspective of leadership is a different way of looking at leadership and is however not aimed at replacing human agency with mechanistic prescription (Osborn et al. 2002; Shamir and Howell, 1999). Organisational contexts are normally complex. Moreover, the context in which leadership takes place is not static but evolves with time hence there is need for a different view of the perspective of leadership.

2.1.4 The Process Perspective of Leadership

Process perspective of leadership is concerned with the substantial and situational aspects of leadership that help to bring action (Alexander et al. 2001). The action element of the process has resulted into leadership being linked to influencing others. For example, Stogdill (1950) defined leadership as an influencing process that is aimed at achieving the goals of an organisation. Indeed, most authors on the subject of leadership (Holmberg and Tyrstrup, 2010; Hogg, 2001; Stogdill, 1950; Daft et al 2010) have conceptualised it as an influencing process. For instance, Daft et al (2010: 565) define leadership as ‘the ability to influence people toward the attainment of goals’. This definition has the assumption that leaders and other people are involved in the achievement of goals. Johnson (2009) also argues that no definition of leadership is complete without distinguishing between leading and following. Leading and following are processes in their own making. Trehan and Shelton (2006: 286) assert that ‘making an attempt to define a term such as leadership can appear fruitless and
misleading, since it might imply an unwarranted stability or singularity in the dynamic phenomena under discussion’. They argue that leadership is not restricted to qualities of position or personality as leadership is a dynamic social process.

In most of the implicit leadership theories images of leaders in general comprise of images of effective leaders. According to Schyns and Schilling (2010: 8) ‘leaders may find it more difficult to influence followers who hold ineffective implicit leadership theories’. Therefore, leaders have to make clear that they as leaders are very much different from these implicit leadership theories. Similar to Daft et al (2010) conceptualisation of leadership is Northouse (2004: 3) who defines leadership as ‘a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal’. The conceptualisation of leadership based on the influence process relies hugely on power, position and authority and may not be adequate in helping to understand the complexity of leadership. In particular, authority as Prado and Parada (2010: 1) put it: ‘is often seen as the possession of power based on a formal role’. In this view, power is regarded as synonymous with leadership. Moreover, Hogg et al. (2005) argue that differentiated leader-subordinate cliques within the group may establish powerful intergroup relations within the group that can affect the process of leadership. Others have based their conceptualisation of leadership on outcomes rather than process. The next part of this chapter will analyse the outcome based perspective of leadership.

2.1.5 The Outcome Perspective of Leadership

The outcome-based perspective of leadership is more involved with the measurement or exploration of the direct effects of leaders. Rakotobe-Joel and Sabrin (2010) argue that the outcome-based perspective of leadership can be achieved by the assessment of how leaders utilize organizational resources and how this result add value to the entire organisation. However, this framework is mainly based on the financial outcome and hence Rakotobe-Joel and Sabrin’s model is called the ‘financial signature concept’ and may not be adequate in the evaluation of non-financial outcomes. In the same vein, Tripathi and Dixon (2008) argue that leadership is not only about implementation or utilization of resources but also about the production of outcomes. The implications are that it is vital to consider the effects or impact of the leadership process and context in trying to understand the concept. This way of thinking links leadership to performance and organization effectiveness. In doing so, the change that occurs due to the process of leadership could be noticed or measured. However, it
is often difficult to attribute organisational effectiveness to leadership. This requires rigorous and in-depth analysis of isolating other factors that could contribute to the production of organisational outcomes such as project management, strategic marketing management, human resource management and other organisational functions.

The outcome-based perspective of leadership is an interesting one as it considers the results that are associated with leadership. Trehan and Shelton (2006: 285) have noted that:

Leaders tend to have a significance in our lives, whether we feel positively or negatively towards them, that may be disproportionate to their human powers, to their interest in us, or to their control and power over the organization.

Again, the concept of power tends to play an important role in the outcomes of leadership. However, there has been a significant criticism of the concept of leadership, particularly due to the problems inherent in measuring the effectiveness of a concept with numerous constructs. The word effectiveness is also misunderstood as Gibb (2000: 58) argues that effectiveness is often defined as ‘identifying and doing the right things’. In this view, efficiency could be ignored. Moreover, there are others who do not believe that leadership exists and others who have concluded that it is not particularly important (e.g. Meindl and Ehrlich, 1987). However, these commentators have failed to come up with realistic arguments. Nevertheless, despite being a complex concept, leadership is undoubtedly crucial for organisations (Gobillot, 2007). Leadership is required to help an organisation be it private, public or voluntary to achieve its intended outcomes.

Hannagan (2002) have also shown that leadership has a huge role of motivating people. Motivation has been linked with leadership in organisations through viewing an organisation as a group of people. It could be perceived that an organisation is socially connected to the people within it through interactions and relationships. Hogg, et al (2005) have stated that leadership is an essential feature of social groups and it is often very difficult to think about groups without thinking about who leads them. It is not clear whether it is only the leader that brings about motivation within an organisation. The nature of leadership as an outcome-based phenomenon is again attributed to an individual leader’s behaviour. It has been argued that leadership was historically conceptualised as behaviours done to or for others (Trethewey and Goodall, 2007). It has also been argued that in most cases the phenomenon of leadership is equated with individual positions or formal positions (Pearce and Sims, 2000; Ensley,
Pearson and Pearce, 2003). The notion of leadership being the role of an individual should be given a second thought as Mintzberg states that:

> If geese can rotate their leadership, and bees can work vigorously without having to be empowered by the queen (which is our label, not theirs), then surely we human beings can achieve such levels of sophistication. In other words we can treat leadership as something quite natural, with the ‘leader’ just doing what has to be done at the appropriate time. (Mintzberg, 2009: 152)

Treating leadership as a natural thing is an interesting idea however it could be problematic to define the meaning of ‘natural’ in the context of leadership. The action should not only be focused on the sole leader. Moreover, the quantifying of leadership should be complemented with quality as this has the downside of focusing on the manager rather than other players in the organisation. In this vein, Zoller and Fairhurst (2007) argue that:

> …little research has addressed leadership as a significant concept. One reason for this oversight may be the conflation of leadership with the study of leadership, which is largely quantitative and managerially focused. As a result, leadership may be equated with the managerial role itself, so that only those in organisationally sanctioned roles count as leaders (p. 1332).

To some extent, quantitative studies of leadership have presented the phenomenon in a mechanistic Newtonian world giving the picture of leadership as a linear observable fact. This has contributed to the obfuscation of the concept and has given rise to precipitated theories. However, some quantitative studies have contributed positively to the illumination of the concept and the problem is that leadership is a multi-dimensional phenomenon.

Leadership is therefore a concept with multiple meanings and there is no universal definition. However, it is imperative to note that leadership is a process that involves more than one person. The review on the context, process and outcome-based leadership has limitations because of the possible overlaps that have been identified. It has to be mentioned that is not possible to discuss all the theories as there are numerous models on the concept of leadership. However, what is common in the context, process and outcome-based leadership thinking is the concept of power.
2.1.6 The Concept of Power

The aim of this section is to explore some of the intricacies associated with the concept of power because leadership is conceptualised as a power relation that involves interactions between stakeholders (Braynion, 2004: Voyer and McIntosh, 2013). Leadership is seen as a catalyst to exercise power and influence other people’s behaviour to achieve organisational goals through interactions. The interactions involving power are not smooth sailing. The suppression of conflict about power could create a false uniformity that could have a knock-on effect on the sustainability of the organisation (Githens, 2009). Thus, power is an important concept in organisations and there is need to address its intricacy. Power has been defined simply as the ‘capacity to influence others’ (Krishnan, 2003: 346). This is similar to most of the definitions of leadership highlighted above such as that of Daft et al (2010) and Hogg (2001). Hence power is viewed synonymously with leadership. The implication for viewing power as synonymous with leadership is that leaders will need some sort of power to carry out their roles. The insinuations are that leaders are more powerful than followers. However, it has been observed that the power of a leader is on a decline as compared to that of the follower in today’s world (Allio, 2013). In addition, Kotter (1999) has also argued that the capacity to influence others should not rely on persuasion alone but also on time, skill and information.

It has been argued that ‘power does not arise spontaneously or mysteriously, it comes from specific and identical bases’ (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2006: 286). Therefore, scholars have come up with different types of power and their alleged sources. For instance, in relationship to the concept of leadership the two major types of power are position power and personal power. According to Erkutlu and Chafra (2006) position power is based on position held in an organization hierarchy and emanates from the superiors. On the other hand, personal power is based on the characteristics of the individual and is partly given by subordinates (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2006). In this view, Trehan and Shelton (2006: 286) have pointed out that ‘the manager is painted as using position power and working in ostensibly analytical rational mode, while the leader uses personal power, with a noticeable emotional content such as passion, inspiration, courage and imagination to enthuse people about a vision’. It implies that power is used differently by people within the organisation. Power is therefore a multifaceted construct just like that of leadership.
Voyer and McIntosh (2013) propose an understanding of the impact of power on self-perception taking both the cognitive and behavioural perspectives to account for effective leadership and followership. However, it is also crucial to reflect on the relationship with others and their outcomes because power is claimed to have an effect of increasing the individual’s levels of autonomy. For example, Krishnan (2003:346) has argued that ‘having more power means having more resources under one’s control, and one having more resources will generally be more successful than one having less resources’. However, Hackett et al (1999) found that leaders who are more aware of the needs of others through a shared sense of vision and values have better and more effective power relationships. The implication is that the resources available will be shared in accomplishing the goals of the organisation. Conversely, in practice there is evidence of lack of collaboration due to power imbalances and inequalities (Kähkönen, 2014; Trehan and Shelton, 2006).

Harchar and Hyle (1996) found that some leaders use power of their position to control followers while other leaders attempt to share power through the process of empowering others. In addition, the research findings of Ford (2005: 617) reveal that leaders can apply three principles in order to establish stakeholder power relations that can guide change practices as ‘creating the space for new communicative interaction, safeguarding a credible and open process and reclaiming suppressed views’. Moreover, Hackett et al (1999) have emphasised the need to understand how to achieve organisational goals utilising power and politics in collaboration with stakeholders. In this view for example, it has been argued that in ‘chaos theory’ leadership is not reduced to the leadership behaviour of a key position holder or team of ‘top people’ but is conducted throughout the organisation through all agents (Burns, 2002: 48). However, the twentieth century leadership concept was predominantly based on aggression as a way of exercising power and authority as reflected in the trait theory. On the other hand, power is conceptualise as a social construct in the contemporary leadership theories that is negotiated in the process of serenity, chaos and conflicts. It will be therefore interesting to see how stakeholders negotiate power in this research. The next section of the chapter will therefore briefly look at the common leadership theories that include the trait theory, behavioural theories, contingency or situational theories and transformational theories as they have an impact on power relations and leadership development that will be discussed later.
2.1.7 Common Leadership Theories

This section of the chapter is dedicated to the most common leadership theories. The essence for the inclusion of this part is to provide a coherent platform for the analysis of the theories as they have an impact on leadership development. According to Jordon (1989) leadership theories are generally grouped according to trait, behavioural, group and situational commonalities.

2.1.7.1 Trait Theory

From the early 1900’s, academics and practitioners have studied personality traits to determine what makes certain people great leaders. The trait based theory is a historical perspective which argues that the fate of societies and organisations is in the hands of powerful individuals. Trait theories indicate leadership as a function of an individual’s personal characteristics. Traits are innate qualities and characteristics and the theories are based on the premise that people are born with these attributes. However, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991: 48) have argued that ‘the trait theories did not make assumptions about whether leadership traits were inherited or acquired, they simply asserted that leaders’ characteristics are different from non-leaders’. However, it was also believed that through this approach key traits could be identified and isolated.

The trait theories suggest that leaders are distinct type of people and can be differentiated from non-leaders. It is based on personality traits and other qualities of individuals who, in most cases, are men. The twentieth century leadership concept therefore was predominantly based on militaristic way of exercising power and authority and the influential positions were for a few men. Therefore, leadership under this theory is not a neutral concept but is marked by gender-bias as reflected in the ‘Great Man’ theory (Schnurr, 2008; Bligh and Kohles, 2008). It has also been argued that the tendencies in research sites lead to gendered and individualistic understanding of leadership (Elliot and Stead, 2008). Construing leadership as a study of ‘Great Men’ is unacceptable in the twenty first century and is theoretically unfitting and regressive.

Some reviewers have separated the Trait Approach from the ‘Great Man’ theory; this brings about misunderstandings because ‘Great Man’ theory emerged from the belief that great men are born leaders and emerge to take power regardless of the context. Therefore, this was also
linked to the traits or qualities associated with leaders of this epoch. It portrayed leadership as an exceptional concept that was based entirely on innate qualities that a successful leader possesses. Horner (1997) argues that leadership is not the work of one skilled, successful individual but it involves the participation of other people who can be great thinkers or doers. The participation of these people depends hugely on the organisational environment. According to Horner (1997) it is imperative for the organisational environment to encourage the contributions of others by having access to right resources. Horner (1997) further argues that there is no distinct profile that is available to describe a great leader. In other words there is no clear definition of a successful leader.

The traits theory also reflects the industrial model of leadership that is person centred and based on a position of power, influence and status (Burns, 1978; Chan, Mills and Walker, 2008; Walker, 2007). Thus, within this paradigm leadership has been viewed as the influence and guidance emanating from the top levels of organisations (Newth and Corner, 2009). Moore and Sonsino (2003) disagree with the perspective that is centred on the individual and that reflects the industrial model of leadership and state:

There is still a need for a theory of leadership in complex organisations, because while leadership research has long taxed management researchers, the leadership theories that have been developed have focused largely on the personality characteristics of individual leaders (p. 12).

The industrial model of leadership that is centred on the personality characteristics of individual leaders evokes mixed reactions, especially in the prevailing economic downturn where many organisations are operating with limited resources and low public trust. Kupers and Weibler (2008: 443) state that ‘the rise of corporate crises and scandals, corporate frauds for example… (create a) wish for another kind of more responsive and responsible leadership’. Likewise, Rakotobe-Joel and Sabrin (2010: 113) claim that ‘the business world, in recent memory, hasn’t been as focused as ever on business leaders’ pattern of spending. This can be explained by the recent economic downturn but also as direct results of the recent debacles from top executives’. Williams (2009) also argues that leadership is a process not confined to the top person. What might be clear is that individual centred leadership will always be significant in organisations. It might be stated that it is better to have an individual leader than a team due to accountability and responsibility factors. However, others have argued that collective leadership can also be accountable and responsible (e.g. Harris, 1999).
The effectiveness of the concept of leadership under the notion of traits is also about genetics as height, weight, and physique are heavily dependent on heredity (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991). This approach raises the question of whether leadership is genetically influenced and has led to studies in heritability of personality traits (see Bouchard et al. 1990). The influence of trait approach has continued to play a fundamental role in leadership development programs. Moreover, others argue that self-confidence (Stogdill, 1948; Stogdill, 1974; House and Baetz, 1979; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991), physical energy, prosocial influence motivation (House and Baetz, 1979) and adjustment (Mann, 1959) are among the traits that are dominant in the so called leaders. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) elaborate on the reasons why a leader needs self-confidence by stating that:

A constant series of problems must be solved and decisions made. Followers have to be convinced to pursue specific courses of action. Setbacks have to be overcome. Competing interests have to be satisfied. Risks have to be taken in the face of uncertainty. A person riddled with self-doubt would never be able to take the necessary actions nor command the respect of others. (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991: 54)

However, most of these claims are still pending further empirical verification and in-depth exploration. The major downside of this approach has been the production of numerous traits by several studies.

2.1.7.2 Behavioural Theories

Behavioural theories have been developed on the premise that ‘leadership can be taught’ and that leaders should adopt the right behaviour. They offer a fair analysis of the concept of leadership than the traits theories highlighted above. However, behavioural based theories share several similarities with the traits based theories. In particular, research within this paradigm is mainly based on observations of individuals who operate at lower levels of organisations (House and Aditya, 1997). Despite all this, a huge interest has been developed in leadership being viewed as an aspect of behaviour rather than the possession of qualities. Behavioural theories encompass ideas that describe leadership theory on the basis of the behaviours exhibited by the leader. However, Bedell-Avers, Hunter and Mumford (2008) are of the opinion that students of leadership have spent some twenty years moving beyond
normative leadership theories in an attempt to account for the behaviour, and success, of outstanding leaders.

Leaders have been studied by observing their behaviour in either laboratory settings or other field settings. The focus within these settings is usually the work of the individual leader and his/her relationship with others. In other words the theories tend to be either task centred or people oriented and research conducted within this sphere is usually referred to as behavioural school of leadership (House and Aditya, 1997).

Another set of leadership theories that are based on behaviours and styles of effective leaders include the Ohio State University model and the Michigan University model. The researchers at Ohio State University developed questionnaires that followers or subordinates used to describe the behaviour of their superiors. The responses were analysed critically and concluded that followers viewed their superiors’ behaviour on two dimensions being ‘consideration’ and ‘initiating structure’. According to Boddy (2002) a considerate style reflects concern for subordinates’ well-being, status and comfort. In other words considerate leaders were those who tried to build a suitable working environment. The strategies adopted by leaders included active listening, giving encouragement and treating the followers with respect and dignity. On the other hand, an initiating structure style focused mainly on the task. The leaders are mainly interested in getting the work done and ensuring that the process was adequately planned and outlined.

The University of Michigan also conducted similar studies to those of Ohio State University. Rensis Likert was the pioneer behind these studies when he was the Director of the Institute of Social Research at the University of Michigan. The work was mainly focused on motivation, leadership and organisation structure. The research found that two types of behaviour distinguished good from poor managers: task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviour.

The Michigan studies also contributed to the systems of communication and productivity. The studies for example found that the exploitative-authoritative system is associated with poor communication and productivity is mediocre. On the other hand, the benevolent-authoritative style had a fair communication system and a rather good productivity. However, the consultative and participative-group systems had effective communication and excellent
productivity. The Michigan studies have been criticised for being one dimensional and that other variables are involved in measuring the effectiveness of leadership.

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed the managerial Grid that focuses (as cited in Bolden et al. 2003: 8) on ‘task (production) and employee (people) orientations of managers, as well as the combinations of concerns between the two extremes’. The model produced different types of styles based on the extension and application of the Ohio State University Model.

In summary therefore leader behaviours may be described as being directive or supportive depending on the perspective of the context as outlined in the contingency or situational theories.

2.1.7.3 Contingency or Situational Theories

The other leadership paradigm is the standpoint which argues that leaders must adjust their leadership style in a manner consistent with aspects of the context or situation. The main idea of the contingency theory of leadership is that there is not one best leadership style which is functional in every context. It is therefore assumed that the relationship between leadership style and leadership success varies from one context to another (Boerner, Krause and Gebert, 2004) and the approach argues that the effectiveness of any given leadership style or behaviour will be contingent on the situation (Carnall, 2003). This notion is built on the assumption that there is no leadership theory that can fit all situations. In other words, no style is better than another and a leader is expected to match style to demands of situation.

Tannenbaum and Schmitt (1958) suggested the idea that leadership action is affected by three forces: the forces in the situation, the forces in the follower and also forces in the leader. They developed the leadership continuum model that built upon the early work of Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939), however, laissez-faire was omitted. Four main leadership styles have been located at various points of the continuum. They include autocratic, democratic, persuasive and consultative styles.

The first theory to explicate how contextual or situational variables interact with leader personality and behaviour was Fiedler’s Contingency Theory. Fiedler (1971) posited a two-way interaction between a measure of leader task-motivation versus relationship motivation,
and a measure of the situation. He predicted that task-motivated people manifest the same
behaviour under different conditions of situational control and different behaviours under the
same conditions of situational control. The model looked at three situations that could define
the condition for leadership as follows: leader member relation; task structure; and position
power.

This interactionist model of leadership has been generally reasonably supported (e.g. Cohen
and Cherrington, 1973; Strube and Garcia, 1981). However, Fiedler’s Contingency Theory
despite its ground-breaking nature, faced disapproval for conceptual reasons, inconsistent
empirical findings and inability to account for substantial variance in group performance.

House and Mitchell (1974) identified four styles to describe the situational and contingency
paradigm by arguing that effective leaders are those who clarify their subordinates’ path to
the rewards available, hence the suggestion is often referred to as ‘House’s path-goal’ model.
The four leadership styles identified were directive, supportive, achievement oriented and
participative. According to the model the appropriate leadership style depends on the
subordinates (characteristics, abilities, needs etc.), work environment (task structure,
workgroup characteristics, authority system etc.) and the outcomes (motivation, satisfaction,
performance, rewards etc.).

Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard developed the other ground-breaking contingency based
leadership theory in 1982. Their situational leadership theory defined the degree to which
followers are ready and willing to tackle the task facing the organisation or a group of people.
They claimed that leaders create situational context and conditions in which followers engage
in creative efforts to accomplish their goals. According to Adair (1993: 32) the situational
leadership theory developed by Hersey and Blanchard emphasises the ‘maturity level of the
followers in relation to a specific task, function or objective that the leader is attempting to
accomplish’. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) propose that leadership style depends on three
factors - the characteristics of the leader, the characteristics of the follower and the situation.
It is claimed that the task behaviour is the degree to which the leader engages in the
allocation of duties and responsibilities to an individual or group and the relationship
behaviour is the degree to which the leader engages in a multi-way (Hersey and Blanchard,
1988). On the other hand, maturity is the willingness and capability of a leader to take
responsibility for directing his or her own behaviour. In other words, leader behaviours may
be categorised as directive or supportive behaviour. The former involves close supervision of performance, one-way communication and followers’ roles are clearly communicated. On the other hand, the latter allows the involvement of followers in decision-making by providing support and embracing an effective two-way communication. Within this model four leadership styles were identified as being: delegating, coaching, supporting and directing.

The approach of the situational leadership developed by Hersey and Blanchard has therefore powerful intuitive appeal but Carnall (2003) claims that it still lacks credible research support. In the same vein, House and Aditya (1997) acknowledge that few empirical tests of the theory have been conducted to offer a decisive or conclusive position.

Another contingency or situational leadership theory is that of John Adair. Adair (1993) asserts that leadership is about understanding the task, individual and the group. The famous three circle diagram is the interpretation of the unpredictability of human interaction, however, is a useful apparatus for thinking about what constitutes functional leadership. Adair’s Action-centred leadership model claims that the leader gets the job done through team work and good relationships with others. This view of leadership takes a holistic approach in understanding the phenomenon of leadership in that the leader must direct the job to be done, support and review the individual executing it and co-ordinate and foster the work team as a whole. Cowsill and Grint (2008: 188) have argued that ‘more often than not, it is the task-oriented leaders who seem to do the best’.

In summary, the paradigm of situational leadership is interpreted as the integration of different skills, capabilities, abilities and competencies that are relevant for different occurrences. It is about the judgement of the leader to adopt and adapt according to the situation.

2.1.7.4 Transformational Theories

Most ground breaking contemporary leadership theories are based on style though a few could also be categorised as contingency based theories. Leadership styles are defined as patterns of emphases that are indexed by the frequency or intensity of specific leadership behaviours or attitudes, which a leader places on the different leadership functions (Casimir, 2001). Transformational theories have been developed with the notion of ‘leader as agent of
change’. Leaders are often referred to as transformational, transactional, inspirational, and again putting the emphasis on the individual as a leader. For instance transformational leadership coined by James MacGregor Burns is viewed as the most prominent topic in the current research and theories of leadership see (Bass, 1999; Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003; Yukl, 2006; Wang and Zhu, 2011). It is claimed that transformational leadership brings up useful changes and outcomes within an organisation. For example, Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2006: 295) embraced the transformational model because ‘it made clear distinction between management and leadership, but most importantly because it provides sound evidence for adopting a values-based approach to working with staff and users/patients/clients’. In addition, accumulating evidence suggests that it is positively associated with work attitudes and brings about organisational commitment (Avolio et al. 2004; Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2006).

According to Thach and Thompson (2007) transformational theory has inspired volumes of research and numerous training programmes. But essentially it seeks to transform the dynamic occurring between individuals, groups and organisations so as to find creative solutions. Indeed, creative solutions may be difficult to attain as individuals may come with different expectations to an organisation. But according to Garcia-Morales, Llorens-Montes and Verdu-Jover (2008) transformational leadership influences the fundamental attitudes and assumptions of an organisation’s members, creating a common mentality to attain the firm’s goals. It may be argued however, that other factors rather than transformational leadership could have resulted into the creation of a common mentality. Zhu et al (2011) propose a theoretical model that examines the effects of authentic transformational leadership on follower and group ethics. They used the concept of moral identity and moral emotions to illustrate how leaders’ moral actions are crucial in shaping follower moral identity and moral emotions. Ethics are thus cardinal motivational mechanisms for followers. Zhu et al (2011: 803) define moral identity as ‘the degree to which individuals identify themselves as being a moral agent and how their identity influences their self-concept’. The implications are that transformational theory should consider the importance of moral orientations as they have an impact on the ethical behaviour of both the leader and the follower. However, the issue of ethics is a highly contested topic and more research has to be conducted to find out the wider implications of the transformational leadership theory.
Transactional leadership theory on the other hand, has attempted to focus on the follower. In contrast to transformational leadership, transactional leadership is more inclined to an exchange process whereby followers are rewarded for accomplishing specified goals. Thus, transactional leadership is an outcome oriented theory that is based on the performance of followers. If they perform well they are rewarded and conversely, they are punished for negative behaviour (Sohmen, Parker and Downie, 2008). It is also claimed that transactional leaders cater to their followers’ immediate self-interests (Bass, 1999; Yukl, 2006). In particular, Yukl (2006) claims that:

Transactional leadership motivates followers by appealing to their self-interest and exchanging benefits. For a political leader, these activities include providing jobs, subsidies, lucrative government contracts, and support for desired legislation in return for campaign contributions and votes to re-elect the leader. For corporate leaders, transactional leadership means providing pay and other benefits in return for work effort. (Yukl, 2006: 249)

Transactional leadership may also be value-based, however, Yukl (2006) argues that most of the values are relevant only to the exchange process and ignores what might transpire outside the process. Transactional theory also tends to give more power to the individual leader and followers have little input in decision making. Therefore, it might not be participative and enabling. However, some proponents of transactional leadership (e.g. Cardona, 2000; Sanders, Hopkins and Geroy, 2003) prefer the term ‘transcendental leadership’ that is more concerned with followers’ intrinsic motivation and spiritual development of the leader.

Transformational and transactional leadership have received great attention from researchers from different disciplines and have been warmly supported through empirical inquiry. However, there are many unanswered questions about the theory and more research is needed to illuminate on the theories. The theories of leadership have an impact on how to develop people to become effective leaders. It is therefore important to explore the current literature on leadership development to enhance the understanding of the concept of leadership before embarking on the concept of shared leadership.
2.1.8 Critical Perspective of Leadership Development

The analysis of the leadership theories above has shown that leadership is a complex phenomenon however a body of knowledge is emerging that suggest that leadership makes a difference to organisational effectiveness (Goldman et al. 2014; Meager and McLachlan, 2014; Boaden, 2006). In particular, Boaden (2006) points out that the focus on outcomes and improvements within organisations has attracted investments in leadership development programmes within the field of Human Resource Development (HRD). HRD historically emerged as a term in the 1970s in America and only became popular in Europe and UK in the 1980s (Gold et al. 2013). HRD is a subset of Human Resource Management (HRM) but it is viewed as subject as well as a field of study. The American writer Leonard Nadler has had an impact on how HRD is defined and viewed. This has resulted into taking either a performance based perspective or a focus on learning. Thus, several viewpoints have emerged which give rise to diverse needs for leadership development within the HRD both in theory and in practice. For example, the application of scientific methods that uses statistical analysis have produced leadership development models that are based on personality scales which according to Trehan and Shelton (2006: 287) appear to be ‘remote in some ways from experience and action’. This is mainly attributed to studying leadership in terms of ‘its content, namely, the behaviour and attributes of leaders and followers and the situation they are in at the time, and process, namely, the use of different types of power and social influence’ (Trehan, 2007: 74). Moreover, Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) have also argued that the actions of leaders are not always remarkable and hence do not differ from other people’s actions within organisations. In the same vein, Schweigert (2007) argues that leadership development must focus less on the qualities of individual leaders and more on the social setting. This is because leadership is a social influence process that involves the determination of organisation’s objectives and it is a group concept as leaders and followers coexist (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2006; Dalakoura, 2010).

The traditional view of HRD has faced criticism in the way leadership development is conceptualised. Traditional HRD on leadership has mainly focused on mechanistic approaches that view HRD in the same spectrum as training and development (Trehan and Rigg, 2011). However, HRD is not only about training and development. Moreover, most leadership development programmes (LDPs) do not achieve the intended outcomes due to this narrow view of HRD. For instance, most leadership academies produce little evidence to
suggest that graduates from the programmes are uniquely equipped to lead (Allio, 2013). Goldman et al (2014) also argue that LDPs often lack any relationship to leadership theories. In addition, Casserley and Critchley (2010) argue that there is little correlation between LDPs and effective performance due to the reliance on the tradition view of HRD. This is also mainly attributed to questionnaires that are used to measure personality such as the Myers-Briggs Type indicator (Cacioppe, 1998), and programme content that usually focuses on a narrow range of skills, abilities and knowledge (Goldman et al. 2014). Hence, leadership is expected to take place mainly as a consequence of training individual leaders and the development of their knowledge, skills and competencies (Dalakoura, 2010). In this traditional perspective of HRD individual experience is often ignored such as mundane activities that encompass listening, chatting and being cheerful (Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2003) that are crucial to leadership development.

Allio (2013) has concluded that experience is an important aspect of leadership as it enables the individual to enhance or acquire leadership skills and provides an opportunity for establishing an authentic personal identity that facilitates the responsibility for leadership. However, experience in practice is faced by tensions. Thus, Gagnon and Collinson (2014: 646) call for rethinking of global learning programmes and argue that:

Tensions are important in developing a theoretically grounded analysis which conceptualises LDPs not only as sites of learning and skill development but also as complex and sometimes paradoxical processes through which situated dynamics of power and identity are enacted and reproduced.

In the same view, McDermott et al (2011) argue that leader development is an individual experience that is affected and influenced by certain contextual factors such as environmental instability, crisis or major changes. These factors increase uncertainty and anxiety that prompts the requirement for new leadership skills and strategies. Thus, to be successful as Manning and Robertson (2002) put it, a leader has to adapt to the requirements of different types of situations. However, is it possible for the leadership development to assimilate all the possible situations? Some leadership development programmes attempt to develop situation leadership skills (Cacioppe, 1998) but it is not possible to develop all the situations. Amagoh (2009: 990) asserts that ‘the key elements that contribute to a successful leadership experience include changing mindsets, a global focus, personnel development and improved business and leadership skills’. Again it could be argued that changing ‘mindsets’ is chiefly dependent on the identities and personalities however, Meager and McLachlan (2014) argue
that effective leadership development is not about changing people’s personalities and identities, as we require less robots in organisations and business in general. A successful leadership experience should be able to result into developing necessary capabilities for leaders.

What is certain is that an individual experience within an organisation is influenced to some extent by culture. Hackett et al (1999) state that the inter-relationships between culture, power and leadership are paramount to secure a successful individual experience. Thus, Premitt (2003) calls for leadership development programmes that addresses the issues of creating a culture that is premised on trust and openness through the notion of a learning organisation. It is argued that ‘a learning organization is one that facilitates the learning of all its members and transforms itself in order to meet strategic goals’ (Premitt, 2003: 58). On the other hand, individual experience is enhanced by what Kempster and Parry (2014) call ‘observational leadership learning’. They argue that observational leadership learning provides the foundational knowledge that tacitly impacts on leadership practice.

Recently, there has been increasing interest in viewing leadership development based on the notion of applying critical ideas. Critical Human Resource Development (CHRD) is emerging as an alternative for exploring the variations in leadership development as no one size fits all. Trehan and Shelton (2006: 292) assert that:

> When we come from a critical perspective to the question of management and leadership development for HRD, we are faced with a number of options: first, we can expand the theoretical range by including or adopting non-conventional views; second, we can relate methods of development to our theories of the leadership phenomenon.

Thus, according to Trehan and Shelton (2006) critical leadership development study involves a process of drawing from critical perspectives in order to engage managers and make connection between their learning and work experience. In this view, CHRD is a paradigm shift from the mechanistic way of learning that is mainly centred on the assumption that ‘management knowledge and practice is objective and value free’ (Trehan and Rigg, 2011: 279). Central to critical leadership development is action learning which is concerned with the incorporation of work and learning through a process of collaboration within small groups (Stead, 2014). The small groups are usually referred to as ‘learning sets’. According to Trehan and Rigg (2011) the action learning set is viewed as a source of learning about organisational dynamics that are in constant change. In such
methods it is a requirement for learners to critically reflect on their professional experience to facilitate the process of selecting appropriate ideas that influence their work.

Trehan and Pedler (2009) assert that critical action learning is based on the notion that sees learning as a process that can help learners to reflect effectively on their actions and organisational problems. Meager and McLachlan (2014) have found that the two major problems that good leaders find challenging are time management and people problems. These problems could be shared during critical action learning. Thus, critical action learning is an important element of leadership development as it is based on peer learning that gives the participants the opportunities to share issues and problems (Trehan and Pedler, 2009; Stead, 2014). Furthermore, the design, task and process issues are considered paramount in critical action learning as they facilitate the reflection of critical issues such as power, politics and emotions (Trehan and Rigg, 2011; Solomon, 2004). In particular, emotions are an important part for developing leaders as it is argued that ‘extraordinary emotions motivate and provoke extraordinary behaviors, which in turn provoke even more extraordinary emotions’ (Solomon, 2004: 85). However, applying critical ideas to leadership development does not only mean exploring suppositions of power, politics and emotions but it involves the process of critical examination of the contextual forces such as social, cultural and political that may have an impact on the development process. Moreover, as Trehan and Pedler (2009: 37) put it:

Critical action learning is an important development in management and leadership development because it promotes a deepening of critical thinking on the daily realities of organizational life and does this by emphasising the value of collective as well as individual reflection.

Thus, Trehan and Pedler (2009) identify approaches to critical action learning based on collaborative enquiry, problem-solving and self-development. Therefore, a leader cannot do it alone as collaborative enquiry involves several stakeholders. The value of collective reflection could also be achieved through the concept of shared leadership that is the focus for this research. The next part of the literature review will explore the phenomenon of shared leadership to find out what is available and offer new insights in the conceptualisation of leadership by identifying any gaps that could exist.
2.2 Shared Leadership

2.2.1 Introduction

This section of the chapter will explore the concept of ‘shared leadership’ which is the focal theory of this research project. Shared leadership will be reviewed in depth in order to better understand the dynamics of sharing or distributing the functions of leadership in organisations.

The term ‘shared leadership’ has become popular in both practitioner literature and academic literature. The concept of shared leadership is premised on the notion that leadership could be distributed to other people rather than being a function of a sole leader. The conception of shared leadership is a departure from positional leadership and is centred on shared values and shared responsibilities. For example, when considering the concept of shared leadership Manz et al (2010) studied the experiences of a single organisation. Manz et al (2010) revealed that the organisation’s experience suggested a positive relationship between the practice of shared leadership and sustainable performance underpinned by a philosophy of shared values that was reflected in creativity and viewing everyone as a valuable resource. The notion of viewing everyone as a valuable resource is an interesting one however; the question is how the shared leadership approach could be achieved. It does not tell us more about the process. Indeed before embarking on the process it is imperative to understand the meaning of the concept of shared leadership.

2.2.2 Defining Shared Leadership

The notion of sharing or distributing leadership has given rise to many terms such as collective leadership (Harris, 1999; Hiller, Day and Vance, 2006), collateral leadership (Alexander et al. 2001), distributed leadership (Gronn, 2000; Currie, Lockett and Suhomlinova, 2009; Burke, 2010), authentic leadership (Walumbwa et al. 2008: Costas and Taheri, 2012), team leadership (Day, Gronn, Salas, 2006; Solansky, 2008; Gupta, Huang and Nranjan, 2010; Scott DePure, Barnes and Morgeson, 2010), and delegated leadership (House and Aditya, 1997). All these terms are basically similar to shared leadership. However, Pearce and Conger (2003: 1) define shared leadership as ‘a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both’. This involves multiple individuals
who step forward to offer leadership and later on step back and allow others to lead depending on the requirements of the immediate task. Manz et al (2010) found out that people do indeed step forward and lead when they are needed. To them this translate that it is not only designated leaders who serve as leaders all the time. Manz and colleagues argue that leadership can change at any time depending on expertise, experience and interests. It could then be argued that the roles, responsibilities and functions of leadership can be passed on to those not in formal leadership positions. But a gap in literature exists on how stakeholders such as volunteers, employees and trustees participate in the leadership process.

Apart from Pearce and Conger’s definition of shared leadership, Jackson (2000) defines it as a management model based on the shared governance. This model assumes that individuals or teams performing tasks are best equipped to provide meaningful improvement. It is interesting that Jackson equates leadership to governance. In this view, it will be interesting to find out how trustees in voluntary organisations who are tasked with the governance of organisation participate in the leadership process. However, research suggests that there is a level of shared governance and leadership among the trustees and the executives. For example, Hoye (2006) found out that the chair of a high-performing board is perceived to provide the overall leadership of the board compared to the chair of the low-performing board that is regarded as the provider for the direction of the organisation but relies more on the executive leadership such as the Chief Executive Officer (CEO). The implications are that the board chair’s position and that of the CEO are not very clear because it seems that the CEO plays an important role in supporting the board chair but on the other hand the chair is perceived as the boss as indicated by Hoye (2006).

The definition offered by Pearce and Conger (2003) above suggests that shared leadership only occurs in teams. In this view, the term shared leadership is mainly used to describe the situation in which teams collectively exert influence (Cox, Pearce and Perry, 2003; Pearce and Conger, 2003). The term should not be restricted to describing leadership in teams as the process of shared leadership could be applied in any organisational setting (Manz et al. 2010). However, Pearce and Conger’s definition offers a much clearer approach than that of Jackson (2000) by considering the interactions that take place in a group. In this view, an organisation could also be perceived as an entity that consists of a group of members.
Locke and Schweiger (1979) assert that shared leadership and participative management involve any power-sharing arrangement in which workplace influence is shared among individuals who are otherwise hierarchical unequal (cited in Steinheider et al. 2006). Power sharing is viewed as the most important method that allows leaders to establish a collective base of leadership (Alexander et al. 2001). This is interesting in that the issue of power-sharing is raised in the process of workplace influence. However, the extent to which power could be distributed to people not in formal leadership positions such as volunteers, employees and trustees is not known. It has also been recognised that sharing power may be the most intricate and difficult personal challenge for those in power (Alexander et al. 2001).

Shared leadership has also been defined as an emergent team property that comes about as a consequence of distributing the leadership influence among multiple team members (Carson et al., 2007; Erkutlu, 2012). The team members have been perceived as having the ownership of the process of leadership and take part as a group to influence change and outcomes of the team. This is a contrast to the conventional leadership paradigm that puts emphasis on the role of the sole leader who is in most cases external to a team. However, a gap exists in the literature regarding a clear distinction of what constitutes shared leadership and how it impacts on organisational or individual outcomes. It is also not clear how the roles, responsibilities and functions of leadership are distributed among stakeholders not in formal leadership positions.

2.2.3 The Dimensions of Shared Leadership

It has often proved problematic to measure the phenomenon of leadership when equating the concept to an individual. The conceptualisation of leadership as a group property poses further problems for measuring the concept as many people are perceived to be involved. Moreover, to illustrate the vintage of shared leadership theory, elements of leadership also need to be identified and this could encompass power, organizational culture, vision, mission, goals, values and processes. Liden and Antonakis (2009) have argued that the most important element of leadership is the organisational culture as it affects the behaviour of people within the organisation. In this view, Khasawneh (2011) measured the impact of shared leadership on organizational citizenship behaviour among faculty members in Jordanian public universities by using the three dimensions of shared leadership that included participative decision making, power and communication. The findings of the study indicated that shared
leadership is moderately practised in Jordanian public universities. It was also discovered that the participants exhibited moderate organizational citizenship behaviour and that shared leadership had an effect on organizational citizenship behaviour. Moreover, the communication dimension presented the highest mean value followed by the dimensions of power and that of decision-making. The argument offered by Khasawneh (2011: 623) is that ‘organizational structures are evolving and hence the new initiatives do not support single individuals occupying formal positions. Present institutions require new types of organizational strategies, structures and working relationships’. However, this could be a challenge due to the complex of organisations that have a diverse pool of stakeholders.

Leadership research and theory seems to be consistent in arguing that a considerate, stakeholder-centred, participative and democratic style is most effective. For instance, Sanders, Geurts and van Riemsdijk, (2011: 113) argue that ‘the shared perceptions of employees seem to contribute to the understanding of the relationship between individual perceptions and outcomes important for individual well-being’. However, there is a gap in knowledge to determine how shared leadership is effective and under what conditions it may occur. It has been proposed for instance by Hoch and Dulebohn (2013: 117) that ‘as a leadership approach, shared leadership is not mutually exclusive to other leadership forms and behaviours, but can be engaged in simultaneously with other approaches such as vertical leadership’. Early leadership scholars also argued for the significance of leadership being shared among a group of people (Bales, 1950; Gibb, 1954, Slater, 1955). They argued that leadership is probably best conceived of as a group quality. For instance, Gibb (1954) suggests the idea of two forms of team leadership: distributed and focused. According to Carson et al (2007) focused leadership is when leadership resides within a single individual and distributed leadership is about two or more individuals sharing the roles, responsibilities and functions of leadership. Most of the theories in the management literature are mainly individual oriented and thus portray focused leadership described by Gibb (1954).

Furthermore, Timperley (2005) acknowledges that leadership has always been distributed within organisations but it has taken a long time to recognise it and develop the associated conceptual frameworks. Gronn (2000: 322) argues that ‘distributed forms may be achieved by any number of modes of allocating the components, but principally by means of togetherness. In this way, shared leadership is seen as a systematic, dynamic process where all members of the team are fully engaged in the leadership of the team (Pearce et al., 2008).
It is therefore about shared power, results and responsibility. However, it is not clear how the concept operates at the organisational level as most of the empirical research has been conducted at the team level. In describing shared leadership Crosby and Bryson (2005: 18) illustrate that ‘this level of sharing is usually more effective in tackling difficult public problems because it does not require the tremendous effort and cost of merging authority. The failure to elaborate the level of sharing raises some doubts in the concept. However, Bligh, Pearce and Kohles (2006) attempted to provide a meso-level model of shared leadership by focusing on intermediary processes of trust, potency and commitment that may lead to the development of shared leadership and ultimately more innovative knowledge creation. Shared leadership is thus a relatively new theory and a lot of questions need to be answered. For instance, is shared leadership about having participatory structures and processes? Is shared leadership a mere instrument that is only available to designated leaders? Who can participate in the shared leadership process and why?

In describing delegated leadership House and Aditya (1997) argue that it is likely for complex organisations to divide leadership roles among two or more people. Therefore, unlike other individual centred theories, shared leadership reflects the post-industrial model that is based on relationships and shared power (Pearce, Manz and Sims, 2008). In most cases leadership is viewed as a responsibility for a sole leader as reflected in the trait theories and some contingency based theories. However, shared leadership attempts to put the emphasis on a group of people rather than an individual (Pearce and Manz, 2005). However, the concept of shared leadership has been referred to as being ‘primitive’ (Pearce, Conger and Locke, 2007). Its old-fashioned nature lies in the way it is perceived and studied. The limitations in existing models of shared leadership are that they rarely consider the perceptions of stakeholders not in formal leadership positions. In most cases the characteristics of the leader and how such perceptions and features can shape the relationship between leader behaviour and organisational performance are ignored. This is an important theoretical gap because the perceptions of stakeholders have a huge influence on social relationships that shape the process of leading. Leadership as part of an activity in the organisation must also be explored from the perspectives of stakeholders. According to Freeman (1984) the stakeholder framework offers a method for managers to understand their environment systematically and to begin to manage in a positive proactive way. However, this area is largely unexplored in relation to shared leadership and the present research will attempt to add new knowledge by exploring the interactions and relationships of
stakeholders. The stakeholder theory has been reviewed in detail in the later section of this chapter.

Alvarez and Svejenova (2005) also argue that the research on shared leadership does not focus on co-leadership, such as role sharing at the top, but on leadership distributed throughout both vertical and horizontal structures. This is another gap that needs to be addressed in further research. Moreover, Currie et al (2009) have demonstrated that the enactment of distributed leadership (which is the same as shared leadership) in schools depends on the immediate organisational environment. However, the ‘immediate organisational environment’ could mean anything.

2.2.4 The Perceived Benefits of Shared Leadership

Theoretically, the concept of shared leadership has been found by some scholars to benefit an organisation and its people. Some early research on the phenomenon of shared leadership (e.g. Pearce, 2004; Pearce and Ensley, 2004; Ensley, Hmieleski and Pearce, 2006) suggests that shared leadership is a more important predictor of team effectiveness. Pearce and Ensley (2004) concluded that innovation effectiveness and shared vision are reciprocally related and that shared vision and team dynamics are also reciprocally related, suggesting that shared vision occupies a core role in the team innovation process. More scholars have also attempted to present the benefits of shared leadership, for example, Wood and Fields (2007) found that shared leadership within a management team was negatively related to team member role overload, role conflict, role ambiguity and job stress. In other words shared leadership reduced the work overload, conflicts and stress. In addition to this, they found that shared leadership was positively related to job satisfaction of team members.

Job satisfaction is a highly contested concept in the literature due to the difficult of measurement. Conversely, job satisfaction is an important concept that managers in organisations should not ignore. It is one of the key elements that could lead to increased individual performance in an organisation. This has large implications on the effectiveness of the organisation. It is generally assumed that a satisfied employee, volunteer or trustee will be dedicated to work. Ostroff (1992) cited in Cuong and Swierczek (2008) defines job satisfaction as a general attitude that the employee has towards the job and is directly related
to the needs of the individual, the challenges that the job brings including rewards and a suppportive work environment.

Previous research has also indicated a relationship between leadership and job satisfaction. For instance, Bartolo and Furlonger (2000) found that consideration leadership behaviour and initiating structure leadership behaviour are both positively related to job satisfaction. Furthermore, Bartolo and Furlonger (2000) proposed that the level of team interaction was an alternative explanation for their findings. The implications are that interactions between the members of the organisation and their behaviour are important to leadership. In addition, Klein (2007) found that the higher the job satisfaction level the more likelihood an individual will positively contribute to the overall success of the organisation.

Steinheider, Wuestewald, Bayerl (2006) also suggest that involvement in decision-making can foster employee perceptions of organisational support, organisational commitment, and better labour-management relations. Employee engagement and involvement creates a sense of belonging and may result into individual and organisational commitment. This may result into good labour-management relations. Pearce, Manz and Akanno (2013) also propose that engagement of employees is an important tool of empowering employees through active involvement. They further argue that ‘broadening management development across all levels of the organizations, along the lines of shared leadership theory, will likely produce a more robust management system more capable of facilitating organizational sustainability’ (Pearce et al. 2013: 248). However, the concepts of employee engagement, involvement, participation, empowerment and sustainability are highly contested phenomena and are usually taken for granted. There is need for further enquiry on these concepts to shed some light on their implications to business and management.

On the other hand, the study by Carson, Tesluk and Marrone (2007) suggested positive effects of shared leadership on team performance. The study found that a team’s internal environment and coaching by an external leader are important precursors for shared leadership. Carson and colleagues were interested in the antecedent conditions i.e. events or circumstances happening or existing before shared leadership. The research methodology used was quantitative with a sample of 59 consulting teams that comprised of 348 MBA students from a United States university. The findings indicated that both the internal team environment, consisting of shared purpose, social support, and voice and external coaching
were important predictors of shared leadership emergence. In addition, shared leadership appeared to predict team performance. Indeed, team performance could be affected by lack of effective leadership. However, it is argued that effective teams are usually those that are self-managed and led (Pearce and Ensley, 2004). Consequently, it could be argued that if the role of leadership is distributed among the team members this could increase motivation and in turn have a positive impact on team performance. However, Fausong et al (2013) have recently found out that shared leadership has got no effect on team performance. Moreover, Barnes et al (2013) have argued that:

Although support for shared leadership has been largely anecdotal, advocates have extolled the benefits of the approach. In their view a shared leadership framework should contribute to superior decision making, particularly in complex situations, reduced stress for individual leaders, greater synergy, enhanced creativity, and improved team success. Nonetheless the reality is that most real-world organizations are led by individuals who seldom share leadership and prefer to retain power in a hierarchical fashion. (Barnes et al. 2013: 743)

Indeed, superior decision making should not only be the responsibility of those in formal leadership positions. Hence, it will be interesting to find out why some leaders prefer not to share leadership.

2.2.5 The Challenges of Shared Leadership

The notion of shared leadership is a good one and may be beneficial to the entire organisation, but there is no universal acknowledgement that the increased sharing of leadership will result in greater effectiveness (Vandiver, 2005). Moreover, little is known about the meaning of shared leadership and how it could be implemented and achieved in organisations. In this view, Barnes et al (2013: 742) have concluded that ‘regrettably, successful implementation of these idealistic conceptualizations of shared leadership in business organizations has largely failed to materialize’. A grey area also exists on its failures and limitations due to lack of successful implementation. However, Pearce et al (2013) emphasise that:

Shared leadership deserves further theoretical and empirical attention, both as an important under-researched leadership perspective and as a promising approach to encourage organizational sustainability. Such work may ultimately
reveal that it is time to move beyond the moribund myth of heroic, top-heavy leadership and the unsustainability it entails. (Pearce et al. 2013: 253)

Pearce et al (2013) call for further research on shared leadership is an important step in trying to enhance the understanding of the concept. It is doubtful though that heroic leadership will disappear on the scene. The problem is that organisations consist of a diverse group of stakeholders that are not equally situated in order for them to participate in the leadership process (Van Buren, 2010). Apart from the problem of having a diverse pool of stakeholders, having unsupportive structures and culture could have negative effects on the implementation of a shared leadership approach. In this view, Hoch and Dulebohn (2013) have developed an integrative framework of shared leadership that is based on having supportive structures. They identify three categories of antecedents for shared leadership as being support factors, vertical leadership, team member characteristics and composition. According to Hoch and Dulebohn (2013) the support factors encompass the level of perceived team support, information and rewards. However, these factors could be linked to the organisational culture and the purpose of the organisation. Erkutlu (2012) argues that an organisational culture affects the success of shared leadership. It is proposed that for shared leadership to thrive there is need for ‘the development of an organizational culture that embodies collaboration, trust and reciprocal accountability’ (Erkutlu, 2012: 103). Hence, the perceived team support, information and rewards are all underpinned by the organisational culture.

It has also been argued that self-leadership is an important aspect of shared leadership (Pearce et al. 2013; Erkutlu, 2012). Self-leadership as defined by Manz (1986) cited in Hauschildt (2012: 497) refers ‘to a process of self-influence concerned with leading oneself toward performance of naturally motivating tasks as well as managing oneself to do work that must be done but is not naturally motivating’. Self-leadership is pertinent to the present research because it offers the chance for people within organisations to consider themselves as leaders. The perception of being a leader in the organisation is underpinned by several factors. Ross (2014) has developed a model of self-leadership based on self-esteem, self-concept, self-confidence, attitude, motivation, behaviour and values. These factors could also play an important role in the conceptualisation of shared leadership however, the challenge with research could be that the constructs are too many to help understand the connection between self-leadership and shared leadership. Pearce et al (2013: 251) have suggested that:
The significance of these lines of research is that self-leadership skill is pertinent for enabling the recognition and allowance for self-influence in a system creates a natural tendency for distribution of power, as well as the inherent checks and balances contained in the practice of self-leadership, as opposed to strict reliance on external leadership from a centralized source. (Pearce et al. 2013: 251)

The allowance for self-influence depends on the ‘flexibility’ of vertical or hierarchical leadership as indicated by Hoch and Dulebohn (2013). The concept of flexibility is an important aspect of shared leadership. The literature on flexibility has mainly concentrated on the notion of the ‘flexible firm’ developed by John Atkinson in 1984. According to Atkinson (1984) cited in Taylor (2014) the flexible firm consist of the core (functional flexibility) and the periphery employees (numerical, temporal and functional flexibility). The core employees are those primary workers who are permanent, key and skilled. On the other hand, the periphery employees are subdivided into the first peripheral group that comprise of mostly full-time employees with some degree of permanence but with lower skills, the second peripheral group is made up of mainly part-time or temporary workers and the third and final group is beyond periphery and consist of sub-contracted or outsourced workers and those that are self-employed. This view has given limited types of flexibility that are more applicable to employees than to other stakeholders such as volunteers and trustees. For instance, numerical flexibility has been defined as the employment of people on ‘atypical’ contract, functional flexibility is premised on multi-skilling of employees and temporal flexibility is based on ‘flexitime’ (Taylor, 2014). However, it is imperative to investigate the flexibility of individual leaders. The behaviours of leaders have an effect on the concept of flexibility.

The behaviours of the hierarchical leaders could have influence on the perception of self-leadership by other stakeholders. Hoch and Dulebohn (2013:119) propose that leaders should ‘engage in more personalized leadership behaviors’. They suggest that personalised behaviours that reflect transformational leadership and empowerment could have the effect on the perception of self-leadership through the ethos of shared vision and shared goals. In this vein, ‘mutual flexibility’ (Reilly, 2001) cited in Taylor (2011) that involves partnership, negotiated change and employee involvement approach could be more applicable to shared leadership than the types of flexibility highlighted above. This is due to mutual flexibility being more inclusive.
Erkutlu (2012) is critical about self-leadership as it focuses on the development of the individual autonomy and goals as opposed to shared leadership that focuses on the capacity to bring the individuals together with the aim of achieving group objectives. This is based on the notion of how self-leadership is examined as Bratton, Dodd and Brown (2011) have criticised the self-ratings and suggest self-appraisals to be more accurate. Therefore, it will be helpful to incorporate self-leadership in this research to ascertain the relationship with shared leadership.

2.3 Stakeholder Theory and Shared Leadership

2.3.1 Introduction

This section of the chapter looks at the stakeholder theory in relation to the concept of shared leadership. It begins by unpacking the concept of stakeholders. This section is important in that the field of study of this research (voluntary organisations) has a range of stakeholders such as trustees, volunteers, employers and many others. The stakeholder theory therefore is the appropriate lens to analyse the involvement of these people in the leadership process hence it is imperative to extensively review it.

2.3.2 Defining Stakeholders

It has been argued that the business environment of the twenty-first century has experienced extreme change and it is evident that it is important not to ignore a certain group of people or individuals in the process of creating wealth or achieving the organisation’s objectives. The group of people or individuals that may be perceived to be important by the firm and that may require attention have been referred to as ‘stakeholders’. Benson and Davidson (2010: 932) have stated that the ‘definitions of the term stakeholders are numerous and broad’. They postulate that some definitions of stakeholders are narrow and only focus on the stake or vested interest in the firm. The Stanford Research Institute defined stakeholders as ‘those groups on which the organization is dependent for its continued survival’ (cited in Mitchell, Agle and Wood 1997: 856). The connotation for this definition is that a stakeholder should be a resource for the firm hence it could disqualify other potential stakeholders. However, the classic definition is that of Edward Freeman who is widely known for his ground-breaking book on the topic of stakeholders titled Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach. Freeman (1984: 25) defines stakeholders as ‘those groups and individuals that can affect, or
are affected by, the accomplishment of organizational purpose’. The term suggests that the groups and individuals who can affect and be affected by the attainment of organizational goals could virtually include anyone. According to Mitchell et al (1997: 856) Freeman’s definition is one of the broadest for ‘it leaves the notion of stake and the field of possible stakeholders unambiguously open’.

The consideration of stakeholders is also a departure from the dominant term of shareholders that is central in the business and management literature. There is no doubt for such domination because the core goal of the firm is to maximize shareholder wealth. Stakeholder theory is thus mainly viewed in contrast with shareholder theory and Minoja (2012: 68) has argued that ‘even its founder acknowledges that not only are shareholders a class of stakeholders but also that the achievement of profit remains a crucial objective of managerial activities’. However, the achievement of profit cannot be accomplished without the involvement or participation of key stakeholders (Benson and Davidson, 2010). The next section will explore how key stakeholders could be identified.

2.3.3 Identification of Stakeholders

According to Lopez De-Pedro and Rimbau-Gilabert (2012) the identification of stakeholders has made it possible to develop two branches of stakeholder literature: strategic and normative. Models included in the strategic domain have focused on stakeholders who may affect the firm’s objectives and on the other hand, models included in the normative branch have focused on stakeholders who may be affected by the firm’s decision. Minoja (2012) calls for the development of a dynamic approach to stakeholder management and proposes a theoretical framework that links together stakeholder management, stakeholder commitment to cooperate with the firm, key decision makers’ ethical commitment, and firm strategy. In regard to the firm’s strategy there is a concern that only the stakeholders at the apex of the organisation (Chadwick-Coule, 2011) dominate. However, it could be argued that stakeholder identification should come first before stakeholder management. According to Benson and Davidson (2010) stakeholder theory views an organisation as a group of stakeholders whose purpose should be to manage their interests, needs and viewpoints. They define stakeholder management as ‘the task of managing relations with stakeholders’ (Benson and Davidson, 2010: 931).
In trying to identify the stakeholders of the firm, Mitchell et al (1997) developed the theory of stakeholder salience that identified and classified the importance of stakeholders alongside the dimensions of power, legitimacy and urgency. According to Mitchell et al (1997: 854) stakeholder salience is ‘the degree to which managers give priority to competing stakeholder claims’. The implication of this is that managers have the absolute power to recognize and choose who should be the stakeholder of the firm. However, stakeholder identification is a complex process that may involve not only the managers of the firm but also other ‘stakeholders’ of the organisation. Mitchell et al (1997: 857) have observed that ‘the idea of comprehensively identifying stakeholder types, then, is to equip managers with the ability to recognize and respond effectively to a disparate, yet systematically comprehensible, set of entities who may or may not have legitimate claims, but who may be able to affect or affect by the firm nonetheless, and thus affect the interests of those who do have legitimate claims’. Their model of identification of stakeholders is premised on the normative assumption that classes of stakeholders can be identified by the attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency. They argue that the possession of one, two or all three of the attributes qualifies one to be a stakeholder.

According to Mitchell et al (1997: 854) the attributes of power (to influence the firm), legitimacy (of the stakeholder’s relationship with the firm) and urgency (of the stakeholder’s claim on the firm) define the field of stakeholders. Therefore, Mitchell et al (1997: 854) claimed that stakeholders are those ‘entities to whom managers should pay attention’ based on the possession of the attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency. Table 2.1 below is the representation of the stakeholder typology developed by Mitchell et al (1997). They classified stakeholders into: 1) Dormant stakeholders (possession of power only), 2) Discretionary stakeholders (possession of legitimacy only), 3) Demanding stakeholders (possession of urgency only), 4) Dominant stakeholders (possession of power and legitimacy), 5) Dangerous stakeholders (possession of power and urgency), 6) Dependent stakeholder (possession of legitimacy and urgency), and 7) Definitive stakeholders (possession of power, legitimacy and urgency). Those who do not possess any of the attributes were called nonstakeholders.

Mitchell et al’s (1997) work has received substantial attention in the identification and classification of stakeholders. However, Neville, Bell and Whitwell (2011) have argued that urgency is not relevant for identifying stakeholders and that it is the moral legitimacy of the
stakeholder’s claim that applies to stakeholder salience. According to Neville et al (2011: 362) ‘if the claimant does not have the power to affect the organization or a legitimate claim upon the organization, then managers will not grant stakeholder status’. Neville and colleagues also argue that legitimacy should be considered in terms of its moral dimension represented as a variable by the concept of moral intensity. However, the concept of moral intensity is not very clear. Neville et al (2011) further argue that the degree which managers give priority to competing stakeholder claims will vary as the degrees of the attributes vary. Their argument is based on the assumption that attributes of power, moral legitimacy and urgency should be evaluated by managers on a continuum of degrees and not as dichotomous variables as indicated by Mitchell et al (1997). The implications for this are that the attributes for identifying stakeholders may be numerous and the fields could be overlapping over a period of time. However, Mitchell et al’s (1997) model provides a much clearer stakeholder typology and the propositions regarding stakeholder salience tabulated in Table 2.1 below has huge implications for research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Stakeholder</th>
<th>Attribute(s)</th>
<th>Salience Proposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dormant</td>
<td>Power</td>
<td>Stakeholder salience will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discretionary</td>
<td>Legitimacy</td>
<td>Stakeholder salience will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demanding</td>
<td>Urgency</td>
<td>Stakeholder salience will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant</td>
<td>Power and Legitimacy</td>
<td>Stakeholder salience will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dangerous</td>
<td>Power and Urgency</td>
<td>Stakeholder salience will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Legitimacy and Urgency</td>
<td>Stakeholder salience will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitive</td>
<td>Power, Legitimacy and</td>
<td>Stakeholder salience will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urgency</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.1: Stakeholder Salience (Adapted from Mitchell et al. 1997)

Stakeholder salience may have huge implications for shared leadership within the firm. It could be assumed from Table 2.1 above that those stakeholders with low stakeholder salience will be less involved in the leadership process and those with a high stakeholder salience will be highly involved in the leadership process. However, the process of leadership is a complex one hence it will be imperative to explore the dynamic relationships of the stakeholders within a firm.

2.3.4 Applying Stakeholder Theory to Shared Leadership

The stakeholder framework offers a way for leaders to begin to understand their organisations thoroughly and to begin to lead in an interactive way. The stakeholder theory has been developed to solve or to reconceptualise several specific problems in business and management. In particular, the three key assumptions of the stakeholder theory are that: 1) the firm can be viewed as a set of interdependent relationships (Freeman, 1984); 2) the purpose of the firm is not only the maximization of shareholders’ value, but also the creation and distribution of value to a plurality of stakeholders; and 3) the achievement of the purpose of the firm depends on the cooperation and support of the stakeholders themselves (Minoja, 2012). These key assumptions are important for shared leadership as they allow for viewing an organisation as an entity that consist of several stakeholders that are also considered in the creation and distribution of value through supportive mechanisms.

Freeman (1984) also calls for three levels of analysis (rational, process and transactional) at which to understand the processes that an organisation uses to manage the diverse relationships with multiple stakeholders. In the first place it is imperative to understand from a rational perspective the stakeholders of the organisation. Secondly, it is also vital to understand the organisational processes used to manage the diverse relationships of the organisation with its stakeholders and whether these processes fit with the rational “stakeholder map” of the organisation. Finally, Freeman (1984: 53) argues that it is paramount to understand the ‘set of transactions or bargains among the organization and its stakeholders and deduce whether these negotiations fit with the stakeholder map and the organizational processes for stakeholders.
In addition to these three levels of analysis is the idea that the economic and social value of the firm is created by people who voluntarily come together and cooperate to improve everyone’s circumstance (Freeman et al. 2010). According to Freeman (1984) voluntarism is the stakeholder philosophy built on the premise that an organization must be willing on its own accord to satisfy its key stakeholders. However, Lopez De-Pedro and Rimbau-Gilabert (2012: 148) argue that ‘in many of the complex processes the ways in which effects unfold do not meet the narrow criteria assumed by most of stakeholder models. For instance, Freeman’s model that suggest that all stakeholders are linked to the firm through dyadic relationships and that the decisions made by an agent produce only foreseen and direct effects on other agents has been challenged (Savage et al. 2010). Savage et al (2010: 22) have argued that a network or collective perspective goes beyond ‘simply examining dyadic firm-stakeholder relationships’. They argue that the focus is on how the nexus of stakeholder relationships affects the organisation. Despite the challenges, Mitchell et al (1997: 855) have argued that the stakeholder theory ‘attempts to articulate a fundamental question in a systematic way: which groups are stakeholders deserving or requiring management attention and which are not?’ Moreover, Freeman et al (2010) argue that the stakeholder theory could solve the problem of value creation and trade, the problem of the ethics of capitalism and the problem of managerial mindset.

Shared leadership could therefore be reconceptualised by looking at the problem of managerial mindset. The question by Freeman et al (2010: 5) ‘how can managers adopt a mindset that puts business and ethics together to make decisions on a routine basis’ is relevant to the concept of shared leadership because it is about making decisions involving others. According to Freeman (1984: 4) ‘the stakeholder approach is a theoretical lens that develops a generalizable and testable approach to managerial strategic decision-making’. Freeman acknowledges that any theory of strategic decisions must be applicable in ‘real world’ organisations. Hence, shared leadership seems to be about making strategic decisions involving a wider group of people. According to Schneider (2002: 209) the stakeholder theory provides the appropriate theoretical lens for viewing organisational leadership as it ‘offers the flexibility to accommodate various leader relationships’. It is this flexibility that shared leadership theorists have assumed that leadership may be extended to those not in formal leadership positions.
The stakeholder view brings the need for new theories such as that of shared leadership and models about non-traditional groups and one of the major areas of analysis of the stakeholder theory is the need for integration. The integration analysis of the stakeholder theory calls for greater involvement of stakeholders in strategic decision-making (Freeman, 1984; Freeman et al. 2010). In addition, Ford (2005: 616) argues that ‘as an organization transforms itself, the means by which it enforces control in integrating work practices and the ways it exercises power must also change’. The implications are that trying new things may benefit the firm and its stakeholders and more especially its internal stakeholders the employees whose interests and needs should be constantly in check. Employee relationships are dynamic and should be understood to avoid under performance and high staff turnovers. It has been acknowledged that the major problem facing managers is really not an external one, but an internal one (Freeman, 1984). Shared leadership could be a successful stakeholder program but little is known about this emerging concept.

The limitations in existing models of shared leadership such as that of (Pearce and Conger, 2003; Carson et al. 2007) are that they rarely consider the perceptions of stakeholders not in formal leadership positions. In most cases the characteristics of the leader and how such perceptions and features can shape the relationship between leader behaviour and organisational performance are ignored. This is an important theoretical gap because the perceptions of stakeholders have a huge influence on social relationships that shape the process of leading. It makes more sense for leadership as part of an activity in the organisation to be explored from the perspectives of stakeholders. According to Freeman (1984) the stakeholder framework offers a method for managers to understand their environment systematically and to begin to manage in a positive proactive way.

In recent years, managers have been more actively considering stakeholders in their decision making (Paulson, 2009). However, there has been little research on how this complex process is accomplished. The findings by Ford (2005: 616) illustrate that three principles are needed for leaders to establish stakeholder power relations: 1) creating the space for new communicative interaction; 2) safeguarding a credible and open process; and 3) reclaiming suppressed views. However, this area is largely unexplored in relation to shared leadership as shared leadership goes beyond stakeholder power relations.
The organisational environment is made up of different stakeholders in any social setting. It could be argued that not all stakeholders are important and it could be a waste of resources to involve everyone. This is supported by Freeman (1984:52) who states that ‘theoretically, therefore, “stakeholder” must be able to capture a broad range of groups and individuals, even though when we put the concept to practical tests we must be willing to ignore certain groups who will have little or no impact on the corporation at this point in time’. However, the experiences of various stakeholders are vital in the conceptualising of the notion of shared leadership. Taking a stakeholder approach may help to illuminate the phenomenon of shared leadership.

Stakeholders could be internal or external to the organisation and their involvement in the leadership process could be paramount through the conceptual shift that could be termed as ‘stakeholder revolution’. Freeman (1984) advocated for a shift from strategic planning to strategic management. Strategic management through stakeholder revolution may allow the involvement of people in non-leadership positions in the enactment of leadership. Stakeholder revolution reflects the tenet of shared leadership as it involves stakeholder activism and empowerment. Freeman (1984) argues that authoritarian leadership styles must be replaced with a more human approach that is centred on the concept of participation. However, the issue is not so simple but is equally important to understand the needs of all stakeholders of an organisation. The stakeholder theory as stated by Schneider (2002) is appropriate for the basis of non-hierarchical conceptualization of leadership as it may include those inside the firm or outside it.

The Managerial View of a firm described by Freeman (1984) could offer the starting point of conceptualising shared leadership as shown in the adapted figure 2.1 below. The interactions between various stakeholders are crucial to the determination of shared leadership. The adapted model of the managerial view of the firm features volunteers and trustees as this research is based on voluntary organisations. This is further elaborated in the voluntary sector review chapter of this thesis (chapter three). It has to be mentioned that the link between chapter two and three is based on the clarification of the context of the research and the concept of leadership. Research on leadership in HRM, organisational behaviour and other business and management fields is mainly based on corporate organisations and hence the need to have a chapter to illuminate on the nature of voluntary organisations.
According to Benson and Davidson (2010) the stakeholder theory focuses on managerial decision making by asking managers to answer two core questions: 1) what is the purpose of the firm and 2) what responsibility does management have to stakeholders? Benson and Davidson (2010) acknowledge that arriving at an answer for both questions could be problematic and confusing.

Figure 2.1: The Managerial View of a Firm and the Interactions between Stakeholders (Adapted from Freeman, 1984 and Freeman et al. 2010)

However, it could be helpful to understand the interactions (depicted by arrows in figure 2.1) that are possible among leaders and various stakeholders. The interactions may lead us to understand the relationships that may occur between leaders and stakeholders. Capturing the experiences of the stakeholders in this complex process may be vital. In this way, stakeholders would be able to offer their perspective and experiences of leadership. Freeman (1984) calls for concepts and processes which give integrated approaches for dealing with multiple stakeholders on multiple issues.
Current management research on stakeholder theory has mainly concentrated on the concept of corporate social responsibility and there is no research on shared leadership focusing on employees, volunteers and trustees as stakeholders in voluntary organisations. However, there has been a great interest in linking the stakeholder theory to other management concepts. For instance Agbanu (2010) examines the impact of stakeholder collaboration on organisational effectiveness. Ford (2005) conducted a research involving leaders in the development of highly collaborative enterprise in managing change through the stakeholder leadership model. Finch (2010) doctoral dissertation involved the evaluation of the influence of stakeholder relationships on corporate performance using the stakeholder scorecard. Winn (2001) conducted a case study that focused on stakeholder theory in relation to the critical juncture where stakeholder relationships and corporate policy decisions converge. However, there is a gap in viewing shared leadership in the lens of stakeholder theory and focusing on employees, volunteers and trustees.

2.4 Conceptual Framework & Research Framework

2.4.1 Introduction

This section of the chapter presents the conceptual and the research framework. Quinlan (2011) proposes the four frameworks approach to provide a simple guide to the development of a research project. The first framework, the conceptual framework directs the development of the other three frameworks, the theoretical framework, the methodological framework and the analytical framework. This four framework approach to the research process enhanced my understanding of the research process. In this view, the conceptual framework is represented by the research questions and objectives. The conceptual framework has been implemented by a comprehensive literature review on shared leadership and its relationship with the stakeholder theory. The conceptual framework is presented here to complement the theoretical framework. The theoretical framework is discussed here in detail. The methodological framework will be discussed in detail in the methodological chapter. Furthermore, the analytical framework will be outlined in the data analysis section of the thesis.

2.4.2 Conceptual Framework
The study is aimed at exploring and developing the idea of how leadership is ‘shared’ among stakeholders. As mentioned in the introductory chapter of this thesis the core empirical question of the research is; Do stakeholders take part in the process of leadership, if so how and if not, why not? In addition, the research has the following objectives;

1. To capture the process of leadership from the perspective of stakeholders (accomplished by Phase 1 of the research)
2. To find out how stakeholders get involved in the leadership process (accomplished by phase 2 of the research)
3. To explore the relationships of stakeholders and gain their understanding in the process of leadership and identify the implications on organisations and individuals (accomplished by Phase 3 of the research).

In line with objective two of the research project, the study is concerned with establishing the magnitude of shared leadership and identifying key indicators or factors by presenting the following research questions;

- What is the level of shared leadership among stakeholders in organisations?
- What are the key factors that could affect the process of shared leadership among stakeholders in organisations?

The key concepts for the research project are shared leadership and stakeholders. However, there are other dimensions and sub-dimensions of shared leadership that will be covered by the theoretical framework.

2.4.3 Theoretical Framework

The literature review has critically analysed the concept of shared leadership. The working definition of shared leadership is that of Pearce and Conger (2003: 1) who define shared leadership as ‘a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both’. The key words in this definition are dynamic, interactive, influence and process. Consequently, there is need to establish a theoretical framework for this research that take into account these elements.
The synthesised insights from the literature review can be presented as a framework for the investigation. Figure 2.2 below shows the theoretical framework that reflects the characteristics and perceived outcomes of shared leadership informed by the literature review. This is based on Pearce (2004) analysis of team level leadership and Wood (2005) who identifies four dimensions of shared leadership as being joint completion of tasks, mutual skill development, decentralized interaction among personnel and emotional support. Moreover, Carson et al (2007) suggested building a team environment that is underpinned by ‘shared purpose’, ‘social support’ and ‘voice’ contributes to the development of the theoretical framework. Furthermore, Jackson (2000) found out that the relational aspect of shared leadership is influenced by four constructs: accountability; partnership; equity and ownership. However, the models highlighted above do not explicate clearly how the functions of leadership could be distributed among stakeholders not in formal leadership positions. Moreover, the level of analysis has concentrated on teams rather than the organisation as a whole.

Since the study is aimed at exploring and developing the idea of how leadership is ‘shared’ among stakeholders, the research will apply the three levels of analysis suggested by Freeman (1984) which are the rational, process and transactional levels. From the rational perspective we must understand who are these stakeholders and what are the perceived stakes regarding leadership. Secondly, we must understand the organizational processes used to manage the relationships of stakeholders. Finally, we must understand the set of transactions among the organisation and its stakeholders and deduce whether these negotiations fit with the shared leadership framework and the organisational processes for stakeholders.

The synthesised insights can be presented as a theoretical framework for the investigation taking in consideration of the conceptual framework discussed above. In particular, I am interested in looking at:

- The characteristics of shared leadership (what constitutes shared leadership)
- The entities that could be shared
- What could be the benefits or challenges of shared leadership (outcomes and obstacles)
The levels of analysis.

The characteristics of shared leadership that I am interested in are shared decision-making, shared strategic planning and shared communication. Regarding the ‘shared entities’, I am interested in looking at power, influence and responsibility. I have no preconceived assumptions for the outcome of shared leadership but the level of analysis will be mainly the ‘individual’. Figure 2.2 below represents the initial ideas about theorising the nature of shared leadership.

**Figure 2.2: Theorising the nature of Shared Leadership**

To integrate the ideas tabulated in Figure 2.2 above, I find the stakeholder theory useful in the process of developing a map for the research journey. This is because the stakeholder theory offers a way to begin to understand organisations thoroughly and to begin to consider other players who take part in various transactions. Furthermore, the stakeholder theory has been developed to solve or to reconceptualise several specific problems such as leadership in business and management. In particular, the three key assumptions of the stakeholder theory are that: 1) the firm can be viewed as a set of interdependent relationships (Freeman, 1984); 2) the purpose of the firm is not only the maximization of shareholders’ value, but also the
creation and distribution of value to a plurality of stakeholders; and 3) the achievement of the purpose of the firm depends on the cooperation and support of the stakeholders themselves (Minoja, 2012). Moreover, the economic and social value of the firm is created by people who voluntarily come together and cooperate to improve everyone's circumstance (Freeman et al. 2010). According to Freeman voluntarism is the stakeholder philosophy built on the premise that an organization must be willing on its own accord to satisfy its key stakeholders. The implications are that, voluntarism could be a mechanism for stakeholder satisfaction from the organisation point of view. However, this mechanism could be a two way system whereby a stakeholder offers extra help. The concept of voluntarism is thus vital in capturing the understanding of how stakeholders take part in the leadership process. In addition, the stakeholder philosophy of voluntarism is underpinned by cooperation and support. The entire process is linked to interdependent relationships of the stakeholders to the firm. In this case, support and cooperation are the key elements of voluntarism. Without the required support stakeholders may not be willing to volunteer to offer extra help. Furthermore, there is need for the stakeholders to cooperate with the firm to bring about this mechanism that is underpinned by interdependent relationships.

Figure 2.3 below represents what I want to capture from this conceptualisation of the stakeholder theory. In particular, I would like to find out what kind of support is available to bring about cooperation and voluntarism for stakeholders taking the perspective of the relationships with the organisation.
To incorporate the ideas depicted in Figure 2.3 into the possibility of how stakeholders may take part in the leadership process, I apply Freeman’s levels of analysis (rational, process and transactional) at which to understand the processes that an organisation uses to manage the diverse relationships with multiple stakeholders. In the first place it is imperative to understand from a rational perspective the stakeholders of the organisation (e.g. internal stakeholders such as employees). Secondly, it is also vital to understand the organisational processes used to manage the diverse relationships of the organisation with its stakeholders and whether these processes fit with the rational “stakeholder map” of the organisation. Moreover, Freeman (1984: 53) argues that it is paramount to understand the ‘set of transactions or bargains among the organization and its stakeholders and deduce whether these negotiations fit with the stakeholder map and the organizational processes for stakeholders’. These stages can be illustrated by Figure 2.4 below.

Rational + Process + Transactions = Relationships
This research will focus on the rational, process and transactional levels of analysis by taking a view that an organisation is a set of interdependent relationships. These ideas could be represented by the formula and Figure 2.4 above as a guide only and not as a prescription. The identified dimensions could then be integrated and represented by Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension/Item</th>
<th>Relationship with other dimensions</th>
<th>Implications for the study</th>
<th>Research objectives being addressed</th>
<th>Data Collection Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics of SL</td>
<td>Decision making</td>
<td>Decision making could be related to power, influence and responsibility</td>
<td>1, 2 and 3</td>
<td>Semi-structured interviews, Survey and In-depth interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Regarding how stakeholders take part in the leadership process looking at delegation and consultation versus participation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic planning</td>
<td>Strategic planning could be related to</td>
<td>Regarding how stakeholders take part in the leadership</td>
<td>1, 2 and 3</td>
<td>Semi-structured interviews,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shared Entities (Related to characteristics)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Power</strong></td>
<td><strong>Influence</strong></td>
<td><strong>Responsibility</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communication</strong></td>
<td>Communication could be related to power, influence and responsibility</td>
<td>Regarding how stakeholders take part in the leadership process looking at delegation and consultation versus participation</td>
<td>1, 2 and 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Power</strong></td>
<td>Power could be related to influence, responsibility, decision making, strategic planning and communication</td>
<td>Regarding the delegation and sharing of power</td>
<td>2 and 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Influence</strong></td>
<td>Influence could be related to power, decision making, strategic planning and communication</td>
<td>Regarding the way stakeholders could influence others</td>
<td>1 and 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Responsibility</strong></td>
<td>Responsibility could be related to power, decision making, strategic planning and communication</td>
<td>Regarding the delegation and sharing of responsibility</td>
<td>1, 2 and 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Levels of Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Individual</strong></th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Outcomes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Benefits of shared leadership</strong></th>
<th>Regarding performance and satisfaction</th>
<th>1 and 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Survey and In-depth interviews
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Limitations/Barriers of shared leadership</th>
<th>Regarding the coordination, dependency and accountability</th>
<th>1 and 3</th>
<th>Semi-structured interviews and In-depth interviews</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stakeholder Approach Levels</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational</td>
<td>Rational level is the starting point of recognising that employees are also stakeholders</td>
<td>For example, employees as internal stakeholders</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Process level involves how stakeholders are managed</td>
<td>Management of stakeholders</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>The transactional level is the highest in the hierarchical stakeholder approach and is about the involvement and engagement of stakeholders</td>
<td>Involvement and engagement of stakeholders</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stakeholder Philosophy</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntarism</td>
<td>Voluntarism could be related to cooperation and support hence the need to explore this in the study</td>
<td>Employees to take up extra responsibilities such as that of leadership/organisation to offer extra help will depend on the relationships</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>Cooperation could be related to voluntarism and support hence the need</td>
<td>Willingness of stakeholders to take up extra responsibilities such as that of leadership will depend</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Support could be related to cooperation and voluntarism hence the need to explore this in the study</td>
<td>Available help to stakeholders to take part in the leadership process will depend on the relationship</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2.2: The Integrated Dimensions and how the will be captured in the Research**

The discussed theoretical framework is represented by Figure 2.5 below.
Figure 2.5: Theoretical Framework

The integrated Figure 2.5 shown above will be used as a guide to data collection and to some extent data analysis. The characteristics of shared leadership will be addressed by semi-structured interviews (chief executive officers, employees, trustees and volunteers), the survey (employees, trustees and volunteers), and in-depth interviews (employees, volunteers
and trustees). Thus, the data will both be quantitative and qualitative for the characteristics of shared leadership. As for the ‘shared entities’, power and responsibility will be addressed by a survey and in-depth interviews. On the other hand, influence will be addressed by semi-structured and in-depth interviews. Thus, the data collected for influence will mainly be qualitative in nature. The possible outcomes of shared leadership will be investigated through the semi-structured and in-depth interviews. Thus, the data collected for outcomes of shared leadership will mainly be qualitative. The stakeholder approach will be dealt with in the in-depth interviews considering that this process is underpinned by relationships and hence will consist of mainly qualitative data.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has shown that the concept of leadership is a huge subject and the context in which it takes place is complex. The literature review has demonstrated that this complexity produces various reactions from different academics. Many observations have been made on leadership but there remains an element of doubt over the phenomenon. Grint (2005: 14) has negatively stated that ‘despite over half a century of research into leadership, we appear to be no nearer a consensus as to its basic meaning, let alone whether it can be taught or its moral effects measured and predicted’. However, one may argue that a unified body of opinion on what constitutes leadership will never be achieved as highlighted in the literature review. Most reviewers acknowledge that there is no unifying definition or theory of leadership (Grint, 2005; Trethewey and Goodall, 2007; Williams, 2009). In particular, Williams (2009: 127) sums up leadership as ‘a popular concept with multiple meanings … (that) has given rise to an extensive literature’. This may be attributed to different research questions, hypotheses, methods of gathering data, and explanations of the leadership phenomenon and the period. Moreover, the approach to the concept of leadership may depend hugely on the epistemological and ontological perspective of the researcher.

Leadership theory remains an important research activity and well trained and supported researchers are needed to continue contributing to the canon of knowledge. Disagreements, doubts and misunderstandings will always be there, but it is imperative to take a holistic approach and, at the same time, remain focused while theorizing the concept of leadership. Bookshelves may be full but the energy and the desire to explore the subject have not yet
been exhausted. Leadership will always be an important factor in driving organisations forward in periods of change and crisis. But the question is what type or kind of leadership? Perhaps, leadership must include knowledge that is constructed from broad philosophical perspectives (Fennell, 2005). The knowledge should be, as Adair (2002: 71) posited, ‘about human nature and how best people might work together in organisations’.

The shift from trait to behavioural approach is a positive move but this has contributed to the complexity of the concept of leadership as more variables have been identified. On the other hand, transformational and transactional leadership theories are more inclined to an individual as a leader.

Group-centred leadership, distributed leadership, co-leadership or shared leadership sound very convincing, but as highlighted in the review further research is needed to determine the limits of their usefulness. The notion of shared leadership might sound more democratic as the attention is on a group of people sharing knowledge and taking the lead in the furtherance of an organisation’s goals. However, the complexity of the process might be difficult to offer a comprehensive model on how it could be achieved. Extensive research is also required to identify organisations that are already applying the model of knowledge sharing. Obembe (2010: 657) asserts that ‘for any organization, the most important aspect of managing knowledge would be the ability to share knowledge because shared knowledge constitutes a potential asset and there is the possibility for enhanced collective performance’. The notion of shared leadership is therefore a good one and may be beneficial to the entire organisation, but there is no universal acknowledgement that the increased sharing of leadership will result in greater effectiveness (Vandiver, 2005). Moreover, little is known about the meaning of shared leadership and how it could be implemented and achieved in organisations. A grey area also exists on its failures and limitations. This project will attempt to shed some light on the phenomenon of shared leadership by taking a stakeholder perspective. The review has highlighted the importance of involving or engaging the stakeholders in the furtherance of organisational objectives. However, organisations have numerous stakeholders hence it is vital to identify which stakeholders to focus on when conducting a research.

The inquiry might also involve the process of investigating how different stakeholders construct the idea of sharing leadership. However, as Freeman (1984: 53) puts it, ‘if the stakeholder concept is to have practical significance, it must be capable of yielding concrete
actions with specific groups and individuals’. Stakeholder is a broad term but it is clear that employees have the legitimacy to be called stakeholders and from the voluntary sector review (discussed in the next chapter) trustees and volunteers qualify to be called stakeholders. It is important for an organisation to understand the needs of its stakeholders. Freeman (1984) acknowledges that the issue is not that simple as understanding the needs of stakeholders could be complex. For example employees, trustees and volunteers could have multiple identities; they could be customers, shareholders, stockholders and even members of special interest groups.

In sum, the proposed theoretical framework will help me to address the research questions and objectives through the methodological framework. The methodological framework includes semi-structured interviews, a survey and in-depth interviews. The next chapter will review the context of the research. It is imperative to have a chapter dedicated to the voluntary sector were voluntary organisations that were represented in the study belong.
Chapter 3: Voluntary Sector Review

3.1 Introduction

This thesis is attempting to advance knowledge on the involvement of stakeholders in the leadership process through the concept of ‘shared leadership’ within the context of voluntary organisations in the UK. This chapter is aimed at enhancing the understanding of the nature of voluntary organisations. It is hoped that the chapter will provide a platform for improving the perceptions about voluntary organisations.

The voluntary sector is increasingly becoming a popular field of study by researchers from different disciplines in the UK and abroad. In the UK, the voluntary sector has become more visible due to the government interest, cluster of changes taken by voluntary organisations themselves and the role of academics (Halfpenny and Reid, 2002). Conversely, the decline in civic engagement, trust and social connectedness (Putnam, 1993; Putnam, 2000; Taylor and Burt, 2005; Wollebaek and Stromsness, 2007) has given rise to the formation of voluntary associations as they are related to high levels of social capital and it is anticipated that through these agencies civic engagement, trust and social connectedness would rise. It is therefore expected that voluntary sector organisations have a high stock of social connectedness that bind community members together and make collective action possible.

The voluntary sector is misunderstood by many players due to lack of systematic and robust information on what it is; what distinguishes it from other sectors; its role and how it is governed and most importantly how it is led. Some have argued that the voluntary sector is internally fissile and lacks corporate identity (Marshall, 1996). The fragility and complexity nature has attributed to the voluntary sector famously been referred to as a ‘loose and baggy monster’ (Myers and Sacks, 2001: Osborne, 2002). Myers and Sacks (2001) have stated that the voluntary sector has been called a ‘loose and baggy monster’ because of the diverse nature of the sector that comprise of registered, unregistered, incorporated and unincorporated organisations. This has resulted into misconceptions about the voluntary sector’s role in the society and its identity.

There is a huge lacuna in the knowledge of what makes the voluntary sector distinctive from others and more so how the process of leadership takes place. However, Macmillan (2013:
argues that it is not enough to address the question of distinctiveness of the sector but to also find out the reasons behind the distinctiveness by asking ‘why the answers to those questions matter for the people in and around the sector’. Macmillan (2013) calls for ‘distinction strategies’ or treating the sector as a ‘strategic unity’ to unpack the unique value that could be compared to other entities. A proposal of research that involve ‘boundary work’ that explores ‘how boundaries are established, maintained, policed and traversed’ (Macmillan, 2013: 51) is needed. Conversely, the gulf in knowledge is widening due to the increase in the internal boundaries that is reflected in the number, size and activity of voluntary organisations and the heterogeneity nature of the voluntary sector as a whole.

Available scholarly research on the sector has concentrated mainly on influencing public and social policy without examining the unique features of the sector in detail. Moreover, policy discourse, still tends to be characterised by what Corcoran (2008) refers to as lack of proportionality and rigour in defining the responsibilities of the voluntary sector. In view of this, it is therefore paramount to articulate its identity and examine what makes it interesting, particular and remarkable.

The rationale of this chapter of the thesis is therefore to identify the characteristics that make the voluntary sector different from other sectors as Macmillan (2013: 51) have acknowledged that ‘claims for distinctiveness are an integral part of such boundary work’. In doing so, the chapter will attempt to find out the unique ingredients of the sector within its boundaries. The chapter will also present a description and analysis of the voluntary sector in the context of the UK and its development to help understand its social setting and linkage to the central theme of the thesis which is leadership. It will then demonstrate how the distinctive characteristics impact on the role and identity of the voluntary sector and explore some of the challenges being faced and conclude with the identification of future research. The following segment of the chapter gives an insight into the definition of the sector and its nomenclature. This will be crucial in providing a typology for the distinctive features for the sector.

3.2 What is the Voluntary Sector?

The complexity of the ‘voluntary sector’ renders the act of definition very difficult. This is attributed to the fact that there is no consensus on a single term to refer to the sector that is neither private nor public. Many authors have examined the lack of clarity associated with
the concept of the voluntary sector and the repercussions resulting from the complexity (Marshall, 1996; Osborne, 2002). Numerous actors have used a variety of terms to refer to this sector and have found it difficult to give an accurate definition. Usually, the voluntary sector is equated and viewed as that which is not, for example ‘not for profit’, ‘non-profit’ and ‘not statutory’ (Marshall, 1996).

Some of the terms used in the UK include third sector that broadly encompasses ‘the vast array of charities, voluntary organisations, informal community groups and social enterprises’ (Macmillan and McLaren, 2012: 2). In other words, the third sector is made of institutions that are ‘separated from both the business (or first) sector on one side and the government (or second) sector on the other side’ (Wagner, 2012). Not-for-profit and non-profit are commonly associated with the USA. On the international level, voluntary organisations are normally called NGOs (Non-governmental organisations). In Europe, ‘economic sociale’ is the term used to refer to non-profit organisations. The UK coalition government between the Conservative and the Liberal Democrats has reverted to the term ‘civil society’ (Soteri-Proctor and Alcock, 2012) and linking it to the idea of the ‘big society’. According to the Cabinet Office cited in Mold (2012: 51) ‘the Big Society is about helping people to come together to improve their own lives. It’s about putting more power in people’s hands’. There are questions on how this could be achieved considering the financial cuts that the ‘civil society’ is facing. For instance, Alcock et al (2012: 357) have concluded that ‘more will be expected of citizens and less of the state, just at the time when state responsibilities are being dramatically scaled back for economic policy reasons’. Moreover, it has to be noted that ‘civil society’ is much wider, encompassing all collective action that are independent of government and for public benefit. According to Clark et al. (2010) civil society organisations include housing associations, universities, independent schools, co-operatives, sports clubs, companies limited by guarantee, faith groups, trade associations and professional bodies, friendly societies, building societies, general charities, employee-owned businesses and many others. On the other hand, Harris (2002: 47) has pointed out that ‘civil society is a contentious term and a contentious concept’. The implications are that the sector is viewed not only as a term but also as a theory.

The scope of this thesis has its nucleus on the term ‘voluntary sector’. However, it has to be acknowledged that the term ‘voluntary sector’ does not have an agreed meaning. From the government perspective, civil society refers most often to organised voluntary or community
activity as opposed to the informal networks that individuals form (Hodgson, 2004). Thus, the use of so many terms raises concerns for both the academics and the practitioners in trying to understand the sector. However, the focal point of research should be placed on understanding the processes that takes place within the social context of voluntary organisations.

Despite the complexity of the voluntary sector, a typology based upon the mission, values, purpose, financial status and prime functions such as service provision; self-help; pressure group campaigning; resource raising; and co-ordination; liaison and training could be provided (Drake, 1992; Marshall, 1996). In view of this, the voluntary sector is perceived as a sector that consists of bodies which are formally constituted, independent of (central and local) government, self-governing, not profit distributing, primarily non-business and that benefit from voluntarism (Clark et al. 2010). It may be argued however, that there are voluntary agencies that are engaged in business through the activity of trading. The difference between such agencies and the private sector is the re-investment of their financial surpluses in the services they offer (Hadiwinata, 2002). Drawing upon ideas from authors such as Handy (1988), Bruce (1998) and Hudson (1999), the voluntary sector is a field that consist of agencies that are self-governing, set up for charitable purposes and not for profit. The next section of the chapter will look at the evolution of voluntary sector in the UK.

### 3.3 The Voluntary Sector in the UK

The UK voluntary sector is diverse and has grown dramatically. It consists of mainly registered charities and community groups. The diversity is reflected in the aims, activities, operations and profiles. The invention of term ‘voluntary sector’ was initiated in the late 70s. However, it was in the 80s that the term was widely used by various players. The shift to the idea of sector depended on the increasing awareness of the need to make a case on the basis of economic weight and some practical outcomes. In particular, the Wolfenden Committee’s report, *The Future of Voluntary Organisations*, played a significant role in establishing and consolidating the notion of the ‘voluntary sector’. However, it was the Deakin’s Commission that invented the sector as a field of public policy (6 and Leat, 1997).

The increase of the voluntary sector participation in the ‘mixed economy’ of welfare in the UK was seen during the Thatcher period. Since then, there has been a ‘rise in the number of
public services contracted out to the sector’ (Rutherford, 2012: 365). Their importance and influence were dramatically enhanced as they took responsibility for delivering ‘mainstream’ services. Hence, voluntary organisations were recognised as major stakeholders in contributing to the development of the economy. As Leat (1996) has commented:

With the development of a mixed economy of welfare provision, voluntary organisations assume a new significance, in policy if not practice. The voluntary sector may not be important in terms of expenditure or contribution to total provision, but it is no longer marginal within the ideology of provision. Greater attention is paid to the accountability of voluntary organisations, not merely because such organisations may be in receipt of large sums of state funding, but also, and more significantly, because instead of providing the ‘extras’ voluntary organisations are now regarded as central players in the provision of services for which the state accepts some responsibility. (Leat, 1996: 63)

It is clear that the voluntary sector is a partner in the mixed economy. However, within the welfare state model, the role of the voluntary sector is seen as dealing with what Marshall (1996) calls ‘statutory failure’, mopping up the needs of minority interest groups, extending provision beyond the basic by filling the gaps and providing a more personalised approach. In doing so, voluntary sector organisations are able to reach out to ‘hard to reach’ communities with limited resources.

In most cases, voluntary organisations have been recognised as fundamental to society in building social capital (Bull and Jones, 2006; Anheier, 2009) that underpins healthy and well-functioning communities. This has opened up doors for the sector to be fully involved in the delivering of public services through contractual arrangements with the government. However, some commentators have been sceptical about this development and argue that the sector is just being used to drive the government agenda as there is a shift away from the policy paradigm of community governance towards one of co-production (Plowden, 2003; Cunningham and James, 2009; Carmel and Harlock, 2008). In this view, the role of the voluntary sector has been relegated to that of service agents and not as true partners. However, it has to be acknowledged that the partnership with the government has in some cases helped voluntary organisations in the UK to secure long term funding and enable it to perform its intended duties.
The success stories in the voluntary sector in the UK include that of banning smoking in all enclosed public and workplaces. The full smoking ban was very much due to intensive lobbying over a long period of time by a well-coordinated alliance from the voluntary sector (Maryon-Davis, 2009). Thus, the voluntary sector is a vital ingredient in bringing positive change and meeting the need of the society in the UK. However, despite the positive contribution to society the voluntary sector has faced difficulties with its operations. For instance, the issue of regulation has always been questionable. Currently, the Charity Commission in the UK is responsible for regulating registered charities and is answerable to parliament. Conversely, many community based organisations remain unregistered and it becomes tricky to monitor and evaluate their outputs.

The UK government though, has continued to recognise the work of the voluntary sector and a formal contract has been developed that claims to represent the interests of the sector. The Compact was launched in 1998 that spelled out the relationship between the UK government (New Labour) and the voluntary sector. This was a major break-through in bringing the voluntary sector agenda back and marked the initial point of accelerating the ‘mainstreaming’ of the sector (Kendall, 2002; Kendall, 2003; Rochester et al. 2010). The Compact was the starting point for New Labour to enter into recognised partnership with the voluntary sector. Kendall (2002) suggests that:

The Compact idea is completely without precedent, representing an unparalleled step in the positioning of the third sector in public policy. The move to improve the resources of central government focused on the sector per se is also significant development, especially since the New Labour government has made of its goal of keeping public expenditure tightly constrained. In effect, for the first time, a purposive stance towards a third sector per se has become mainstreamed into central government’s policy agenda, representing a major break from the past. (Kendall, 2002: 2)

The drawback however, is that the Compact is not a legally binding document (Plowden, 2003) and on the other hand, O’Brien (2009) further argues that the gap between government policy rhetoric and the promises made, and the real experience of voluntary organisations is still very great. Moreover, in terms of bringing income security to the voluntary sector and stability in employment terms and conditions have been unsuccessful in some cases (Cunningham and James, 2009). Thus, continuous monitoring and evaluation of the Compact is needed to measure its impact on the sector and the local communities. It is therefore
subject to a process of continuous review. The process encompasses new local government performance framework, an indicator to measure the environment for a thriving voluntary sector. This is being measured using a specially designed; perceptions based National Survey of Third Sector Organisations (NSTSO). However, this approach may not be well planned and co-ordinated taking in consideration of the complication of the sector. Moreover, voluntary organisations are socially constructed and measuring and identifying variables may not reflect the reality of the social setting in which these organisations operate. Carmel and Harlock (2008) argue that the discourse of performance also implies the normalisation of voluntary organisations’ professionalization. However, the voluntary sector faces stiff competition from the private sector as it’s required to conduct in a ‘business-like’ manner to be regarded as a professionalised sector. Williams (2006) on the other hand argues that competition is healthy and exists in any business ventures world-wide.

The New Labour government also launched the OTS (Office of the Third Sector) in 2006 headed by a Minister in recognition of the increasing important role of the sector plays in both society and the economy. The OTS coordinated work across government to support the conditions and environment for the sector, enabling the sector to make a huge difference, deliver public services, promote social enterprise and strengthen communities. The OTS was behind the creation of the Centre of Charitable Giving and Philanthropy. This is the UK’s first independent, multidisciplinary and academic based centre for charitable giving and philanthropy. The aim of the centre is to support high quality research to develop the necessary evidence base to improve understanding of charitable giving and philanthropy. However, the centre has faced criticisms from the Institute of Fundraising and other major players in the field of fundraising. Critics are saying that the centre is not carrying on ‘practical research’ or action based research. The call for action based research is anticipated to help smaller organisation understand charitable giving and philanthropy. As the sector is expanding, the resources are on a decline. Most of the smaller organisations are trailing behind and this knowledge could be crucial for survival.

The OTS also appointed Birmingham University to lead a new Third Sector Research Centre dedicated to analysing the impact of the sector’s activities. The centre aims to bring about a step change in the quality and quantity of hard evidence available to support the work of third sector organisations. This shows the commitment by the UK government to involve academics in developing the voluntary sector. Indeed, academics have a key role of
advancing the knowledge of the sector based on empirical evidence or ‘scientific verification’. It is also interesting to note that UK higher education institutions are also keen to advance the work of voluntary organisations. This is reflected in the increase of centres at colleges and universities dedicated to voluntary sector studies, consultancy and research.

Another major stride in the voluntary sector in the UK was the creation of the leadership centre. The third sector leadership centre was launched in 2006 with the aim of raising awareness of the value of leadership, identifying needs and skills development and facilitating leadership development in the UK. Among its achievements was the publication of a directory of hundred providers of leadership development, recruited hundred so called ‘leadership ambassadors’ and organised numerous events. The centre was based at Henley Management College and was a partnership between ACEVO (Association of Chief Executives of Voluntary Organisations) and NCVO (National Council for Voluntary Organisations). It was funded by Capacitybuilders and unfortunately the funding was withdrawn in 2009 and the centre ceased to operate. There has long been a ‘leadership struggle’ in the voluntary sector and it is not unusual to see large representative agencies differing on the future of the centre.

According to NCVO (2007) there was an increase in active ‘general charities’ in the UK from 98,000 in 1991, to 164,500 in 2005. Clark et al. (2010) have indicated that there were over 171,000 active voluntary organisations in the UK in 2007/2008. However, there are thought to be at least 300,000 voluntary organisations in England alone, including many very small community organisations working mainly at local level (Plowden, 2003). The sector employs approximately 2.2% of the overall paid workforce in the UK (NCVO, 2007). However, volunteer input continues to underpin the sector. The Charity Commission has presented data for charities registered in relation to annual gross income as depicted in Table 3.1 below.
Table 3.1: Annual Gross Income of Charities registered in England & Wales between 1999 and 2011 (Source Charity Commission website)

It can be observed from Table 3.1 that the number of registered charities in England and Wales has been increasing except for the years 2000, 2009 and 2011. On the other hand, the annual gross income has been increasing. However, it was problematic to obtain data on the number of trustees and volunteers within voluntary organisations.

The defining characteristic of voluntary organisations could be perceived as the ‘voluntary nature’ that is reflected in the governance (trustees), fundraising (voluntary income) and use of volunteers (Volunteering). These attributes make the voluntary sector different from the other two sectors namely the private and the public sectors. Moreover, special values underpin the work of voluntary organisations and this may have an effect on the way the process of leadership takes place. Marshall (1996) identifies the common element associated with all voluntary organisations as being mediators between the individual and the state. The
next section will examine the intricacy and uniqueness of the governing bodies of voluntary organisations.

3.4 Governance

According to Cornforth and Spear (2010) the term ‘governance’ has become an important concept in a variety of different disciplinary and practice arenas and its roots are found in a Latin word meaning to steer or give direction. However, Dartington, (1995: 208) defines governance as a term ‘used to describe the oversight and guidance which committee members provide, ensuring that the charity or voluntary organisation acts in accordance with its constitution and legal identity’. The term governance is however a taken for granted phenomenon that could better be understood by considering it as a dynamic process that is socially constructed by the people associated with the social setting in which the process takes place. In this regard, the term could be interpreted differently by various social actors depending on their perceptions and actions.

Referring to governing boards, Carver (1997) asserts that it has long been common to differentiate the vast and disparate array of organisations into three groups: profit (private sector), non-profit (voluntary sector), and governmental (public sector). Private sector organisations engage in business with the central aim of producing returns for shareholders. This involves competing in an open market through a variety of ventures. Voluntary sector organisations on one hand are set up for charitable purposes and have no share ownership and finally public sector organisations are more bound by legal requirements in their operation and composition and are controlled by the state. But such an analysis may lead to the assumption that organisations are objects and that the governing board is a tangible product of such objects.

According to Hudson (1999) the board is responsible for governance, ensuring that the organisation has clear mission and strategy. To achieve the strategic objectives, it is required that voluntary agencies become self-governing entities. In an article entitled Self-Governance as a Model of Societal Governance, Kooiman and van Vliet (2000) describe self-governance as the capacity of social entities to govern themselves autonomously. This enables the governing board to not only be responsible for the strategic vision of the agency but also the performance and accountability of the process.
Voluntary organisations have a complicated governance system and this varies according to the nature, purpose or ‘need’. However, the complication commences when a voluntary organisation is just formed, usually because one or two people are passionately committed to an issue and believe that they can do something to make things better, and this becomes the cause (Hussey and Perrin, 2003). This is the beginning of the long journey in meeting the ‘need’ of a voluntary organisation. A body of literature is emerging on how voluntary organisations are governed. Three models of voluntary sector governance have been identified within the level of the ‘unitary’ organisation as being membership association structure, the self-selecting board and the mixed type, which combines the features of the previous types (Cornforth and Spear, 2010). Membership association governance structure has been found to be advantageous in keeping the board accountable to the wider membership; the membership can act as a potential pool of volunteers, donors, campaigners and board members; and it can provide a source for feedback to the board on the needs of beneficiaries or users. However, the model can also lead to potential governance problems if not implemented properly. For instance, governance disputes may occur if membership records are not kept up to date as it can become unclear who may be entitled to vote. On the one hand, self-selecting board has the advantage of being a very simple structure to operate. It is argued that such a structure gives the board greater control over who is selected to serve on it and offers the possibility that board members can be chosen for their experience, competencies and skills. This process may also help to reduce conflicts of interest between competing membership groups. However, it is believed that there may be a danger that the board may become self-serving and this may lead to the board becoming less accountable and hence, deprive the organisation of a potential source of support and resources.

On the other hand, the mixed type of governance structure has the potential to harness the advantages of both the membership association and the self-selecting structures ensuring a degree of democratic accountability to members. However, there are also potential disadvantages associated with this model. The role of elected members can be marginalised if other board members are perceived to have greater expertise, more so, involving board members from external stakeholder groups, such as funders, can lead to conflict of interests and uncertainty over whether board members are acting in the best interests of the organisation or their stakeholder group. However, Lomas (2000) calls for the need of
commercial, professional, political and consumer skills. These skills could strengthen the governing body.

In most cases there are conflicts of interests among board members within small organisations and sometimes even within large ones. It is required that any conflict of interest is identified and addressed. In theory this sounds simple and straight forward, however, the process could be complicated and may lead to disputes. In some small organisations the board is hugely involved in the day to day running of the organisations. This diverts the governance role of the board that involves setting policy and strategy and may create conflicts between the board members and the executive or members of staff (Dartington, 1996) as strategy formulation is a complex process (Chadwick-Coule, 2011) that may require the input of a variety of stakeholders. However, Carver (1997) argues that it is imperative to view governance as empowerment as this enables the board to pass power to others and expect them to use it as assertively and creatively as they dare. But this process should be monitored and controlled or it could lead into ‘the approval syndrome’. The approval process provides boards with a handily available, easy, tradition-condoned imitation of leadership that brings about flaws such as reactivity, sheer volume of material, mental misdirection, letting staff off the hook, short-term bias, lack of clarity in the board’s contribution, subsequent staff agility and fragmentation. It is perceived that this process could reduce the interference of board members in the operation of the organisation.

In principle, the governance structure of voluntary organisations incorporates the separation of power (Enjolras, 2009) and the governing board is always positioned at the top of the organisation (Carver, 1997; Bethmann et al. 2014). Thus, there seemed to be some resentment of the degree of control, lack of autonomy and responsibility in the governance of voluntary organisations. To be successful, voluntary organisations should be managed and governed with organisational visions and strategic goals as targets for organisational growth and future direction (Block, 2004). To achieve this, the voluntary sector needs effective ‘governors’ to drive these complicated organisations forward. Governors in voluntary organisations are normally called trustees. Trustees make up the group of people with legal responsibility for the overall management and decision making in a voluntary organisation. There are also responsible for the direction and performance of the organisation. The task of the trustees also includes that of appointing the Chief Executive Officer (CEO). Trustees are volunteers and in most cases do not get paid except in exceptional circumstances. Not
everyone can be a trustee of a voluntary organisation. The Charity Commission in particular do not allow anyone who is: under 18 years of age; convicted of an offence involving deception or dishonesty, unless the conviction is spent; an undischarged bankrupt; removed from trusteeship of a charity by the court or Charity Commissioners and under a disqualification order under the Company Directors Disqualification Act 1986. The next part of the chapter will explore the distinctive nature of voluntary organisations from a perspective of volunteering.

3.5 Volunteering

Over the past two decades, successive UK governments have developed various policies to encourage volunteering within the voluntary sector with the purpose of giving voluntary organisations a greater role in the delivery of public and social services. In particular, the most tangible evidence of this commitment to voluntarism is reflected in the compacts between the government and the voluntary sector. These compacts are essentially an enabling way developed to boost the relationship between the government and the voluntary sector. Sceptics point out though, that the compacts cannot yet be shown to be effective (Plowden, 2003). However, compacts have at least created a sustained dialogue between the state and the voluntary sector as described above. It has to be mentioned that volunteering is not only associated with the voluntary sector, other sectors do employ volunteers in their ventures. However, volunteering is the key ingredient of the voluntary sector.

The term volunteering is usually used interchangeably with ‘voluntary action’. Despite the drive and the commitment initiated by the UK government most people, however, cannot distinguish between voluntary action and volunteering. It is evident from the literature available that these terms are normally used interchangeably. However, according to Deakin (2004) voluntary action is often performed by salaried professional staff and volunteering involves activities undertaken by individual choice, without payment. The absence of payment is intertwined with the notion of the voluntary sector being a ‘non-profit’ sector.

The idea of ‘non-profit paradigm’ has received immense criticism despite its dominance. This is resonated in the quote from Rochester et al (2010: 10) the ‘dominant paradigm’ results into ‘narrow definitions of volunteer motivations, the areas of social life in which volunteers are
active, the organisational context within which volunteering takes place and the ways in which volunteering roles are defined’. It is perceived that the ‘non-profit paradigm’ limits the operations and indeed the contributions of the voluntary sector. On the other hand, Lyons et al. (1998) propose viewing the phenomenon of volunteering as the ‘civil society paradigm’ as it attaches the element of activism rather than just concentrating on the ‘unpaid work of service’. It is interesting that the ‘civil society paradigm’ is assumed to depart from monetary issues and tries to address the element of activism. Rochester et al. (2010) has also added to the debate the ‘volunteering as serious leisure paradigm’. According to Rochester et al (2010) in most cases people want to give their time and commitment doing something they enjoy at the same time making a difference. It is no doubt that most of the definitions of volunteering are products of the aggregation of the elements found in different paradigms. For instance, volunteering has been defined by The Volunteer Centre UK for its 1991 National Survey (in Smith, 1996: 188) as an ‘activity which involves spending time, unpaid, doing something which aims to benefit someone (individuals or groups), other than or in addition to close relatives or to benefit the environment’. This definition is rather unclear as it digs into unnecessary territory by explicating what volunteering is not.

Nichols et al (2014: 218) have revealed that the motives behind volunteering among mountain rescue team members were giving back to society (19%), outdoor activities (19%), helping others (25%), giving back to society/outdoor activities (19%) and social aspects/team work (16%). On the other hand, their research found out that the motives for mountain rescue potential team members were helping others (23%), putting something back into the community (22%) and using skills/developing skills (16%). The findings reveal that at the core of volunteering there is the ethos of helping others and being part of the social activities.

Volunteering is a social construct that can be viewed in various perspectives and its meaning is rooted in the interactions of people involved in the process. Waikayi et al (2012) found that one of the reasons why people volunteer is because of the opportunity for social interaction. It could easily be defined as a practice of undertaking work without being motivated by financial or material gain. But one could argue that volunteers in the public and private sectors are usually paid for their involvement. For example volunteers taking part in medical research within pharmaceutical companies, usually receive payment. On the other hand, there is little knowledge regarding volunteering within public institutions. However, in most cases people volunteer in institutions such as hospitals, universities, schools, day centres (operated
by local authorities) and other settings. Nonetheless, it is worth noting that some of these institutions are exempted charities that may also qualify to fall under the ‘civil society paradigm’. However, it still remains that the most formal characteristic of volunteering is the absence of financial gain (Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011; Waikayi et al. 2012; Haug and Gaskins, 2012).

To quote from Handy (1988; 118), ‘voluntary organizations have long lived with a slightly different shamrock. For many of them the professional core is made up of paid staff, whilst the volunteers make up the flexible labour force’. However, this flexible labour should not be underestimated considering the development of the ‘volunteering industry’ that is gaining pace and momentum and its impact is being noticed through the emergence of what Rochester et al (2010) call a discrete new profession of volunteer management. According to Howlett (2009) this has led to the creation of the ‘voluntary services manager’ or what others may call the volunteer coordinator post. The flexible labour has also resulted into the formation of the Association of Volunteer Managers which emerged in 2007. Therefore, the flexible labour is exerting great pressure and becoming an insurmountable force. However, the continued drive for professionalization may be proving to be a threat to volunteering.

The call for professionalization of the voluntary sector has faced mixed feelings. Milligan and Fyfe (2005) argue that reorganisation has caused some volunteers to feel they have been rejected and concerns have been voiced that the drive for professionalization is causing a loss of local identity as the organisational structure at the local level becomes a non-autonomous part of the bigger organisation. Kreutzer and Jäger (2011) have also argued that volunteering has mainly been addressed at an individual level. Moreover, they view volunteering as an organisational phenomenon and within this paradigm conflicts do exist between the stakeholders. Kreutzer and Jäger (2011) identify two identity dimensions within organisations as being volunteer identity and managerial identity. It is the managerial identity that is perceived to bring professionalization and this creates conflicts between volunteers and paid staff. However, the system of greater formalisation and professionalization could encompass volunteering in general but others argue that these systems have largely based on those in place for paid staff (Dartington, 1995; Smith, 1996).

It has also become common practice for most voluntary organisations to be engaged in formal interviewing processes, requesting references, designing job descriptions, conducting
appraisals and developing volunteer policies when dealing with volunteers. However, Haug and Gaskins (2010) and more recently Dean (2014) have found that the most important motivating factor to involving volunteers is the desire to help others. In particular, Haug and Gaskins (2010) research revealed that cooperation and support are the most important constructs for the retention of volunteers. The implications for Haug and Gaskins (2010)’s research are that there is need for volunteer recruitment to incorporate diverse methods that are viable and that create opportunities for altruism. Formal interviewing processes could be obstacles for some people who are willing to offer their time and commitment. Moreover, considering quality and measuring the impact of volunteering has been put on the agenda. Howlett (2009) argues that quality standard does not necessarily guarantee a successful volunteer programme. It is about creating an atmosphere that is supportive and welcoming, where volunteers will feel valued and respected despite their background. In addition, it is about having an environment where volunteers will be treated fairly and recognised for their input.

Professionalization may not be a driver to managing some volunteer programmes more especially for locally based voluntary organisations that are usually under resourced. But such organisations may be exposed to litigation if something went wrong. The introduction of volunteer centres in the UK was to provide the required support to such organisations. However, the evidence suggests that, at local level volunteer centres rarely act as representatives or capacity builders for smaller organisations largely because they focus on their primary function of promoting and brokering opportunities for volunteering and also because their resources are also limited (Rochester et al. 2010). However, there has been a link between volunteering and employability. Volunteer centres are now seen as partners in enhancing the employability skills of young people and those in long term unemployment (Kamerade and Paine, 2014).

Guo and Musso (2007) propose a framework for representation in voluntary organisations that is based on the dimensions of substantive, symbolic, formal, descriptive and participatory representation. They argue that formal, descriptive and participatory representations are unique ways of achieving substantive and symbolic representation. Guo and Musso (2007) describe substantive representation as a process of acting in the interest of those people that are being represented in a responsive and transparent way. They argue that substantive representation could be measured by considering the ‘congruence between leaders and
constituents on issues of most importance’ (Guo and Musso, 2007: 312). However, it is not very clear how such complicated transactions that take place between the leader and the stakeholders could be captured and measured. On the other hand, symbolic representation is premised on the beliefs of the people. Guo and Musso (2007) argue that symbolic representation takes place when people believe in the legality or authenticity of an organisation rather than their own interests. Indeed, there has been some confirmation, for example Milligan and Fyfe (2005) found evidence of locally based independent organisations whose engagement with volunteers and the community— with the exception of volunteer representation on their management committees— was limited. This involvement of few volunteers could not be substantive as posited by Guo and Musso (2007). However, many local voluntary organisations provide excellent services in the UK and yet volunteer representation is still questionable.

Rochester (2001) describes a compendium of local voluntary organisations with the following quote:

The range and variety of their activities cover the full gamut of human needs and interests. An attempt to classify these by the Home Office Local Voluntary Activity Surveys produced no fewer than 69 categories. A less comprehensive list would include playgroups, nurseries and parent and toddler groups; associations for sports, recreation, hobbies and leisure; youth groups; cultural and arts bodies; reform and campaigning organisations; tenants’ and residents’ associations; groups concerned with health and disability issues; women’s groups; and organisations based on ethnicity, culture or religion. (Rochester, 2001: 68)

The list which Rochester (2001) provides is not conclusive but only demonstrates how complex volunteering is perceived. However, volunteering could be regarded as a process that is rooted in the perceptions and actions of the people involved (Waikayi et al. 2012). Metaphorically, volunteering is the blood for most of voluntary organisations. It is imperative to understand the process of volunteering through analysing the interactions of people within the social setting as highlighted by Waikayi et al (2012). The following component of the chapter will offer an insight into the issue of voluntary income and how it is the epicentre of fundraising in voluntary organisations.
3.6 Voluntary Income

The voluntary sector has been facing financial cuts since the recession began. Voluntary organisations have responded to austerity measures through tendering for contracts, working in partnership and engaging in income generating activities (Ware, 2014). However, not all these strategies generate voluntary income. Voluntary sector income can be classified into three types of funding streams: voluntary income, earned income and investment income. However, Barman (2008) states that voluntary organisations are reliant on three types of income as being private gifts, government support and commercial activity. The income is also classified as restricted and unrestricted. According to Clark et al (2010) voluntary income is free given, in most cases as a grant or donation, for which little or no benefit is received by the donor. In 2007/2008 financial year, voluntary income was worth £14.9 billion representing 42% of the total income generated that was recorded as being £35.5 billion (Clark et al. 2010). Voluntary income is important for the sector as it makes organisations feel a greater sense of independence and ownership.

Table 3.2 below shows the distribution of income among charities in England and Wales at 30 September 2013.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Annual income bracket</th>
<th>Number of charities</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Annual income £bn</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>£0 to £10,000</td>
<td>68,719</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>0.229</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£10,001 to £100,000</td>
<td>54,321</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>1.918</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£100,001 to £500,000</td>
<td>20,362</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>4.527</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£500,001 to £5,000,000</td>
<td>8,137</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>12.301</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£5,000,000 plus</td>
<td>1,892</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>41.984</td>
<td>68.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB-TOTAL</td>
<td>153,431</td>
<td>94.0</td>
<td>60.959</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not yet known</td>
<td>9,930</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>163,361</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>60.959</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3.2: Distribution of Income among Charities in England and Wales at 30 September 2013** (Source: Charity Commission website)

It could be observed from Table 3.2 that the majority of charities are in the range of £0 to £10,000. Only 1,892 charities had income of £5,000,000 plus. Large charities are able to increase their income through tendering process for public services. This could have an impact on the operation of voluntary organisations. Handy (1998) suggests that many voluntary organisations have found themselves becoming the agents of their paymasters. This could give an opportunity for the paymasters to take-over the organisations. However, this could be avoided by having clear goals and increasing the level of voluntary income. But we can only boost the knowledge on voluntary income by acknowledging that it is a social process that involves fundraisers, donors and other people in an organisation. By breaking down this taken for granted theme (voluntary income) will help us to illuminate and assimilate the process. Considering voluntary income as an object will only limit our understanding of its uniqueness associated with the voluntary sector. It is therefore vital to assume that raising the money that is considered to be ‘voluntary income’ is a social activity that involves different people and different processes. In doing so, the distinctive nature of voluntary income can better be understood in a voluntary organisation context.

Unlike the private sector where individuals give money as shareholders in return for dividends, in most instances individuals give money to voluntary organisations without expecting any returns. Some individual donors may only demand for the building to be named after them. The voluntary sector depends on public funds and therefore it has to demonstrate its effectiveness and efficiency to win the public trust and confidence. Tonkiss and Passey (1999) argue that while resources of trust are linked to core values, voluntary organisations are increasingly governed by formal measures designed to promote confidence. Nevertheless, most voluntary organisations have got difficulties with the concepts of trust, accountability, transparency and performance. By and large when collusion between the board and manager occurs (Enjolras, 2009), the system of checks and balances fails to guarantee accountability and efficient use of resources. In particular, accountability is seen as
a pre-condition for responsible behaviour in business, government or any other major centre of power (Ahmed, 2004). Accountability involves the duty to undertake certain action and to provide an account for such action (Andreas, Costa and Ramus, 2009). However, accountability is another concept that is taken for granted. The meaning of the term will vary depending on the interactions and experiences of people within the context in which the process of accountability is taking place. This is equally the same with other terms such as trust, transparency and performance.

The challenge that most of voluntary organisations face is that of having multiple stakeholders. This makes it tricky for voluntary organisations to plan, execute and evaluate the process of accountability involving such a magnitude of stakeholders. The stakeholders may include members, trustees, donors, and funders both individual and corporate, staff, volunteers and the users of the services. In theory it is imperative to give accurate and update information to stakeholders regularly. In fundraising for instance, more people are likely to give to a charity if they had independent information about its performance. A strategy should therefore be formulated for each stakeholder to portray responsible behaviour echoed by Ahmed (2004). This may be difficult for smaller voluntary organisations that lack financial and human resources. Therefore, the issue of accountability in voluntary sector organisation is eccentric as Leat puts it:

First voluntary organisations are in somewhat odd position in relation to accountability, reflecting their position between the public and private sectors. In theory, organisations in the commercial sector are accountable, in a sense, to their funders and customers/beneficiaries via market mechanisms. Public organisations are publicly accountable, both to their funders and their users via the democratic political process. In theory, voluntary organisations are accountable neither via market mechanisms nor electoral process. Indeed some argue that it is a peculiarly public sector concept. (Leat, 1996: 61)

This assumption could indicate that accountability in the voluntary sector does not exist. However, voluntary organisations are viewed to be more accountable than the other sectors due to the values that underpin their operations (Paton, 1996). It is however, significant to explore the process of accountability in relation to fundraising taking in consideration the views, perceptions and actions of the people associated with the social activity of raising voluntary income. It has often been argued that the major ingredients that make the voluntary sector different from others are values; hence the following section will try to find out why.
3.7 Values

In comparison with the private sector were the purpose of the board is generally centred on getting an operation up and running, achieving growth in output and sales, and producing reasonable financial returns (Dickson et al. 1997). Voluntary organisations are more concerned with values and in most cases they are established for a social purpose. However, it could be argued that all organisations be it private or public does have a set of values that underpin their work. Voluntary organisations come in different sizes, Milligan and Fyfe (2005) classify them into ‘grass-roots’ and ‘corporatist’ frameworks. Within grass-roots models of organisation, decision making occurs in non-hierarchical and informal ways in order to maximise participation and bring about empowerment (see Marshall, 1996) and self-determination amongst the target community. Usually, the target community plays a central role in identifying its needs rather than being offered prescribed and standardised programmes. This approach is viewed as increasing the sense of community ownership of the organisation, providing services designed to meet the needs of the specific client group the organisation was set up to serve, but in ways that are sensitive to local difference (Milligan and Fyfe, 2005). However, Paton (1996) argues that the values and commitments of small and medium-sized social movement organisations are more likely to be ambiguous and hence often open to conflicting interpretation. On the other hand, within the corporatist framework, service users are passive consumers and services are delivered by a professionalised workforce of paid staff and highly trained volunteers, rather than active citizens identifying their own needs. However, large and well-established organisations associated with the dominant values and beliefs in society, the meaning of values are to a greater extent governed by convention (Paton, 1996).

To quote from Handy (1988: 16), ‘When voluntary organizations talk about the importance of values they are right. But values become the subject of an argument whenever the categories get combined and confused’. The implications are that it is imperative to clearly state the values of an organisation and to communicate effectively the meaning of these values to all stakeholders. Thus, the process is not that easy and could lead to confusion and misunderstanding of the meaning of values within an organisation’s setting. According to Rokeah (1973: 18) ‘a value refers to a single belief of a very specific kind, i.e. a desirable
mode of behaviour or end-state that has transcendental quality to it, guiding actions, attitudes, judgements and comparisons across specific objects and situations, and beyond immediate goals, to ultimate goals’. In this view, it could be problematic for all the stakeholders to capture the required behaviour, action and quality. However, through the process of socialisation and interaction the stakeholders could slowly come to understand the nature and the meaning of these values.

Blake et al (2006) compiled 39 statements about third sector’s activities that express values in a purposeful way. They, however, concluded that values are the beginning, means and an end to the work of the voluntary sector. Values are the beginning because they inspire and motivate the people associated with voluntary organisations. However, they are also the means as they are what they do and how they do it. Moreover, values are the end as this is reflected in what people working or volunteering in the voluntary sector strive to achieve. The product of their work is embedded in the values of the organisation.

The values associated with the voluntary sector include risk taking, passionate and persistent reflected in the willingness to speak out and challenge the system. Voluntary sector organisations are uniquely placed to work with different stakeholders (Paton, 1996; Milligan and Fyfe, 2005). Being independent entities, they have the freedom to explore new issues and novel ways of working without fear. In doing so, voluntary organisations present the values of knowledge and appropriate competence that allows them to assist marginalised and disadvantaged people in the society (Bruce, 1998; Handy, 1988). In delivering services the aim of most of voluntary organisations is usually associated with promoting empowerment, enabling others, making voices heard and being responsive and responsible. In particular, empowerment is an important component of the voluntary sector as most voluntary organisations claim to empower people in various ways. To achieve this, a holistic, person-centred approach allows them to deliver more effective services than their counterparts. The major outcome of their input is the turning of service users into agents of social change. Values of voluntary agencies mainly have roots in the founding members. It is assumed that all individuals in a voluntary organisation take on a set of values as guiding principles for their involvement. However, given that a voluntary organisation is just one setting in society, the analysis of values should be based on a wider spectrum looking at the interests of all the actors.
Blake et al (2006) suggest that values must be preserved, celebrated and promoted. The promotion of values in theory should be accompanied by a communication strategy. Values should be communicated effectively internally and externally. Moreover, it is imperative to justify the belief in the chosen values to enhance understanding and commitment. However, it is often problematic to articulate and institutionalise a set of organisational values to guide the mission. Therefore, it will be helpful to discover how a voluntary organisation brings about the awareness and commitment of the organisation’s values.

The debate over whether government should fund voluntary sector organisations to deliver public services is polarised. Proponents argue that voluntary sector organisations can boost their income and deliver high quality services. On the other hand, sceptics argue that accepting government money necessarily reduces the independence of voluntary sector organisations and that it is a threat to the values. In particular, Deakin (2004) argues that such changes may compromise those qualities that make voluntary organisations distinctive, both as partners and in their own right. However, it depends on the nature of the relationship between the voluntary sector and other sectors. More often, organising activities of voluntary sector organisations around commissioning and purchasing of services or around corporate sponsorship means the relationship becomes characterised by prescription and targets set by central government departments (Blake et al. 2006), and private companies. Moreover, the results by Bennet (2003) suggest that the voluntary organisations in his sample had begun to emulate the attitudes and behaviour of their counterparts in the private sector insofar as competitor analysis was concerned. In other words, voluntary organisations were becoming more ‘corporate’ and ‘business like’ in their operations. While bureaucratisation and the drive for professionalization are unavoidable in some cases as they form part of organisational growth, they can also present something of a dilemma for voluntary organisations as they struggle to retain their flexibility and ability to make decisions quickly (Milligan and Fyfe, 2005).

It is without doubt that values concern the core aspirations and ‘raison d’être’ of both the governmental and voluntary and community sectors (Osborne, 2002). Therefore, there may be potential for reinforcement of values through new opportunities opened up by alliances formed as a result of partnership working. Moreover, others argue that values are also present in the public and private sectors. Nonetheless, the uniqueness is underpinned in the way in which voluntary sector organisations combine and prioritise their values (Blake et al. 2006).
It is also argued that actually the biggest threat to the sector comes from within, from organisations not focusing on their values. If values are the beginning, it is imperative to talk about them frequently and if they are the means it is necessary to build every activity and process based on them and finally if values are the end it is worth acknowledging the role played by values in achieving the objectives.

From the analysis of values above it can be concluded that a values-based organisation goes beyond the rhetoric of values statements and is where there is diversity and a rich blend of empowerment, self-determination and accountability; where flexibility and innovation are based on needs, trust, mutual respect and genuine relationships; where people are treated fairly and their commitment valued and celebrated. The next part of the chapter looks at the concept of leadership and explores how it contributes to the uniqueness of the voluntary sector.

3.8 Leadership

Leadership is the central theme for this thesis in the context of voluntary organisations. It is often assumed that leadership in an organisation is a task of an individual. This preposition is arrived at by mainly looking at an organisation as an object that functions in a particular way. The approach premised on such a unitary and orderly nature of studying organisations is a great concern for understanding a phenomenon such as leadership:

Conventional understandings appear to remain wedded to an individualised focused on leaders themselves, (for example, on the existence and development of leadership qualities, styles and skills), whilst current leadership research has moved quite a long way from this conception…much of the research appears to focus on leadership in and of organisations (leadership in the sector), rather than leadership beyond organisations and across broader collectivities in the sector (leadership of the sector). (Macmillan and McLaren, 2012: 3)

The supposition of an individualised focus on leadership results into taken for granted terms such as ‘leader’ and ‘follower’. For example, if leadership is about motivating others, it follows that leaders are the people who bring about change. Indeed, leaders of voluntary sector organisations have been identified as key players that have the task of motivating their followers to contribute to their organisation’s success (Rowold and Rohmann, 2009). The insinuations are that anyone who motivates others is a leader.
The dichotomy between leader and follower is a hot issue in theorizing the concept of leadership. In actual sense, there is no clear distinction between leader and follower. It is theoretically possible for leaders to be followers and followers to be leaders (Kay, 1996). Moreover, it requires a monumental effort to differentiate between leadership and management. Hudson (1999) points out that, managing voluntary sector organisations is subtly different from managing in the private or public sectors. If leadership is different from management, it follows that the way voluntary organisations are led may also be different from leading private companies or public institutions.

Macmillan and McLaren (2012) assert that due to a radical shift in the political and economic environment the sector needs to find ways of operating and negotiating for sustainability purposes. They argue that under the current conditions the question of leadership is significant and should involve ‘strategic narrative’ as the ‘room’ for leadership of the sector is highly contested and constrained. This raises the conceptual problem of how to build alliances which can articulate a collective vision within a diverse sector with divergent interests, in a contested and competitive ‘field’ (Macmillan and McLaren, 2012). Strategic narrative could help to identify the key imperatives for the sector as it has a broader policy, advocacy and campaigning emphasis, addressing ‘what we’re for and what we want’ (Macmillan and McLaren, 2012: 9). However, it could be argued that this proposition could not be sufficient as the climate is constantly changing.

Buckingham et al (2014) outline the importance of the sector’s voice and the ability to influence policy as the sector is experiencing financial cuts. They argue that it is crucial for the sector to have organisations and individuals who can engage effectively with policy at national level through ‘organisational leadership’. However, there is a concern that ‘as not many within the sector have access to or influence over the important national policy debates and practice issues concerning the sector, in practice they constitute a small and selected group, and might be considered to be a third sector elite’ (Buckingham et al. 2014: 3). They have developed a typology of how organisations and individuals who dominate leadership in the sector could be distinguished as full horizontal, partial horizontal and vertical. Full horizontal category includes those actors who speak or being seen to speak on behalf of the entire sector. Partial horizontal encompasses those leaders who speak or are being seen as speaking on behalf of a proportion of the sector horizontally in terms of the nature of the
organisation. The vertical category on the other hand includes leaders who speak or are perceived to speak on behalf of a proportion of the sector along vertical policy lines such as education, criminal justice and homelessness (Buckingham et al. 2014: 6). Furthermore, Buckingham et al (2014) acknowledge that several different styles of third sector leadership exist: internal versus external (putting emphasis on internal or external organisational, relationships and influence); ideas versus action (being seen to have strong, creative ideas or delivering action); DIY versus collective (individualism or togetherness) and loud versus quiet (making their presence felt loudly or quietly). The collective nature of leadership is the main focus of this research through the concept of shared leadership as it is vital to capture the dimensions and dynamics of the relationships among stakeholders as they negotiate their way through the process of leadership.

Harrow and Mole (2005) investigated into chief executives’ career perceptions, experiences and aspirations in small and medium sized organisations in England. They developed a typology for voluntary sector chief executives’ career stances as the Paid Philanthropists, the Careerists and the Non-aligned. This may help to understand the concept of leadership in the sector. However, this perception excludes the consideration of leadership as a social construct and it puts emphasis on the individual as a leader.

Kay (1996) proposes a conceptualisation of leadership as a multi-dimensional process of social interaction that is dynamic and involves sense-making. This inference acknowledges that leadership can also involve individuals and teams or groups in the process of sense-making and the influencing of others over the meaning of events, issues and actions. It challenges the concept of leadership as an activity entirely of an individual at the apex of an organisation. The supposition also diverts from conceptualising of leadership as an objective phenomenon based on behaviour or trait of an individual. On the other hand, Elliot and Stead (2008) identify four inter-related factors that connect leaders to their community and that play a foundational role in their lives as upbringing, environment, focus and networks and alliances. This acknowledges that the process of leadership is a continuous process throughout and at all levels of the organisation. One could therefore argue that the process of leadership does not depend on the single person but on the conversations, reactions, interactions and ideas of a group of individuals.
Buckingham et al (2014) calls for ‘good leadership’ that is premised on values, independence, connections, representation, accountability, insight and experience, and balance as depicted in Table 3.3 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics of good leadership</th>
<th>Key features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Passionate about values, being clear what the values are through a transparent process that allows adjustment and alignment between personal and organisational or sector values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>The ability to speak out on important issues including unpopular causes and the rejection of being influenced by divergent agendas of others in particular funders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connections</td>
<td>The principle of togetherness could be achieved through bringing people in joining people up, maintaining and developing relationships, working, collaboratively, and communicating well with a range of stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representation</td>
<td>Genuine representation (not tokenism) that is built on empowering and enabling others and legitimacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accountability</td>
<td>Openness, honest, transparent and being accountable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insight and experience</td>
<td>The good understanding of the internal and external environment of the sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance</td>
<td>The ability to balance between internal and external roles and between technical and political roles and providing support and voice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3: Characteristics that represent good leadership of the voluntary/third sector
(Adopted from Buckingham et al. 2014)

Buckingham et al (2014: 10) acknowledge that ‘good leadership cannot be captured within a definitive set of functions or skills that can easily be taught or learnt by aspiring leaders’. This confirms the assertions that were explored in chapter 2 that suggested that the concept of leadership is complicated. However, voluntary organisations are formed for a purpose. A set of unique aims and objectives are stipulated to guide the mission of such entities. Goals and targets are formulated for such organisations to function effectively. The success within this ‘field’ is dependent on having the necessary time, shared responsibility, commitment as well as the ability to succeed within this environment that is influenced by multiple factors. Leadership research is chiefly based on effectiveness as represented by the notion of ‘good leadership’ in table 3.3 above. However, effectiveness is also a social construct (Kay, 1996). It follows that the multiple factors affecting voluntary organisations are social products that
come into play through the dynamic process of interaction between individuals. The compound nature of these factors is derived from individual differences. Their perceptions of the social setting such as that of a voluntary organisation will vary due to their experiences and backgrounds. Hence, Macmillan (2013) calls for a qualitative mapping of the dimensions and dynamics of the sector. The leadership process could be unique within a voluntary organisation and the sector as a whole due to the unique interactions between stakeholders. The uniqueness of this process is mainly associated with the values of the sector as reviewed above.

The previous section of the chapter highlighted the fears of losing the values associated with the voluntary sector. Voluntary sector leadership may therefore play an important role in the preservation of such values. Buckingham et al (2014: 10) have emphasised the point of ‘being clear what your values are, adhering to them, being passionate about them, being transparent about them’. However, this is not a straightforward process as voluntary organisations are diverse in nature and purpose. Thus, ‘leaders’ and ‘followers’ in the voluntary sector are faced with multiple challenges in trying to maintain or rather protect their values. Most importantly, there is need for the process of voluntary sector leadership to be proactive in determining the nature of its relationship with stakeholders (Myers and Sacks, 2001). Armistead et al (2007) also highlighted a number of leadership challenges faced by those working in multi-sectorial partnerships. It emerged that it is often difficult to meet the needs and interests of a diverse base of stakeholders. However, Deakin (2004: 6) conclude that ‘the question is not whether the voluntary sector should participate in partnership activity, but how and on what terms and what the results of participation are likely to be’. However, it is usually difficult to talk about the results as these emerge after the partnership is initiated. Conversely, having a picture of the intended outcomes may assist the process of evaluation. But this process is theoretically dominated by measuring variables to ascertain success or failure. Wallis and Dollevy (2005) have developed a theory of leadership to try to explain how voluntary organisations can overcome the various forms of failure. But it is not clear how this theory could enhance collaborative work and help the sector to maintain its independence and values. Moreover, it is usually problematic to isolate certain variables to facilitate the measurement process.

Research on leadership has also been linked with the values of the sector. Irving and Klenke (2004) outline the importance of the effective selection of moral, values-driven and
principled leaders. The belief is that an individual who is ‘principled’ is a better placed person to undertake the role of leadership. However, the term ‘principled leader’ is a social construct that has different meaning in different settings. It is therefore a taken for granted term that needs to be researched carefully. On the other hand, Kirchner (2006) reviewed valued-based leadership for the third sector organisations and was equally concerned about the possibility of losing the core values of the sector unless we have ‘values-based leaders’. However, it is chiefly important to depersonalise the concept of leadership as not being the property of a particular role-holder with formal position authority such as a chief executive. To quote from Kay (1996):

It is therefore seen as important that all staff and volunteer members at all levels of voluntary organisations, and service users need to be enabled to exercise leadership and to develop the skills to participate in this process. For this to be effective, there will need to be an organisational culture which recognises that different meanings, perspectives, interests or values may be held by others; a non-oppressive and anti-discriminatory culture that values diversity of views, and a willingness to learn from others; yet also the recognition of the importance of a negotiated order and the creation of meaning acceptable to others. (Kay, 1996:145)

It follows that the perception of entrusting the role of leadership to a single person in theory may not create an organisation culture that embraces diversity. In contrast, a group of leaders may negotiate effectively the ever changing nature of an organisation’s setting by having a broader and collective view of embracing diversity that results in enabling others to take part in the process of leadership. To succeed in this process, the development of people becomes the essential fulcrum of the social activity.

Developing effective leaders in the voluntary sector is vital. But, it is imperative to understand what makes leaders effective. Streyrer (1998) calls for social dramatization of leadership for leaders to be more effective. It is claimed that self-presentation of leaders is an important component that could have an effect on the success of leaders. Streyrer (1998) argues that charisma alone is not enough as it could lead to stigma. Instead, ‘social dramatization and social reversion are respectively those modes of impression management from which charisma seems to emerge’ (Streyrer, 1998: 823). It could be argued that the sector does not need impression management but effective management. Moreover, Streyrer (1998) argues that the basic forms of self-presentation of leadership are based on common
cultural heritage and behaviour which allows interactions. The development of effective leaders in the voluntary sector should go beyond impression management and concentrate on issues that really matter within the organisations. For instance, vision-based leadership (Alexander et al. 2001) is a useful and powerful medium for communicating the purpose of the organisation though this depends on the voluntary participation of others that often occurs with limited resources. However, it has been claimed to help leaders gain the support and not the impression of others through mutual respect and trust.

The National Council for Voluntary Organisations and the Association of Chief Executives of Voluntary Organisations have suggested that not enough is being done to develop and retain leaders (Bolton and Abdy, 2003). In addition, NCVO (2013) has described personal and professional development in the sector as ‘patchy’. This has created barriers to leadership development for emerging leaders. Moreover, others have also criticised some of the development programmes aimed at leaders in the sector. Paton et al (2007) for instance, argued that non-profit management education is the thing of the past due to the changes in voluntary organisations and in the demands on those who hold responsible positions within them and also in the available ways for people to learn and develop their profession. It has also been highlighted that lack of opportunities for emerging leaders in the sector is a major concern. In view of this, the leadership development programmes have to reflect the current trends of the sector and create ‘room’ for emerging leaders to network, interact and share ideas and acknowledge that leadership is a process that involves everyone in an organisation. Collateral leadership (Alexander et al. 2001) is used in a similar way as shared leadership and could contribute immensely to the development of the leaders in the sector. It emerges from a true partnership between staff, organisational representatives and advocates for the community. This arrangement encourages a two-way communication between the organisation leaders and its stakeholders. Alexander et al (2001) claim that collateral leadership creates a platform that allows input and feedback from other stakeholders ensuring that organisational strategies and processes are more consistent with the stakeholders’ realities.

Myers (2004) considers the roles of chief executives in relation to learning and development needs and McCray and Palmer (2009) explore the leadership skills required for future service models and the designing of a degree-level leadership skills programme. However, Iles and Preece (2006) argue that leadership development has often been equated into leader
development, with the resulting focus again upon the individual. There is need for ‘systems thinking’ that is coined as the process of taking a collective view that is centred on developing knowledge on how organisations affects others (Alexander et al. 2001). The next section will look at some of the challenges facing the voluntary sector.

3.9 Challenges

Writing in Managing without Profit, Hudson (1999) explained that the challenges facing the voluntary sector include vague objectives, accountable to many stakeholders, intricate management and governance structures, not profit driven, impact hard to measure, values have to be cherished, volunteers are considered essential and purpose has powerful impact on approaches to management. On the other hand, Harris (1998) proposes five key challenges of voluntary associations as being meeting long-term goals and individual members’ needs; balancing member-benefit and public-benefit goals; setting priorities in the face of competing interests; controlling member volunteers; and integrating paid staff. It can be seen that the sector faces unique challenges as compared to that of the other sectors. In addition, the majority of the voluntary organisations in the UK are small and have limited resources to overcome these challenges and some are institutionally prevented from bidding for government contracts and hence rely on short term grants for their survival and this is not sustainable.

Small groups breed commitment and energy but lose out on breadth of knowledge (Handy, 1988). In some cases these organisations have a fragile leadership and others suffer from ‘founder syndrome’. This raises the issue of capacity building, organisational development and effective leadership in the sector. Taylor and Burt (2005) assert that there is a significant lack of ICT (Information Communication and Technology) capacity throughout the UK voluntary sector and this is not confined to small –scale, local organisations. In particular, the leadership challenges as highlighted by Buckingham et al (2014) include lack of independence, lack of effective voice, lack of change and lack of resource. In addition, NCVO (2013) has revealed several endemic problems facing leadership in the sector that include lack of broad representation from women, black and ethnic minority and disabled leaders. Moreover, the NCVO review found out that there is lack of required pathways into the sector and its leadership.
On the other hand, the voluntary sector, in particular charities have become more receptive to brands and brand management issues. Some charities are well known by the public and this is as a result of adopting commercial marketing approaches that have been adapted addressing what Bruce (1998) calls the eight ‘Ps’ – product, price, promotion, place, people, physical evidence, process and philosophy. In particular, the philosophy of a voluntary organisation is absolutely paramount in meeting the need of the beneficiaries. However, most voluntary organisations are reluctant to adopt the marketing models of commercial companies. Chew and Osborne (2009) highlighted the inadequacy of the existing marketing and strategy literature on positioning to fully explain strategic positioning in charities. Their study revealed that strategic positioning in charities is a multifaceted concept that requires a multidimensional approach to researching it. However, the process of branding should not be confined only to the marketing department of a voluntary organisation. It should involve all the stakeholders of the organisation. Rochester et al (2010: 186) suggest that the process should be matched by the development of an ‘internal brand’ focused on the understanding and behaviour of the staff (and volunteers) who are responsible for service delivery.

Chew and Osborne (2009) identify certain influencing factors that are found to be unique to the charities in the context of branding. This includes the charity’s mission, varying forms of governmental influence, and competing demands from internal and external stakeholders. It becomes difficult to manage such intricate situations and at the same time trying to preserve and maintain the values and the independence of the sector. The expectations of the people who use services or benefit from these organisations are normally high. Local organisations are faced with multiple challenges of maintaining the local identity as well as the internal identity of their organisations. However, Bull and Jones (2006) suggest that more autonomous local government and greater civil society participation may still be needed to meet local expectations. How such a process could be achieved remains unknown as many local government bodies are facing their own problems and they may not be in the position to support voluntary organisations effectively.

Lack of funds and limited funders are other worrying factors for the voluntary sector and according to Clark et al (2010) there is a perception among voluntary sector players that large voluntary organisations are accounting for an ever-increasing share of total voluntary sector income. Many voluntary sector organisations, particularly the small and local operators do not have the capacity to develop robust fundraising strategies to sustain their operations.
Therefore, there is fear mounting amongst small organisations regarding income mobilisation. This is creating an increasing ‘polarisation’ of the sector between large national organisations operating as government contractors and smaller organisations. Smaller organisations find it difficult to meet the requirements of the government and some major donors. However, overall total voluntary sector income has increased and it is possible for the income share of the smallest organisations to decrease over time, and yet for their mean income to have increased (Clark et al. 2010). Despite the increase in income there are questions to address regarding ‘free services’ and charging people to access services. The shift from grant culture to that of contracts has put pressure on most of voluntary organisations to consider charging for services (Moriarty and Manthorpe, 2014).

3.10 Summary

This chapter of the thesis has identified some of the unique characteristics of voluntary organisations. It has demonstrated that the UK voluntary sector is indeed a diverse field with a range of activities. The identity of the voluntary sector in the social setting gives rise to some of the unique features that are the products of the social interactions of the people involved. These interactions come in the form of volunteering, leadership, governance, fundraising (voluntary income) and values. The chapter has recognised that the operations of the voluntary sector are underpinned by a set of values. However, the process of leadership is the fabric of voluntary organisation and a deeper understanding of its nature is greatly needed. Having a fragile leadership process will lead to inadequate governance, ambiguous volunteering, low voluntary income and vague values. This chapter has shown that a lacuna in knowledge exists in understanding the concept of leadership that takes a view of engaging multiple stakeholders. The concept of leadership in the voluntary sector is mainly equated as an individual responsibility. Therefore, an exploration of the ‘shared leadership’ perspective may add new knowledge to the process of leading voluntary organisations. On the other hand, this chapter has touched upon some challenges facing the sector and it has to be acknowledged that this thesis is limited to the exploration of shared leadership and cannot cover all the areas identified in the chapter. The identification and exploration of the challenges in detail requires a separate project. The next chapter will discuss the methodology employed in the research project within the context of voluntary organisations.
Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the research methodology adopted. It is intended to justify the type of methodology and methods employed at each phase of the research. As highlighted in the introduction chapter of this thesis the core empirical research question is; Do stakeholders take part in the process of leadership, if so how and if not, why not? In addition, the research has the following objectives;

1. To capture the process of leadership from the perspective of stakeholders (accomplished by Phase 1 of the research)

2. To find out how stakeholders get involved in the leadership process (accomplished by Phase 2 of the research)

3. To explore the relationships of stakeholders and gain their understanding in the process of leadership and identify the implications on organisations and individuals (accomplished by Phase 3 of the research).

In line with objective two of the research project, the study is concerned with establishing the magnitude of shared leadership and identifying key indicators or factors by presenting the following research questions;

- What is the level of shared leadership among stakeholders in organisations?
- What are the key factors that could affect the process of shared leadership among stakeholders in organisations?

The context of the research is based on voluntary organisations as mentioned in the introduction chapter and the voluntary sector review chapter. In the voluntary sector leadership is more specifically related to the ‘cause’ or ‘purpose’ as opposed to leadership in the private sector that is dominated by investor returns (Hadiwinata, 2002). What is interesting about this research is that the process of sharing or distribution of leadership is usually rhetoric and a taken for granted phenomenon as highlighted in the literature review
chapter. This presents a puzzle from a theoretical point of view that needs thorough empirical investigation. To achieve this empirical investigation, a mixed methodology approach has been chosen that includes the incorporation of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. The triangulation of the methodologies will help to advance scholarly knowledge on the phenomenon of shared leadership by contributing to the literature, enhancing the stakeholder theory and also influencing policy and practice within voluntary organisations and other organisations. However, in doing so, this chapter does not indicate which approach is better or superior. Nonetheless, it intends to justify the research methodology adopted. There are several ways of conducting research as there is not just one way of defining and identifying the answers to social problems. Saunders and colleagues argue that:

> It would be easy to fall into the trap of thinking, that one research approach is ‘better’ than another. This would miss the point. They are ‘better’ at doing different things. As always, which is ‘better’ depends on the research question (s) you are seeking to answer. Of course, the practical reality is that research rarely falls neatly into only one philosophical domain…. (Saunders et al. 2003: 85)

It is fair to acknowledge that different methodologies complement each other. However, all knowledge and methods for generating facts are not seen as equal. Different individuals and institutions attach different values to the contribution of each type of science or knowledge, and this influences societal understandings of valuable and less valuable research (Monahan and Fisher, 2010). This explains why for example many practically oriented business researchers do not explicitly state the philosophical viewpoints of their research. The exploration of philosophical concepts as Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008: 11) puts it ‘assists you in specifying your overall research design and strategy’. It is also ethically required to be transparent about the methodologies adopted for the research.

This chapter highlights how the research process was implemented taking in consideration the people element, conceptual framework, investigative styles and techniques employed. It is also about the philosophical standpoints of the area of inquiry and the reasons for selecting one route as opposed to the others. Moreover, it attempts to clearly show the relationship of the researcher to the research activity.
4.2 Adopting an Appropriate Research Design
4.2.1 Mixed Method Research: Quantitative and Qualitative

The research has adopted a mixed research design that encompasses both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. According to Creswell (2009: 14) ‘the concept of mixing different methods originated in 1959 when Campbell and Fisk used multi-methods to study validity of psychological traits’. Since then, there has been a great interest in mixing methods due to the realisation that all methods have limitations. Robson (2002: 370) has stated that ‘there is no rule that says that only one method must be used in an investigation. Using more than one can have substantial advantages’. This flexibility allows the researcher to decide which method is more appropriate for certain research questions and whether to collect both quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously or following a sequence. It also facilitates the process of deciding which method would be primary or secondary.

I selected the qualitative design as the primary method because of the breadth and depth required for such an inquiry that is mainly explorative in nature. According to Thorne (2008: 38) qualitative research seeks to ‘generate empirical knowledge about human phenomena for which depth and contextual understanding would be useful, and for which measurement is inappropriate or premature’. Qualitative data are therefore associated with phenomena such as that of leadership and are characterised by their richness and fullness based on the opportunity of the researcher to explore a subject in as real a manner as is possible. A contrast can thus be drawn (Saunders et al. 2003) between the ‘thin’ abstraction and description that results from quantitative data collection and the ‘thick’ or ‘thorough’ abstraction or description associated with qualitative data. However, others might argue that generalisability is a problem in qualitative design. Nonetheless, Silverman (2005: 136) argues that ‘the relative flexibility of qualitative research can improve the generalisability of our findings by allowing us to include new cases after initial findings are established’. In this view, I decided to mix the research design so that the two methodologies can complement each other hence helping me to achieve the research objectives.

The qualitative design was also considered because ‘it enables you to get beneath the skin and understand what people really think and, perhaps more importantly feel’ (Keaveney and Kaufman 2001: 126). Moreover, according to Miles and Huberman (1994) good qualitative
data are more likely to lead to serendipitous findings and to new integration. They went on to say that qualitative data:

…are a source of well-grounded, rich descriptions and explanations of processes in identifiable local contexts. With qualitative data one can preserve chronological flow, see precisely which events led to which consequences, and derive fruitful explanations. (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 1)

In this regard, a qualitative research design has been incorporated in the mixed research design to better understand the phenomenon of shared leadership through meanings of events and interactions shared by people within voluntary organisations. I suppose that leadership is constructed well by those experiencing it and it is therefore imperative to capture these experiences from the people involved in the process. It is with this view that the methodology I employed has been adequately spelled out to offer a coherent picture of how the research was conducted. Therefore, a mixed research design suits this research because of the richness of the data that this strategy usually accumulates. Miles and Huberman (1994: 40) have stated that ‘we have to face the fact that numbers and words are both needed if we are to understand the world’. The research design is therefore a combination one, as I have employed a discursive design expressed in words and the quantification of data on the concept of shared leadership. The semi-structured interviews formed the Phase 1 of the research. This phase offered the chance to explore the concept of leadership and that of shared leadership. Phase 1 was followed by a survey (Phase 2) to operationalise the concept of shared leadership and finally in-depth interviews (Phase 3) were conducted to deepen and ‘initiate new lines of thinking’ about the phenomenon under study as Miles and Huberman (1994: 41) put it. Therefore, Phase 1 was qualitative, Phase 2 quantitative and Phase 3 qualitative.

According to Creswell (2009: 4) ‘quantitative research is a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables’. These variables that could be numerical, nominal or ordinal can then be measured using different instruments to prepare them for data analysis. The quantitative method was employed mainly to operationalise the concept of shared leadership. This facilitated the process of identifying specific constructs and dimensions of shared leadership. Moreover, this provided the platform for measuring the level of shared leadership in the randomised survey. Robson (2002: 372) asserts that the inclusion of a quantitative technique gives the opportunity to ‘fill a gap in a flexible design study…when the research questions raise issues which can’t be addressed by purely
qualitative’. Moreover, a quantitative method such as the survey has the advantage of using large samples and gives the opportunity for generalisability (Silverman, 2005; Saunders et al. 2003). It has also been argued that due to the standardised nature of quantitative methods it is possible to measure the reliability of the instruments being applied (Silverman, 2005; Bryman, 2004).

4.3 Theoretical Perspectives
4.3.1 Deductive versus Inductive Approach

The aim of this research is based on the exploration of the phenomenon of sharing leadership in voluntary organisations. The deductive approach was considered for this specific research because to some extent it was about testing the theory of shared leadership through the survey instrument. Hence, some theoretical propositions were made prior to data collection. Moreover, the application of the stakeholder theory in relation to shared leadership provided some theoretical assumptions about the research. Deductive research is essentially as Crowther and Lancaster (2009) suggest a set of techniques for applying theories in the real world to test and assess their validity. Thus, deductive approach is the most widely used framework in the natural sciences however, it is also becoming popular in social research and particularly business and management research.

In conventional science therefore, theories are developed, tested, and refined through empirical research (Greene, 2010). This deductive reasoning involves as Johnson and Christensen (2008: 15) describe, ‘the process of drawing a conclusion that is necessarily true if the premises are true’. This leads to what Gill and Johnson (2010) call methodological monism. Monism is described as the conceptualisation and explanation of human behaviour as necessary responses to the action of empirically observable, measurable causal variables or antecedent conditions that could be manipulated without any need to investigate human subjective processes (Gill and Johnson, 2010). This form of explanation is often called erklaren and most associated with quantitative measures of phenomena that involve statistical reasoning to investigate causation. However, according to Flick et al (2004) the drawback of the deductive approach is the nature of being repetitive, as they tell us nothing new. However, I think the novelty lies in the use of different kinds of statistical measurement and the interpretation of the data as I have demonstrated in this project.
Williams and May (1996: 22) define induction as the ‘derivation of a general principle which is inferred from specific observations’. Inductive reasoning as Lodico et al (2010: 10) observe usually ‘leads to inductive methods of data collection through which the researcher systematically observes the phenomenon under investigation, searches for patterns or themes in the observations, and develops a generalization from the analysis of those themes’. I found the inductive approach relevant to some extent of conducting this research given the relatively limited knowledge about voluntary sector perspectives on the concept of shared leadership as highlighted in the background information and the literature review chapters. Conversely, leadership in reality is a human action that has an internal logic of its own which must be understood. Central to this choice is based on the contentious nature of the phenomenon of leadership.

The definition of leadership is widely contested and this is attributed to the way the phenomenon is theorized. In most cases it involves the observation of the phenomenon during empirical experiments. This research project attempts to combine the notions of deductive and that of inductive approach to enhance the understanding of the concept of shared leadership within voluntary organisations. Gill and Johnson (2010: 56) propose that ‘the construction of explanations and theories about what has been observed’ is equally important. It also requires a more exploratory approach to effectively improve understanding of the phenomenon of shared leadership in the context of voluntary organisations and this could be achieved by incorporating an inductive approach within the deductive sphere. A “bottom – up” approach allowed me to build an abstraction of shared leadership in the context of voluntary organisations.

Theoretically, this piece of research therefore utilised both the inductive and deductive approaches in looking for the answers to the research objectives. This research is to some extent underpinned by the principles of flexible reasoning and trying out what works. This is reflected in the three phases of the research design that include semi-structured interviews to find out the meaning of leadership from the perspectives of stakeholders in the voluntary organisation, the survey research that was aimed at measuring the concept of shared leadership within this context as informed by the semi-structured interviews and finally in-depth qualitative interviews to explore the findings of the survey in a detailed manner. In this regard the specific observations for this research were triangulated with semi-structured interviews, a survey and in-depth qualitative interviews.
The next section of the chapter will discuss the philosophy of the research. This is important because as Creswell (2009: 3) puts it ‘a more complete way to view the gradations of differences between (qualitative and quantitative methods) is in the basic philosophical assumptions researchers bring to the study’. The justification of the methods employed will be consolidated by the discussion on the philosophy of research.

4.4 Ontological Considerations

4.4.1 Constructionism

According to Smith (1998) ontology is the study of theories of being. It is about what can really exist. It focuses on propositions about the nature of reality. Ontological issues therefore are concerned with what we believe to exist and able to be investigated. This approach to the development of theories is therefore based on suggestions about the nature of phenomena. For example, I was of the view that the dynamic nature of voluntary organisations and the concept of shared leadership being a relative new phenomenon are better understood from an ontology that encompasses a constructionist position. The ontological properties that I wanted to capture included perceptions, experiences and interactions of stakeholders within the context of voluntary organisations in the UK.

The ontological orientation of constructionism as a philosophy of learning founded on the premise of reflection on the experiences of stakeholders constructed by their own understanding of shared leadership suited this piece of research. This implies that the social phenomenon of shared leadership and its features are not only produced through social interaction but that they are in a constant state of revision. Constructionism enables the researcher to establish the meaning of a phenomenon from the views of participants that constantly change over time (Creswell, 2009). The researcher’s own accounts of the social world are also crucial to the meaning of the phenomenon of shared leadership in this context.

As I was searching for ‘meaning’ I realised that it was imperative to understand the research focus and the learning process on primary concepts of shared leadership, not only isolated facts as reflected in some of the surveys. Moreover, as Niekerk and Savin-Baden (2010) argues that the extent to which a research project succeeds in situating experiences within the social context should determine the credibility, reliability and the quality of the study. According to
Potter (2006) the phenomenologist, Alfred Schutz argued for a distinct and separate science for studying human science because the world of nature does not only mean molecules, atoms and electrons as reflected in the ontology of objectivism.

4.4.2 Objectivism

The ontological position of objectivism was considered for this particular research project when I tried to operationalize and measure the concept of shared leadership within voluntary organisations. The reason I incorporated the ontology of objectivism was to ascertain the social phenomena of shared leadership by measuring it within the context of voluntary organisations as I believed that its meaning has an existence that is independent of the stakeholders that took part in the research. Moreover, the ontological orientation of objectivity was chosen because of its strict adherence to truth-conducive methods in one’s thinking, particularly, to take into account all available information, and to avoid any form of prejudice or bias. This was particular helpful when measuring the level of sharing leadership.

The element of being neutral and unbiased was impossible for this type of study no wonder I had to bring in the ontology of constructionism as described above. Although some scholars reject the element of objectivity for example (Lindow, 2001; Mercer, 2002) based on the argument that they are concerned with making change and not only the production of knowledge, which is seen as insufficient justification for research. However, one could argue that the production of knowledge could be achieved by both objectivism and constructivism as I believe that it is about the research focus that matters most and that the two ontologies complement each other.

This research aimed at taking into account not only the different experiences and opinions of the stakeholders but also the attitudes of the respondents towards the phenomenon of shared leadership. Moreover, the objectivity assumption regards an organisation as a tangible object that has rules and regulations and standardised procedures for meeting the need as opposed to seeing it only through the lens of ‘organising’. Thus, a combination of the two ontologies suited this project.
4.5 Epistemological Considerations

Epistemology is a branch of philosophy that is concerned with assumptions about the grounds of knowledge (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Hatch, 1997). It involves the study of theories of knowledge (Smith, 1998; Crowther and Lancaster, 2009) and consists of ideas of what counts to be knowledge and how that knowledge can be captured. For example, an epistemological approach to a theory of sharing leadership might be based on exploring what we can observe about the process of leadership in the real world. However, it has to be noted that knowledge on its own is a highly contested and a controversial concept. According to Huff (2009: 109) ‘epistemology focuses on what human beings can know about what exists’. It is however, a complex subject which goes beyond the assumptions of knowledge. Burrell and Morgan (1979) argue that the assumption about knowledge deals with not only the dichotomy of true and false but also with what forms knowledge. Therefore the prediction is also based on the view of the nature of knowledge itself.

Epistemological concerns occupy a strategic role in the development of organisation theory (Clegg and Hardy, 1999) and researchers tend to hold different or differing opinions on how knowledge can be acquired about organisations. Thinking about differences in epistemologies is a useful undertaking because epistemology is probably the most profound difference we can draw between perspectives of organisation theory (Hatch, 1997). Moreover, all research originates from some view of reality and thus according to Hart (1998) this means that there are different ways of gaining an understanding of some aspects of the world and different ways of confirming our understandings. This is because alternative views of reality lead to different ways of establishing what can be accepted as valid knowledge. Illuminating and understanding the difference between the general epistemological orientations from within which the methodological traditions are obtained is imperative because it ensures that the researcher aligns the methods by which he/she seeks to answer with the nature of the questions he/she is asking in the first place.

4.5.1 Positivism

Positivism is an epistemological approach that is dominated in the natural sciences and according to Clegg and Hardy (1999:29) is underpinned by principles and administrative techniques that translate ‘highly contestable, normative precepts into universal, objective,
immutable and hence unchallengeable, scientific laws’. The term was coined by Auguste Comte and refers to an assumption that the only legitimate knowledge can be found from experience (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). Positivism is taken to entail phenomena and hence knowledge confirmed by the senses (principle of phenomenalism) to be genuinely be warranted as knowledge (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The ethos of positivism is also underpinned by a clear distinction between scientific statements and normative statements and the notion that the former are the true domain of the scientist. This is consolidated by the following quote:

Positivism could be described as an epistemology of the fact. Positivists generally believe that the world of experience is an objective world, governed by underlying, even natural laws. Empirical observations, the “facts”, are outcroppings of these underlying regularities. Positivists hold that if, and only if, we systematically and dispassionately observe the data of the empirical world, we can detect the lawful patterns of which they are evidence. (Sprague, 2010: 78-79)

The doctrine of positivism is not a straight forward philosophical position but is extremely difficult to assimilate. There are still disagreements about its nature and usage. However, the development of positivism offered some clear advantages over the epistemology based on faith and divine revelation (Sprague, 2010). The emphasis on systematic procedures has the ultimate aim of presenting knowledge claims within a context that is concise, coherent, open to critique and argument and to some extent even refutation.

What is pretty clear though is that, at the centre of positivist epistemology is an emphasis on objectivity that I have highlighted above. Positivism preaches the assumption that science and hence research must be conducted in a manner that is value free. According to this assumption subjectivity is an obstacle to the accumulation of knowledge as the researcher’s personality, experiences and feelings introduce errors in the research process. However, during this research project it became clear that it is difficult to remain non-judgemental during data collection. The researcher made certain assumptions and judgements based on his own experience, attitudes and cultural background. However, these did not influence the outcome of the research. May (2001) asserts that:

Value judgements are dependent on beliefs and experiences in everyday life. They also concern what we would like our experience to be…Given this, we
are not seeking to eliminate values because they inform and relate to the very reasons why we hold our beliefs, as well as things to which we aspire. (May, 2001: 49)

In this research I have employed the epistemology of positivism through the quantitative methodology. The survey research that I conducted with the aim of measuring the level of shared leadership in voluntary organisations reflects the tenets of positivism. This approach helped me to operationalise the constructs of shared leadership and then use the constructs for in-depth interviews.

4.5.2 Interpretivism

Interpretivism is an epistemological approach that sees social reality characterized by what Walliman (2005: 205) calls ‘intersubjectivity and common meanings which need to be interpreted and understood’. This epistemology rejects the assumption that human behaviour can be codified in laws and that the social world can be studied from detached, objective and impartial viewpoint. Interpretivism subsumes the views of those that have been against the application of the scientific model to the study of the social world. In particular, Berger and Luckmann (1966) argued that human social order is produced through interpersonal negotiations and implicit understandings based on shared experience and shared history. Thus, the study of the social world requires a different logic of research procedure that reflects the distinctiveness of humans as against the natural order (Bryman, 2004; Bryman and Bell, 2007).

Interpretivism also denies the possibility of universal social laws and empirical generalizations. Therefore, interpretivism seeks not to adjust the conventional framework of positivism but to replace it. This story telling approach comprises the reconstruction of intersubjective meanings and the interpretive understanding of the meanings humans construct in a given context such as that of voluntary organisations. It is also about how these meanings interrelate to form a whole (Greene, 2010). Management knowledge therefore as Fulop et al (2009: 37) put it ‘emerges from particular genres of interaction that are informed by different managerial discourses’.

The epistemological standpoint for this research is based on the combination of positivism and interpretivism. The research philosophy associated with this combination is usually
referred to as ‘pragmatic philosophy’ or pragmatism. Pragmatism is based on the epistemological orientation that reflects both the principles of positivism and interpretivism.

Interpretivism in regard to this research project could be justified by considering the research topic as interpreted through the mind e.g. classificatory concepts of leadership. It is imperative to understand the interactions and perceptions of people who experience the process of leadership. I therefore strived to engage with a variety of stakeholders of voluntary organisations to learn from their perspective of experiencing leadership. Interpretivism therefore facilitated the process of generating new knowledge derived from the dynamics of unique interactions of these stakeholders. I accomplished this through the methodological commitment to verstehen, a German word meaning ‘to understand’ because human action, unlike the behaviour of non-sentient objects in the natural sciences, has an internal subjective logic which is also intersubjective in the sense that it is created and reproduced through everyday human social interaction (Gill and Johnson, 2010). This was achieved by the research methods outlined below that grasped the socially constructed meaning of leadership apart from a survey that measured the constructs of shared leadership. This view of mixing methods is underpinned by the philosophy of pragmatism.

4.6 The Philosophy of Pragmatism

The philosophy of pragmatism was introduced in 1878 by Charles Pierce. 20 years later in 1898 William James brought the paradigm of pragmatism in an address at the University of California. The word is derived from Greek (Πραγμα) ‘pragma’ meaning action, from which practice and practical emanate (James, 1910). In addition, James (1910: 27) states that ‘the pragmatic method is primarily a method of settling metaphysical disputes that otherwise might be interminable’. However, I selected the mixed methods approach not based on this assumption but on ‘what works’ and what is appropriate to answer my research questions. Creswell (2009: 10) asserts that ‘pragmatism as a worldview arises out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions’. It is about finding solutions to problems by taking a pluralist approach as opposed to a single method.

The rationale for the research project under the lens of pragmatism is premised on the needs and purposes and this gives the researcher autonomy to engage in any research methods so
long the methods are justified. The action of the researcher is an important one under pragmatism, so long that action can yield results. According to James (1910: 28) ‘the principles of pragmatism lies in our conception of the object, so far as that conception has positive significance at all’. This is where practicality comes in as ‘the pragmatic method in such cases is to try to intercept each notion by tracing its respective practical consequences’ (James, 1910: 27). Therefore, pragmatism is the appropriate philosophy to achieve the objectives of this research project that is primarily in the social context.

The proponents of the philosophy of pragmatism are in agreement that research always occurs in social, historical, political, economic, and other contexts (Creswell, 2009). The contexts are so complex that integrating the methods could help to capture the casual effects and the experiences of those involved in different situations. Thus, the results from one method can help identify participants to study or could even lead to new insights.

The key feature of pragmatism is that it does not commit to any one system of philosophy and reality (Creswell, 2009). The doctrine of pragmatism is centred on the notion of seeing the world as an absolute unity and thus the concept of truth is taken as what works at the time (Robson, 2002; Creswell, 2009). The external world is viewed both as an independent of the mind and that lodged in the mind. The question that James (1910: 27) asks is ‘what difference would it practically make to anyone if this notion rather than that notion were true’ is an important one because it could guide the researcher to try different things when carrying out a research project.

Pragmatism to me is about employing a methodology that fits with the research questions or objectives that require a combination of qualitative and quantitative designs. It was imperative to adopt a pragmatic approach as it allowed me to freely take advantage of the mixed methods strategy. The utility and practicality of pragmatism gave me the opportunity to weigh the benefits and also to focus on the research objectives. Therefore, what worked for me was being open-minded; reflect upon my actions as the project progressed and adjust my actions where appropriate. The process allowed me to conduct the research in a transparent manner and this is where values and other ethical issues come into play.
4.7 Values and Ethical Issues

Taking a pragmatic approach does not mean that values and ethics should be ignored in the research project. It is important to protect the confidentiality of the participants and also to conduct the research in a transparent way. In recent years legislation has been enacted and standards for ethical conduct have been introduced to protect the privacy of participants and to uphold the principles of integrity (Hedgecoe, 2008; Richardson and McMullan, 2007; Guillemin and Gillam, 2004). This has brought about the introduction of Research Ethics Committees (REC) at universities and other learning institutions. Walliman (2005: 358) summarises the role of the ethics committees as to ‘oversee the research carried out in their organisations in relation to ethical issues’. The implications are to protect the research subjects and promote integrity and transparency during the research process.

Ethical concerns emerged as early as the planning stage of this research project and were considered throughout the period. Saunders et al. (2003: 129) define ethics with reference to the researcher as ‘the appropriateness of your behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of your work, or affected by it’. High profile scandals involving the ill treatment of subjects include the ill-fated testing of the thalidomide drug during the 1960s, the four-decade-long Tuskegee syphilis study, and the retention of the hearts of dead children at some British hospitals in the 1990s (Marcfarlane, 2010). All examples are synonymous with medical and scientific research. However, it is not only the behaviour of the researcher associated with the research subjects that matters but also the conduct of the researcher in relation to the whole research process. According to Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) the research ethics covers the ways in which research is conducted and reported. This also includes complex issues such as ‘research bias, ways of quoting other authors and researchers, and even the question of silencing other researchers in the research community’ (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008: 6-7).

The relevant ethical guidelines to the discipline of this study are that of the British Sociological Association (BSA). The central purpose of the statement is to raise awareness of ethical issues and to encourage members to take responsibility for their own ethical practice. Overall, the Statement of Ethical Practice for BSA is concerned with the professional integrity, relations and responsibilities towards research participants, sponsors
and funders and obligations, roles and rights. The guidelines also stress the importance of obtaining informed consent from participants. Furthermore, the guidelines recommend the anonymity and privacy of the participants to be respected and that personal information should be kept confidential. It is also common practice for members to state in applications for ethical approval for research that they will conduct their study in compliance with the body’s ethics code (Potter, 2006).

A research proposal that incorporated an ethics application was submitted to the university ethics committee and was approved at an early stage of this research project. The ethical considerations of the study involved maintaining confidentiality and obtaining informed consent. This was achieved by receiving consent (Appendix IV and Appendix IX) from the subjects after having carefully and truthfully informed the subjects about the research. The participants had the right to privacy by protecting their identity. Most commentators on research methods, for example (Kvale, 1996; Denzin and Lincoln, 2000: Silverman, 2000 and Bryman, 2001) emphasise the point of informing the research subjects about the overall purpose of the investigation and the main features of the design, as well as any possible risks and benefits from participation in the research project. However, Marcferlane, (2010) argues that the rigid focus on gaining informed consent from research participants can have the effect of undermining trust of participants in the researcher and the research process. He further argues that this is a defensive and quasi-legal means of trying to protect the university and the researcher from litigation.

For Marcferlane (2010) a virtue-based approach to ethics is needed that focuses on being rather than doing. The implications are that what is required for real research ethics has nothing to do with seeking ethical approval but it is about how well equipped is the researcher to face the moral challenges in the field that is dominated by uncertainties. Moreover, Helgeland (2005) argues that if rules are observed to the letter, this may prevent research judged by the respondents to serve their interests. However, Ferdinand et al. (2007) emphasise that research based on informed consent serves to protect not only participants’ interests but also those of the researcher.

It has been highlighted above that guarantees of confidentiality and anonymity given to research participants must be honoured. But there are sometimes clear and overriding reasons to do otherwise, for example in relation to the abuse of children (Bostock, 2002). Wiles et al.
(2008) have argued that in some situations relating specifically to illegal activities, researchers are aware that they might have to provide the information to the authorities. I did not experience this calamity during the research.

Guillemin and Gillam (2004) have concluded that ethical dilemmas and concerns are part of the everyday practice of doing research. This is also echoed by Munro (2008) who states that:

The length process of obtaining approval increases the costs of undertaking research and there is a danger that the research findings to inform policy and practice will be delayed and that short-term or responsive studies to meet policy priorities may not be feasible. (Munro, 2008: 436)

In addition, Hammersley (2008) has also argued that the increased ethical regulation being imposed is not ethically justifiable. He claims that there is little reason to believe that it will make researchers to behave in more ethically ways. However, Crow et al (2006) conclude that ethical research practice is not an automatic guarantee or an inevitable obstacle to collection of good quality data. They argue that the situation will vary tremendously from one field of research to another. Therefore, ethical issues are important in research in that they relate directly to the integrity of a piece of research and of the disciplines that are involved (Bryman, 2004).

What I learned from this project is that having a greater awareness and an understanding of the cardinal ethical issues of research and what needs to be in place to ensure that any piece of research is ethically sound and has obtained the necessary clearances from relevant entities is very important indeed. Thus, this research project had a comprehensive assessment of the ethical issues through the process of reflexivity.

Therefore issues of anonymity and informed consent exist whatever the research approach when human participants are involved, even indirectly (Richardson and McMullan, 2007; Burkemper, 2004; Crow et al. 2006; Israel and Hay, 2006).

4.8 Research Strategy: Mixed Approach

According to Saunders et al (2003: 90) ‘your research strategy will be a general plan of how you will go about answering the research question(s) you have set’ or in this case the
achievement of research objectives. An exploratory study has been chosen as the general plan for achieving the stated research objectives. Robson (2002: 59) describes an exploratory research as a way of discovering ‘what is happening, particularly in little-understood situations and to generate ideas and hypothesis for future research’. It is an exclusively flexible strategy. The qualitative nature of the research captures the interactions and experiences of the stakeholders. On the other hand, the survey strategy has the ‘scientific’ feel and allows the phenomenon of shared leadership to be operationalised. The mixed research strategy suits this research project because the researcher is interested in gaining a rich understanding of the phenomenon of shared leadership in the context of voluntary organisations through the process of exploring the concept and also attempting to measure it. Saunders et al (2003: 97) state that ‘exploratory research can be linked to the traveller or explorer. Its great advantage is that it is flexible and adaptable to change’. These features were appropriate to generate the required data and the mixed strategy offered a powerful strategy for achieving my research objectives.

4.8.1 Triangulation of Data Collection

The experience and relationships of various stakeholders was crucial to this study and hence a combination of semi-structured interviews, a survey and in-depth interviews helped to generate the required knowledge on the subject of shared leadership in the context of voluntary organisations. The data collected depended on the principle objectives of the research outlined above which gave a particular focus on the phenomenon of shared leadership.

4.8.2 Phase 1 of the Research (Semi-Structured Interviews)

The first phase of the research is aimed at exploring the concept of leadership and that of shared leadership with few individuals and it is not about testing the instruments used in the other phases of the research. The research project achieved to interview the subjects, adopting semi-structured interviews at the initial stage of the study as described by Bryman (2004). Semi-structured interviews were chosen because of the flexibility they offer to capture relevant information. This allows the researcher to omit some of the questions that are not appropriate for a particular organisation (Saunders et al. 2003). At this stage in-depth interviews were not considered as the aim of this phase was to explore the concept of shared leadership. Moreover, focus groups were not favoured because of the complications of
managing multiple participants taking part at the same time. Despite that group interaction could result into a production of rich data; it was felt that lack of resources could negatively affect the quality of the data.

A letter of introduction (see Appendix I) was sent by email to ‘gate keepers’. Six organisations responded positively to the request. I could not manage to interview any person in two organisations hence only four organisations were represented for this initial phase. The 10 participants I interviewed included chief executives, employees and a volunteer within the four targeted voluntary organisations as shown in table 4.1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Size of organisation</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of Corporate Planning and Performance</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of Learning Disabilities</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Manager</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development Manager</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT Manager</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Small</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 List of Respondents for the semi-structured interviews
The principle aim of Phase 1 was to identify and explore the dynamics of ‘sharing’ the process of leadership. Hence 10 interviews were sufficient to establish a foundation for further enquiry at stage two and stage three of the research project. The average duration for the interviews was 45 minutes. With the consent of the respondents (see Appendix IV) the interviews were digitally recorded and the researcher also took notes to complement the process. The digital recorder had transcribing software to facilitate the development of the interview transcripts (see Appendix V for a sample of interview transcript). I was aware of the importance of creating a full record of the interview soon after its occurrence. A number of other data quality issues associated with interviews were also identified and this included reliability, bias, validity and generalisability. However, qualitative interviewing is usually very different from interviewing in quantitative research (Bryman, 2004). Generally, qualitative interviews are less structured than quantitative interviews. Qualitative interviews are therefore more flexible than quantitative interviews and offer the opportunity for the interviewer to respond to the direction in which interviewees take the interview.

In quantitative research I found out that the interviewing process is more structured with the notion of maximizing the reliability and validity of measurement of key concepts as it will be seen in the Phase 2 of the research. However, this does not mean that qualitative interviews are not reliable. If they were not reliable I would have not included them in my research plan. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000: 646) ‘each interview context is one of interaction and relation; the result is as much a product of this social dynamic as it is a product of accurate accounts and replies’.

During this phase of the project two interview schedules were developed specifically for Chief Executive Officers (Appendix II) and other stakeholders (trustees, volunteers and employees) (See Appendix III). They consisted mainly of open-ended questions and occasionally some questions were asked to clarify the answers given by the respondents. This combination allowed me to ask questions that were not included in the interview schedules as the interview developed. All questions listed on the interview schedules were asked and a similar pattern was used from interviewee to interviewee.

According to Kvale (1996) the drawbacks of interview transcriptions are that they are boring to read and consist of incomplete sentences and usually contain many digressions. I was mainly aware of the disadvantages of digital recording that may include technical faults and
the length process of transcribing. Thus, the process was complemented by notes. The notes acted as some form of permanent record and according to Denscombe (2003) taking notes at an interview can fill in some of the relevant issues that the digital recording alone might miss. Field notes in regard to this phase also covered information relating to the context of the location, the climate and atmosphere under which the interviews were conducted. This included clues about the intent behind the statements and comments on aspects of non-verbal communication as they were deemed relevant to the interview.

Moreover, the very openness and flexibility of the semi-structured interview, with its many on-the-spot decisions helped me to achieve the research objective of this phase. As Bryman (2001: 323) puts it ‘flexibility is important in such areas as varying the order of questions, following up leads, and clearing up inconsistencies in answers’. Unlike structured interviews that are rigid, semi-structured interviews gives the researcher the opportunity to reflect on the responses and adjust the questions accordingly.

The semi-structured interviews linked to the expectation that the interviewed subjects’ viewpoints are more likely to be expressed in a relatively openly designed interview situation (Kvale, 1996; Flick, 1998; Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). The analysis of these interviews is discussed in the chapter of data analysis. The results of this phase informed the planning and subsequently the development of the survey.

4.8.3 Phase 2 of the Research (Survey)

The survey was primarily incorporated to find out the level of ‘shared leadership’ in voluntary organisations based on the findings of Phase 1. The survey adopted a two-part instrument to collect data. The first part was adopted from the Shared Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) developed by Khasawneh (2011: 634) that is shown in Table 4.2 and the second part attempted to capture the demographic data of the respondents as informed by the semi-structured interviews.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participative decision making</td>
<td>1. I participate with my superiors in setting organizational direction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. In my university, administrative leadership and faculty members work collaboratively to reach agreed upon goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. University leaders (e.g. administrators, deans, depart chairs) involve faculty members in the decision-making process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. In my university, decisions are transparent to all stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. My superiors encourage me to join efforts regarding important organizational decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Faculty members are involved in the discussions prior to making decisions, rather than agree on decisions that already have been made.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>1. Leaders in my university consult with faculty members when facing a problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Leaders in my university listen carefully to faculty members’ ideas and suggestions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Faculty members have the ability to voice their opinions without penalty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. There is an on-going dialogue between university leaders and faculty members regarding university vision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. We have an atmosphere of proactive communication that supports the engagement of all.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Our leaders ask for suggestions from faculty members concerning how to carry out responsibilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>1. In my university, there is an administrative delegation of authentic power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. We have a leadership that shares power effectively with their faculty members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. We have a distributed power structure in our university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. We have numerous formal and informal leaders in my university.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2: The Shared Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) developed by Khasawneh (2011)
The leadership constructs used for this study are decision-making, strategic planning, power and communication. Unlike Khasawneh (2011)’s constructs, it was felt important to include the construct of strategic planning for this investigation as it was one of the issues that emanated from the semi-structured interviews at Phase 1. The communication dimension included the organisation’s vision, responsibilities and how to handle problems. The questionnaire is shown in Appendix VI. The shared leadership dimension questions used a seven-point, Likert-type scale with numerical values ranged as follows: 1 ‘Extremely agree’, 2 ‘Moderately agree’, 3 ‘Slightly agree’, 4 ‘Neither agree nor disagree’, 5 ‘Slightly disagree’, 6 ‘Moderately disagree’, 7 ‘Extremely disagree’, 0 ‘N/A’. In the data analysis the value 8 was added to denote ‘No Response’. Low scores of 1, 2 and 3 indicate a strong shared leadership practise, whereas higher scores of 5, 6 and 7 suggest a weak shared leadership practise. The items were tested for reliability and those that did not fit the instrument were dropped. According to De Vaus (2002: 184) ‘A reliable scale is one on which individuals obtain much the same scale score on two different occasions’. Of course it was not viable to administer the survey questionnaire to the same sample twice. This was achieved by thorough examination of the participants’ responses for consistency. Therefore, the overall reliability of the scale was measured using Cronbach’s alpha coefficient and it was found to be 0.94 compared to Khasawneh (2011)’s 0.87. This high figure indicates that the scale was more reliable. De Vaus (2002) suggest that alpha which is in the range of 0 and 1 should be at least 0.70.

Dillman et al (2009: 42) have suggested that ‘a well-done sample survey provides the ability to estimate with known statistical precision (based on probability theory) characteristics of all members in a carefully defined population’. However, in practice this is impossible to define all the characteristics of the population because of the numerous variables involved. The survey population was voluntary organisations based in the UK. Voluntary organisations in this context included charities, NGOs and community groups. Clark et al (2010) have indicated that there were over 171,000 active voluntary organisations in the UK in 2007/2008. However, there are thought to be at least 300,000 voluntary organisations in England alone, including many very small community organisations working mainly at local level (Plowden, 2003).

It was not feasible to send the questionnaire to all voluntary organisations in the UK. Moreover, De Vaus (2002: 81) argues that the ‘size of the population from which we draw
the sample is largely irrelevant for the accuracy of the sample’. It is the completed sample that is imperative. Therefore, a sample frame consisted of about 700 email addresses obtained from the Voluntary Sector Studies Network. The sample was then chosen at random and 300 emails were sent for inclusion in the survey. The completed sample is based on the 126 respondents representing a response rate of 42%, which was good. The sampling error is about 9% using De Vaus (2002) sample sizes required for various sampling errors at 95% confidence level. Table 4.3 below shows the breakdown of the organisations and respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of organisations</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Accumulative Total of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of</td>
<td>Total number of respondents</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>organisations = 55</td>
<td>= 111</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3: The Breakdown of Survey Respondents

Note that 15 respondents did not respond to the question regarding to which organisation they belong to, hence total number of respondents is 126 including the 15 who did not respond.

As shown in Table 4.3 above a total number of 126 participated and these came from 55 different voluntary organisations in the UK. It could be observed that 26 respondents came from one organisation and this could be attributed to the personal relationship of the researcher with the organisation. The researcher was a former volunteer at this organisation and this indicates that networking has an impact on negotiating access and increases the chances of an excellent response rate. It was equally the same with the 13 respondents from
another organisation as the CEO was a former course mate at the university. However, this had no effect on the findings of the survey.

The Data collection was initiated by setting an account with surveymonkey.com. For this sample the survey was submitted to the target group from 11\textsuperscript{th} December 2011 to 2\textsuperscript{nd} March 2012. Confidentiality was guaranteed by keeping the survey online with a protected password. A statement was also included in the questionnaire (Appendix VI) to inform the will be respondents that there answers will be confidential. This helped in ensuring that objective information is collected for accuracy purposes. This was also intensified by a comprehensive introduction about the research. Fowler (1995: 13) asserts that ‘one basic part of having people accurately report factual or objective information is ensuring that all respondents have the same understanding of what is to be reported’.

Initially, the researcher experienced a lot of difficulties in trying to meet the target number of cases within the four month timeframe. The difficulties included organisational and individual resistance to take part in the survey. For example this is the extract from one of the organisation which was sent to the researcher through email:

My colleague B forwarded your email to me as I manage the communications and member surveys at AB. Unfortunately; we are unable to send this out to members as we will have our own survey coming up soon. Can I suggest that you post it on LinkedIn in the Charity UK group? Thousands of charity workers, trustees and volunteers are in the group. Hope this helps. (AB, UK based organisation, 2012)

Despite the difficulties encountered I managed to gather data from 126 respondents from the 300 emails sent out. The perceptions and attitudes of these respondents towards the research instrument helped in the collection of data. Some of the organisations that were represented in the survey were targeted for the in-depth interviews at Phase 3 of the research.

4.8.4 Phase 3 of the Research (In-depth Interviews)

An introductory letter (see Appendix VIII) was sent to voluntary organisations. Subsequently, 30 interviews were conducted involving 14 employees, 8 trustees and 8 volunteers from 16 different voluntary organisations in the UK as shown in the table 4.4 below. 7 of these organisations were also represented in the survey. The sample consisted of 19 female and 11 male participants.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation Name (Pseudo)</th>
<th>Number of people interviewed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UK POS</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources For All</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HTH</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAA</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMOP</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEFNIU</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CON</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barnet Group</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cert</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FHB</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FHA</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAN</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation name not given</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.4: The Number of People interviewed and Organisations**

Non-probability sampling was used, in particular purposive sampling was found to be appropriate for this study. It was felt that talking to people who are directly involved with voluntary organisations would yield the required information of the concept being investigated and the interview schedule in Appendix X was used as a guide. It has been stated that ‘purposive or judgemental sampling enables you to use your judgement to select cases that will best enable you to answer your research question(s) and to meet your objectives’ (Saunders et al. 2003: 175). Therefore, it was more likely that this method of sampling would facilitate in meeting the objectives of the research. In addition, the survey results had an impact on the strategy of sampling. The researcher was interested in pursuing some of the organisations represented by the respondents in the survey in order to find out more about what was really happening. 30 interviews was regarded as appropriate and enough to help meet the research objectives. The interviews were recorded using a digital recorder upon getting consent (Appendix IX) from the participants.
4.9 Potential Limitations

The research methodology adopted has some limitations that could have impacted on the findings outlined in Chapter 6. The initial concern could be the composition of the samples involved in the collection of data during the three phases. For instance, Phase 1 had only 1 volunteer compared to 9 employees. The survey despite being randomised had more employees (81) than volunteers (30) and trustees (14). The in-depth interviews comprised of 14 employees, 8 volunteers and 8 trustees. The other factor is that of gender imbalance in the samples. Phase 1 had only 2 female participants compared to 8 male participants. The survey attracted 47 male and 76 female. The in-depth interviews had 11 male respondents compared to 19 female.

The characteristics of the organisations represented in the research could have also affected the findings. These characteristics include the nature, size, deployment of volunteers and the governance structure. However, despite these potential limitations the research has contributed to the notion of shared leadership, leadership, stakeholder perspective and the pragmatic approach to research as illustrated in Chapter 7.

4.10 Reflections on the Research Process

Looking back to when I initiated this project, I would rather be proud of my achievements than scratch my head for not inventing a new phenomenon. However, it is imperative to review the three phases of the research and learn from the experience. Before commencing on the journey of evaluating the three phases it is vital to acknowledge that what was initially put in the research proposal changed significantly as the research progressed. The title of the research kept on changing and at one time I felt demoralised that this became an infinite. However, I was impressed that the objectives of the research remained almost the same throughout the process.
Phase 1 being qualitative in nature and involving only 10 interviews could raise concerns about reliability and generalizability. However, as a convenience sample, the research does not claim to be descriptive of all voluntary organisations in the UK. More importantly, questions can arise regarding the sincerity and openness of respondents and subsequently the reliability of the data obtained at Phase 1. However, this has been attenuated by introducing Phase 2 and 3 to the research project. Therefore, the use of multiple informants, triangulation of methods, systematic analysis of data and the creation of a climate of confidence has improved the quality of the research project. Thus, it was anticipated at an earlier stage that various informants will bring diversity and increase the reliability of the research. The diversity is reflected in terms of respondents’ gender, type of voluntary organisation, size and activity. Moreover, further exploration of contradictory data and verifying impressions have added value to the research. An attitude of suspended judgement has helped to increase the reliability of the research more specially the refusal to take sides during the abstraction, analysis and interpretation of the research. This approach is not advocating neutrality or objectivity but a thorough reflection on the impact of the researcher and possible biases.

Phase 2 of the research involved the survey that was intended not only to increase the reliability of the project but also to operationalise the concept of shared leadership. I managed to get a random sample of 126 respondents within the timeframe. What I have learnt from conducting a survey is that you come up with a lot of data with only a few numbers of respondents. It was expensive to set up a professional account with surveymonkey.com however, it paid off as the data collected was very accurate and the service was user friendly. In addition, I would have thought of the type of variables to be created at an early stage as this has a huge impact on the analysis stage. I would have also coded the survey instrument differently for easy comprehension at the later stages. However, the survey helped me to plug in the gaps that emerged during Phase 1 and identified constructs of shared leadership that were further explored in Phase 3.

During Phase 3 the final stage of the research my confidence improved tremendously and this was reflected in the way I collected the data involving 30 interviews. The qualitative interviews were well planned in advance. Unlike the survey that focused on numbers the qualitative interviews were centred on the richness of the data. It was interesting to hear the stories of different stakeholders. Each interview was a unique experience for me. I was able to probe the interviewees and get more details on certain aspects. I was in control throughout
the interview process and I made the interviewees as much comfortable as possible. What worked so well is that the interviewees received adequate information about the research in advance and they had ample time to make informed decisions. I was aware of the ethical requirements regarding the interviews and the participants were required to sign a consent form (Appendix IX) before the interview. I also reminded them that they could stop the interview at any time.

I found out that data analysis that is explored in chapter 5 requires skill and time. In particular, the transcription of the interviews consumed a lot of time and required attention to detail. It paid off by starting the data analysis while still collecting the data. This served time and helped to develop the data analysis framework. Thus, the research project has helped me to realise that research is not linear but an iterative process that requires one to go back and forth. This process has taught me to take responsibility for my action and moreover to acknowledge and embrace failures as challenges that could be dealt with resilience and tenacity. In addition, I have learnt that what matters most in undertaking a PhD project is the knowledge gained rather than the appellations. It is with no doubt that managing a project of such a high magnitude required sophisticated skills. I have developed a variety of skills that have been reflected in the manner in which I have produced this document. I have become an independent thinker who is curious about certain phenomena and seeks to critically analyse the concepts and argue my perspective based on evidence.

4.11 Summary

The chapter has given an overview of the methodology used for this research. The chapter has discussed extensively the theoretical perspectives undertaken and their justification. The chapter has further explored the philosophical orientations of the research by broadly discussing the ontology and the epistemology of the research. In particular, the philosophy of pragmatism has robustly been presented as it forms part of the methodological framework. The chapter has also given an insight into the ethical issues of conducting a research of such magnitude. Potential limitations of the research have also been discussed. Furthermore, Chapter 4 has elaborated the research strategy and the justification of the triangulation of data. It has also outlined the learning that has emanated from this entire process. The next chapter will present the process of data analysis.
Chapter 5: Data Analysis Process

5.1 Introduction

This chapter gives an overview of how the data collected was analysed during the three phases of the research. It starts with the analysis of semi-structured interviews as Phase 1 and then goes on to describe the analysis of the survey as Phase 2 and finally the analysis of the in-depth interviews as Phase 3. It ends with a summary of the analysis process. The data analysis has been allocated a chapter on its own in order to clearly demonstrate in details how the data was analysed.

5.2 Phase 1 Qualitative Data Analysis

The chosen sample for this phase consisted of the Chief Executive Officers, senior managers, employees and a volunteer from four organisations based in London. These people are mostly busy people hence non-probability sampling was chosen due to limited time. Specifically, convenience sampling was adopted in selecting the study group during this initial phase of the research. Moreover, since this phase consisted of qualitative samples, according to most scholars (see Miles and Huberman, 1994; Silverman, 2000) tend to be purposive, rather than random. Therefore, in order to gain a deeper understanding and also to maintain rigour, it was necessary to meet up with them, face to face and conduct interviews.

The research at this initial stage involved semi-structured interviews with relevant stakeholders in the four voluntary organisations. The semi-structured interviews were chosen in relation to the research objective at this stage of the project as highlighted in the methodological chapter. The four organisations were appropriate and facilitated an initial exploration of the concept of leadership and that of shared leadership. The involvement of several organisations offered the opportunity to compare and contrast the issues that were being raised. I adopted a process that I called ‘themecodification’ analysis that simply means the formulation of themes from several codes to analyse the semi-structured interviews. However, it has been argued that ‘although coding may be part of the process of analysis, it should not be thought of as the analysis in itself’ (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996: 26). Hence, the production of themes or categories and the explanation of these are paramount to the process of data analysis. According to Coffey and Atkinson (1996: 27) ‘coding can be thought of as a range of approaches that aid the organization, retrieval, and interpretation of data’. It is also a
process of summarizing data (Dey, 1993). The process of ‘themecodification’ was facilitated by intensive reading and annotating the data collected from the 10 semi-structured interviews. Dey (1993) sums up that:

> We need to record our observations and ideas about the data in order to prepare the ground for further analysis. And we need to record them now, while we have them; and not even five minutes later, when that flash of insight has literally flashed out of existence. (Dey, 1993: 88)

I managed to keep the data collected in a safe place and was able to update it when required. The coding facilitated the process of allocating the data and reflecting upon it. In this regard, coding plays a crucial role of enabling ‘the researcher to recognize and recontextualize data, allowing a fresh view of what is there’ (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996: 45).

Figure 5.1 depicts the process of ‘themecodification’. The process stems from the recorded interviews and ends with the production of themes. It is not a linear process as it involves going back and forth.
I adopted a coding process based on Richards (2009) that consisted of descriptive coding, topic coding and analytical coding. According to Richards (2009) descriptive coding is about
the storage of information that describes a case, and topic coding is allocating passages of data to topics. On the other hand, analytical coding emanates from ‘interpretation and reflection of meaning’ (Richards, 2009: 102). Therefore, it has to be mentioned that the data collected did not fit into any preconceived standardised codes. The codes that were created emerged from my interpretations of the interview data and involved constant reviewing. The process of coding was based on a thorough review that gave rise to themes. The themes emerged from what I perceived relevant and interesting items within the interview transcripts in relation to the phenomenon under investigation.

5.2.1 Descriptive Coding

The process of identifying interesting features was facilitated by the development of initial data analysis tool that consisted of questions and some aspects of ‘worldview’. Despite description having a low status in social science (Dey, 1993), it is an important aspect for providing the foundation for data analysis. Descriptive coding is not only about the attributes of the cases such as gender, status in the organisation and so on. The essence of this approach is also to examine, explore and explain the phenomenon under investigation by initially identifying what could be taking place and why. Table 5.1 below provides the guidance to the initial data analysis questions at the descriptive coding stage. The table highlights the questions that provided guidance based on factors such as the theoretical framework, researcher’s perspective and so on.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Analysis Questions</th>
<th>Worldview</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is the approach to data analysis appropriate to the purpose of the research?</td>
<td>Researcher’s Perspective</td>
<td>Researcher’s Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the approach able to suggest interesting questions?</td>
<td>Researcher’s Perspective</td>
<td>Researcher’s Knowledge and Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What makes some of the data interesting and relevant?</td>
<td>Researcher’s Perspective and Research</td>
<td>Researcher’s Judgement and Type of Data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How will the researcher treat respondents’ responses?</td>
<td>External Reality (Events, Facts)</td>
<td>Trust, Respect, Empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internal Experience (Emotions, Meanings, Feelings, Interpretations)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the main components of the data?</td>
<td>Researcher’s Perspective</td>
<td>Quality of Transcripts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there any relationships among the components of the data?</td>
<td>Researcher’s Perspective</td>
<td>Nature of Components</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From what sources are codes and categories emanating?</td>
<td>Researcher’s Perspective</td>
<td>Researcher’s Data Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subjects’ Perspective</td>
<td>Experience of Subjects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why are respondents’ answers important?</td>
<td>Subjects’ Perspective</td>
<td>Experience of Subjects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Research Objective</td>
<td>Research Design and Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the similarities of the data collected to the theoretical assumptions presented in the literature reviews?</td>
<td>Researcher’s Perspective</td>
<td>Researcher’s Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theoretical Framework</td>
<td>Critical Analysis of the Literature Reviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Data Collection Methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the data providing something new regarding the topic under investigation?</td>
<td>Researcher’s Perspective</td>
<td>Previous Research Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the data collected providing further research areas?</td>
<td>Researcher’s Perspective</td>
<td>Previous Research Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What happens if the data is unable to provide answers or is found to be irrelevant?</td>
<td>‘Unthinkable’ Perspective</td>
<td>Redesign the research and continue data collection</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1: Guidance to the Initial Data Analysis Questions at the Descriptive Coding Stage
This process of questioning the actions of the research was achieved through reflection. It was felt important to reflect on the action taken to allow any adjustments to the data analysis.

5.2.2 Topic Coding

Topic coding facilitated the process of disaggregation of data that was eventually classified into conceptual units or topics. Qualitative analysis involves the production of concepts as according to Dey (1993: 47) ‘concepts are the building blocks of our analysis’. Employing topic specific coding resulted in the production of a multitude of conceptual labels. The labelling process was achieved by the creation of codes as shown in Table 5.2 below. Numerous codes assisted the researcher to identify patterns that gave rise to meaningful categories. This stage of coding generated higher order concepts that had wider explanatory supremacy.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic Coding Consideration</th>
<th>Code Interpretation and Dimensions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Organisational success/achievement (ORGSA)</td>
<td>Reasons for being a successful organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Organisational values (ORGVA)</td>
<td>Cultural issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Team dynamics (TEDYN)</td>
<td>Factors that foster team work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Understanding leadership (UNLDLD)</td>
<td>Leadership practice and meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Organisational boundaries (ORGBO)</td>
<td>Limitations of the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Authority, power and influence (AUPOI)</td>
<td>The usage of the roles and positions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Accountability (ACCOT)</td>
<td>To whom and why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Leader/follower relation (LEFOR)</td>
<td>The negotiation of processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Organisational/individual obstacles and failures (ORGOF)</td>
<td>Drawbacks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Effectiveness (EFFEC)</td>
<td>Factors that bring about organisational effectiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Operational environment (OPERE)</td>
<td>Internal and external factors affecting the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Organisational fit (ORGFT)</td>
<td>The position of the organisation in the sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Organisational identity (ORIGID)</td>
<td>What makes the organisation to be what it is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Organisational structure (ORGST)</td>
<td>The symbolic picture of the organisation’s hierarchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Policies and procedures (POPRO)</td>
<td>The systems in place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Communication (COMMU)</td>
<td>The passing of information, how is it achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Control (CONTR)</td>
<td>Keeping the level of an equilibrium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Understanding the clientele (UNDCL)</td>
<td>The organisation cause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Service users’ needs (SERND)</td>
<td>The identification process and meeting the need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Responsibility (RESPO)</td>
<td>For whom and why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Collaboration (COLLA)</td>
<td>Working together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Time factor (TIMEF)</td>
<td>As a resource</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5.2: List of Codes generated at the Topic Coding Stage**

The table above illustrates a comprehensive process of developing the codes however it was felt that the codes were too many to work with hence the need to integrate some of the similar ones.

However, it has to be acknowledged that I found the process complicated and difficult because the data generated from the interviews was large and sometimes hard to understand.
and ultimately problematic to create meaningful categories and themes. The naming of the codes was also challenging and as it can be observed, 23 codes are just too many to make sense of the data collected. The names of the codes were derived from the literature review and data collected (in vivo coding). Strauss and Corbin (1998) suggest that the naming of categories could emerge from the data, usually from the references of the subjects (in vivo codes) and sometimes from terms used in the literature. I used a combined approach to derive names for categories and hence the long list of codes.

The next phase of the data analysis made the work more viable and will be described in the following section.

5.2.3 Analytical Coding

The next stage in the data analysis that Richards (2009) referred to as analytical coding helped me to make sense of the interview data to some extent. This stage enabled me to review the data and compare how well they fit with the concept of leadership and that of shared leadership where appropriate. The process involved the integration of similar codes from Table 5.2. This stage dictated the decision to either continue the collection of data to determine whether the objective of the research at this initial stage has been reached. To reach this conclusion required the rigorous examination of the interview data and the comparison of the assumptions that emanated from the literature review on the phenomenon of leadership and the concept of shared leadership. The process was accomplished by the formulations of categories that operate at a higher level of abstraction than a concept indicator. Thus, the development of categories is crucial as it helps with the identification of any relationships among categories. The importance of creating categories that fit appropriately with the objectives of the research is echoed by the following quote:

Creating categories is both a conceptual and empirical challenge; categories must be ‘grounded’ conceptually and empirically. That means they must relate to an appropriate analytic context, and be rooted in relevant empirical material. Categories which seem fine ‘in theory’ are no good if they do not fit the data. (Dey, 1993: 96)

Categories should also be clearly defined for consistence and I have illustrated this by creating a table to explicitly show the emerging categories. Table 5.3 below is the depiction
of specific categories that were formed and the related codes accumulated from Table 5.2 above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific Categories</th>
<th>Aggregated Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Meaning/experience of leadership</td>
<td>UNLD, RESPO, CONTR, EFFEC, AUPOI, LEFOR,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ACCOT, COMMU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Meaning/experience of being a leader</td>
<td>UNLD, RESPO, CONTR, EFFEC, AUPOI, LEFOR,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ACCOT, COMMU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Meaning/experience of decision making</td>
<td>COLL, INVEG, TEDYN, OPERE, AUPOI, LEFOR,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORGBO, ORSVG, COMMU, TIMEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Organisational/individual obstacles and failures to leading</td>
<td>ORGOF, POPRO, ORGID, ORGST, TEDYN,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORGBO, COMMU, CONTR++, TIMEF-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Participation of individuals in leading</td>
<td>COLL, INVEG, TEDYN, OPERE, AUPOI, LEFOR,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ORGBO, ORSVG, COMMU, TIMEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Culture of the organisation in ensuring a sense of shared values</td>
<td>ORGVA, ORGID, ORGF, OPERE, COMMU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Perceptions of a successful voluntary organisation</td>
<td>TEDYN, UNDCL, ORGID, POPRO, ORGST, OPERE,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFFEC, ORGVA, ACCOT, COMMU, TIMEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Focusing on the mission</td>
<td>SERND, UNDCL, ORGID, ORGF, POPRO, OPERE,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UNLD, COMMU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Strategic Planning</td>
<td>ORGT, ORGID, ORGST, UNDCL, SERND</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.3: List of Integrated Categories at the Topic Coding Stage

The categories that were formed were only 9 and offered the opportunity to make sense of the data collected as shown in the table above. The focus of the analysis at this level involved the constant comparison of the categories with the data collected. I examined the data meticulously, taking in consideration the relationships as well as any inconsistencies. Bryman (2004: 403) asserts that ‘attention to the procedure of constant comparison enjoins the researcher constantly to compare phenomena being coded under a certain category so that a theoretical elaboration of that category can begin to emerge’. Thus, when data is coded, core categories are identified, defined and any relationships discovered to formulate a new theory. Dey (1993) sees making connections a crucial part of qualitative analysis as it allows the
researcher to identify not only associations between different concepts but also regularities, variations and singularities. This process of ‘funnelling data into relevant categories’ (Dey: 193: 42) facilitated the production of categories illustrated in the table.

It has to be mentioned that the data analysis started early while still collecting data. After all the interviews were analysed a number of principle categories and related subcategories were created. This enabled me to advance theoretical sampling as it was guided by the aspects of the core categories. In addition, theoretical coding was applied to aid the conceptualization of substantive codes formulated from the data. According to Ng and Hase (2008) ‘theoretical coding generates meaning and scope to the theory that is emergent and involves conceptualizing the relationship between categories’. Thus, some categories in Table 5.3 that were similar were combined in order to reduce the number of categories. Dey (1993: 20) argues that ‘our categories can be fuzzy and overlapping…categories brings together a number of observations which we consider similar in some respects, by implied contrast with other observations’.

Table 5.4 below was used as a framework to represent the main themes that subsequently emerged from the data analysis.
Table 5.4: Themes Generated and Data Representation

The themes generated in Table 5.4 above are highlighted in details in the results chapter of this thesis. As it can be seen there is a shift from merely coding data to the level of interpretation. This is supported by Coffey and Atkinson (1996) who emphasise that the coded data need to be recovered, explored and be transformed into meaningful data. However, the process is not that straightforward as experienced from undertaking this project. The next section of this chapter explores the Phase 2 data analysis of the research that emanated as a result of the findings of the semi-structured interviews at Phase 1. It was found necessary to try to operationalize and measure the concept of shared leadership within voluntary organisations.

5.3 Phase 2 Quantitative Data Analysis

Fink (1995)’s book on *How to Analyze Survey Data* was a good starting point for a novice researcher. Fink (1995: 1) asserts that ‘statistics facilitates the organisation and interpretation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Reflection in the data</th>
<th>Quotes identified in the data</th>
<th>Direct quotes referred and used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meaning of leadership</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process of leadership</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimensions of leading</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of delegation</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resistance to delegation</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
of numerical data. The outputs of statistical analyses are descriptions, relationships, comparisons and predictions’. As highlighted in the methodology chapter the survey questions were divided into two sections. The first part was adopted from the Shared Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) developed by Khasawneh (2011) and the second part attempted to capture the demographic data of the respondents. The leadership dimensions that are reflected in the SLQ for this study are decision-making, strategic planning, power and communication. The communication dimension included the organisation’s vision, responsibilities and how to handle problems. These dimensions provided the items for measuring the level of shared leadership in voluntary organisations.

In line with objective two (to find out how volunteers, trustees and employees (stakeholders) get involved in the leadership process) of the research project, this phase of the study is concerned with establishing the magnitude of shared leadership by presenting the following questions; 1) what is the level of shared leadership of voluntary organisations in the UK? And 2) are there any variations in the involvement or participation between the stakeholders?

It was important to first identify what kind of variables were represented in the survey instrument before embarking on data analysis. This has huge implications for the type of statistical tests to be applied. Table 5.5 below summarises the types of variables used in the survey.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Independent/Dependent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am consulted in the decision-making process</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I am actively involved in the decision-making process</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I am consulted in future strategic planning of the organisation</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I am actively involved in future strategic planning of the organisation</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Power is delegated to me from formal leaders of the organisation</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I share and delegate power with other members of the organisation not in formal leadership positions</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I am consulted regarding the organisation’s vision</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I am actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I am consulted regarding responsibilities and how to handle problems</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I regard myself as a leader in the organisation</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Are you male or female?</td>
<td>Nominal or Categorical or Dichotomous</td>
<td>Independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Which category below includes your age?</td>
<td>Nominal as the age was grouped in categories</td>
<td>Independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Which category below best describes your status in the organisation?</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. How long have you worked or volunteered for this voluntary organisation?</td>
<td>Nominal as the number of years as grouped</td>
<td>Independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. What is the name of this voluntary organisation?</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. What size best describe the organisation you work for?</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. What is your ethnicity?</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Independent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5.5: Types of Variables and Allocated Labels**

As it can be observed from Table 5.5 above the independent variables which are also known as explanatory or predictor variables are gender, age, status, tenure, size of organisation and
ethnicity. On the other hand, the dependent variables are all the shared leadership variables. In this regard, Fink (1995: 13) emphasises that ‘when choosing an appropriate analysis method, you begin by deciding on the purpose of the analysis, and you determine the number of independent and dependent variables and whether you have nominal, ordinal or numerical data’. It can be observed that the data did not have numerical or interval data but ordinal and nominal data. Nominal or categorical data are referred to ‘data whose values cannot be measured numerically but can be classified into sets (categories) according to the characteristics in which you are interested or placed in rank order’ (Saunders et al. 2003: 329). De Vaus (2002: 204) defines an ordinal variable as ‘one where we can rank-order categories from low to high’. This is reflected in the Likert scale used for the shared leadership variables. Numerical variables are quantifiable data that can be assigned a data value on the numerical scale and could be continuous or discrete (Saunders et al. 2003).

The next stage involved the coding of the variables to make the data ready for analysis as shown in Appendix VII. The coding process enabled the variables to be quantified despite some of them being categorical variables. Saunders et al (2003) have highlighted the importance of recording the data using numerical codes as this enables the researcher to enter the data swiftly and accurately.

The collected data for the survey was analysed using SPSS version 19. An exploratory approach to data analysis was adopted, Saunders et al (2003) emphasise the inclusion of diagrams in order to understand the data. This included descriptive statistics, crosstabulation, correlations and multiple regression. It was important to include tables for clarity purposes and to present the results in an appropriate manner. The descriptive statistics covered the aspects of central tendency and dispersion. They include the mean, median, mode, range, standard deviation and percentiles.

The crosstabulation provided the analysis for comparing the variables to enable the researcher to look for variations. The crosstabulation helps to summarise ‘data that fall into categories’ (Field, 2005). The correlations were aimed at the examination of the relationships and differences between the variables by testing for significance. Field (2005) asserts that correlation is about looking for associations between two variables and sometimes the term covariance is used. In this case the correlation tests were used to look for multicollinearity between the shared leadership variables. However, correlations do not predict the power of
variables (Field, 2005; Fink, 1995). On the other hand, multiple regression analysis was used to find out the outcome of having several predictors that had an impact on shared leadership. In this instance only one dependent variable was picked to help answer the research questions in relation to several independent or predictor variables.

The quantitative data analysis therefore provided the answers to the research objectives that could not have been possible with the employment of qualitative data analysis. However, numbers lack clarity as Dey (1993) argues that:

Problems of interpretation are pervasive in any science, whether we are thinking of ‘strange attractors’ in physics, ‘black holes’ in astronomy or the ‘nuclear family’ in social science. Numbers are never enough: they have to refer to concepts established through qualitative analysis. While quantities are powerful precisely because of the complex mathematical operations they permit, they mean nothing in themselves unless they are based on meaningful conceptualizations. (Dey, 1993: 26)

Therefore, the results of the survey that are presented in the findings chapter had a huge impact on the design of the final phase of the research that consisted of in-depth interviews.

5.4 Phase 3 Qualitative Data Analysis

Data analysis was initiated while still collecting data. Miles and Huberman (1994) have emphasised the importance of early data analysis because it gives an advantage to the researcher to organise data for deeper analyses later. They further state that:

It helps the field-worker cycle back and forth between thinking about the existing data and generating strategies for collecting new, often better data. It can be healthy corrective for built-in blind spots. It makes analysis an ongoing, lively enterprise that contributes to the energizing process of fieldwork. (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 50)

Manual coding was used due to the small number of interviews hence computer aided analysis was not considered. However, the computer was used to store and manage the data collected instead of the outdated index cards. Qualitative analysis has been articulated as being a circular process involving describing, connecting and classifying (Dey, 1993). Moreover, data analysis is linked to the process of abstraction and Miles and Huberman (1994: 91) suggest that ‘you begin with a text, trying out coding categories on it, then moving
to identify themes and trends, and then testing hunches and findings, aiming first to delineate the deep structure’. Therefore, there was need to condense data into more meaningful and coherent themes.

In this instance, thematic analysis was employed for the final phase of the research that involved 30 in-depth interviews (see Appendix XI for a sample of interview transcript). In this regard, a three level coding approach based on King and Horrocks (2010) was adopted that involved the production of descriptive codes, interpretative codes and overarching themes. Moreover, a pragmatic strategy was adopted that reflected both the inductive and deductive approaches to data analysis. Saunders et al (2003: 388) describe the inductive process as where you ‘seek to build up theory that is adequately grounded in a number of relevant cases’. On the other hand, the deductive position is when you ‘seek to use existing theory to shape the approach that you adopt to the qualitative research process and to aspects of data analysis’ (Saunders et al. 2003: 388). The inductive approach was applied during the levels of developing descriptive and interpretative codes whereas the deductive approach was implemented during the development of overarching themes.

5.4.1 Descriptive Codes

Firstly, the descriptive codes were identified and defined. This initial stage helped to locate items in the interview transcripts that were likely to address the research objectives. Moreover, this stage provided an opportunity for extracting what was interesting in the participants’ accounts. The process at this stage included the highlighting of items in the text that could enhance the understanding of participants’ experiences, views and perceptions on shared leadership. It was found appropriate to use coloured highlighter pens on the hardcopy of the transcript. Comments were given on the margins of the text. These preliminary comments assisted in the formation of descriptive codes. Descriptive codes were labelled with short phrases and in some instances with single words. See Appendix XII for the descriptive codes that were initially generated.

When the codes were produced there was need to look for overlaps and similarities in order to make sense out of the descriptive codes. Some of the codes were got rid of as they could not fit in any criterion. Table 5.6 below consist of the merged descriptive codes.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Merged Descriptive Codes</th>
<th>Defining Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Designated Leader (DL), Senior Management Team (SMT), Expert leadership, Board of trustees (BT), Trustee, leadership, Volunteer leadership, Designated manager (DM), Members, Everyone, Together, Team, Many leaders, One leader, Experienced person</td>
<td>Leadership process, Who leads the organisation?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility/Accountability, Influencing, Motivating, Inspiring, Controlling, Directing, Transparency, Integrity</td>
<td>What leaders do and some of their qualities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement, Participation, Engagement, Delegation, Collaboration, Meetings, Forums, Delegation, Away days</td>
<td>Way of bringing others in the process of leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion, Considerate, Skills, Training, Transparency, Integrity, Willingness, Structure, Values (Culture), Trust, Respect, Listening, Support,</td>
<td>Characteristics of leaders and what makes them to be successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared Values, Shared Purpose, Shared Responsibility/Accountability, Shared Vision, Shared Power, Shared Outcomes/Achievements/Benefits, Transparency</td>
<td>Collaboration, working as a team or group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time, Skills, Culture, Hierarchy, Interests, Strategy</td>
<td>Conflicts, systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory + and -, Robed of leadership, Complexity</td>
<td>Feelings, experience, relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face to face, Emails, Meetings, Forums, Memos</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition, Frustration, Trust, Respect, Valued, Neglected, Leave or quit, Faut, Mistake, Job satisfaction, Confidence, Self-esteem, Disappointed, Supportive, Support, Morale, Motivation, Happy, Empowered</td>
<td>Feelings, outcomes, results, process</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.6: List of merged Descriptive Codes
The emphasis was on the descriptive codes to be coherent and as self-explanatory as possible as shown in the merged table 5.6 above. When this stage was completed, the transcript was read through again with the aim of identifying similar and overlapping codes. Some codes were merged and others redefined. Dey (1993:31) asserts that ‘the first step in qualitative analysis is to develop thorough and comprehensive descriptions of the phenomenon under study’. This process was repeated for all interview transcripts and was very demanding and complex. It has to be mentioned therefore that the process involved going back to the transcripts and modify some codes that were earlier done.

5.4.2 Interpretative Codes

Secondly, stage two of the thematic analysis involved the formulation of interpretative codes to give some meaning to the earlier developed descriptive codes. Classifying data in this way facilitated the process of becoming more familiar with the data. Dey (1993: 40) explains the importance of this process by stating that ‘without classifying the data, we have no way of knowing what it is that we are analysing’. However, it is not enough to just know what we are analysing but also what the data is telling us. But of course the data will not say ‘this is what I am saying’. It is the onus of the researcher to make ‘meaningful comparisons’ as Dey (1993: 40) puts it. In this regard, the process was accomplished by the integration of some descriptive codes that shared some common meaning. This task involved the negotiation of meaning. Occasionally, it was possible to develop and define some interpretative codes that were not directly related to any of the descriptive codes as the meaning was constantly evolving and changing. Table 5.7 below depicts the interpretative codes that were developed from the descriptive codes.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpretative Code</th>
<th>Merged Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Who can be a leader?</td>
<td>Designated Leader (DL), Senior Management Team (SMT), Expert Leadership, Board of trustees (BT), Trustee leadership, Volunteer leadership, Designated manager (DM), Members, Everyone, Together, Team, Many leaders, One leader, Experienced person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Leadership features</td>
<td>Responsibility/Accountability, Influencing, Motivating, Inspiring, Controlling, Directing, Transparency, Integrity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Levels of engagement</td>
<td>Involvement, Participation, Engagement, Delegation, Collaboration,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Leadership activities (involvement &amp; participation)</td>
<td>Meetings, Forums, Delegation, Away days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Qualities/Enablers/Drivers/Catalysts of leadership</td>
<td>Passion, Considerate, Skills, Training, Transparency, Integrity, Willingness, Structure, Values (Culture), Trust, Respect, Listening, Support,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Obstacles/Inhibitors of being involved in the leadership process</td>
<td>Time, Skills, Culture, Hierarchy, Interests, Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Interrelationships</td>
<td>Satisfactory + and -, Robed of leadership, Complexity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Communication</td>
<td>Face to face, Emails, Meetings, Forums, Memos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Outcomes (Being or not being involved, engaged, participated in the leadership process)</td>
<td>Recognition, Frustration, Trust, Respect, Valued, Neglected, Leave or quit, Fault, Mistake, Job satisfaction, Confidence, Self-esteem, Disappointed, Supportive, Support, Morale, Motivation, Happy, Empowered</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5.7: List of Interpretative Codes**

At this stage the theoretical concepts of the research were not applied to the data to avoid selecting only a few items of the collected data that would fit with the framework. However, a broad disciplinary approach echoed by King and Horrocks (2010) was adopted guided by the research objectives. It has to be mentioned also that some descriptive codes gave rise to
more than one interpretative code. Lastly, this stage involved the reviewing of the formulated interpretative codes and where necessary amendments were done.

5.4.3 Overarching Themes

Thirdly, the task involved the identification and defining of overarching categories. This process depended on the interpretative codes and involved a high level of abstraction. In this case, the theoretical framework of the research was applied as well as the in vivo analysis. Figure 5.2 below shows the analytical framework based on the theoretical framework and in line with the research questions.

**Figure 5.2: Analytical Framework**

It was felt important to develop the analytical framework depicted in Figure 5.2 to guide me in the identification of the overarching categories taking inconsideration of the theoretical framework of the research. As the figure indicates I was interested in finding out who is the leader from the stakeholders’ perspective as well as what constitute leadership and shared
leadership. In doing so, I was also interested in capturing the relationships between the stakeholders and the perceived leaders. Using the theoretical framework and the data I could then find out how stakeholders are involved in decision-making, strategic planning, communication of the vision, solving or handling problems and whether the stakeholders do influence others. I could also discover whether the stakeholders are instructed or they just volunteer to take part or it is part of the job description. I could then capture any difficulties encountered and any benefits or positive outcomes of their involvement.

This was executed consciously so long that the theoretical concepts in the framework were supported by the analysis. This stage facilitated the process of looking for any relationships in the interpretative codes identified above. The aggregation of related interpretative codes emanated into overarching categories based on the quotes from the interviews as tabulated in Appendix XIII. The categories were continuously scrutinised to check for any similarities. The process was repeated for all transcripts and where similarities were found the categories were further compressed. The key features of the themes that were generated are briefly discussed here but will be robustly presented in the findings chapter of this thesis.

5.4.3.1 Stakeholder Conceptualisation of Leadership

This theme is very important because it gives the constructions of leadership by the participations of the in-depth interviews. The suppositions are based of the interactions and experiences of these people in their organisations. The theme of stakeholder conceptualisation of leadership is based on the quotes that reflected leadership as an influencing process and factors such as vision, goals, aims, objectives, motivation, support, communication and decision making emerged within the theme.

5.4.3.2 Stakeholder Conceptualisation of Shared Leadership

This overarching category is significant as it gives an account of the participants’ views of the concept of shared leadership. The theme has been dominated by the principles of togetherness that is centred on shared vision and shared values. As it will be seen in the findings chapter some respondents were not aware of the notion of shared leadership however the majority of the respondents indicated that they have heard of the concept. The inclusion
of this theme is also important as it will contribute immensely to the production of the model of shared leadership in particular when proposing an alternative definition of the concept.

5.4.3.3 Differentiation and Integration of Shared Leadership

Following up the theme of defining shared leadership is the category that describes how shared leadership takes place in organisations. The theme outlines the different approaches to shared leadership within organisations based on the quotes of the interviewees. Voluntary organisations are diverse and this is reflected in the purpose, nature, size and scope of coverage. For simplicity sake the theme was developed by considering the size in terms of whether an organisation has departments or functions. The organisations that have departments have been referred to as large organisation and those without departments as small organisations. The construction of shared leadership was found to be different based on this typology.

5.4.3.4 Stakeholder Involvement and Participation

The theme captures the quotes of the participants regarding their engagement in the leadership process. The interviews with stakeholders identified the concepts of involvement and that of participation. The quotes have revealed that some stakeholders are merely consulted (involvement) instead of being actively involved (participation) in the leadership process. Moreover, there are variations in the stakeholder engagement in the leadership process. Some stakeholders are mainly involved in ‘low level activities’ of the organisation while others are involved in ‘high level activities’. Low level activities include mainly operational activities whereas high level activities are those activities that deal with the strategic nature of the organisation.

5.4.3.5 Voluntarism

The theme incorporates how stakeholders get involved in the process of leadership based on their willingness even though it is not part of their job description. This is an important theme as it differentiates those that are tasked with the responsibility of leadership from those that are not. Voluntarism is also an important theme as it shows how some stakeholders are committed and dedicated to their organisations.
5.4.3.6 The Supported and the Neglected

This theme captures the experiences of stakeholders in the leadership process. It highlights the variations in the interactions with leaders and peers within organisations. Some of these interactions results in the dissatisfaction of certain individuals who may feel that they are being ignored in the process. However, as it will be revealed in the findings chapter the majority of participants of the in-depth interviews expressed that they were supported and valued in their organisations.

5.4.3.7 Outcomes, Benefits, Drivers, Conditions of Shared leadership

This category illustrates the impact of shared leadership on the organisation as well as individuals. It also presents the conditions were shared leadership strives and what elements helps in its implementation. As it will be seen in the findings chapter the benefits of shared leadership depends on the experience and position of the stakeholders in the organisations. Moreover, the nature and the purpose of the organisation have an effect on the impact of shared leadership.

5.4.3.8 Limitations, Difficulties and Drawbacks of Shared leadership

It was also important to look at the limitations, difficulties and drawbacks of shared leadership. The theme is crucial in identifying the problems associated with the concept of shared leadership. It provides a starting point for analysing the reasons why other leaders do not share the responsibility of leadership with others. Conversely, it is vital to realise that the theme just like the other themes is based on the experiences and interactions of the participants in the sample.

5.4.3.9 Self-Leadership

This theme is concerned with the conceptualisation of being a leader within the organisation despite the role or position of the stakeholder. It is an important theme as it gives an account of why various stakeholders consider themselves as leaders. It also illuminates on the findings of the survey at Phase 2 of the research that indicated that over half of the
respondents regarded themselves as leaders within their organisations. However, this theme goes beyond the acknowledgement of being a leader and raises the reasons behind the suggestions.

5.5 Summary

The chapter has given an overview of the process of data analysis. It has highlighted the steps taken at each phase of the research to give a coherent picture of how the collected data was analysed. The chapter started with the analysis of the semi-structured interviews that were conducted at Phase 1 of the research. The qualitative data analysis process of these interviews has been discussed in the framework of ‘themecodification’ and also in the adoption of Richards (2009)’s work that is based on the identification of descriptive, topic and analytical codes. The chapter draws on the analysis process of the survey that provided a quantitative paradigm of the research at Phase 2. The data analysis process has included descriptive statistics, crosstabulation, correlations and multiple regression. Chapter 5 has also discussed the data analysis process of the in-depth interviews that were carried out at Phase 3 of the research. The approach to data analysis for Phase 3 is based on King and Horrocks (2010) and involved the production of descriptive codes, interpretative codes and overarching themes. The next chapter will present the findings of all the three phases of the research project.
Chapter 6: Findings

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the research. It begins with the presentation of the findings of the semi-structured interviews (Phase 1) then the results of the survey (Phase 2) are outlined and finally the findings of the in-depth interviews (Phase 3) are given.

6.2 Phase 1 Findings of the Semi-structured Interviews

The main aim of Phase 1 was specifically to identify and explore the dynamics of leadership within the organisations represented and find out whether the characteristics of shared leadership illustrated in the theoretical framework exist in these organisations. For example the interviews gave an impression that {Names of some of the organisations represented} really ‘turn lives around every day’ by putting the individual at the heart of what they do. Their work is inspired by numerous players that include staff, volunteers and other stakeholders. The organisations provide services for people with multiple needs and expectations including those affected by HIV, drug and alcohol misuse, mental health problems and those with learning disabilities, missing people (runaways) and so on.

The organisations that participated are committed to delivering services which provide a joined-up approach to people’s complex social needs. For example at {Name of the organisation} some of their service users prefer to live in registered care homes or nursing homes. On the other hand, those who prefer to live more independently are provided supported housing, enabling and helping people to live in their own home. These organisations have adopted a philosophy that focuses on the person rather than the problem enabling people to transform their lives and help them participate as fully as possible through this ‘connected care model’. The office space provided a friendly atmosphere that without doubt promoted diversity and easy accessibility. The layout of most of these organisations provided a ‘caring spirit’ and an environment for interactions.

Phase 1 of the research established that it is often difficult to determine how leadership is shared among people in an organisation. The main problem could be that leadership may mean different things and a different style may be appropriate in different settings. Moreover, the intricacy is magnified by the perception that leadership is a relationship with people. Yet
amid the complexity, a number of themes emerged from respondents’ accounts of their different experiences. The main themes that emerged from Phase 1 are divided into the following categories based on the aggregation of codes as explained in the data analysis chapter: (I) the patterns of meaning of leadership, (ii) the process of leadership or leading, (iii) the dimensions of leading, (iv) the resistance to delegation, and (v) the benefits of delegation.

6.2.1 The Patterns of Meaning of Leadership

Phase 1 revealed that leadership has a variety of meanings depending on the context, role and experience of people. The patterns of meaning of leadership were developed through interpretation as members of organisations make different patterns of meaning out of their activities within the organisation. The majority of interviewees based the meaning of leadership on a number of factors that included vision, mission, authority, managerial control and other organisational issues. The following are some of the direct quotes that are illustrative of this conclusion and interpretation.

Leadership is first and foremost about communicating a vision and the communication of that vision in such a way as every person involved or potentially involved in that vision can understand it can be motivated by it and can see their role and their part in that vision. I think that good leadership takes a view that that vision is arrived at collaboratively there is a process in which you involve people in shaping that vision and I think it is possible to both be collaborative and charismatic as a leader to come to a shared view about what the vision is where you are going the direction of travel if you like and then to use your capacity as a leader to encourage people to take full share in that vision to recognize how much potential they have to shape that vision to deliver that vision. (CEO3).

CEO3 has raised a number of important issues that are related to the concept of leadership. Communicating a vision in a much clearer way has positive consequences in that the stakeholders of the organisation will be able to fully understand their roles and the direction in which the organisation is heading. Stakeholders are motivated in the process as they are aware of what is happening in the organisation. CEO3 has also reiterated that good leadership
is based on a collaborative approach and that it is important to involve everyone in the process. Leadership in organisations should recognise that people who work in those organisations have different motives and expectations. Leadership should also communicate effectively the economic benefits for stakeholders who are remunerated as this has an effect on motivation. Director3 also emphasises on setting a direction and believing in the vision. This is reflected in the following quote:

Leadership is about setting a direction and it is about holding true to that vision. It is about linking between the front of the organisation, so working behind the trustees and the chief executive, being part of developing strategic direction, keeping your eye on that big picture whilst leading the team behind you, keeping them focused on what we are working to achieve. It is about leading by example and it is about setting a tone. It is also about setting a pace. It is about also symbolising what the organisation stands for. It is also partly about being a figurehead and a point of focus within the organisation (Director3).

Director3 conceptualises leadership similarly to the previous quote of CEO3 by stating that leadership is about setting a direction and holding true to the vision. This is about having a strong belief and a focused approach to leading the organisation. A leader should lead by example and be able to initiate ideas about setting the pace. This quote differs from the previous one as it does not mention the involvement of others in the process. The leader is seen as the one in charge, the ‘figurehead’. However, the leadership in this context should make others or the team focused on what the organisation is trying to achieve.

In the same vein CEO2 shares the thoughts of being supportive and looking up to people. CEO2 brings in the element of responsibility in the articulation of the vision with the following quote:

I think you know people can define leadership in many ways but leadership is about really understanding people you are working with and is about also I think trusting each other and also delegation. Leadership is about not being above the people you are serving really. I think a leader is someone who really looks up to people because there are people under you who actually look up to you and I think leadership comes with a lot of responsibilities. A leader is one who perhaps has to have a vision, needs to be followed by his subordinates and obviously that has implications as you can have a vision but you have to believe in it yourself because your belief in that can actually inspire others. So
in that way it is about believing in that and leadership is also about how you share your information, your vision with others. So communication becomes a key component and I think any leader in any organisation is about sharing information with your staff your service users. (CEO2).

CEO2 introduces the element of trust in the conceptualisation of leadership. It is imperative to trust each other in the process despite being at different levels within the organisation. It is interesting to note that the interviewee also defined leadership in relation to what it is not about. Leadership is not about being above the subordinates but it is about looking up to them. The idea of delegation has also been pointed out suggesting that a leader cannot do everything without the help from others. The interviewee introduces responsibility as a crucial element of leadership. Having a vision gives the leader greater responsibilities for articulating that vision to others and ensuring that the vision is assimilated and understood. In the process self-belief has been seen as an important component of leadership. A leader should also be able to believe in the vision before communicating it to others. This could inspire others to be part of that vision. It has also been mentioned that leadership is about sharing information. It is through information sharing that the stakeholders will be knowledgeable about the vision. This excerpt demonstrates that leadership is about effective communication and engaging with different stakeholders using high level skills.

CEO1 raises any important point within the idea of formulating the vision that leadership is a set of behaviours and that it differs from management. The excerpt below indicates how important leadership is perceived.

Leadership is a very interesting question but basically leadership is a set of behaviours associated with establishing the description and the action needed to operate in any given future… in other words is the means by which somebody or somebodies assess the future that is different from management [which] is about planning [to] operate (CEO1).

CEO1 sees leadership as being different from management. Leadership is seen as a set of behaviours that are associated with establishing the vision of the organisation. Management is viewed as a planning process. However, it could be argued that leadership is also about strategic planning and the interviewee has stated that leadership is the means by which somebody assesses the future. The assessment process has some element of planning in it. In this excerpt therefore, leadership is presented as a ‘style’ from the behavioural approach and
in this case something needs to be done in the form of ‘action’ to determine the future ‘direction’ and driven by the ‘vision’. However, the variation in the meaning of leadership goes beyond these factors as reflected in the following statement from Manager1.

I think it is really important [leadership]. I quite like working for the organisation. The [Name of CEO] has got sort of high profile, he is a good public speaker and that is an important aspect when advocating for the things I believe (Manager1).

Here the emphasis is more on the profile of the individual leader. Some qualities of the CEO have been highlighted in the construction of the meaning of leadership. Indeed, the excerpt is telling us that the respondent likes working for the organisations because the CEO advocates for the things she believes in. Although another person could construct it differently, what matters is that the respondent interprets and understands reality in such a way. However, it is interesting to note the follower’s behaviour is significantly influenced by the behaviour of the leader. Language is also an important aspect of leadership behaviour and if not paid full attention can damage leaders’ reputation. The use of plain and simple language that people can understand has been advocated in this research. It is also imperative for leaders to manage jargon effectively. It just throws people away and they don’t know what their leader means when using grand statements. The profile of the leader, coupled with the qualities of an effective leader will have a positive effect on the treatment of people within the organisation. Leadership is therefore reflected in the way the organisation treat its people.

I see leadership as providing an environment where organisation can achieve its objectives. It is really about giving people half of the vision and a sense of direction as to where they need going but not knowing what it is and how they will get there. That way, you tap in to the views of the people that you got. It is all about providing that sense of vision, providing that sense of direction (Director1).

Again Director1 views leadership in terms of vision and setting the direction. Interesting, the interviewee suggests that leadership is about giving people half of the vision. However, giving people half the vision could have repercussions. It is important for every possible stakeholder of the organisation to take a view on what the organization should be prioritizing and delivering and giving them half the vision might not be enough for them to be engaged in the formulation and implementation of the vision. A collaborative approach is built on shared vision and enables people within the organisation to participate fully in the organisation’s
activities. In addition, when people are given the full vision they are more likely to be dedicated to the cause and delivery of their obligations. It is also significant to have accurate information that could facilitate the process of building a shared mission that is underpinned by the philosophy of shared values. To achieve this, the research has found that the development of a dynamic strategic plan that is centred on safeguarding people and aimed at supporting and enabling the stakeholders could make an organisation sustainable and successful. There is need to clarify the purpose of the organisation. This is highlighted in the following excerpt by Director2 who emphasises among other points that clarity of purpose is an important ingredient in communicating the vision of the organisation.

I think that leadership is a number of different things. I think it is about clarity of purpose that you need to be able to communicate what it is, why, what we do and why we do it and there are a number of ways you can do that. One of them is very cultural appropriate in our world is stories, stories about people and I used to be a little bit sceptical about this but I am much less now in that I hear I get told things that have happened and I get involved in different things that have happened with the individual, positive and negative but mostly I am glad to say positive. I make sure that people know those stories and there are two reasons to do that one is to recognise and thank people who have done that. The staff who work perhaps with somebody who has been ill and they have worked closely with their family and done lots of positive things. I think that respecting people and that respect agenda if you like encompasses all aspects of diversity race, sexuality, disability and particular disability. (Director2).

Director2 raises very important aspects of leadership in relation to the organisation’s service users (people with disabilities). These people come to the organisation with different stories and it is important to capture these stories in the shaping of the services. A good leader is one who is able to listen to these stories and be able to communicate the stories to others for the benefit of improving the service. The interviewee suggests that a leader needs to recognise the contribution of stakeholders and thank them for their input. It is from the stories that the organisation can learn and be able to change for better as these stories are grounded in a reality. Moreover, a sense of common purpose and shared objectives are important aspects of the leadership process. Again, leading by example has been pointed out as crucial. In addition, Director2 also brings in the notion of being respectful in the ‘respect agenda’. Effective leadership is about embracing diversity and more importantly respecting people.
with disabilities. This is embedded in the element of being disciplined and exercising empathy.

I kindly see leadership in the lens of culture difference. There are different models of leadership and leadership means different things. Public school leadership is different from others. The American leadership is different from the UK. But it is about finding direction and empowering others (Manager2).

It can be seen as stated by Manager2 that the meaning of leadership is therefore varied and could be underpinned by the different experiences and backgrounds of the respondents. However, what is common in the pattern is the conceptualisation of leadership in terms of the vision.

6.2.2 The Process of Leadership or Leading

Phase 1 of the research found out that leadership occurs in different settings and forms. However, it was also found that the process of leadership is not a straightforward phenomenon. According to the majority of the participants, to be precise 8 out of 10 suggest that the process of leadership involves decision-making, governance, formulation of strategy, implementation of strategy and work specialization. The following are some of the quotes from the research data to consolidate these results.

We have a board of which I am a member. I am an executive member of a unitary board which consists of me and the executive team and the strategy is set at those board meetings, the operation and application of that strategy is decided and set by my chief executive team. Basically the decision making board is the chief executive team (CEO1).

The perceived power of the chief executive team is great in the above statement than that of the board. It seems also that it is imperative for the organisation to achieve its goals and the decisional function of leadership is also fundamental in the process. The statement presented the process of leading as a simplistic model that is straightforward. While it is vital to avoid the temptation of over-simplifying the process of leadership, it is also crucial to gain a greater understanding of the respondents’ statements.
The following excerpt by Director2 also provides substantial evidence that the leadership process encompasses the strategic process to some extent and the process should be clarified and well communicated within a given timeframe.

There is a very clear strategic process and we are right just now starting the next five year plan and that is being developed trying to quite involved process but we are gathering together all the information we think we need, other external factors that are driving policy, what we want to be, what are our values, what are our core and what is on the heart of it and that is beginning to distil down (Director2).

Director2 also emphasises that the leadership process involves making decisions and to be aware of a number of things that could impact on the process. Some things could make the decision-making process quite difficult such as things that leaders have no control over. The interviewee went on to give the example of the economic downturn and how it has affected the organisation in terms of the funding they get from the government and how this has impacted on the recruitment of support staff. When the economy was booming it was very hard for the organisation to recruit support staff. However due to high unemployment the organisation has experienced high volumes of job applications for support staff. This is good for the organisation as a lot of people want to be involved however Director2 thinks that not all of those people have got the right attitudes, behaviour and competencies. Hence, the process of leadership involves making bold decisions regarding various aspects that the leaders may or may not have control.

A similar opinion to this is expressed by the following respondent who acknowledged that a clear management structure has an effect on the leadership process. Manager1 also elaborates how the structure is evolving.

Talking I presume, management structure, we have [Name] as CEO and then a team of senior management. We are actually constantly restructuring our organisation. But we have a clear management structure in place (Manager1).

The excerpt also confirms the assertions of leadership being linked to formal hierarchical positions that have legitimate authority. The quotes are touching upon the process of decision-making, strategic planning, application of strategy, and communication and organisation structure. These elements are perceived as essential in creating an environment
for the expected behaviour and process. Therefore, from these perceptions most of the organisations represented reflect the characteristics of a traditional organisation. However, the following excerpt by CEO3 is distinct in that it acknowledges that the leadership process should involve any one. In other words anybody in the organisation could be a leader and part of the management team.

Everyone in the organization has the capacity to provide leadership some people have designated roles and some people will naturally provide leadership. If I can give you an example, a marketing officer who is also a leader in the organization, he is passionate about social media about the role of the internet and the way that the internet is being used now wherever to web, two point zero, facebook, twitter and so on and he has created an environment in which people are interested in talking to him about the issues of social media he is developing the programme for our website to be redesigned in that although he’s not a manager, he’s not a director but he is leading that programme and because he’s passionate about it he is able to communicate with passion to other members of the organization so he can stand up in a staff meeting and talk about it (CEO3).

Therefore, unlike the traditional organisation that emphasises on vertical leadership CEO3 articulates the importance of viewing everyone as a leader in the organisation. It was interesting to note the input of trustees in the leadership process. CEO3 also gave an example of how he leads in a way that is going to positively impact on other parts of the organization but not negatively or detrimentally. It was also recognised that leadership does not only come down to your rank or your title although ranks and titles have whole specific functions about your capacity to communicate and empower and enable others to get involved. The assertions therefore consolidate the notion of viewing everyone as a leader.

It was interesting to note that trustees in some organisations are perceived as not leaders. The argument is that of the provision of governance rather than leadership. Hence, trustees could be regarded as governors of the organisation. However, the role of governance could have some aspects of leadership. CEO3 assertions are different as highlighted in the following quote:

We are deeply accountable to our trustees and our strategic plan was very much a collaborative enterprise and that we measured against that progress against the strategic plan and that accountability process means that the trustees certainly have the overall strategic decision. I think it is interesting because theoretically I think the trustees have a governance role as they have
the oversight and they have a strategic role. I am not sure how much trustees lead. I think it is rare that trustees provide leadership to service users to volunteers to staff even to the chief executives (CEO3).

It was common throughout the interviews at Phase 1 of the research to suggest that leadership is the role of the chief executive and the senior leaders in the organisation. Senior managers in the organisation are believed to take the leadership role. It was also common to conclude that senior directors of the organisations who form the leadership team are conduits for the vision of the organisation. However, it is the responsibility of anyone in the organisation to be part of that vision and be involved in the generation of ideas. The leadership team therefore is perceived to provide day to day leadership though there were some doubts whether in reality if you provide the day to day leadership that means that you are providing the overall leadership.

The role of trustees in terms of leadership was mixed. Director3 believes that the trustees do have a role to play in their organisation though the role is a technical one. The leadership responsibility resides in the chief executive and the senior management team. Collective responsibility is paramount in organisations as it brings collective accountability. Director3 goes on to say that:

> Technical overall responsibility sits with the trustees. But I think the leadership responsibility is primarily with the chief executive. Chief executives are the persons overall responsible for leading the organisation and accountable to the trustees. But I believe in the principle of collective responsibility. In the same way that it works within the government that the cabinet has collective responsibility for decision making. I also believe that the leadership team within our organisation is responsible for the running of the organisation and the leadership of it and therefore if something in the different team doesn’t go well that is also my responsibility. If there is an issue with the finances that is my responsibility and likewise I am responsible for the services team but equally [Name of CEO] our chief executive would be joint responsible as would our director of policy research [Name] (Director3).

The role of trustees in some organisations is not clearly understood. Conversely, there is still a role for designated leaders to ensure that those that are involved in the leadership process be it volunteers, trustees or employees are delivering to the organizations objectives and that they are not abusing their autonomy. A distinction between governance and leadership is not very clear and hence the role of trustees in voluntary organisations is misunderstood by many
stakeholders. What is intriguing though is that the process of leadership involves many different stakeholders. There has been evidence at this stage of the research that suggest that trustees do take part in the process of leadership just like other stakeholders who are not tasked with leadership responsibilities.

6.2.3 The Dimensions of Leading

Phase 1 also found that there are different factors that influence the process of leading and thus, leadership is a multidimensional concept. In most of the organisations that were represented, organisational culture was the main feature and was reflected in the values, systems, beliefs and assumptions of the respondents. For instance, the research found out that the culture of some of these organisations was evolving. The evolving culture translates into the dynamic nature of leadership that involves the processes of constant change. In particular, the people element was identified to be an important aspect in the process of leading and shaping of the organisational culture. The majority of respondents highlighted the importance of empowering and enabling the people. The participation of people in the process of leading through a meaningful consultation was found to be crucial for organisations to align the present with the future.

For example from the perspective of CEO1 below, it was clear to deduce that he was in charge of the organisation and had greater self-confidence. However, it is not reasonable to expect the CEO to have a grasp on all what is happening in the organisation though it is clearly important that there is an overall leader who is in charge of the organisation. The meaningful participation was reflected in the element of delegated leadership. Conversely, CEO1 emphasises that he was the overall leaders and this is made evident by several references that are premised on ‘me’ and ‘I am’ in the following quote:

There is that leader as in the person with the title of chief executive therefore accountable for strategy and operations which is me and then there are leaders, leadership and responsibility. I am responsible for all the leadership in the organisation in theory and in practice I am a leader of many leaders and I am sometimes led (CEO1).

However, it was interesting to note that CEO1 acknowledges that in theory he is responsible for the whole organisation however in practice he is a leader of many other leaders and that
he is sometimes being led despite him being the overall leader. CEO1 further accepts that he is ultimately responsible for the success or failure of his organisation.

Some respondents were also loquacious about the strong leadership within their organisations. Director2 starts with the importance of the CEO in the organisation and goes on to describe how famous the CEO is externally.

Well clearly [Name] the CEO is a very important person in the organisation. He is the CEO of course he is important but is important for other reasons because he has got a high public profile. If you say [Name of organisation] to people oh [Name of CEO] comes up. The CEO is synonymous with the organisation, if he will ever to leave the organisation we have to think very differently about how we move forward. There is that sense of strong leadership from the top (Director2).

Director2 brings in some of intricacies of the dimensions of leadership. Some leaders could be very popular and influential externally while within their organisations they may be viewed differently. There are risks associated with leaders being perceived as super heroes and for leadership to be concentrated at the top as Director2 is quoted below saying that:

The risks are that we end up working in silos that you don’t link across. In fact we are doing a project at the moment were we are making sure or trying to make sure that we do take advantage of the strengths we got in different sectors. Today in an hour or two we got a conversation about a particular individual who is currently living in a secure unit and this person has got significant learning disabilities levels and has got significant mental health problems. We need to make sure that we deliver the best for that person and that will involve cross sector working. You have to keep aware of that so the benefits in terms of leadership are that you get very skilful people working in really close with an individual. Substance misuse will look different to working with someone with learning disabilities. The other element that is crucial is the leadership in terms of services because it is the services that we deliver that generate the money (Director2).

There is a general feeling of striking a balance within the organisations where leadership is concerned. This could be achieved through effective collaboration between support services or departments. It is vital that accurate information is filtered through the organisation for it to be effective and leadership plays an important role in ensuring that the people in the organisation are kept updated with what is going on within the organisation. It was also
mentioned by Director2 that it is imperative to be aware of the law within which the organisation was operating. It was suggested that it is the role of leaders to ensure that colleagues who won’t deliver services know and understand their legal obligations. The risk assurance team in this organisation is mainly responsible to articulate the legal obligations. However, Director2 was of the view that the responsibility does not rest with the risk assurance team but rests within the service structure and sometimes this creates tension as the risk assurance team is expected to do that and on the other hand others are expected to do other things.

Apart from the strong leadership, Director2 also views leadership in terms of the services they provide because it is the services that generate the income for the organisation. It is suggested that it is imperative to operate professionally and in an integrated manner. There has to be continuous communication between departments so that the required services are delivered effectively and efficiently and leadership plays an important role in ensuring that the coordination is executed in a ‘business-like’ manner. The continuous communication reduces the tension that is created between departments.

It was also clear that organisational culture had a huge role to play through the promotion of values that emanate from different people within the organisation. People come from different backgrounds and have different experiences however it is vital to have a distinct culture that is underlined by certain values and principles. The systems within an organisation are immensely affected by the organisational culture and leadership is no exception as reflected in the following excerpt from Director1.

We operate in an innovative way and I think that it sorts of a leading edge in the sense that we are in various functions, deploying different systems. We are sort of developing the organisation events, investment that we have in systems, investment that we have in people and bringing people not even necessary from the sector you might expect. For example I passed through telecoms and lots of people from a lot of different places creating this valued organisation and promoting the values of the organisation (Director1).

Moreover, it is perceived by CEO1 though not clearly that a set of values underpins the work of organisations. The belief in these values has made for example [Name of one of the organisation] a leading organisation in ‘turning lives around’ and shaping policy. The excerpt
below indicates how the people within the organisation are committed and passionate about the services they offer to their beneficiaries.

We have a set of values but fundamentally what underpins our work is that we believe passionately in the idea of turning lives around and reversing the care load…which states that those people with services must not forget them least (CEO1).

Basically, it is perceived that the organisational culture at this particular organisation has been transformed by the corporate nature of the business. To some extent this notion of ‘business-like’ has created a hybrid of imported and local concepts of organisational culture. Though the culture of putting the individual service user at the centre of the organisation remains significant, there is a danger that the evolving culture may dilute some of the core principles. The following statement is evidence of this conclusion.

I think the culture is changing. I think one of the things that influenced it very strongly has been the change to the sector. There is the culture that is developing in the Learning Disabilities sector and is very much about focusing on the individuals. For example if you have got two people with learning disabilities who might be described in a very similar ways and you think well this is just a standard answer that you have a person with down syndrome here and another person with down syndrome there, well that means they need the same service. Absolutely not, actually they might need quite different things. The culture I think is very much focused on the individual and that is the key driving factor in the organisation culture and that links into being a much more business like organisation (Director2).

It is interesting to note that most of the respondents had this perception of ‘business-like’. In line with this, the organisations are also doing a lot of work trying to fit their strategies for the future that is expected them to do more with less resources. This suggests that the culture of these organisations will continue to evolve through the reconstruction process by personnel and other stakeholders involved with the delivery of services. The communication of change is seen as the bedrock of the consultation process within the organisations represented. This demonstrates that some organisations are committed to innovation and managing change through democratic and inclusive principles. This perception of involving others was a common trend during the interviews as all the 10 interviewees thought that it was crucial to let others participate in the leadership process. People were regarded as being important in the ‘business-like’ agenda and their involvement was regarded highly. Apart from employee
engagement, other people including users of services and their relatives took part in the consultation process regarding numerous issues.

6.2.4 The Resistance to Delegation

The theme of delegation has been split into two categories; resistance to delegation and benefits of delegation. The research found mixed feelings about the theme of delegation. One respondent opposed to the notion of delegation and suggested that leadership can only be extended. However, the research drew a number of reasons to why some people resist to share, delegate or extend the role of leading. The factors of trust, control, experience, time were mentioned by the majority of the respondents.

Speaking about the reasons why some leaders do not delegate leadership, the CEOs in the research highlighted lack of control and lack of experience as being central. In addition, effective leadership was perceived as being good delegation. The findings suggest that team leadership or shared leadership can potentially take on a multitude of shapes and forms adding a dimension of complexity.

It is usually about control, lack of control, lack of experience. It is usually clarity about their role, politics that kind of it. It is not possible for one person to do everything. Effective control means delegation and effective management is also delegation. Effective leadership is also delegation and good delegation creates organisations whereas bad delegation creates dictatorship (CEO1).

On the other hand, one respondent was critical of the term ‘delegation’ and preferred the usage of ‘extending leadership’. It was argued that leadership cannot be delegated but extended to another person. In this instance, Director1 shows how complicated it is to use certain terms. However, it is not about terms, organisations need good leaders who are able to understand the implications of good and bad resource management. They need to be aware of the role of good and bad performance management. Extending leadership or delegating it is the acknowledgment that others have a role to play in the achievement of organisation’s objectives. Delegation is about enabling a person as a resource who can deliver certain activities based on the skills and knowledge that an individual could poses. However, what is significant is that certain situations could prevent leaders from delegating the responsibility of leadership to others.
What makes them not extend leadership rather than delegate it. Absolutely it could but for [Name of organisation] that is not the case. We are now talking hypothetical now as opposed to [Name of organisation] in some ways I would actually say that if you are a dictator often by my own suggestion ethos because it is so clear full stop and in a hurry no ifs no buts no complexities or anything like that it is actually very easy to do it that way. The more you get into the sort of all subtle complexity, right that is stop everybody I am now taking control you do this, you do this you do this. Sometimes time and context can make that easily, people will do that because you haven’t got time doing it in a short timeframe. It is really about the conversations, that kind like embracing more, you involve a wider group and get any real loyalty that of game if you like and then they are happy [Director1].

From the above extract it was also perceived that the extension of leadership takes place at different levels (individual, organisation, and team) within organisations and it was further acknowledged by Director1 that leadership is not a tangible thing to be passed from one person to another. However, the perception of delegation is that the organisational distance between decision makers and frontline workers is reduced through the sharing of abilities around leadership.

I guess really that it’s not tangible [leadership] it can be in particular, you can’t just say or compact or easily describe it. I have been doing leadership for a while you know here is the bat I will hand over to you, you do not. We are all in it and we share it. What we do is we share abilities around leadership. [Director1]

Things can also go wrong during the process of delegation and the following vignette provides further evidence of things going wrong when there is lack of trust and accountability. However, it is expected that things could go wrong and it is important to anticipate that and have a contingency plan in place. It is a challenge for leaders to know everyone in the organisation. However, it is imperative to know your organisation and its people and acknowledge their input.

I think it can break down, things can go wrong when if people don’t feel that they can trust the service leadership to deliver and when things go wrong then [Name of CEO]’s view is that I am on the top of this pyramid and it is my neck on the block. I think that can be risky. I think there are risks involved in larger organisations as it is impossible to know everybody. I don’t know everybody who works in the sector it is impossible for me to do so there are 6
or 7 hundred people we employ. I don’t know them by name by all means there has to be an element of trust. That can be a problem we live in a much regulated world quite likely the life experiences of people with learning disabilities are very different as they were 30 years ago. People live much more independently and element of risk when something goes wrong with somebody we are held accountable for that so that can be and its maintaining and making sure that quality is consistency across the organisation and that can constrain on leadership (Director2).

It was also perceived that lack of time may hinder delegation. This puts some leaders in a precarious position. However, the time element could merely be an excuse of not wanting to delegate. Effective leaders take full responsibilities of the outcome of their actions. Followers will respect leaders who are able to give chance to others and at the same time being able to accept responsibility when things go wrong. Followership is the ability to define the task requiring a certain type of leadership style. The resources available including dictates the leadership style. However, time doesn’t allow anything rather than direct approach to getting the task done. The expectations of stakeholders in relation to resources and time are influenced by politics both internal and external. Moreover, the nature and culture of the organisation could have an effect on the leadership style. Manager1 is of the view that despite lack of time delegation is vital in organisations and it is one of the strengths of being an effective leader.

I think lack of time is a really big issue. You have so much going on but actually good delegation takes more time to think and requires you to do something and there isn’t time but you need to trust someone and I think that is a real strength (Manager1).

Another respondent Director2 pointed out that it is often the pressure of getting it right. However, it was mentioned that mistakes are inevitable in the process of delegation. Therefore, the fear of failure has an effect on delegation and it is often problematic to measure the amount of delegation being allocated to others. The level and depth of delegation provided a complicated situation as highlighted by Director2:

Don’t always get it right and sometimes people struggle and I have made this mistake in the past were I gave too much responsibility, delegated to far and too quickly and then someone struggles and felt you know they get scared and then they make a mistake and they think they have failed (Director2).
Giving too much responsibility comes with the element of trust. Leaders should be prepared to take full responsibility of their actions. People will struggle if not supported and people will ultimately learn from trying new things and it is acceptable for them to make mistakes. However, the magnitude of the mistakes could be crucial to the organisation hence it is important for leaders to monitor effectively than to interfere in the process. This requires leaders to have a normative behaviour of some sought. It is expected for leaders to have a normative behaviour but effective delegation occurs through a line management process that is executed rapidly and immaculately progressing through the layers of the organisation.

6.2.5 The Benefits of Delegation

The research found out that delegation is beneficial to organisations that took part in the semi-structured interviews and to its people. All the 10 interviewees felt that it was important to delegate. At most organisations this has resulted into enhanced innovation, organisational and individual productivity that is linked with high motivation and high performance to operate as a ‘business-like’ entity. However, it was not very clear to separate management and leadership delegation. Nonetheless, the involvement of people in the organisation’s activities was found to be more paramount. Delegation in these organisations reflected an approach where employee and user involvement are embraced. This is related to developing human resources and the establishment of a ‘learning organisation’ to give the opportunity for people to ‘grow’ and be able to contribute effectively to the cause as reflected in the excerpt from Director2.

The trick is to get the responsibility at the right level. To take an example in my sector we have 25 service managers. I am not sure that kind of number is important when we delegate that individual knows were the responsibility begins and ends and actually quite it is a straight forward really because taking an example in Kent the service manager is responsible for everything that happens there. Everything that happens over here is not her responsibility and I am not going to hold her accountable for something over here and the benefit is that if we got it right and I think we mostly get it right is she is quite comfortable to make decisions. She knows what kind of decisions to push up to the organisation and one other thing I try to do is to push down. I think the key benefit is in developing people and keeping people interested and my experience is that people really value being in control (Director2)

Director2’s comments are premised on the principles of giving people the freedom and autonomy to make decisions. It is often discouraging for some leaders to interfere in the
decision making process. This could have negative connotation and could result in people being demotivated. The evidence suggests that if delegation is done correctly and that people are supported with the required resources they could be retained as they feel valued. One way of enabling people is to empower them as stated in the quote below by Manager1.

I think what I try to do is to be able to enable the people in my team feel empowered, enabling them to feel that they can make decisions without fear (Manager1).

CEO3 is of the view that effective delegation enhances quality within organisations. Hierarchical structures could hinder the process of delegation. However, it is also possible within these structures to delegate effectively. What matters mostly is what is delegated and how it is delegated. It is crucial to consider the expertise of people and embrace their contributions within organisations. CEO3 just like many other respondents thinks that delegation has a positive effect on the motivation of people within organisations.

It means that we can achieve more and attain a higher level of quality because when each task is appropriately delegated to the right level within the organisation. If you like we apply the principles of subsidiarity, the idea that what can be done on the lowest level can be done on the lowest level, by low I don’t mean inferior I mean closer to the ground if you like. We make sure that the individual is delivering within their expertise and that they have time to quality assure their own individual process. If it is being all held on the top you cannot possibly quality assure everything. I think it means that by delegating we can ensure that we get expertise in on the right issues, so the right people are doing right jobs, right people in right seats and I think there is also a huge benefit in motivation because when people are effectively delegated to they have autonomy to deliver within the parameters this how the end results looks like here is the resources available to you get on with the job (CEO3).

Basically, when people are empowered and in control of their own affairs as suggested by the above extracts can lead to developing them and keeping them interested. The delegation of decision making is reflected in the way the leaders give the opportunity for the colleagues to grow or develop within these organisations by giving appropriate advice. This is also achieved by the identification of gaps in skills and agreeing a personnel development plan. It does not matter whether the stakeholder is numerated or not. For instance a volunteer could also have a personnel development plan just like any other employee or trustee in the
organisation. This is perceived to bring about positive outcomes as echoed in the following statement.

It will have positive outcomes and people will feel part of the organisation. Consequently they will work harder. Ownership is an important aspect for developing others no matter what their position is in the organisation. This will have an impact on their performance as they will feel valued (Manager1).

By working hard it is also perceived that people will be highly motivated and this will bring about high productivity, performance and job satisfaction. However, it cannot be concluded from the excerpt that everyone will feel this way as people are different and have different expectations. Generally, when people feel that they have got a stake in something and that their voices are being heard it is more likely that they will be loyal to that setting.

The perception that effective communication is a key element of leadership was common during the research. 7 out of the 10 interviewees felt that it is significant to have clear channels of communication. During the process of delegation, communication plays a vital role in ensuring that what is being delegated is succinct. Therefore, effective communication is synonymous with the benefits of delegation and leadership as highlighted in the following quote by CEO1.

I believe in an open door policy. I think there are obstacles to doing the opposite. The way I lead, I have to demonstrate that if you are not open to communication then you are not communicating. If you are not communicating is very difficult to lead. The obstacles, I mean of running an open door policy means you may not have an efficient filter; everything becomes important because you are available. I don’t find that problem, I don’t spend a lot of time in this office and I am sure there are obstacles I haven’t come across them (CEO1).

Likewise, Manager3 comments on how it is important to communicate effectively in organisation. In this vein, Manager3 brings in the notion of acknowledging the pool of knowledge within the organisation. It is imperative to nurture the knowledge that exists within the organisation. People should be given the opportunity to use their experience and knowledge effectively and efficiently. Conflicts are healthy for organisations so long people are able to support their opinion by giving adequate reasons for their point of view. When you have got a balanced idea of the situation, issue, topic or whatever, you are more likely
able to form a well-informed opinion or decisions. It is to the benefit of all stakeholders to tap in the available knowledge and this could have a positive effect on the leadership. For instance if a decision is going to be made and there is a person with great deal of knowledge and that person was not consulted, that person would feel pretty bad and that would create a sort of a culture of worthlessness within the organisation.

In terms of delegating, I don’t see it happen here as I see with [Name of CEO] who knows that he is not an expert at everything...so he definitely calls on every experience and knowledge that he has got around him. I think he sees it as a real asset and resource that the people around him can advise him. I suppose in general terms for leaders it might be I suppose. You got to have a vision and somebody might give advice contrary to your vision. Then you might decide not to call for their advice at all, just to fulfil your vision. I suppose it is big headiness really (Manager3).

There are two important issues to unpack here. The first concerns the expectations of people in the organisation. While the second issue concerns the claims for common purpose and shared objectives. It will therefore be interested to follow through these items during Phase 3. Thus, the major finding of Phase 1 is that leadership takes different forms depending on the work to be done and is driven by democratic and inclusive principles that help to shape the organisations and achieve the ‘business-like’ agenda. Numerous stakeholders are involved in the process of leadership however the 10 interviews at this stage do not give much evidence on how stakeholders could participate in the leadership process. Moreover, it is imperative to operationalise the concept of shared leadership to facilitate the understanding of how shared leadership looks like in organisations.

6.3 Phase 2 Findings of the Survey

The survey instrument had 17 items. The first part of the survey that consisted of 10 items was adopted from the Shared Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) developed by Khasawneh (2011) and the second part that consisted of 7 items attempted to capture the demographic data of the respondents and the characteristics of the organisations. The leadership dimensions that are reflected in the SLQ for this research are decision-making, strategic planning, power and communication. The communication dimension included the organisation’s vision, responsibilities and how to handle problems. These dimensions provided the items for measuring the level of shared leadership in voluntary organisations.
In line with objective two (to find out how volunteers, trustees and employees (stakeholders) get involved in the leadership process) of the research project, this phase of the study was concerned with establishing the magnitude of shared leadership by presenting the following questions; 1) what is the level of shared leadership of voluntary organisations in the UK? And 2) are there any variations in the involvement or participation between the stakeholders?

The collected data was analysed using SPSS version 19 as described in the data analysis process chapter. The descriptive statistics and frequency distribution of variables or questions 1 to 10 representing the shared leadership dimensions are depicted in Tables 6.1 and 6.2 below.

6.3.1 Descriptive Statistics of Variables 1 to 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. D</td>
<td>1.695</td>
<td>1.881</td>
<td>2.005</td>
<td>2.143</td>
<td>2.086</td>
<td>1.853</td>
<td>2.007</td>
<td>2.275</td>
<td>1.763</td>
<td>2.319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.190</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>1.051</td>
<td>.678</td>
<td>1.034</td>
<td>1.100</td>
<td>.846</td>
<td>.372</td>
<td>1.048</td>
<td>.490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error Skewness</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>1.347</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>-.732</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>.646</td>
<td>-.454</td>
<td>-1.290</td>
<td>.405</td>
<td>-1.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error Kurtosis</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>.428</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.1 Descriptive Statistics of Variables 1 to 10
Table 6.1 shows the descriptive statistics of Variables 1 to 10. The standard deviation of the 10 variables is between 1.695 and 2.319. These smaller figures of standard deviation indicate that data points are close to the mean. This suggests that the mean is an accurate representation of the data.

6.3.2 Frequency Distribution of Variables 1 to 10
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N/A</th>
<th>Extremely Agree</th>
<th>Moderately Agree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Moderately Disagree</th>
<th>Extremely Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Consulted in decision-making</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Actively involved in decision-making</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Consulted in strategic planning</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Actively involved in strategic planning</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Power is delegated to me</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I share and delegate power</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Consulted regarding organisation’s vision</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Actively involved regarding organisation’s vision</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Consulted regarding responsibilities and problems</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I regard myself as a leader</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.2 Frequency Distribution of Variables 1 to 10

6.3.2.1 Frequency Distribution for Variable 1 ‘I am consulted in decision-making’
Table 6.2 above shows that 100 respondents (79.4%) felt that they are consulted in decision-making process compared to 15 respondents (12%) that felt that they were not being consulted. On the other hand 7 respondents (5.6%) were neutral, 3 respondents (2.4%) felt that this question was not applicable to them and 1 person (0.8%) did not respond to all the questions for unknown reason. This finding suggests that the majority of stakeholders are consulted in decision-making process of the organisations in the sample. However, the findings does not tell us how the stakeholders are consulted and hence the need for Phase 3 of the research (in-depth interviews) to go further than the measuring of the construct of decision-making. Decision-making in organisations is an important component of leadership and it is interesting that this research has found that stakeholders are consulted.

6.3.2.2 Frequency Distribution for Variable 2 ‘I am actively involved in decision-making’

Table 6.2 also shows that 88 respondents (69.8%) felt that they are actively involved in decision-making process compared to 24 respondents (19%) that felt that they were not being actively involved. On the other hand 10 respondents (7.9%) were neutral, 3 respondents (2.4%) felt that this question was not applicable to them and 1 person (0.8%) did not respond. The finding suggests that the majority of respondents are actively involved in decision-making process. However, note that the number has dropped as compared to being consulted in decision-making. It has reduced from 100 (consulted in decision-making) to 88. These findings have huge implications as it seems that the stakeholders are more likely to be consulted than to be actively involved in the process of decision-making. This finding suggests that more stakeholders are just consulted in the decision-making process than being actively involved or participating fully in the decision-making process. However, the results do not indicate in detail how the stakeholders 69.8% are actively involved in the decision-making. It is therefore imperative to conduct in-depth interviews to try and capture the interactions and experiences that could illuminate on this finding.

6.3.2.3 Frequency Distribution for Variable 3 ‘I am consulted in strategic planning’

Table 6.2 indicates that 91 respondents (72.3%) felt that they are consulted in strategic planning compared to 23 respondents (18.3%) that felt that they were not being consulted. On the other hand 6 respondents (4.8%) were neutral, 5 respondents (4%) felt that this question was not applicable to them and 1 person (0.8%) did not respond. The findings indicate that
the majority of the respondents in the survey are consulted in the strategic planning of the organisations. It could be interesting to find out more about how the various stakeholders are consulted.

6.3.2.4 Frequency Distribution for Variable 4 ‘I am actively involved in strategic planning’

Table 6.2 illustrates that 80 respondents (63.5%) felt that they are actively involved in strategic planning compared to 32 respondents (25.4%) that felt that they were not being actively involved. On the other hand 8 respondents (6.3%) were neutral, 5 respondents (4%) felt that this question was not applicable to them and 1 person (0.8%) did not respond. The finding suggests that the majority of respondents are actively involved in strategic planning of the organisation. However, note that the number has dropped as compared to being consulted in strategic planning. It has reduced from 91 (consulted in strategic planning) to 80 (actively involved in strategic planning). Moreover, note the increase in ‘extremely disagree’ in being involved in strategic planning compared to the ‘extremely disagree’ in being consulted in strategic planning. The findings are suggesting that more stakeholders are likely to be consulted in strategic planning than being actively involved in the process. It is significant to find out why this is the case. However, the survey is limited and hence the in-depth interviews at Phase 3 of the research will attempt to shed some light on this variation.

6.3.2.5 Frequency Distribution for Variable 5 ‘Power is delegated to me’

Table 6.2 indicates that 87 respondents (69.1%) felt that power is delegated to them from formal leaders of the organisation compared to 23 respondents (18.3%) that felt the opposite. On the other hand 6 respondents (4.8%) were neutral, 9 respondents (7.1%) felt that this question was not applicable to them and 1 person (0.8%) did not respond. Power is a crucial entity for determining the level of influence in an organisation. The findings suggest that the majority of stakeholders agree to power being shared to them. However, the findings do not tell us more. There is a gap in how the power is shared and what happens when the power is shared to stakeholders. However, the survey gives us an indication that the element of power could be shared among people in an organisation.

6.3.2.6 Frequency Distribution for Variable 6 ‘I share and delegate power to others’
Table 6.2 shows that 93 respondents (73.8%) felt that they share and delegate power to others within the organisation. Whereas 18 respondents (14.4%) felt that they did not share and delegate power to anyone. On the other hand 6 respondents (4.8%) were neutral, 8 respondents (6.3%) felt that this question was not applicable to them and 1 person (0.8%) did not respond. Interestingly, the findings indicate that more respondents share and delegate power to others (73.8%) than power being shared to them (69.1%). The findings are in line with that of Phase 1 of the research that indicated on delegation. It was found that the majority of leaders delegate responsibilities to others. However, it could be intriguing to discover how power is shared among the stakeholders in the in-depth interviews at Phase 3 of the research.

6.3.2.7 Frequency Distribution for Variable 7 ‘I am consulted regarding the organisation’s vision’

Table 6.2 indicates that 85 respondents (67.5%) felt that they are consulted regarding the organisation’s vision compared to 27 respondents (21.3%) that felt that they were not being consulted. On the other hand 11 respondents (8.7%) were neutral, 2 respondents (1.6%) felt that this question was not applicable to them and 1 person (0.8%) did not respond. The finding is suggesting that the majority of the respondents in the survey are consulted regarding the organisation’s vision. Again just like the previous findings the survey results do not tell us how the stakeholders are consulted regarding the organisation’s vision. It would be helpful to find out more during the Phase 3 of the research.

6.3.2.8 Frequency Distribution for Variable 8 ‘I am actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision’

Table 6.2 illustrates that 69 respondents (54.8%) felt that they are actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision compared to 42 respondents (33.3%) that felt the opposite. On the other hand 12 respondents (9.5%) were neutral, 2 respondents (1.6%) felt that this question was not applicable to them and 1 person (0.8%) did not respond. Despite the finding suggesting that the majority of respondents are actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision there is a disparate with being consulted regarding the organisation’s vision. Note that more than 20 respondents (21 to be precise) ‘extremely disagree’ to being actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision as
compared to only 9 respondents ‘extremely disagree’ to being consulted in the formulation of the organisation’s vision.

The findings suggest that only over half of the respondents agree to being actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision. Phase 1 of the research found out why it was important to have a shared vision within organisations. The survey has indicated that the majority of stakeholders are merely consulted regarding the organisation’s vision than being actively involved.

6.3.2.9 Frequency Distribution for Variable 9 ‘I am consulted regarding responsibilities and how to handle problems’

Table 6.2 indicates that 91 respondents (72.3%) felt that they are consulted regarding responsibilities and how to handle problems compared to 19 respondents (15.1%) that felt that they were not being consulted. On the other hand 14 respondents (11.1%) were neutral, 1 respondent (0.8%) felt that this question was not applicable to him or her and 1 person (0.8%) did not respond. It is interesting to note that a majority of respondents are consulted regarding responsibilities and how to handle problems. However, it would have been helpful if I had added another question to find out if they are actively involved regarding responsibilities and handling problems. Nevertheless, the finding is an important one as responsibilities and handling of problems has been highlighted to be part of leadership.

6.3.2.10 Frequency Distribution for Variable 10 ‘I consider myself as a leader’

Table 6.2 shows that 73 respondents (58%) regarded themselves as leaders in the organisation compared to 37 respondents (29.4%) that felt the opposite. On the other hand 13 respondents (10.3%) were neutral, 2 respondents (1.6%) felt that this question was not applicable to them and 1 person (0.8%) did not respond. However, note that more than 20 respondents (21 to be precise) ‘extremely disagree’ to being leaders in the organisation. The findings suggest that only just over half of the respondents regard themselves as leaders. It would be imperative to find out more about this through the in-depth interviews at Phase 3 of the research. This variable is an important one because it confirms that an organisation is made up of several leaders.
The above overall findings of the survey suggest a high level of shared leadership in the survey sample and that more participants were merely consulted than being actively involved. It is also interesting to note that some respondents did not regard themselves as leaders. These results will further be investigated during Phase 3 of the research.

6.3.3 Results of Crosstabulations between Variable 13 ‘Position in the organisation’ and Shared Leadership Variables

In order to answer the second question of this Phase 2) are there any variations in the involvement or participation between the stakeholders? It was found appropriate to conduct crosstabulations to find out any variations in attitudes between the stakeholders (employees, trustees and volunteers) to the shared leadership dimensions. Figures 6.11 to 6.20 represent the findings of the crosstabulation and the Tables are in Appendix XIV. Please note that the sample consisted of 30 volunteers, 14 trustees, 81 employees and 1 did not respond to the question. Thus N = 126.

Figure 6.1: Crosstabulation between Variable 13 (Position/Status in the organisation) and Variable 1 (I am consulted in the decision-making process)

Figure 6.1 shows that 20 volunteers (adding the ‘extremely agree’, ‘moderately agree’ and slightly agree) out of 30 representing 66% ‘agree’ to being consulted in the decision-making process compared to 66 employees out of 81 representing 81.4%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are consulted in the decision-making process. There was no response
from 1 respondent. The findings suggest that employees are more likely to be consulted in decision-making than volunteers. Moreover, trustees are more likely to be consulted in decision-making than employees or trustees.

Figure 6.2: Crosstabulation between Variable 13 (Position/Status in the organisation) and Variable 2 (I am actively involved in the decision-making process)

Figure 6.2 shows that 16 volunteers out of 30 representing 53.3% ‘agree’ to being actively involved in the decision-making process compared to 58 employees out of 81 representing 71.6%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are actively involved in the decision-making process. Again the findings suggest that employees are more likely to be actively involved in decision-making than volunteers. Moreover, 100% of the trustees are actively involved in decision-making and therefore they are more likely to be actively involved in decision-making than the employees or volunteers. Note that 1 participant did not respond to the question regarding the position in the organisation.
Figure 6.3: Crosstabulation between Variable 13 (Position/Status in the organisation) and Variable 3 (I am consulted in future strategic planning of the organisation)

Figure 6.3 shows that 17 volunteers out of 30 representing 56.6% ‘agree’ to being consulted in the strategic planning compared to 60 employees out of 81 representing 74%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are consulted in the strategic planning. The findings suggest that employees are more likely to be consulted in strategic planning than volunteers. Moreover, trustees are more likely to be consulted in strategic planning than employees or volunteers. Note that 1 participant did not respond to the question regarding the position in the organisation.
Figure 6.4: Crosstabulation between Variable 13 (Position/Status in the organisation) and Variable 4 (I am actively involved in the strategic planning of the organisation)

Figure 6.4 shows that 16 volunteers out of 30 representing 53.3% ‘agree’ to being actively involved in the strategic planning compared to 50 employees out of 81 representing 61.7%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are actively involved in the strategic planning. 1 respondent did not respond to the question regarding the position in the organisation. The findings suggest that employees are more likely to be actively involved in the strategic planning than volunteers. Moreover, trustees are more likely to be involved in the strategic planning than employees or volunteers.

Figure 6.5: Crosstabulation between Variable 13 (Position/Status in the organisation) and Variable 5 (Power is delegated to me from formal leaders of the organisation)

Figure 6.5 shows that 17 volunteers out of 30 (56.6%) agree that power is delegated to them compared to 64 employees out of 81 (79%). Interesting this time only 6 trustees out of 14 (42.8%) agree that power is delegated to them. The findings suggest the employees are more likely to be delegated with power than the volunteers or trustees. Note again 1 participant did not respond to the question regarding the position in the organisation.
Figure 6.6: Crosstabulation between Variable 13 (Position/Status in the organisation) and Variable 6 (I share and delegate power with other members of the organisation not in formal leadership positions)

Figure 6.6 shows that 12 volunteers out of 30 (40%) agree that they share and delegate power compared to 62 employees out of 81 (76.5%). Moreover, all (14) the trustees agree that they share and delegate power. The findings suggest that employees are more likely to share and delegate power than volunteers. However, trustees are more likely to share and delegate power than employees or volunteers. Note that 1 participate did not respond to the question regarding the position in the organisation.
**Figure 6.7: Crosstabulation between Variable 13 (Position/Status in the organisation) and Variable 7 (I am consulted regarding the organisation’s vision)**

Figure 6.7 shows that 16 volunteers out of 30 representing 53.3% ‘agree’ to being consulted regarding the organisation’s vision compared to 55 employees out of 81 representing 67%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are consulted regarding the organisation’s vision. The findings suggest that employees are more likely to be consulted regarding the organisation’s vision than volunteers. Moreover, trustees are more likely to be consulted regarding the organisation’s vision than employees or volunteers. Note again that 1 participant did not respond to the question regarding the position in the organisation.

**Figure 6.8: Crosstabulation between Variable 13 (Position/Status in the organisation) and Variable 8 (I am actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision)**

Figure 6.8 shows that only 11 volunteers out of 30 representing 36.6% ‘agree’ somehow to being actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision compared to 44 employees out of 81 representing 54.3%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision. The findings suggest that employees are more likely to be actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision than volunteers. Moreover, trustees are more likely to be actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision than employees or volunteers. Note that 1 participant did not respond to the question regarding the position in the organisation.
Figure 6.9 shows that 18 volunteers out of 30 representing 60% ‘agree’ that they are consulted regarding responsibilities and problems compared to 59 employees out of 81 representing 72.8%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are consulted regarding responsibilities and how to handle problems. The findings suggest that employees are more likely to be consulted regarding responsibilities and problems than volunteers. Moreover, trustees are more likely to be consulted regarding responsibilities and problems than employees or volunteers. Note again that 1 participant did not respond to the question regarding the position in the organisation.
Figure 6.10: Crosstabulation between Variable 13 (Position/Status in the organisation) and Variable 10 (I regard myself as a leader in the organisation)

Figure 6.10 shows that 10 volunteers out of 30 representing 33.3% ‘extremely disagree’ to being regarded as leaders compared to only 15 employees out of 81 representing 18.5%. It is also interesting to note that nearly all trustees (14) regard themselves as leaders. The findings suggest that employees are more likely to regard themselves as leaders than volunteers. Moreover, trustees are more likely to regard themselves as leaders than employees or volunteers. Note that 1 participant did not respond to the question regarding the position in the organisation.

These findings of crosstabulation suggest that Status or Position in the organisation could be a factor in determining the level of shared leadership. According to this sample employees are more likely to be involved in the leadership process than the volunteers. Moreover, trustees are more likely to be involved in the leadership process than employees and volunteers.

6.3.4 Results of Correlation of Shared Leadership Variables

Shared leadership variables were then compared to check for any relationships employing correlation techniques at two-tailed as no hypotheses were initially proposed. Spearman’s rho was used. The correlations of ρ < 0.01 and ρ < 0.05 are flagged with asterisks. The correlation results are shown in the R-Matrix table 6.3 below.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shared Leadership Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Consulted in decision-making process</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Actively involved in decision-making</td>
<td>.909**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Consulted in strategic planning</td>
<td>.749**</td>
<td>.745**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Actively involved in strategic planning</td>
<td>.709**</td>
<td>.781**</td>
<td>.807**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Power is delegated to me</td>
<td>.522**</td>
<td>.570**</td>
<td>.586**</td>
<td>.630**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I share and delegate power</td>
<td>.435**</td>
<td>.487**</td>
<td>.560**</td>
<td>.606**</td>
<td>.575**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Consulted regarding organisation's vision</td>
<td>.600**</td>
<td>.600**</td>
<td>.607**</td>
<td>.633**</td>
<td>.510**</td>
<td>.423**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Actively involved in the formulation of the organisation's vision</td>
<td>.646**</td>
<td>.668**</td>
<td>.667**</td>
<td>.684**</td>
<td>.553**</td>
<td>.495**</td>
<td>.436**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Consulted regarding responsibilities and problems</td>
<td>.678**</td>
<td>.710**</td>
<td>.670**</td>
<td>.708**</td>
<td>.564**</td>
<td>.441**</td>
<td>.572**</td>
<td>.731**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I regard myself as a leader</td>
<td>.570**</td>
<td>.603**</td>
<td>.556**</td>
<td>.634**</td>
<td>.575**</td>
<td>.546**</td>
<td>.861**</td>
<td>.738**</td>
<td>.715**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Table 6.3 R-Matrix

Table 6.3 above indicate that there is a strong positive correlation between the ten variables and this is significant because $\rho < 0.01$. For example, the variable ‘I regard myself as a leader in the organisation’ is positively correlated to the variable ‘I am actively involved in future strategic planning of the organisation with a correlation of .634. In addition, the variable ‘I regard myself as a leader in the organisation’ is positively correlated to the variable ‘I am actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision’ with a correlation of .738. Moreover, the variable ‘I regard myself as a leader in the organisation’ is also positively correlated to the variable ‘I am actively involved in the decision-making process’ with a correlation of .603. It can also be seen that there is evidence of a strong correlation between two or more other dependent variables in the table. Actually, all shared leadership dimensions (SLD) in this survey are positively correlated using Spearman’s rho at 0.01 level. This suggests that multicollinearity exists between the dependent variables. This suggests that the instrument used to measure shared leadership is reliable. Therefore, the overall reliability of the scale was measured using Cronbach’s alpha coefficient and it was found to be 0.94. This value suggested that the shared leadership questionnaire was very reliable.

6.3.5 Results of Multiple Regression between Demographic Variables and Variable 10 ‘I regard myself as a leader’

To find out more about the factors that may contribute to the variations in the attitudes regarding the dependent variables it was necessary to conduct multiple regression analysis. The predictor variables for the survey were age, gender, number of years worked or volunteered, size of the organisation, ethnicity and position in the organisation. These variables are mainly categorical in nature and not interval data. However, the individual category in the variable has been assigned a value to make it numerical data. An analysis was conducted in relation to the dependent variable 10 ‘I regard myself as a leader’. This variable was picked because it determines the conception of being a leader in the organisation. Initially the analysis was conducted using 1 predictor variable at a time. The results showed that the predictor ‘Position in the organisation’ could account for 17.2% of variation in ‘I regard myself as a leader’, ‘Gender’ 7.3%, ‘Age’ 4.6%, ‘Number of years worked or volunteered’ 5.8%, Size of organisation 1.6% and ‘Ethnicity’ had no effect. The predictor variables where then combined and a multiple regression analysis was conducted. Table 6.4
below is the summary of the model for multiple regression analysis and shows the strength of the relationship between independent variables and ‘I regard myself as a leader’.

![Model Summary Table]

Table 6.4: Multiple Regression Analysis Model Summary between independent variables and Variable 10 (I regard myself as a leader in the organisation)

It can be seen from the table above that $R = .545$ and $R^2 = .297$ indicating that the combined predictor variables could account for about 30% (29.7%) of variation in ‘I regard myself as a leader’.

6.4 Phase 3 Findings of In-depth Interviews

Thematic analysis was employed as discussed in chapter 5 of this thesis for the final phase of the research that involved 30 in-depth interviews. In this regard, a three level coding approach based on King and Horrocks (2010) was adopted that involved the production of descriptive codes, interpretative codes and overarching themes. The major themes that emanated from the in-depth interviews are presented here and backed up with the evidence from the data collected.

6.4.1 Stakeholder Conceptualisation of Leadership

Leadership has been constructed by the participants in a variety of ways similar to Phase 1 conceptualisations. What stands out though is the involvement of people in the attainment of organisational goals. Moreover, 22 out of the 30 interviewees mentioned the word influence when referring to leadership. The following are some of the quotes from the interviews where leadership is being linked to influencing people and supporting them in the achievement of the goals, vision, aims and objectives.
I think the way I influence people is by being very clear about my vision and by giving them a clear goal by delegating, by being available, by listening a lot – we have one to ones in place every month with people, I use those times to see where I can support them with their workload but also how I can influence their decisions making wherever they have a need for me to support and I think it’s very refreshing to people to have this constant communication with people I work with in order to influence them where I can add value to their own workload… (Interview Number 3)

Leadership is the process of influencing people, motivating people as well as directing people (Interview Number 30).

It is about inspiring, how to solve problems and listening, showing the way, being strong (Interview Number 26).

Leadership is giving examples and being able to be available whenever needed. A leader is therefore someone who you can look up to (Interview Number 27).

Interview Number 3’s disposition suggest that of being caring and supportive while leading others. The respondent mentions communication as one of the key ingredients of leadership and having a clear vision. On the other hand, Interview Number 30 adds the dimension of directing others. This supposition is similar to Interview Number 7’s interpretations of leadership that is premised on influence but also on giving people the autonomy to become innovative. Moreover, Interview Number 7 introduces an identical idea as that of Interview Number 27 above that is centred on personal example. Leading by example is an important way of encouraging others to believe in you and also to offer some direction.

Leadership is… making people want to work, make them feel that they work on the strength and giving them independence and allowing them to try new things and then giving them the time and support they need to develop and grow but basically being there showing them that you work hard and giving a personal example basically… personal example and support. (Interview Number 7)

The majority of the respondents were of the view that a clear vision was crucial for setting the direction. It was clear from the comments that without a vision it is hard to connect oneself to the organisation. The vision of the organisation allows the members of the organisation to align their expectations and goals to that vision. However, there is need for that vision to be communicated effectively to all members of the organisation. Subsequently,
the members of the organisation will be aware of the direction of the organisation and will aspire to work hard. A clear vision in connection with motivation is followed up by Interview Number 15’s construction of leadership.

Leadership is the ability to have a vision and also to motivate other people to participate towards attainment of that vision. Being also flexible, taking into consideration the internal environment and the external environment but having that driving force of motivating other people to move towards a particular vision (Interview Number 15).

It is interesting to note that Interview Number 15 above talks about being flexible. Indeed a rigid vision that is unclear may be difficult to realise. The leader has to be realistic about the vision and be able to adjust when things are not going by plan. The vision has to be dynamic in nature besides being succinct. Moreover, it is important to be aware of the environment in which the organisation is operating in order for the vision to fit with the available resources. This is where team work matters so much that the organisation cannot do without it. In this vein, Interview Number 24’s definition of leadership is about team work in the attainment of organisation’s objectives and aims which in other words describe the vision.

Leadership is working with a team and meeting the organisation’s objectives and aims (Interview Number 24).

Interview Number 25 similarly gives the supposition of leadership based on goals, aims and objectives. Likewise, flexibility has also been mentioned that is underpinned by the philosophy of togetherness in the form of participation from others. The inclusion of service users in the leadership process is an interesting one as they are also regarded as stakeholders.

Leadership to me is having clear goals, aims and objectives and ensure that as a team we work collectively together. Leadership must allow room for flexibility when needed, but at the same time be clear and consistent in one’s approach. Leadership involves participation from the team and the service users you are providing the service too (Interview Number 25).

The element of communication has also been brought in the picture by Interview Number 12 based on the ethos of shared vision and values. It is imperative to make sure that everybody is having an impact on the organisation. This could be achieved by having clear communication channels to be able to filter through the required information. Everybody has a stake indeed but it is vital to develop mechanisms for people to be involved effectively. A shared vision
that is premised on the dogma of shared values will encourage people to be involved in the organisation’s activities.

I think there has to be clear communication, a clear go – where do we want to be and everybody having the same vision and sharing values and working together with other people, making sure that everybody is involved. Everybody who has got a stake, who has got… yeah something… yeah is involved to make sure that you get to wherever you want to be (Interview Number 12).

Interview Number 20 has added the dimension of exemplary leadership in the achievement of goals, objectives and the vision of the organisation. It is vital to be a role model in the organisation as mentioned earlier by leading by example. However, being a good manager will act as a catalyst to being an effective leader through effective planning, co-ordination and implementation of organisational plans.

In my own words, leadership means like…setting… I mean being a role model, you see. You have to present yourself as a role model and also should be able to manage day to day activities in an organisation or wherever leadership is required, you should be able to co-ordinate and manage day to day and you should be able to plan long term – vision, goals, objectives for the organisation (Interview Number 20).

It is not enough to be a role model. An effective leader has to support and guide others by giving them information and listening to them. Receiving and giving feedback is a skill that underpins effective leadership. Interview Number 22 constructs leadership in line with guidance and focusing on democratic leadership.

Leadership is guidance. Erm…having sets of values and principles that you work by. Being focused and also not being dictatorial but allowing a sort of democratic process in which by you get information, what are needs, then you have a direction that you have to follow and you bring others with you with that direction but are open to inputs (Interview Number 22).

Effective leadership is also about doing something about the feedback being received from others. This is connected to the point that was raised above regarding communication. Leaders have to listen to what others are saying. The following quotes consolidate the viewpoint that effective leaders are those who are able to listen, are open to criticism and willing to develop others. The development of people as leaders should take inconsideration
the principles of humility and charisma. Leaders who have humility are considered as good leaders and those with both humility and charisma could be more effective.

Well leadership is, apart from just in the world in general, how people develop as leaders and people follow them, erm… you know even the world politics and everything, you wonder why, but somebody who is a leader has a certain charisma usually but gets people to follow them and not question or not argue too much. So I think a good leader is someone who is… listens…, is open to criticism and can discuss with people the reasons for decisions and has to be mature person to be a good leader and has to accept criticism. errr and sometimes somebody has to make the decisions. A decision maker, I think is a leader – somebody has to make the decision – there isn’t a right or wrong about a decision but somebody has to make a decision (Interview Number 9).

Somebody who knows like the strength and weaknesses of a certain situation or like, let’s say in the organisation they have once a month when they take about 10 people from the volunteers and people who work in the organisation and we go out and we speak to the service users and ask them, what do you want from the service, so it’s like we are asking them and we are giving back to the leaders and the leaders take that and kind of like implement and try to make and they basically serve to their service users (Interview Number 14).

The majority of participants based their definition of leadership on decision-making. It was strongly felt that leadership is about making decisions. Effective leadership is about making decisions that matter, decisions that have huge implications for the organisation and indeed decisions that will inspire others. Of course, there are situations where decisions are made that affect others in a negative way, for example when it comes to downsizing and delayering.

To me leadership is decision making, problem solving, initiating tasks, guiding and teaching. Also leadership is about setting standards (Interview Number 28).

Leadership is about good decision-making, the use of initiative, being wise, smart and leading by example (Interview Number 29).

These findings therefore consolidate the survey results and that of Phase 1 that revealed that decision-making is an important component of leadership.
6.4.2 Stakeholder Conceptualisation of Shared Leadership

It was found that most of the participants (23 out of 30) have heard of the notion of shared leadership. But there were others who did not come across the term. The general view was that of shared leadership being an influencing process that involves a group of people. Interview Number 8 below suggests that it is important that the responsibility of leadership is spread across the organisation.

I think shared leadership would be about a few people or more in leadership sitting around the table, banging heads together, getting solutions, not just one person [not clear]… and leadership is also about teamwork and not just from one person taking something forward because you are bound to make a lot more mistakes. But shared leadership as well as if you do have one leadership and they are off, that they hand the reigns over to somebody else who can carry things through while they are away, rather than everything stops because they are not here. So I think it’s twofold, it can be that, if you’re just going to have it on that in one sense but on another we’ve got a lot more people sitting on a desk, you know like trustees, corporate directors and stuff like that – where you have more than one. That’s my idea of it (Interview Number 8).

Interview Number 8’s conception of shared leadership is premised on a group of people or a team. The insinuations are that another person has to take charge when a designated leader is absent. Having a group or team makes it easier to solve problems as they will work collaboratively together. However, Interview Number 5 view of the collaborative approach is that it does not make much sense as highlighted in the following quote:

I haven’t heard of it directly, I think that what it means to me is that it’s a collaborative approach to the running of an organisation, it doesn’t make much sense because it’s very difficult to share, how can you lead and share and if you’ve got three people and one leading all they’re all leading it’ll have to be something more like shared working practice because leading by default means that someone leading and someone following (Interview Number 5).

Interview Number 4 brings the element of strategy with the group notion of shared leadership and thinks that everyone should participate. Strategic planning is an important activity for an organisation as it sets out the route to be taken in the achievement of the stated objectives. In this view, it is highlighted that shared leadership allows everyone in the organisation to be involved in the process.
I think shared leadership is when everyone who is a participant in the organisation and that’s from employees to managers to officers to directors and above and also the users of services have an active way to contribute to the strategy of the organisation, that’s what I think shared leadership is and what it should be and I think that everyone should feel as though they and their experience of an organisation and its services is being fed into the strategy and leadership of the organisation, that’s what I think shared leadership is. (Interview Number 4)

On the other hand, other participants introduce the idea of competencies, group responsibility and delegation of authority in defining shared leadership. In terms of delegation the findings are similar to that of Phase 1. Shared leadership was viewed as a process of allowing others to participate in the leadership process through a variety of ways. Some of the ways in which stakeholders were involved could be classified as ‘low level activities’ or on the other hand as ‘high level activities’. However, it was emphasised by the majority of respondents that it is the involvement of more than one person in the leadership process.

I haven’t heard of the notion of shared leadership I can imagine … what it means to me is various people in the organisation leading in different ways in areas where they have competencies…different people…in leadership being responsibility of everybody rather than just an individual each person knows….and I think is about the CEO actively delegating giving authority to people to lead and direct (Interview Number 2).

Shared leadership is when the leader decides to give authority to other people so that they can also exercise their talents, their skills with the leader assuming the ultimate control. For instance with our type of network that’s more appropriate because we have got say Congolese groups, they have got their own uniqueness. We have got say the Zimbabwean groups they have got their own uniqueness and their own politics. Different people from all over Africa – everyone wants to feel respected if he is given the room to decide and use his intelligence. It will be difficult for me to move into say the Congolese community and start telling them what to do (Interview Number 15).

Perhaps involving… Shared leadership for me would probably… probably is, the top management, or the people that are responsible for the actual leadership, involving those who are not directly involved in the leadership so that they can run the organisation together. That would be my take on it (Interview Number 16).
Is it sharing a leader? Like leaders sharing for money. To give an example, like leaders sharing their responsibilities or something… of an organisation, of the activities or something like that (Interview Number 14).

Yes, I think it is everybody taking…I don’t know… shared leadership…when the organisation is smaller everybody takes responsibility at the same time to reach the goals of course there is something who leads the organisation but he allows other people to share that and do things achieve things together (Interview Number 7).

Leadership – it’s probably being the sharing of the responsibility that is on you as a leader being able to do that with other people (Interview Number 13).

It was also interesting to note that shared leadership is about influencing others but in this case involving others in the process. Moreover, the purpose of the organisation in terms of goals, vision, objectives and direction was common in defining shared leadership. It is also highlighted that shared leadership is about motivating others and ensuring that they participate in the decision-making process through the ethos of shared vision and shared mission.

What all organisations need to do as it makes organisations achieve their goals. I believe that working as a team makes a job or project easier as each individual has their own strength and ideas that if shared an organisation may be successful (Interview Number 24).

It’s I guess it says something about a shared vision, that’s what it would mean to me. I think that if you are a leader that you have some kind of vision that/s what I would differentiate between a leader and a manager of something that would be some kind of vision and a shared leadership is everybody agreeing on what that vision is and working towards that (Interview Number 1).

Shared leadership is the involvement of more than one person in the influencing, motivating and decision-making process (Interview Number 30).

The element of communication and having different ideas featured in some of the participants’ views of shared leadership. Effective communication is perceived as a key component of shared leadership. An organisation with a well-developed system of communication is perceived to have an effective leadership. This enables people within the organisation to work in partnership. Team work is more effective were the channels of communication are clear. Communication was also one of the key aspects of leadership at
Phase 1. Interview Number 29, Interview Number 28 and Interview Number 27 below give their supposition of shared leadership:

Shared leadership reflects a system of leadership where there is communication, partnership and teamwork (Interview Number 29).

I think shared leadership is communicating, compromising, understanding and cooperating (Interview Number 28).

Shared leadership is vital because with different ideas and the organisation may prosper (Interview Number 27).

Shared leadership was also linked to learning and development. This is reflected in the quotes by Interview Number 26 and Interview Number 25. Peer learning is reflected in the quotes and was considered to be a crucial element of shared leadership. Peer learning is associated with action learning as learners can try out new tasks. On the other hand, self-development is also regarded as an important ingredient of shared leadership. This is related to the theme of self-leadership that is based on the acknowledgement of being a leader.

Shared leadership is very good as it makes us learn through each other and be there for each other when we are down and low (Interview Number 26).

Shared leadership is very important for self-development and the development of others. We can always learn something new or change an approach if another way works better. Shared leadership only works when one is receptive to listening and open to new ideas and ways of learning (Interview Number 25).

It was also felt that shared leadership was the process of making decisions and solving problems jointly in an organisation. Taking responsibilities and handling problems as a group are important ingredients of shared leadership as indicated in Phase 2 of the research. It is reflected that shared leadership is not only about making group decisions but it is also about taking group responsibilities and being able to solve problems as a group. This requires the individuals within the group to have certain skills and abilities that could emanate from continuous personnel development and action learning.

Shared leadership involves those in a position of leadership to pool their skills and abilities together for the good of the organisation. It also involves consultation, joint decision making and problem solving. It involves reaching a
consensus, but also recognising that not everyone will agree in a decision. It is also important to agree to disagree. To some extent it could be compromising. But it is important because it is about being a critical friend, having humility and being generous (Interview Number 23).

Shared leadership, I think it’s about everyone in an organisation, helping each other basically to come up with a natural decision in the end, a final decision. It involves valuing everyone’s opinions as well (Interview Number 17).

If you’re having a partnership there is need for shared leadership. Also within the board of trustees, you have people who have been picked up to lead that there is, as I say, a Chair. And the chair is not an executive chair so there must be input. He has a focus and then if there is something that he has seen, and he wants to make a case for it’s his onus to make sure that he brings the board along with him so that they know the direction that he is going (Interview Number 22).

The sense of togetherness was very common in the construction of the notion of shared leadership by the participants. It was viewed that the process of leadership is more effective when more than one person is involved in the process. Basically, two or more heads are better than one. Moreover, the following quotes suggest that it is vital to share information and knowledge within organisations.

Shared leadership is basically what we are doing in {Name of organisation}. What we say in my country, we say that if the Chief Officer of a police station suddenly collapses, you cannot close the police station, because once it goes down people will try and go and commit crime. The other ones that have been there, they must step up and everybody knows what’s happening in the organisation. So I consider myself as a very generous individual. I don’t keep information to myself (Interview Number 21).

Shared Leadership, I mean is quite an – I’m not sure if I am going to… it’s not like there is a yes or no answer…yes or correct…. But a shared leadership, for an organisation to run, it’s not run by a Chairman only or if it is in the private sector but whoever is Chief executive but when everyone within the organisation, including service users and there is an input from everyone, especially within the leadership and everyone accepts seriously what someone contributes I think to me, that is shared leadership. It is about taking everything on board from everyone who is within an organisation (Interview Number 20).
In my head, you know, I would think it would be about probably all departments working together and making sure that everyone else from top to ground is involved (Interview Number 12).

I think of it as being where... I don’t know, I don’t know. I’m not sure whether you mean equal shared leadership or a leadership … It’s important to have a leader, a single leader but then I think there should be perhaps, depends on the size of the organisation, but I think we have a size that ideally there would actually be – we have got people in charge of the playside, we have got people in charge of the adults, we have got people in charge of volunteering and so on. So I think the structure is there erm…that’s my idea of what shared leadership should be (Interview Number 9).

More than one person or various stakeholders can all come together to drive an organisation and take it forward and lead it so there would not be one top down approach there would be lots of stakeholders involved (Interview Number 6).

There was also this idea that we are all leaders. Other people regard themselves as leaders due to their expertise and knowledge. This consolidates Phase 2 findings that suggested that some volunteers and employees regard themselves as leaders. Shared leadership was viewed as a process that could encourage innovation and creativity. This is premised on the notion that people within the organisation will feel more valued when their ideas and suggestions are taken on board. Again these findings are similar to that of Phase 1. Moreover, people will also increase their loyalty to the organisation if ‘high level activities’ are delegated to them. The delegation process should be clear and concise as suggested during Phase 1. Interview Number 3 brings in proactivity and creativity in the view of shared leadership:

It seems like it means- firstly, it would have been really interesting by saying what is the definition of leadership here. So I think I started this interview by saying, to you for me we are all leaders, as I think that it’s a personal responsibility to be a leader and to be pro-active, for me to be a leader is to be pro-active and to finding creative solutions for problems, and creatively delegating work and making sure that work is delegated in the way that really works for people- we don’t all have the same strengths and weaknesses, so I think leaders in each teams are essential in spotting where the strengths and weaknesses are, but that’s just in a nutshell, but shared leadership- sort of the top definition of leadership as in- top leadership that is under, the job description of our executive directors and directors can be shared indeed to lower level directors and managers. This shared leadership is I guess essential as leadership is for me needed in as many levels in the organisation as possible
therefore people should- in order to fill in power, to make decisions and feel like they can really make an impact (Interview Number 3).

The conceptualisation of shared leadership by various stakeholders is therefore based on the notion that everyone in an organisation is a leader. It is about involving people in the decision making and ensuring that the purpose or objectives of the organisation are achieved as a team. Shared leadership is recognising that other people have something to offer within the leadership process. It is also not only about making decisions but also taking responsibilities and handling problems as a group. This requires continuous personnel development, peer learning and action learning.

6.4.3 Differentiation & Integration of Shared Leadership

It was found that ‘shared leadership’ is diverse in nature. The interactions and experiences that participants shared were different. However, there were some similarities regarding the experience of leadership within departments or functions (this is what I termed ‘Differentiation of Shared leadership’). This was predominately common in large organisations that were underpinned by the ‘business-like’ ethos. On the other hand, it was found that leadership could be shared within the whole organisation (I called this ‘Integration of Shared leadership’). This was more frequent from small voluntary organisations that depended hugely on volunteers for their survival and these organisations could be referred to as ‘volunteer centred agencies’. Within this dimension it emerged that other people are leaders in there on right due to their expertise within the organisation. Terms such as expert, creative and innovation emanated within this sphere. Below are some of the quotes:

Yeah so it it’s quite I’m given quite a lot of freedom in terms of what music therapy can provide to the clients and I think that in terms of the director here sees it as myself and the other music therapists to being an expert in that kind of field and will be able to talk directly to people and other agencies about what it can offer so quite often when we do have a music therapy referral it is pointed in the direction of myself or my colleagues in terms of what will be the best case to do here so in that way you know it’s a very communicative relationship where it’s back and forwards (Interview Number 1).

From Interview Number 1’s comment it could be deduced that the respondent’s expertise in the organisation as a music therapist provides an opportunity for taking part in the leadership of the organisation. The notion of being an expert in the extract has the connotations that the
respondent has the autonomy on what music therapy can provide to the clients of the organisations rather than the designated leader of the organisation. This is also reflected in the description given by Interview Number 2 who refers to the point of specialisation within an organisation:

I think then within that structure leaders within that, I do think that you sometimes then come across individuals who take lead in certain areas so in my team as for example there is one person who is specializing in a certain policy area and she is emerging as a lead thinker in that area [of] policy and academics so she is got, so have people who develop certain expertise who also become leaders in their own right (Interview Number 2).

It was also interesting to note that other characteristics of shared leadership emerged from the data apart from those that were earlier identified in the theoretical framework. Respect, transparency, focus, values, goals, knowledge, skills etc. were some of the mentioned characteristics as highlighted in the following extracts:

I have been asked to audit internal and external services because of my approach to methodical and unbiased. I have been asked to projected manage set up of a service and a closure of a service. I consider myself a leader as I am well respected within my organisation, as I have acquired enough skills and knowledge to share, but also be open minded to learn from others (Interview Number 27).

Interview Number 27’s experience is similar to that given by Interview Number 1 however, Interview Number 27 goes further than being an expert but mentions some of the attributes such as respect, skills and knowledge that have led to being a leader in the organisation. The exposition ties in with the extract below where Interview Number 22 shares the imperatives of leadership as being transparency, direction, focus, people and agenda:

When there is transparency and people know there is a direction, they know there is a focus, there’s an agenda, you have a set values that you adhere to, you have a set of policies that are put in place, you have volunteers, members of your board, or the membership. Once these things are outlined so that everybody is aware and there is no conflict and also we have a conflict resolution clause (Interview Number 22).

So I think one of the success here that I’ve seen in the comparison to the small NGO I used to work with, where leadership was kept at the top and the others
were told what to do and were very much micromanaged, were very much
disempowered, were very unhappy kept on leaving, high turnover, here there
is a high level of realization that people need to feel empowered and need to be
recognized, recognition from salary to- there’s no employee of the month
scheme here but there are various other ways people feel they can get out of
working really well, we have field trips- people who work for a long time get
to go to the field and see their work first hand so I think the shared leadership
is something which is very present here- from what I understand of it
(Interview Number 3).

There was evidence to suggest that shared leadership resides at different levels within
organisations. In large organisations that participated in the interviews it was found that
shared leadership is practised at a team level. Teams are given the mandate to lead one
another without a designated leader. On the other hand, in smaller organisations it depended
on the sole leader of the organisation to distribute the responsibility of leadership to other
stakeholders. In small organisations everyone could be involved in the process of leadership
but the designated leader takes the overall control of the organisation.

6.4.4 Stakeholder Involvement and Participation

It was discovered that the stakeholders in the sample (employees, trustees and volunteers) had
varied experiences when it comes to leadership. However, it was found that others were just
consulted and were not fully involved in the leadership of the organisations. The findings are
in line with those of Phase 2 that indicated that more stakeholders are consulted than being
actively involved in the dimensions of shared leadership. I considered ‘involvement’
(consulted) as the lower level of shared leadership and ‘participation’ (actively involved) as
the high level of shared leadership. This could be termed ‘Stakeholder Involvement’ and
‘Stakeholder Participation’ respectively. This is evidenced by Interview Number 30:

I felt that, charging parents an entry fee in order to provide them with a cup of
tea and biscuits would exclude some families from accessing services at the
children centre… I was consulted about the provision of parenting courses to
service users, teenage parenting classes… I felt that, despite the consultation
the decision had already been made (Interview Number 30)

From Interview Number 30 point of view the consultation did not mean anything in that the
decision was already made by the leaders of the organisation. In the sample, there were some
instances of involving people in decision-making but the people did not participate fully in
Leadership to me is having clear goals, aims and objectives and ensure that as a team we work collectively together. Leadership must allow room for flexibility when needed, but at the same time be clear and consistent in one’s approach. Leadership involves participation from the team and the service users you are providing the service too (Interview Number 27).

There were also variations in involvement and participation among stakeholders. The employees were more likely to take part in high level activities than volunteers. Moreover, trustees were more likely to take part in high level activities than employees or volunteers.

### 6.4.5 Voluntarism

It was found that the role of the stakeholder within the organisations played an important role when it came to the issues pertaining to leadership. Some participants had within their job description the duty of leading others while other participants did not have any mandate to lead. Interestingly, it emerged that some of those who did not have a mandate to lead considered themselves as leaders of the organisation. They mainly volunteered to lead others. On the other hand, others resisted to take up the responsibility of leadership. There were some participants who felt that they were just instructed in some instances. This brought about the terms of ‘voluntarism’, ‘unwillingness’ and ‘cooperation’. The following extracts represent this view:

> At times, I feel I am volunteering because you really go beyond the job description. We need to look at things this way, like when you are sort of educating them about the environment, sometimes you say… why am I educating them, everyone is [I] how things are being done around us but people are refusing to do things as they are supposed to be done. Or they could be doing things properly in their own organisation but when it comes to the network, it is a different situation so you need to volunteer to go out of your way, you say this is how we need to play the game if we are to grow, remain relevant and continue being attractive to funders, this is how we need to do it (Interview Number 15).

The respondent’s experience is that of volunteering and going beyond the written contract. This experience was common among respondents as Interview Number 9 elaborates:
I think I volunteer. I have the advantage of being probably the oldest member of staff here and also the fact that I am an outside person, I don’t have to worry about what anybody thinks of me. I don’t – I can be given the sack tomorrow…so I think I have a sort of …. Just that experience makes it easier for me, I don’t have a problem, and also the director she is very much the one in charge. She’s also very approachable (Interview Number 9).

Interview Number 9 talks of experience as being vital as a source of knowledge within an organisation. This inspires the person to volunteer ideas without worrying much about being sacked. Despite volunteering to take part in the leadership of the organisation, the respondent is aware that the designated leader is always in charge. This is also echoed by Interview Number 17 who sometimes takes responsibility of the running of a charity shop despite being just a volunteer:

Because she leave me to sometimes take responsibility on the shop floor while she was up dealing with the deliveries for hours because there’s a lot of stuff that comes from companies, clothes from actual people, they need tagging and pricing. So she left me on the whole shop floor to just serve people and stuff so in a way I am leading (Interview Number 17).

Interview Number 17’s experience is totally different to that of Interview Number 16 who is a trustee and thinks that being part of the board was a consequence of being part of the Black Minority Ethnic (BME) community. The respondent shares the experience of making recommendations to the board regarding the lack of BME members on the board and patient involvement:

The board I sit on for example is very much lacking in terms of BME communities – diversity, so one of the things I was consulted on is why - I mean they are already very good and have recognised the fact that we are actually quite imbalanced when it comes to diversity so they have involved me in asking why that might be the case and if there were any recommendations that I could make to be able to encourage the people from the BME communities to get involved. So that was one thing. And the other thing also is – there was quite a lot of research being done on patient involvement around home testing kits and that was another aspect where I got quite involved in doing it (Interview Number 16).

The views of stakeholders were diverse due to their positions in the organisation and their relationships with other stakeholders. It was a general feeling that people go beyond their job description in ensuring that the objectives of the organisation are achieved. It was interesting
therefore to find out that even those in paid positions do volunteer their expertise in one way or another.

6.4.6 The Supported and the Neglected

The relationships between formal leaders and the participants presented a complex picture. This was influenced by expectations from both parties. In most of the cases the relationship was good. Some participants felt that they were fully supported. In contrast, others expressed concerns regarding the relationships with the perceived leaders.

It’s really… well, like at the beginning I was a service user myself because I was using the service and one of the person that works there kind of saw me… we would really like you to join… why don’t you come and volunteer on your days off, like kind of help other people who are going through the same thing as you. As I said that’s fine. They made me feel really welcome and made me feel like they boosted my confidence, then it helped me in different kind of ways because I was helping people and I didn’t even notice that helping them kind of helped me so. So they are my backbone they really helped (Interview Number 14).

It’s a very good relationship because when there are issues, if they are raised they are taken to the management committee in a transparent way and they always get addressed. So I can say it’s a good relationship. Each time something is raised you always get a response or you always get an answer. So I can fairly say, I don’t know, maybe that it’s a small organisation, that’s why it works. If it was bigger then it would be a different story altogether (Interview Number 13).

The research found that the majority of the stakeholders were supported in the process of leadership and that their relationship with designated leaders was good. A supported structure encourages people to work hard and feel valued within the organisation. This could have a positive impact on the confidence and motivation of stakeholders as highlighted by Interview Number 14 and 13. However, there was evidence that suggested that other stakeholders are ignored or neglected in terms of their involvement or participation in the leadership process. This is highlighted in the quote below by Interview Number 1.

I always think well from the director here that they are they do take my decisions and ideas they’re listened to and the influence about within the music therapy but not always. For example I’ll give you an example, we’re working with a client today and I had been working for them with a little while
just trying to do an assessment and I said to the director look I really don’t think this person is ready for music therapy at the moment but the director was quite keen that we persevere and try to offer some kind of the service (Interview Number 1).

I advised the organisation that charging parents £2 for attending classes would exclude poor parents from bringing their children to the centre. The final decision was that parents on low incomes would be excluded from paying £2 each time they attended. I felt that some parents from poor backgrounds will not attend the children centre for fear of being labelled scroungers. I felt that, despite the consultation the decision had already been made (Interview Number 30). Effective leadership is being able to listen and act on the advice or feedback. This action for many leaders makes them to realise that it is important to take on board other people’s opinions. It usually results in frustration when people’s suggestions are not considered as reflected in Interview Number 30 above. Effective leadership is being able to lead or direct people in a way that they feel valued. A leader needs to be fair in treating others and also in making decisions. A good leader needs to be able to have the qualities of being able to listen and then being able to be empathetic.

6.4.7 Outcomes/Benefits/Drivers of Shared Leadership

The majority of participants expressed that shared leadership could be important for the organisation but it is vital to have one ultimate leader (designated leader). The benefits or outcomes of shared leadership revolved around the organisation and the individual.

I think the driver would be creative to set trends, to try and find innovation because you have multiple thinking and you got vision coming from a range of places…. people driving the work forward coming from different directions (Interview Number 2)

There was a shared opinion of creativity and innovation as illustrated by Interview Number 2 above. However, others thought it was important to create an understanding of the roles of the people involved in the leadership. This is related to having an environment or organisational culture that is premised on togetherness. The majority of stakeholders felt that being involved for example in decision making brings satisfaction in the job or volunteering opportunity. In particular, Interview Number 1 mentioned that the outcome for the individual is feeling valuable and recognised:
Well I think it’s very helpful to have an understanding of what the other person does and clear idea of other peoples roles, clarity of roles, where the limitations occur between each person what they can offer and what they can’t offer, that’s very important and also they need to feel that they are contributing in some way and recognised in some way for what they bring to things and if it’s shared then I imagine that you would want to feel as valuable and recognised as the other person and seeing the person’s role or there is, it’s not such a hierarchy, I guess shared leadership, obviously within every organisation there is a hierarchy but within shared leadership there would be less. I don’t know it’s a difficult (Interview Number 1).

Interview Number 10 gives an account of being supported during the process of leadership in terms of feedback. Interview Number 14 brings in the idea of helping each other while Interview Number 16 shares the experience of being pleased.

The benefits – you’ve always go someone that’s supporting you and you could always continually kind of share those ideas and somebody can give you initial feedback – no, that’s not a good idea, that is a good idea. And just having that person behind you to really support your idea and as a shared leader, you really should be behind your idea, no matter what anyway (Interview Number 10).

I think you have to have some kind of good communication and kind or to know the weakness and the strength of each other so it’s like somebody who is lacking in computer writing or you can help then or if somebody is good at talking, you can be the one that’s sitting down and…. that kind of thing…. Kind of help each other and boost each other up in a good way (Interview Number 14).

I think where people share common values like where we say we need to perform, everyone should work to his ability. The trust that has been put before us it needs each other’s contribution. Teamwork is part of the values that must be for shared leadership and also the fact that those who are being delegated authority will take it as form of apprenticeship whereby in future they may takeover so by doing the work, whereby the ultimate credit will go to the leader they may take it as a training ground for their own future positions (Interview Number 15).

Quite pleased actually because it then made me feel like whatever contribution I had to make was actually quite relevant and it was quite important so for me it made me feel involved and sort of necessary that I was there, so yeah, it
made me feel quite pleased so I was quite happy with that (Interview Number 16).

It was found that shared leadership has a positive impact of the performance of stakeholders. This was mainly attributed to being valued and being part of the organisation. Likewise, shared leadership was found to have a positive effect on the motivation of the stakeholders this had a great impact on the achievement of the organisation’s objectives.

6.4.8 Limitations/Drawbacks/Inhibitors of Shared Leadership

Some participants were sceptical about the notion of shared leadership. Time, resources and behaviour of leaders were some of the common factors that prevent the enactment of shared leadership. These factors were similar to those that inhibit delegation as revealed at Phase 1.

I think it might be quite difficult though because I think people always have their different agendas so in terms of matching those agenda’s and really going forward together could be quite difficult. But at the same time you’ve got somebody who is also kind of with you fighting at the same… and leading your team together, but I think it has its problems as well just as leading on your own can have its problems (Interview Number 11).

It can be seen that the concerns given by Interview Number 11 are around having different agendas within the leadership team or group. This could lead an organisation into crisis as there will be lack of common purpose and the organisation could likely fail in the achievement of its objectives. The supposition of having different agendas is also attributed to leadership being conceptualised as different from management. This is further expanded by Interview Number 2:

I think and also limitations could be that leadership is different from management. If leadership is not actually being managed, I mean being too democratic, decision making could become difficult. With shared leadership how do you then balance it out. I think they could be limitations around being too democratic or not decisive (Interview Number 2).

Interview Number 2 emphasises the point of striking a balance between being too democratic and being autocratic. It seems there is a feeling that shared leadership in this sense makes things difficult. This is similar with the view presented by Interview Number 11:
With shared leadership you have to continually be with somebody else on their vision and really see things together and when you can’t see something together, that could be quite difficult because you still need to lead your team and if the two leaders are not on the same page, I don’t know where your team is going to be because they are going to be very confused. You have to continually consult somebody else before you do anything and whereas on your own you can just kind of have that idea of really go for it (Interview Number 11).

Interview Number 4 gave a comprehensive account of some of the limitations of shared leadership as being time and resources. The concerns are premised of the scarce resources within voluntary organisations. There has been a huge shift from grant allocation to contract management. The majority of voluntary organisations do not have adequate resources to compete for tendering of services. Hence they are more worried about the time and resources than leadership and the evaluation of services.

I think it’s limited to time and resources and money coming down to it. Having to set up that, to do it efficiently requires a lot time, evaluation also requires a lot of time, it requires taking in information and processing it and turning it into something worth profit and all of that requires resources. Third sector organisations are severely strapped of resources. At a time when contracts for third sector organisations only give them money and only give them resources to do the job they do with no evaluation with no real communication you know the money is given to provide the service and that is it and organisations would not be able to survive. Organisations cannot simply just provide a service and expect for them to continue working, they can’t do that but that is the limitation we are working at the moment that councils and commissioners are only willing to pay for the service and do not recognize the resource requirement, for an organisation to evaluate its services at the same time and to be able to change them and to be able to put them into shared leadership and that is a really big difficult and limitation (Interview Number 4).

The points raised by Interview Number 4 are very important for the third sector organisations. However, it could be that shared leadership could play an important role in the mobilisation of the required resources. The ethos of togetherness could encourage leaders to acknowledge the available skills and experience to drive the organisation through this transition of tendering for services. Moreover, having a collective consensus about the future of the organisation could have a positive impact on the organisation.
6.4.9 Self-Leadership

The research has found out that there are variations in the way stakeholders consider themselves as leaders. It was expected that those tasked with leadership will automatically consider themselves as leaders. However, there were a few individuals who did not consider themselves as leaders. This finding of the in-depth interviews at Phase 3 of the research confirms the findings of the survey at Phase 2 of the research. Variable 10 in the survey was about self-leadership and there were a number of people who did not regard themselves as leaders. The in-depth interviews were aimed at trying to find out the reasons behind these variations.

Interview Number 23’s excerpt below is about being involved in high level activities as a leader. The decisions are taken seriously because of the position in the organisation. It can be concluded that self-leadership in this example is about being involved in decision-making at a senior level.

I believe my involvement is at a senior level. Because my decisions and suggestions are taken seriously I strongly consider myself as a leader. I am also consulted around decisions governing important work within the organisation. I am meaningfully involved. I also believe I make a real contribution in the leadership of the organisation (Interview Number 23).

Interview Number 17 shares the experience of being involved in low level activities. Despite this the interviewee still considers herself as being a leader.

In a way yeah I would say I am sort of…Because she leave me to sometimes take responsibility on the shop floor while she was up dealing with the deliveries for hours because there’s a lot of stuff that comes from companies, clothes from actual people, they need tagging and pricing. So she left me on the whole shop floor to just serve people and stuff so in a way I am leading (Interview Number 17).

The quote from Interview Number 20 below confirms the variations in the views of the stakeholders. Self-leadership is conceptualised differently by various stakeholders due to a number of factors.

Yes I said, I mean everyone has got something. People anyway by nature, biologically we are different and the way we think, the way we act we influence things in a different way so I believe just because I am a unique
individual, I should have influence. I should have played a role in my organisation, yes consider myself as a leader (Interview Number 20).

Interview Number 14 was not sure initially as evidenced by the excerpt below. However, by reviewing the roles and relationships and then reflecting on the experience Interview Number 14 realised that she was actually a leader.

Yeah I am actually. To think about it, I am…Probably… Because at the beginning I didn’t really see my role at that, I kind of threw myself into volunteering because I needed the experience and all of that but actually I learnt so much from volunteering from both of the organisations and from meeting people and making so many better relationships with people, I am kind of like helping other people and seeing somebody’s else’s potential – like they do not see it themselves but you kind of like boost them. It helps them but at the same time, it helps you because you feel like you’ve done something good to the community. I’ve done this – you can see somebody come back and they have that bright smile and they are happy to speak to you, this happened I did this, I went to college – you gave me confidence for me to do this and all of that. So, I am kind of a leader (Interview Number 14).

Interview Number 30 and Interview Number 29 base their experience of being leaders on being involved in decision-making. This confirms that decision-making is perceived as an important dimension of leadership and when multiple stakeholders are involved; this could be referred to as shared leadership. Therefore, self-leadership is an important concept in the supposition of shared leadership.

I consider myself as a leader in the organisation because I have managed to influence the decision making process in some ways (Interview Number 30).

Yes, I was involved in most of the decision-making in the team and I was present for every step of the way (Interview Number 29).

Interview Number 28, Interview Number 27, Interview Number 25 and Interview Number 24 consider themselves as leaders based on the qualities they possess and how these qualities impact on others. It is very important to consider qualities in being a leader as these qualities plays a crucial role in the behaviour of leaders.

Yes, I am decisive, considerate work within given standards and communicative (Interview Number 28).
Yes, the people, clients I support get inspiration from me as a result of this I consider myself as a leader within the organisation (Interview Number 27).

I consider myself a leader as I am well respected within my organisation, as I have acquired enough skills and knowledge to share, but also be open minded to learn from others (Interview Number 25).

I listen, share, work as a team player. I am always available to help and always want to make sure that we meet the vision of the organisation (Interview Number 24).

Interview Number 18 shares the experience as a trustee and the decision-making process emanating from the meetings. It is clear from the statement below that the decisions are made as a group. Consequently, Interview Number 18 feels confident to be part of the leadership of the organisation despite being a trustee.

Yes of course because when we are meeting we have every three months meeting, committee meeting, we have trustee meeting we decide what the organisation is doing and where it is going and any decisions we want to make or do. We agree together as a committee (Interview Number 18).

The conceptualisation of being a leader in the organisation is a vital one as it provides the evidence that there are several leaders within an organisation. Moreover, the evidence suggests that several people take part in the process of leadership. Therefore, leadership is not a sole responsibility of an individual. Leadership is distributed among members of the organisation depending on what they can offer and also depending on their position. Self-leadership confirms the existence of having several leaders and that of shared leadership.

6.5 Summary

Chapter 6 has presented the findings of the three phases of the research extensively. Firstly, the findings of Phase 1 that were facilitated by semi-structured interviews have been outlined. The findings of the Phase 1 have suggested that leadership is not only the process and activity of the CEO but encompasses the environment and other people. For example, innovation is crucial for some organisations to achieve the ‘business-like’ agenda. The findings of Phase 1 also suggest that leadership is a complicated process that has numerous meanings. Organisational culture was identified as one of the major elements that impacts on the process of leadership.
Secondly, chapter 6 has presented the findings of Phase 2 of the research that were based on a survey. The survey illustrates the complex nature of shared leadership taking in consideration of a number of variables. The concept of leadership participation in voluntary organisations is problematic because of the complex and dynamic nature of the sector. In part this is because leadership is hugely perceived as a function of those in formal positions. The findings of Phase 2 illuminate interpretations of stakeholders who have different roles and responsibilities. The findings of Phase 2 indicate that the functions of leadership are highly shared in voluntary organisations. However, this greatly depends on the type of the stakeholder as sample characteristics showed statistically significant differences between employees and volunteers.

Thirdly, the findings of Phase 3 have been outlined and were made possible by the implementation of in-depth interviews. The results of the Phase 3 stage of the research suggest that the concept of shared leadership is indeed a complicated one. This is attributed to the way people construct the notion of leadership in the first place. In this case there are aspects of organisational activities that others regard as leadership. This may not be consistent with the way theorists define the concept but it is important for future research because the experiences and interactions of people bring about new phenomena. It was also a general consensus that a designated leader is always needed in organisations. The next chapter discusses the findings of the research in relation to the literature review.
Chapter 7: Discussion and Conclusions

7.1 Introduction

This section of the thesis is concerned with integrating the empirical and theoretical findings of the research project. The chapter attempts to connect the findings of the semi-structured interviews, survey and in-depth interviews to the literature review. It goes on to highlight the contribution to knowledge and outlines the implications for future research. This is followed up by a conclusion to summarise the research project focusing on key areas.

It has to be emphasised that this research highlights how the process of leadership and that of shared leadership is perceived by stakeholders who participated. This may not be the general view of the people working in voluntary organisations but the findings of the research offer new paradigms that are important for research as well as practice. The research has found that the level of shared leadership in the organisations represented in the sample was high. However, the research revealed that there are variations in the engagement of stakeholders in the leadership process. Other stakeholders are more likely to take part in the leadership process than others. This is mainly attributed to their position or status in the organisation. It was also found that the majority of stakeholders are mainly consulted than being actively involved in the process of leadership. Moreover, others were more likely to be involved in high level activities while others were only involved in low level activities. The research has also found that shared leadership could increase motivation and improve performance and could also result in high job satisfaction.

The research has also found that the identity of the voluntary sector is unique though Macmillan (2013) calls for ‘distinction strategies’ or treating the sector as a ‘strategic unity’ to unpack the unique value that could be compared to other entities. The research has unpacked the concept of shared leadership within voluntary organisations and has identified the uniqueness of involving volunteers and trustees in the leadership process. These findings reflect some distinctiveness of voluntary organisations based on factors such as volunteering, governance and values. However, there is no clear distinction in the way voluntary organisations are led compared to those from the private and public sectors. What is interesting though is the involvement of volunteers and trustees in voluntary organisations compared to the private and public sectors where the involvement focuses on employees. Hence HRM, organisational behaviour and other business and management fields have
developed models mainly based on employees. This research is thus a departure from the focus on employees.

The following key points on the meaning of leadership, meaning of shared leadership, environment, organisational flexibility, power, delegation, organisational culture and the conceptualisation of leaders is based on the involvement of employees, volunteers and trustees (stakeholders). These themes summarise the research findings outlined in Chapter 6.

7.2 Interpretations of Research Findings
7.2.1 Meaning of Leadership

The findings of this research study suggest that leadership is a complicated process that has numerous meanings. The meanings are enshrined in the constructions of the people and these edifices are influenced by many factors. In this case a decisional function is frequently associated to the meaning of leadership. This is resonated by Cyert (1990) who identified three functions of leadership as being organisational, interpersonal and decisional. In addition, apart from the functions of leadership, the vision in organisations is constantly being modified and reshaped and the process for generating this vision is through the interactions of people within the organisation. For example, the majority of stakeholders who participated in the in-depth interviews expressed the importance of being involved in the decision making process and this could be attributed to a variety of factors. For instance, poor decisions could have significant effects for the organisation and the individual hence the stakeholders felt that it was important for them to be involved in the decision making process.

The concept of leadership is viewed different by some of the stakeholders though the definitions which most of the stakeholders gave were similar to those reviewed in the literature. It was evident from the research that leadership involves a level of influence. This is in line with Daft et al (2010) conceptualisation of leadership based on influence and in particular on Yukl (1989)’s definition cited in Carson et al (2007: 1218) as ‘influencing processes involving determination of the group’s or organisation’s objectives, motivating task behaviour in pursuit of these objectives, and influencing group maintenance and culture’. What was different though was that the ‘influencing process’ is not only for designated leaders. However, the research revealed and confirmed the assertions that the concept of leadership is indeed an intricate phenomenon.
The research has shown how complicated the leadership process is and how difficult it is to identify the activities or functions that qualify to be grouped under the concept of leadership. For example, the findings of the research indicate that there is a blur distinction between leadership and management. Cyert (1990: 33) asserts that ‘every leader must perform some managerial functions, even though every manager cannot take a leadership role’. However, this research has also revealed that you do not need to be a manager to be a leader. This has been evidenced in the stakeholders’ conception of leadership were some volunteers have regarded themselves as leaders. It is also interesting to note that some of stakeholders in the sample expressed their involvement in the leadership process in a unique way. For example, majority of stakeholders regard being involved in setting up new services as part of the leadership process. This confirms the assumptions that leadership could involve ‘mundane activities’ (Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2003).

The variations in the conceptualising of leadership by stakeholders such as volunteers for example could be explained in the way that volunteers could also be employees or trustees in other organisations. The findings by Ho and O'Donohoe (2014) and that of Kreutzer and Jäger (2011) support this assumption as they found out that volunteers’ accounts reflect a sense of multiple possible selves and their organisation’s identity. In particular, Kreutzer and Jäger (2011) show how conflicting dimensions of volunteer identity and managerial identity result in intra-organisational conflict. Moreover, the ‘distance’ between designated leaders and volunteers is a concern.

Indeed, the research has found that leadership is a multifaceted phenomenon. However, what has been fascinating is that stakeholders have different views about the concept. For example, a volunteer’s conceptualisation of leadership could be different from that of an employee or trustee. The findings suggest that leadership could also refer to mundane activities as highlighted by (Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2003) and not only remarkable activities.

The conceptualisation of leadership through its ‘meaning’ has implications for HRD as the research found that the meaning is rooted in the stakeholders’ construction of leadership. The constructions of leadership reflect emotions, projections, success, failure, fears and conflicts among other things. How could we then develop effective leaders to deal with this complex? It is clear from the research that leadership is a social process that is not confined to
personality, skills and competencies of an individual who holds a position as echoed by Trehan and Shelton (2006). The factors in which leadership is viewed are constantly changing resulting in leadership being a dynamic and multifaceted phenomenon. An effective leader will be one who is able to reflect on his/her actions and who has a greater awareness of others. In particular as the research has shown the awareness of other people’s emotions is crucial to being effective. Thus, emotional awareness (Solomon, 2004) is an important factor in the critical leadership development and that of shared leadership. As discussed in the literature review critical leadership development ‘engages managers in a process of drawing from critical perspectives to make connections between their learning and work experience, to understand and change interpersonal and organisation behaviour’ Trehan and Shelton (2007: 293). This is evidenced in the following quote from the interviews:

As a trustee I had to reflect on my position in terms of what does the organisation needs rather than in terms of feelings and people leaving their jobs and what this organisation needs financially and if it were to continue, knowing full well that you’d be putting the organisation in a bad financial position, so that was a role and a decision we had to make (Interview Number 11).

The trustee used the process of reflection to critically manage the emotions. Thus, critical HRD and psychoanalytic thought could help leaders to engage with the social and moral issues that impact on their practice and that of others as observed by Trehan (2007). From the above excerpt critical leadership brings value in an organisation through the in-depth reflection of practitioners and could foster shared leadership through the process of making group decisions that are well grounded. The trustee and colleagues managed to make group decisions based on the reflections of each person. However, there is need for more research to address the benefits of critical leadership development in relation to shared leadership.

7.2.2 Meaning of Shared Leadership

The research indicated that there were variations in the way the stakeholders viewed the notion of shared leadership. Generally, the conceptions were in line with the available literature. Manz et al (2010) argue that leadership can change at any time depending on expertise, experience and interests. It was therefore interesting to find out that the notion of expert leadership emerged as a popular theme within the category of ‘stakeholder conceptualisation of shared leadership’. Some stakeholders in the sample shared their
experiences of being leaders in the organisations based on their expertise, knowledge and experience. A small number of the stakeholders who took part in the interviews had no idea about the meaning of shared leadership and some did not even hear about it. However, the majority of the stakeholders were familiar with the term and gave their own definitions.

The conceptualisation of shared leadership was mainly characterised by synergies such as ‘collaborative decision-making and shared responsibility for outcomes’ as echoed by Hoch and Dulebohn (2013: 116). The conditions in which shared leadership could thrive were shared by the stakeholders. The research found out that ‘togetherness’ is a key component of the process of sharing leadership. This is in line with Gronn (2000: 322)’s inference that ‘distributed forms may be achieved by any number of modes of allocating the components, but principally by means of togetherness (shared vision, shared values, shared results).

It was also found that shared leadership requires multiple competencies and this was reflected in the expert leadership phenomenon. A multidisciplinary stakeholder approach allows the sharing of knowledge (Obembe, 2010) that is vital for shared leadership to thrive. Moreover, it was found that a well-coordinated and collaborated approach to leadership allows stakeholders to interact freely and this enhances the group dynamics. This is in line with Costas and Taheri (2012) supposition of authentic leadership that opposes traditional authoritarian structures and hierarchical follower-leader relations. However, the research found that there is still a distinction between followers and leaders though this could still allow the philosophy of shared power and shared responsibility.

The research results illustrated the complex nature of shared leadership as it comprises of a number of variables and synergies. The concept of shared leadership in voluntary organisations in particular is problematic because of the complex and dynamic nature of such organisations. In part this is because leadership is hugely perceived as a function of those in formal positions as some stakeholders didn’t regard themselves as leaders due to their position in the organisation. This is in line with Manz et al (2010) who argue that leadership is distributed on a functional, positional and individual basis. The findings of the research illuminate interpretations of stakeholders who have different roles and responsibilities.

The findings of the research also indicate that the functions of leadership are highly shared in voluntary organisations. However, this greatly depends on the type of the stakeholder as
sample characteristics showed statistically significant differences between employees and volunteers. Employees were found to be highly involved in the process of sharing leadership than volunteers. For example, the survey shows that 10 volunteers out of 30 representing 33.3% ‘extremely disagree’ to being regarded as leaders compared to only 15 employees out of 81 representing 18.5%. On the other hand, all trustees who took part in the survey regarded themselves as leaders. However, it is also interesting to note that some volunteers regard themselves as leaders. The similar findings emerged in the in-depth interviews where it was found that employees are more likely to take part in high level activities than volunteers. In addition, trustees were more likely to take part in high level activities than employees or volunteers.

The measurement of the level of shared leadership among stakeholders has broad implications for policy and practice. Volunteers play a crucial role in meeting the need of voluntary organisation and achieving other organisational goals. Trustees on the other hand provide the governance impetus of voluntary agencies and it is expected that they will be fully engaged in the leadership process. On the other hand, the status of being an employee is a complicated one as some will be part of the management team tasked with the leadership responsibilities though some employees in the research refuted the idea of them being leaders.

It is also interesting to note that shared leadership in the project was more of ‘consultative leadership’ than ‘participative leadership’. The majority of participants in the study also preferred to be directly involved than being represented by others. This is reflected in the conceptual framework developed by Guo and Musso (2007) who argue that the nature of representation is indicated by five dimensions: substantive, symbolic, formal, descriptive and participatory representation. They argue that formal, descriptive and participatory representations are different means of achieving substantive and symbolic representation. This has huge implications for both theory and practice in that the majority of participates in the research were willing to take part in the process of leadership. For instance, the research has found that volunteers do take part in the process of shared leadership though the activities are mainly ‘low level’. The low level activities are in line with the ‘mundane activities’ highlighted by Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003). However, what is significant about these low level activities or mundane activities is the reminder that leadership is not always about doing something great as this quote reiterates:
Shared leadership is very important for self-development and the development of others. We can always learn something new or change an approach if another way works better. Shared leadership only works when one is receptive to listening and open to new ideas and ways of learning (Interview Number 24).

From the above quote listening is an important aspect of shared leadership. These findings are similar to Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) conclusions that listening was the most common factor of the mundane activities. Listening is not restricted to high level activities such as decision-making, strategic planning and formulation of the vision of the organisation.

### 7.2.3 Outcomes of Shared Leadership

The perceived outcomes of shared leadership that stakeholders articulated were similar to those reviewed in the literature. For example, the findings suggest that shared leadership makes people ‘happy’ or ‘pleased’ and this has a positive effect on their motivation. Consequently, this makes them to be more committed to the achievement of the organisation’s goals. The results are in line with Wood and Fields (2007) who found that shared leadership reduced the work overload, conflicts and stress. This also echoes the findings by (Pearce, 2004; Pearce and Ensley, 2004; Ensley, Hmieleski and Pearce, 2006) that suggest that shared leadership is a more important predictor of team effectiveness. Moreover, the findings are related to Carson, Tesluk and Marrone (2007) who found that shared leadership has a positive effect on team performance.

One major outcome that emanated in the research is that of satisfaction in the job or volunteering experience. The findings are in line with the ‘elaborated model’ developed by Davis et al (2003) that suggested that volunteer involvement was predicted by satisfaction. Generally the research also found that shared leadership had a favourable impact on job satisfaction. It has been highlighted in the literature that job satisfaction is a highly contested phenomenon. However, despite being a highly contested phenomenon it was interesting to hear positive accounts from the participants regarding their job satisfaction. In this view, job satisfaction could simply be defined as the positive feeling or perception about the work or role. The conceptualisation of job satisfaction in this manner could be subjective hence it varied from one stakeholder to the other. The stakeholders working in an organisation could have different views on job satisfaction despite working in the same environment. In this
research, the process of leadership had an effect on the way the stakeholders felt about their input and treatment in an organisation. How these stakeholders are influenced to perform their task has huge implications on their behaviour and action and ultimately on their job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction could be linked with effective communication. The findings of this research have found that communication is paramount to the implementation of shared leadership in organisations. Similarly, Khasawneh (2011) made a case for shared leadership having an impact on the behaviour of stakeholders. The concept of job satisfaction in the research is linked to reasons why individuals join organisations. The expectations of stakeholders were found to be crucial in the perception of satisfaction. A favourable working environment with well-developed communication systems was found to have a positive effect on the perception of satisfaction. Khasawneh (2011) found that the dimension of communication plays an important role in the determination of the level of shared leadership. Regarding this research a favourable working environment was premised on the principles of togetherness. The principles of togetherness depended on the leadership of the organisation, composition of stakeholders and the support factors as highlighted by Hoch and Dulebohn (2013).

The findings of this research are also similar to that of Bartolo and Furlonger (2000) in that group or team interaction and behaviour of the members of the group is paramount to the success or failure of the group. However, shared leadership has been found to create a sense of belonging as evidenced in the following quote:

> The benefits of shared leadership I would say, are for the majority for people who are working for the organisation or receiving it’s services, the people who are working for the organisation I think they will feel more valued and a sense of belonging and therefore have more morale I also feel like then the strategy will more reflect the human resources side (Interview Number 4).

Thus, the main outcome of shared leadership is the capacity to facilitate the process of collectiveness and extending management development to all stakeholders. Unlike Pearce et al (2013) findings that suggest that engagement of employees is an important tool of empowering employees, this research has gone further than that as it has revealed that stakeholder engagement is more inclusive in the empowerment process than employee engagement.
The research has also found that shared leadership could increase the performance of stakeholders. The excerpt below from the interviews confirms the assertions:

Well that everybody has a commitment to the organisation if they feel they’ve been involved in the decision making processes and if they feel that their voice has been heard instead of just ignored and the will perform better (Interview Number 9).

Conversely, this is in contradiction with the findings by Fausing et al (2013) that found that shared leadership had no effect on team performance. Hence, it confirms that the constructions of stakeholders are crucial in determining the conceptualisation of shared leadership and its outcomes rather than only looking at isolated constructs.

7.2.4 The Environment

The findings of this research have indicated mechanisms through which some dimensions of shared leadership are linked to the environment. The environment in which organisations exist is in constant change. Moreover, the interaction of its people is continually changing hence generating new insights to be considered. The environment was one of the elements that Elliot and Stead (2008) identified in the literature. They identify four inter-related factors that connect leaders to their community and that play a foundational role in their lives as upbringing, environment, focus and networks and alliances. However, the environment stood out as one of the most important factors that affect shared leadership.

Shamir and Howell (1999) also examined leadership in the context of organizational environment, life-cycle stage, technology, tasks, goals, structure and culture as well as the leader’s level in the organization and the circumstances surrounding his or her appointment. They conclusions about the environment in which an organisation operates are similar to the results of this research that reveal the importance of ‘togetherness’. Moreover, in the literature review Currie et al (2009) have demonstrated that the enactment of distributed leadership which is similar to shared leadership depends on the immediate organisational environment. They argue that ‘the enactment of a particular form of leadership is profoundly influenced by institutional pressures operating in an organisational field, including coercive/ regulatory forces, normative forces, and cultural-cognitive forces’ (Currie, 2009:
1741). The environment is therefore intertwined in ‘antecedent conditions’ (Carson et al. 2007: 1229) that enable shared leadership to thrive or to fail. Carson and colleagues found that an organisational environment with a clear and unifying direction that is well communicated and understood with necessary support is able to result into shared leadership.

The findings of this research have also suggested that leadership is not only the process and activity of the CEO but encompasses the environment and other people. This is echoed by Horner (1997: 274) who argues that the person who is in a leadership position is not the only one who is involved in the process, however, ‘the environment this leader creates and how this leader responds to the surroundings, as well as the particular skills and activities of the people being led’. The assertions are also backed up by the work of Carson et al (2007) that found out that if people are well supported through coaching they can participate fully in the leadership process.

The process of shared leadership therefore considers the environment to be a critical element in the development of leaders. McDermott et al (2011) have also argued that leader development is affected by environmental instability. This is where action learning plays an important role as it allows critical reflections. In order to enhance the understanding of the organisational environment, a critical perspective of leadership development and a stakeholder framework offer methods for leaders to systematically reflect on their experiences and actions within and outside the organisational environment. Thus, ‘immediate organisational environment’ (Currie et al. 2011) is essential but also it is beneficial to extend the reflections further than the immediate organisational environment.

7.2.5 Organisational Flexibility

The research findings have highlighted the need for organisations to be flexible to ensure that people participate fully in the leadership process. The findings are similar to that of Manz et al (2010) who found out that people do indeed step forward and lead when they are needed. Moreover, Khasawneh (2011: 623) asserts that ‘institutions in the 21st century require new types of organisational strategies, structures and working relationships that focus on creating flexible, high-performance workplace practices with a high degree of shared leadership’. Indeed, this research has found out that the more flexible an organisation is the more
likelihood for shared leadership to thrive. This is supported by the following quote from the interview transcript:

Leadership must allow room for flexibility when needed, but at the same time be clear and consistent in one’s approach (Interview Number 27).

Central to shared leadership as this research has indicated is the flexibility of the designated leaders. This is in line with Hoch and Duleboln (2013) findings that suggest that the behaviours of leaders could have influence on the perception of self-leadership.

Flexibility was also reflected through the actions of the designated leaders. For example, one organisation that participated in the initial study of this research operated an open policy and embraced everyone in the organisation despite their positions. The chief executive’s office was open to all employees, trustees and volunteers and these stakeholders were involved in the leadership process on a different spectrum. On the other hand, during the final phase of the research that involved in-depth interviews one organisation presented features of inflexibility and stakeholders were less involved in the leadership process.

Flexibility as mentioned in the literature review was one of the HRM goals that were outlined by Guest in 1987, the other goals were integration, employee commitment and quality. However, as highlighted in the literature review the concept of flexibility is mainly conceptualised based on the ‘flexible firm’ model. The implications are that flexibility is mainly viewed in terms of employees as suggested by the ‘flexible firm’ model that John Atkinson developed in 1984. However, the findings of this research have linked shared leadership to ‘mutual flexibility’ (Reilly, 2001) cited in Taylor (2011) as it is more inclusive. Shared leadership could also be described as ‘flexible leadership’ as it is based on the tenets of partnership, stakeholder involvement and participation initiated in most cases by designated leaders.

7.2.6 The Element of Power

The research has found that there is evidence to some extent that power is shared in voluntary organisations that participated in the project. These findings are similar to Ford (2005: 617) who revealed three principles that leaders can use in establishing stakeholder power relations: I) creating the space for new communicative interaction ii) safeguarding a credible and open
process and iii) reclaiming suppressed views. Thus, effective leaders are those who ‘give power to others as a means of increasing their own power’ (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991: 52). However, it was interesting to find that other stakeholders do not share the power to others despite power being shared to them. Phase 2 of the research revealed this by asking participants whether power is shared to them and also if they do share power with others. Questions could be asked about the effectiveness of these stakeholders in terms of leadership as Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991: 52) state that ‘effective leaders do not see power as something that is competed for but rather as something that can be created and distributed to followers without detracting from their own power’. This also consolidated the findings of Phase 1 of the research that explored the concept of delegation and indicated that it is possible to distribute power to others. The findings also are similar to Khasawneh (2011) who found the dimension of power as having the second highest mean in determining the level of shared leadership.

The research also revealed that some stakeholders are more powerful than others Krishnan (2003) hence this has an effect on their involvement in the leadership process. However, it has been noted by Mitchell et al (1997: 864) that ‘power alone does not help us to fully understand salience in the stakeholder-manager relationship’. There remain stakeholders who do not have power, but who nevertheless matter to firms and managers. The findings by Ford (2005) illustrate the three principles that are needed for leaders to establish stakeholder power relations as creating the space for new communicative interaction, safeguarding a credible and open process and reclaiming suppressed views. Therefore, this research has found out that the more power a stakeholder has the more likelihood that they will be involved in high level activities. The quote below is the evidence of some power relations:

I am one person, because I am an introvert I am not found here, there, it does not mean I don’t know what’s going on. I have got an incline into it, however, because of the power that people have given me it’s not my power – I like to see them having fun (Interview Number 21).

Delegation of leadership responsibilities is also a key aspect of sharing power. Therefore, it could be argued that leadership is a relational process that involves the negotiation of power. The research has shown that power relations are significant in the process of shared leadership (Hackett et al. 1999). Despite some stakeholders being more ‘powerful’ than others e.g. chief executives as compared to volunteers or employees the research has found
that less powerful stakeholders are able to find their way of being part of the social process. Consequently, it was evident that power is shared to some stakeholders and this indicated that relational power is a major influence of shared leadership. However, it was also evident that some designated leaders have been poorly prepared for power and responsibility as echoed by Trehan and Shelton (2006). New power relations may be needed in managing a multitude of stakeholders to bring about a greater sense of responsibility. Critical action learning approaches could bring positive changes as they explore underlying power and control issues (Trehan and Redler, 2009). For instance, stakeholder reflexivity could play a vital role for critical leadership development as it gives an opportunity to stakeholders to reflect on their experience, actions and involvement in the social process.

7.2.7 The Delegation Aspect of Leadership

The process of sharing leadership is also enhanced by delegation as this research has found. Delegated leadership was coined by House and Aditya (1997) who argue that it is likely for complex organisations to divide leadership roles among two or more people. However, it was not very clear how this process is achieved in organisations and hence this research study added a different dimension. What became clear in this research project was that delegated leadership is not only for complex organisations but even smaller community groups do believe in delegation. On the other hand, the benefits of delegation were much clearer than the process itself. For example, innovation is crucial for some organisations to achieve the ‘business-like’ agenda that emerged in the research and it was clear that involving people in the leadership process was vital. A ‘business-like’ voluntary organisation could be defined as one that puts emphasis on employees as core personnel in achieving the objectives of the organisation. On the other hand, a ‘volunteer-led’ voluntary organisation is one that puts emphasis on volunteers as core personnel in the attainment of the organisation’s goals. Moreover, a ‘service user led’ voluntary organisation is an organisation that puts the needs of the service users at the core of the organisation’s activities. The research found that all three types of the voluntary organisations engage in some sort of delegation. As mentioned earlier, the research found a relatively high level of shared leadership within these organisations hence to some extent delegation is synonymous with shared leadership. Shared leadership being a post-heroic leadership approach creates an environment in which the subtle personal issues associated with new assignments can be openly discussed (Bradford and Cohen, 1998).
Thus, stakeholders are able to identify both individual and organisational needs that could affect the assignments.

The benefits of delegation could also be linked to embracing diversity. The more different stakeholders take part in organisational activities the more the organisation will gain from innovation. This echoes the study by Pearce and Ensley (2004) that concluded that innovation effectiveness and shared vision are reciprocally related and that shared vision and team dynamics are also reciprocally related, suggesting that shared vision occupies a core role in the team innovation process. Shared vision and values are interconnected with the organisational culture.

7.2.8 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture was also identified as one of the major elements that impacts on the process of leadership. Shared vision and values were found to be the major building blocks of the organisational culture. In particular, the CEO was seen as the main source in the articulation of the vision and values. This is echoed by Steyrer (1998) who identifies that the common core of leadership theories lies in their viewing leadership as the conveyance of values and meaning by means of exemplary action, as well as in the articulation of an inspiring vision.

In addition, the organisation culture that was predominately common in organisations with high levels of shared leadership depicted mostly two dimensions (Respect for people and Team orientation) of organisational culture that were identified by O’Reilly and colleagues in 1991. O’Reilly et al (1991) cited in Liden and Antonakis (2009) developed a model of organisational culture based on Innovation, Respect for people, Aggressiveness and Team orientation. Respect for people is reflected in the way individuals in the organisation are treated with fairness and how values are shared among stakeholders. According to Liden and Antonakis (2009: 1591) Team orientation refers ‘to values that promote collaboration, strong interpersonal relationships, group harmony, and individual sacrifice for the benefit of the team’. These two forms of organisational culture appear to be related to the concept of shared leadership as evidenced in the research. Organisations that had high levels of shared leadership had participants who felt respected and valued and there was evidence of strong interpersonal relationships among stakeholders that brought the feeling of ‘togetherness’.
Togetherness is reflected in the organisational culture that promotes the ethos of shared vision and shared values. This is supported by Erkutlu (2012) who found out that an organizational culture affects the success of shared leadership. A culture that does not embrace togetherness will normally fail to create an atmosphere for shared leadership. Organisational culture is associated with values and in the voluntary sector review chapter it was highlighted that values form the ‘blood’ of voluntary organisations. However, it was surprising to find that not all voluntary organisations have values that are supportive. This brings the assumption by Paton (1996) that the values and commitments of voluntary organisations especially the small and medium-sized ones are more likely to be vague and often open to conflicting interpretation. Therefore, leadership plays an important role as it is viewed as the conveyance of values (Steyrer, 1998) and it is also a factor in the conceptualisation of who are the leaders of the organisation as this research has revealed.

Indeed, the research has found that organisational culture is an important component of shared leadership. It is therefore crucial for designated leaders to create and articulate a culture that enables as Allio (2013: 10) put it ‘individuals to coalesce around the shared purpose of the enterprise’. However, it is important that the designated leaders are aware of the knock on effects of local culture. Trehen and Shelton (2006: 290) argued that a ‘local culture tacitly defines what is on the leadership agenda and may negatively exclude certain topics from conversations’. Thus as this research has found it is helpful for leaders to engage in a reflective process to critically analyse their experience and actions because organisational culture is dynamic in nature.

7.2.9 Conceptualisation of Leaders

It is also important to discuss the perceptions and experiences of stakeholders in the sample towards who they consider as leaders within organisations. The research findings indicated that the leaders of the organisation are the CEO, Senior Management Team and Board of Trustees or Management Committee. This is similar to the findings by Hoye (2006) who found that leadership within the voluntary organisations emanates from either board chairs or executives. This reflects the traditional voluntary organisation that is typically linked to formal hierarchical position. Alexander et al (2001: 160) also cement the assertions that ‘formal positions supplies both legitimate authority and the means by which managers’ and
other executives define the vision of the organisation and influence others within and outside the organisation. However, some stakeholders pointed out that everyone is a leader in the organisation. Different reasons were given for this assumption based on their experiences. What stood out was the need for the development of close relationships between the perceived leaders and the followers. Moreover, it was a general perception that leadership should not only be the role of those in hierarchical positions.

The stakeholders in the sample had different experiences regarding the behaviour of the perceived leaders in the organisation. Qualities and skills of a leader were highlighted. The suggestions did not vary much with what is available in the literature. However, the research find out that the relationships between the stakeholders and the perceived leaders were mixed. Others expressed a good, satisfactory and fair relationship whereas others had concerns. The research findings echoes Buckingham et al (2014) prepositions that several different styles of third sector leadership exist: internal versus external (putting emphasis on internal or external organisational, relationships and influence); ideas versus action (being seen to have strong, creative ideas or delivering action); DIY versus collective (individualism or togetherness) and loud versus quiet (making their presence felt loudly or quietly). Therefore, leader behaviour has an impact on the way stakeholders perceive relationships.

The findings regarding volunteers being less involved in high level activities raises concerns as volunteers rely on motivation as a core reward which emanates from being valued. People volunteer for various reasons however, the literature suggest that the main reasons are associated with social interaction and self-satisfaction (Waikayi et al. 2012). If people are denied this experience they will not stay for a long time. Hence, Haug and Gaskins (2010) research has revealed that cooperation and support are very important factors for retaining volunteers. Moreover, some employees felt that they are not actively involved in decision making. These could affect the perceptions of employees as Steinheider et al (2006) found out that involvement in decision-making can foster employee perceptions of organisational support, organisational commitment, and better labour-management relations.

Despite the willingness of the majority of participates in the leadership process, the research found that volunteers were less likely to get involved in high level activities compared to employees and trustees. The evidence could suggest that there is a division between the stakeholder groupings and how each group is treated could be different. The findings are in
line with Chadwick-Coule (2011) who provided insights into bridging the divide between internal stakeholder groupings in relation to strategic decision making. This could create a problem in that few people could be involved in decision-making. Hence, the approach could leave out some people who could be instrumental to the achievement of the organisation’s goals. Moreover, Freeman (1984: 23) asserts that ‘denial involves not considering stakeholders to be legitimate in the very weak sense of the term: it is legitimate for us to spend time worrying about our strategy for stakeholders because they can affect the accomplishment of our goals and plans’. This creates a challenging environment for leaders where multiple influences are exerted from various stakeholders. However, the findings of this research have emphasised on valuing everyone who is associated with the organisation whether there are trustees, volunteers or employees.

### 7.3 The Model of Shared Leadership

This research has contributed hugely to the shared leadership literature. In this vein, it is imperative to clearly identify the key contributions of this work through a proposed model of shared leadership. It is vital to differentiate how this emerging model of shared leadership is unique among existing ones such as Pearce et al (2013), Pearce and Simms (2000), Ensley et al (2003), Carson et al (2007), Pearce and Conger (2003) and Erkutlu (2012) that are mainly premised on teams and groups rather than the entire organisation at large. It has to be mentioned though that this model is based entirely on the findings of this research and is not a prescription or a panacea of shared leadership. This is because the researcher takes the view that shared leadership principles and processes potentially apply across a wide variety of contexts. However, there are contexts in which they apply more than others.

According to this research project shared leadership could therefore be defined as a process of engaging stakeholders in the leadership activities by acknowledging that everyone has the potential to influence others in the achievement of the organisation’s objectives. If stakeholders are truly engaged in the process of leadership this could lead to improved performance, motivation and job satisfaction as reflected in the research. Moreover, acknowledging that everyone has the potential to influence others is a testimony that the organisation values its people and is willing to develop and enable its people to fully participate in the leadership process.
The research has found that the level of shared leadership in the organisations represented in the sample was high. However, the research revealed that there are variations in the engagement of stakeholders in the leadership process. Other stakeholders are more likely to take part in the leadership process than others. This is mainly attributed to their position or status in the organisation. It was also found that the majority of stakeholders are mainly consulted than being actively involved in the process of leadership. Moreover, others were more likely to be involved in high level activities while others were only involved in low level activities.

The core empirical research question is: Do stakeholders take part in the process of leadership, if so how and if not, why not? This is the starting point for developing the model of shared leadership. Moreover, as the research has revealed shared leadership is in most cases initiated by designated leaders. The more flexible the designated leaders the more likelihood that they will initiate shared leadership. Thus, flexibility plays an important role in the initiation of shared leadership. On the other hand, the other synergies discussed above such as environment, organisational culture and delegation have an impact on the initiation of shared leadership. However, the willingness of stakeholders to take part in the process of leadership is also paramount. According to the research findings it was clear that most of the stakeholders are willing to participate in the process of leadership. The willingness is underpinned by the needs of the individuals as well as that of the organisation. Designated leaders may not want to share leadership for various reasons.

Shared leadership is also premised on shared purpose, shared vision and shared values as highlighted by Manz et al (2010). However, the starting point is to determine whether designated leaders share leadership or not as depicted in Figure 7.1 below.
The shared leadership model shown in Figure 7.1 is grounded on the findings of the research. When the designated leader or leaders share the responsibilities of leadership to others and in this case stakeholders then we have ‘shared leadership’ that is process of engaging stakeholders in the leadership activities by acknowledging that everyone has the potential to influence others in the achievement of the organisation’s objectives. The stakeholders take part in the process of leadership mainly through decision-making, strategic planning, sharing of power, taking responsibilities and handling of problems and in the formulation of the vision of the organisation. This happens through being consulted or being actively involved in the process of leadership. Moreover, some of these processes could be classified as ‘high level activities’ or ‘low level activities’. According to this research, the three main reasons for shared leadership are that 1) it increases performance, 2) it increases motivation and 3) it results in high job satisfaction.

On the other hand, if the designated leader or leaders do not share the responsibilities of leadership then it could be assumed that ‘shared leadership’ does not exist in that setting or it
could exist among a few group of individuals. The research find out that the three main reasons for not sharing the responsibilities of leadership are 1) lack of time, 2) lack of resources and 3) lack of delegation.

7.4 Research Contributions

The primary achievement of this research is its contribution to the understanding of the concept of shared leadership. This research project therefore has made several contributions to shared leadership theory and practice. For example, voluntary organisations rely much on public funding and are expected to be more accountable and this study has found out that shared leadership is one way of ensuring checks and balances as several stakeholders would be involved not only in low level activities such as administration but also in high level activities. This could help to reduce fraudulent activities that have dented some organisations.

My findings are that stakeholders in voluntary organisations do participate in the leadership process. However, the participation is mainly in what I have termed low level activities rather than high level activities that involve superior decision making. This thesis contributes to stakeholder theory and shared leadership by establishing that the involvement of stakeholders in the leadership process increases motivation and improves job satisfaction and performance.

I have also defined shared leadership as a process of engaging stakeholders in the leadership activities by acknowledging that everyone has the potential to influence others in the achievement of the organisation’s objectives.

To my knowledge this is a unique study that has explored the involvement of stakeholders (employees, trustees and volunteers) in the leadership process taking a stakeholder perspective through a pragmatic approach. Thus, the research has not only contributed to the illumination of our understanding of the shared leadership concept but also to that of leadership in general. It has also provided insights on the stakeholder theory and indeed the use of mixed methods in a single research strategy. It makes a methodological contribution by exploring in detail the potential dynamic relationships between stakeholders.

The research findings have also implications for HRM in organisations in that the focus has mainly been on employee engagement rather than on stakeholder engagement. Organisations such as those that belong to the voluntary sector and indeed a few other commercial
companies depend on the services of other stakeholders apart from employees, for instance volunteers and trustees. It is therefore imperative to find ways of engaging these stakeholders and one way that could be effective is by involving them in the leadership process. The findings have also implications for HRD in that the suggestions are inclined to group development as opposed to individual leader development.

Another area of contribution is the conceptualisation of the voluntary sector as a distinctive field in relation to shared leadership. The voluntary sector is emerging as an important partner in the UK economy and it is imperative to develop knowledge of the sector that is empirically grounded. In this view, the research has found that voluntary organisations are unique in the way they engage stakeholders in the leadership process.

In studying leadership processes that involve a variety of stakeholders has provided a deeper understanding of shared leadership and voluntary organisations. This is premised on the role that designated leaders play in the distribution of leadership. Studying shared leadership using the stakeholder framework has facilitated the process of contributing to the critical literature on leadership because it has identified mechanisms that allow the principles of togetherness to prevail. This study has offered a contribution to the shared leadership literature by providing: the definition of shared leadership; identifying the drivers and barriers of shared leadership and the outcomes of shared leadership from the stakeholder perspective. It has also contributed to the knowledge of leadership by developing the shared leadership model. In this project I take the view that shared leadership principles and processes potentially apply across a wide variety of contexts. However, there are contexts in which they apply more than in others.

Shared leadership is worth considering in the voluntary sector as the research has revealed that it could increase job satisfaction, performance and motivation. Moreover, shared leadership could be an important way of enhancing accountability and transparency. In this view, shared leadership has been found to be related to the concept of authentic leadership that is premised on ethical behaviour. Hence, the moral behaviour of leaders has an effect on the behaviour of others. Shared leadership as the research has found encourages ‘togetherness’. I have defined togetherness as a dynamic way of bringing different types of stakeholders to actively participate in organisational processes in order to achieve organisational goals. As the research has shown the organisational processes are complex and
may include decision making, strategic planning, solving problems and other mundane activities. Togetherness is the vehicle for shared leadership as it brings in the factor of collectiveness. Hence, organisations could benefit from shared accountability and responsibility. However, it has to be noted that shared leadership is not a solution to most organisational problems.

Apart from theoretical, conceptual and practical contributions, the research has also contributed to the methodological dimensions. This is also reflected in the new term that I have used during data analysis in Chapter 5. I adopted a process that I called ‘themecodification’ analysis that simply means the formulation of themes from several codes to analyse interviews. This is a novel nomenclature and to my knowledge no one has used this term. The term enhances the understanding of thematic analysis in that it focuses on themes and codes.

7.5 Scope for Future Research

The implications for future research on the concept of shared leadership include the impact on organisational policies for stakeholder management. There is need to balance the organisational agenda and what is best for the stakeholders. Lack of time, lack of resources and lack of delegation have been found to be the main inhibitors of shared leadership and these factors could be further explored in details. However, it remains a huge challenge for organisations to address the inhibitors that exist internally and externally. The research has found that a culture for collaborative leadership has a positive effect on improving better working conditions for stakeholders through the creation of supportive structures. However, the research has also found out that shared leadership is not the panacea of organisational problems. Problems will always be present in organisations but a leadership approach that is inclusive is likely to reduce unnecessary problems. The research calls for more research on the distribution of high level activities in organisations such as that of power taking inconsideration the skills, experiences and expertise of several players.

Future research should also look at the critical leadership development in line with shared leadership. The research has highlighted that the conceptualisation of shared leadership is based on the constructions of stakeholders that are constantly changing. It will be more
helpful to investigate the notion of developing leaders based on emotions. Emotions as highlighted in the literature review are essential to ethics hence they can offer a rich and insightful view of developing leaders through shared leadership. Solomon (2004) showed that emotions are hugely socially constituted in their aims, expressions and nuances. As shared leadership is a relational process the implications are that it is vital to understand the emotional relationships of the stakeholders that are involved in the social process. Indeed, as Kotter (1999:156) has stated ‘the nature of the relationships varies significantly in intensity and in types; some relationships are much stronger than others, some much more personal than others’. The connotations are that the process of shared leadership is unique in different settings. Trehan and Rigg (2011) have outlined the importance of critical HRD as it addresses not only the patterns of inter-relationships but also the context and interests amongst stakeholders. Therefore, future research should advance the knowledge of shared leadership in relation to critical HRD as shared leadership involves a variety of stakeholders.

7.6 Epilogue

The thesis has presented a thorough introduction chapter that has highlighted the objectives of the research. An extensive literature review has been conducted that include the highly contested leadership theory and the focal theory of shared leadership taking a perspective of stakeholder theory. A comprehensive theoretical framework based on the literature review and the research objectives have been presented and illustrated deeply. It has also analysed the context of voluntary organisations in detail through the voluntary sector review chapter. Moreover, the thesis contains a justifiable methodology chapter that has given details on the chosen methodology, methods and data analysis. This chapter has also included the philosophical orientations that underpin the research. The data analysis chapter has explicitly shown how the data collected both qualitative and quantitative was analysed. The rationale for the employed data analysis has also been clearly explained. The findings of the research have been presented in a coherent manner. This has been done in parts to increase comprehension and clarity. The discussion chapter connects the findings of the research to the literature review and the analysis on the voluntary organisations in the UK. Further research has been proposed based on the limitations of this research. The implications for the findings of this research have been extensively discussed and the contribution to knowledge has been highlighted.
The findings of this research suggest that the level of shared leadership in voluntary organisations is relatively high. However, the involvement of the stakeholders has been more on a ‘consultative’ level than on a ‘participative’ one. Moreover, the status or position of the stakeholder in the organisation is a significant factor in determining the level of shared leadership. Employees were more likely to take part in the leadership process than volunteers. Moreover, trustees are more likely to be involved in the leadership process than the employees or volunteers. It was also revealed that some stakeholders are merely involved in low level activities. The findings of this research have implications on the HRM in terms of stakeholder engagement in the leadership process as it has been revealed that shared leadership could increase motivation and improve performance and job satisfaction. The results of the research project have contributed to the argument that shared leadership and the concept leadership are constructs that emerge from the relationships and interactions of stakeholders in a social setting. Moreover, the variations in the construction of the phenomena are vital for future research. Future research should advance the knowledge of shared leadership in relation to critical HRD as shared leadership involves a variety of stakeholders.
References


Consulting and the Management Standards Centre, June 2003, Exeter: Centre for Leadership Studies


253


255


James, W. (1910) *Pragmatism: A New Name for Some Old Ways of Thinking*, Watchmaker Publishing


261


267


268


269

Thorne, S. (2008) Interpretive Description, Walnut Creek: Left Coast Press, Inc


Appendices
Appendix I

Introductory Letter

Henry Mumbi
University of Roehampton Business School
Roehampton University
80 Roehampton Lane, London SW15 5SL
mumbih@roehampton.ac.uk
07950920572

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am an MPhil/PhD research student at Roehampton University and would like your assistance. My research focus is on leadership within voluntary organisations. Within this context, I am interested in how responsibility for leadership is delegated. In particular, I am interested in how this may impact on organisational values, goals, and mission. The research methods will include semi-structured in-depth interviews and a survey. It is envisaged that the interview will take at least one hour and the survey 5-7 minutes.

I plan to produce a good practice guide on leadership within the voluntary sector in the UK based on the findings of the research. The research is intended to generate new knowledge on the notion of leadership and also contribute to better leadership and management in the voluntary sector, bridging theory and practice.

I am bound by the ethical requirements for such studies and therefore happy to sign a confidentiality agreement with your organisation. I have also obtained the ethical approval from the Roehampton University Ethics Committee. Moreover, a participant consent form will be required to be signed by all interviewees. All information collected is confidential and shall not be attributed to an individual in order to protect confidentiality of the respondents. In addition, nothing shall be disclosed or published without the prior approval of the responsible authorities of the organisation.

Could you please let me know as soon as possible whether your organisation will be able to participate in this research? Once participation is confirmed I will be in touch with you to organise the research process.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours Sincerely
Henry Mumbi
MPhil/PhD Research Student
Appendix II
Semi-Structured Interview Schedule for CEO

Research Topic: *The role of ‘shared leadership’ in the operation and development of voluntary organisations*

1. Could you tell me about your organisation and its work? What best describe your organisation – what sort of organisation is it?
   - Brief history
   - Registered charity, registered company by guarantee, incorporated or unincorporated
   - Purpose, aims, objectives and services
   - Beneficiaries
   - Area of benefit
   - Size
   - Number of paid staff and volunteers
   - Funding

2. How long have you been the CEO of the organisation?

3. What makes your organisation unique or different from others?
   - Other voluntary organisations
   - Private and statutory organisations
   - Operation
   - Development
   - Belief/ethos
   - Composition

4. In your own experience describe the organisational culture of your organisation?
   - Hierarchy
   - Power relations
   - Bureaucracy/red tape
   - Flexibility

5. Could you describe the process of how decisions are made in your organisation?
   - Strategic planning, mission, vision and goals setting
   - Service/project design and development

6. In your own words and according to your experience, what is leadership?
7. Looking at the status quo, how is your organisation being led? Who takes the overall responsibility of leading your organisation and why?

- Governance – body of trustees
- Senior management team
- Other workers
- Volunteers
- Beneficiaries
- Process
- Interactions
- Qualities, skills, competencies

8. Is it possible for anyone else to take up the overall responsibility of leading your organisation? In other words does the person or persons in charge of leading your organisation delegate the responsibilities of leading to others? If so, how?

- Team dynamics
- Team leadership
- Sense of belonging
- Levels of leading

9. What makes ‘leaders’ not to delegate the responsibility of leadership? And why?

- Fears
- Uncertainties
- Disadvantages
- Boundaries

10. What do you think are the benefits of delegating the responsibility of leadership in your organisation?

- Leadership outcomes
- Advantages of delegating leadership
- Meeting the need
- Organisation accountability
- Transparency
- Integrity
- Trust
- Achievement of aims and objectives
- Relationships with other stakeholders

11. In your own words what is the Big Society?
12. How would you describe the leadership of the voluntary sector in the UK in general taking in consideration the Big Society concept?

- Relationship with the government
- Differences with other sectors
- Unique characteristics

13. Finally, what leadership style is more appropriate to voluntary organisations? And why?
Appendix III

Semi-Structured Interview Schedule for other people rather than the CEO

Research Topic: *The role of ‘shared leadership’ in the operation and development of voluntary organisations*

1. **Could you tell me about your organisation and its work? What best describe your organisation – what sort of organisation is it?**
   - Brief history
   - Registered charity, registered company by guarantee, incorporated or unincorporated
   - Purpose, aims, objectives and services
   - Beneficiaries
   - Area of benefit
   - Size
   - Number of paid staff and volunteers
   - Funding

2. **How long have you worked with the organisation?**

3. **What makes your organisation unique or different from others?**
   - Other voluntary organisations
   - Private and statutory organisations
   - Operation
   - Development
   - Belief/ethos
   - Composition

4. **In your own experience describe the organisational culture of your organisation?**
   - Hierarchy
   - Power relations
   - Bureaucracy/red tape
   - Flexibility

5. **Could you describe the process of how decisions are made in your organisation?**
   - Strategic planning, mission, vision and goals setting
   - Service/project design and development
6. **In your own words and according to your experience, what is leadership?**

7. **Looking at the status quo, how is your organisation being led? Who takes the overall responsibility of leading your organisation and why?**
   - Governance – body of trustees
   - CEO
   - Senior management team
   - Other workers
   - Volunteers
   - Beneficiaries
   - Process
   - Interactions
   - Qualities, skills, competencies
   - Sole/group

8. **Is it possible for anyone else to take up the overall responsibility of leading your organisation? In other words does the person or persons in charge of leading your organisation delegate the responsibilities of leading to others? If so, how?**
   - Team dynamics
   - Team leadership
   - Sense of belonging
   - Levels of leading

9. **What makes ‘leaders’ not to delegate the responsibility of leadership? And why?**
   - Fears
   - Uncertainties
   - Disadvantages
   - Boundaries

10. **What do you think are the benefits of delegating the responsibility of leadership in your organisation?**
    - Leadership outcomes
    - Advantages of delegating leadership
    - Meeting the need
    - Organisation accountability
    - Transparency
    - Integrity
    - Trust
    - Achievement of aims and objectives
Relationships with other stakeholders

11. What factors or drivers would encourage the adoption of a leadership approach that in your own experience may be more effective?
   - Internal
   - External
   - Social

12. In your own words what is the Big Society?

13. How would you describe the leadership of the voluntary sector in the UK in general taking in consideration the Big Society concept?
   - Relationship with the government
   - Differences with other sectors
   - Unique characteristics

14. Finally, what leadership style is more appropriate to voluntary organisations? And why?
Appendix IV

Phase 1 Participant Consent Form

ETHICS BOARD

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM PRO FORMA

Title of Research Project: Leading without boundaries: the role of shared leadership in the operation and development of voluntary organisations.

Brief Description of Research Project:
This exploratory research is focused on the role of shared leadership in the operation and development of voluntary organisations in the UK from a perspective of leaders and followers. Shared leadership is a relatively new concept therefore the study will attempt to add more knowledge to this emerging way of leading. The purpose of the research is therefore to assess and analyse the concept of shared leadership in the context of voluntary organisations with a view of developing an appropriate leadership model for the sector.

Investigator Contact Details:

Henry Mumbi
Roehampton University Business School
80 Roehampton Lane, London SW15 5SL
mumbih@roehampton.ac.uk
07960697778

Consent Statement:
I agree to take part in this research, and am aware that I am free to withdraw at any point. I understand that the information I provide will be treated in confidence by the investigator and that my identity will be protected in the publication of any findings.

Name ………………………………….

Signature ……………………………

Date …………………………………
Please note: if you have a concern about any aspect of your participation or you have any other queries please raise this with the investigator. However if you would like to contact an independent party please contact either my supervisor or the Head of Department:

**Supervisor Contact Details:**
Dr Demola Obembe  
Roehampton University Business School  
Roehampton University  
80 Roehampton Lane  
d.obembe@roehampton.ac.uk  
020 8392 4770

**Head of Department Contact Details:**
Professor Elaine Harris  
Roehampton University Business School  
Roehampton University  
80 Roehampton Lane  
elaine.harris@roehampton.ac.uk  
020 8392 3475
Appendix V

Phase 1 Sample of Interview Transcript

Director of Learning Disabilities (Director 2)

Q. [Name] could you tell me what best describe your organisation?

Sure…[Name of organisation] is a social business we are constituted legally as a charity but the way we go about what we do is very much in the mode of delivering services as a contractor so we provide services to the individual and we are contracted to do that by either the individual or local authority our core business is social care in the broader sense and the way we are put together is we have four sectors employment, mental health, substance misuse and learning disabilities, I am the director of learning disabilities services bit and we deliver the services in about ten different locations now across England and those services are primarily care and support services to people of profound learning disabilities not entirely but that is our main thing we do but we also support people to find jobs to live independently to have social life all sort of different things… so I think the way we fit into the all structure of social care is very much working as a link between individuals and the state in the broader sense and as between individuals and local authorities is the main… just to take one example in Kent we support about 30 people each of those people we know exactly how many hours of care and support we suppose to provide what quality standards we are supposed to provide those too and how much each of those costs and then what the local authorities does is to rely on us to organise ourselves to deliver so the business side of it is very important in that it is with all pressures on finances that we operate in a business-like way and without forgetting our core purpose which is to turn lives around as the slogan has it we do that obviously we are not frighten by profit motive although we do need to make a small profit in way profit in order to reinvest in what we do but we do not have shareholders there isn’t that particular motivation behind us… so we sit a stride there is the charity sector and the business sector we are sort of in the middle somewhere

Q. How long have you worked with the organisation?

I have been with [Name of organisation] since September 2009

Q. What makes your organisation unique or different from others?

That’s certainly the driving… I think that the single biggest thing… I think there are other things one is we are unusual in that we do quite a lot of different things quite a lot of similar organisations will specialize so the organisation I worked for before was called United Response legally constituted exactly the same way as [Name of organisation] but only working with people with learning disabilities and was very much and proud of it and very much in the sort of charity mode we saw ourselves with different ethos… [Name of organisation] is a much more business-like so I think that is quite an important. I think the
structure is important in that we used to be before I started done on a geographic basis so all
the services whatever they were say in Manchester would come under one structure so
learning disabilities, mental health, substance misuse, employment would all be managed by
the same group of people we kicked that out now so what that means is that there is in the
learning disabilities sector we have got a group of people the leadership team in the sector is
very focused on people with learning disabilities that has a number of benefits I think the first
one is that it means that we really have got a body of knowledge so if we have got a
particular issue in Wiltshire with somebody we support needs with particular needs we can
use people in a other areas to support that and I think the second thing is very important it
means that we as a leadership team can drive the business to some extent so the good
example would be around learning and development there are some very particular things
that skills that we need our support staff to have when we work around communications skills
our learning disabilities struggle to communicate but very often so we seek to influence
decision making in all sort of different ways and I think we have done very well we need this
resource so that is quite distinct and my colleagues who the other directors we all have
different perspectives and we bring those different perspectives into the business and that is
quite distinct.

Q. In your own experience describe the organisational culture of your organisation?

Ah… I think it is changing… I think one of the things that influenced it very strongly has
been the change to the sector so there is the culture that is developing in the LD in the
Learning Disabilities sector is very much about focusing on the individuals so the needs of
person A with a learning disabilities… get two people with the learning disabilities who
might be described in a very similar ways ah and you think well this is just a standard answer
that you have a person with down syndrome here and another person with down syndrome
there well that means they need the same service absolutely not is the opposite of is actually
that they might need quite different things so the culture I think is very much focused on the
individual and that is the key driving factor in the organisation culture and that links into
being a much more business like organisation and the way that links is you can almost draw
an analogy with a retail organisation we deliver services to individual people it is a bit like
you work into the shop and that person is your customer and now that’s controversial and can
be quite controversial that consumerist view of the world doesn’t satisfy everybody and I
understand that and I am not purist about it in the sense that well am and am not I am purist
about that in the sense that if anybody who works for us does something in that they are
trying to do something in the interest of the person we are supporting I will support them to
do that is the really important part of the culture even if they make a mistake where you
acting in the best interest of the person you were supporting ‘yes’ fine ‘no’ you have got a
problem… so that drives it… I think it’s probably I think we may have more than one culture
I think it might feel quite different in other sectors I don’t know them well enough so I can
probably only really speak with any authority about my own about the LD sector but what is
really interesting is we are doing a lot of work at the moment to try and make ourselves fit for
the future which is the future with being expected to do more with less and that is quite
demanding but there is nobody is… nobody has got a problem with that we know that is
what we got to do that’s where the business-like thing comes in so there is an interesting not a clash but there is competing demands on one hand we are saying we must be focusing in building services about the person and on the other hand we might have 20% less money to do that… how do you bring those two things together…So I think it is evolving… it is an evolving culture what is interesting is when I go and talk to people who actually deliver services there are very focused on the people they support and Am… they are almost always very proud to work at [Name of organisation] but they see their key… the connection they have with the people they support is probably stronger than it is with the organisation I don’t have too much a problem with that I think it is OK as long as people understand the broad concept of what we are trying to do and most people do and most people don’t have a problem with that so for example when we sometimes we need to change the way people work we may have a service that has been running in a particular way for a quite long time because of the pressure on finances we have to change and we are going and we are explaining and we are talking through and consulted them have you have any ideas how we can do this.. It is a consultative process and what surprises me I think is that people they understand why we have to do that so people grasp that business the imperative of being business like as long as they can see that what we are doing is in the interest of people we support I think if they felt that we were doing things that were not in the interest of the people we are support… it is evolving and I think it is responding to the circumstances we find ourselves in and while that is tough I think it is actually quite a healthy thing…I think it gets people to really think about what do we absolutely need to do so aa sorry that is a rather rumbling answer… it is quite a complicated situation.

Q. Could you describe the process of how decisions are made in your organisation?

(Laughter)…. Yeah I understand…I am…. Yes absolutely I understand yes there is a very clear strategic process and we are right just now starting the next five year plan and that is being developed trying to quite involved process but we are gathering together all the information we think we need one of the external factors that are driving policy… what we want to be… what are our values… what are our core.. and what is on the heart of it and that is beginning to distil down into some beginning we need to do this carefully it is a long time five years and it is beginning some of the strands of what we gonna do for example of that the work.. one of my hats in the organisation is I am that covers most expects of some people and so myself one of my … out of this process is beginning to come some understanding of what kind of people do we need… what skills do they need to have… what my mentor Adrian says… what attitudes, behaviour and competencies in support worker, in a manger, in a member of specialists staff may be IT or finance or whatever.. we are really trying hard to work out what are we looking for and so that is a good example so in five years’ time what do we want how do we want our people to behaviour and what do we need to do as an organisation to get people to that point… without being patronizing take the kind of real material of the person and help them to develop in a way they can deliver really a good service so that is you can see that what we got there we are pulling in all the information we can from outside and inside and then beginning to make some decisions about that now there are a number of things that can trip that process that can make that process quite difficult.
things we have no control over so take a couple of years before I was here am when the economy was booming it was very hard to recruit support staff we don’t pay very well and would like to pay them more but we are restricted how much we can pay people because of how much money the government gives us.. ah now that is changing unemployment is going up we get a lot of people wanting to come and work for us now which is good however not all of those people have got the right attitudes behaviour and competencies so that is a good example I can think of we need to take a very rational approach to that and offer the right support to people and a create a very clear expectation of people... this is we need you to do... this is how you are expected to behave... this is the deal if you like we will give you a dissent salary make sure you get your holidays we will give you a career structure we give you learning and development opportunities... you have to take those opportunities I think that is quite powerful now and the expectation we place upon ourselves has gone up... there is a clear strategic process the difficult bit is keeping that on track when staff balance and to give example of that within the learning development sector one quite a lot of success... of over the last six month right was really pleasing and is one of my objectives when I came here it was one thing I was told I need to do so obviously we are all pleased about that so we have grown from about 16 million pounds a year to about 26 million... lots of growth... so how do you manage that and that was we haven’t really planned for that because we did know how well we gonna do so that is what I mean about that you put the strategic process down and stuff happen... alright OK we have become a bigger sector ...so you have to be able to respond to the immediate.. I think we are pretty good with that

Q. In your own words and according to your experience, what is leadership?

Well... I think that leadership is a number of different things I think it is about clarity of purpose that you need to be able to communicate to what it is...why... what we do and why we do it... and there are a number of ways you can to that... one of them is very cultural appropriate in our world is stories, stories about people and I used to be a little bit sceptical about this but I am much less now in that I hear I get told things that have happened and I get involved in different... in things that have happened with the individual positive and negative but mostly I am glad to say positive and what I do is I make sure that people know those stories and there is two reasons to do that one is to recognise and thank people who have done that the staff who work perhaps with somebody who has been ill and they have worked closely with their family and done lots of positive things...so it gives... it sends a message to those people that is valid ... it also sends the messages out to the rest of the organisation saying look here is an example this is what we think is good this is what we want this how we want you to be and because there those stories are grounded in a reality a reality that means something to staff and service staff then people will say oh yeah I can see that that’s why... clarity communicating a clarity of purpose and hopefully a sense of common purpose shared objectives that my objectives are just the same as the objectives of a support worker or a team leader or a service manager we all want the same thing for the people we support... that is one expect...I think the another expect of it is that of modelling behaviour that you only expect people... you can’t expect people to behaviour in a certain way if you don’t do that yourself and that is about being respectful this is what I think other people have a different
view but I think that respecting people and that respect agenda if you like encompasses all
effects of diversity race, sexuality, disability and particular disability in our world you
know… we clearly need to operate in a way that shows respect to people with disabilities…
age all those things and I am not being poignant about this… actually really fundamental that
people need to see that the people who lead they shouldn’t behave in that way that they don’t
treat people with the lack of respect… I think the third thing is quite a word I am looking for
but is something about discipline… I am terrible it sounds quite negative it is about being
discipline in the sense of … the group what it is you what to do is to show that you stick to it
but that sense of driving through the particular things… so just as an example we have
formation outcomes for people we support and is called SPOT… and its gonna be a long term
project we know that it gonna take two or three or years to get really… and when we first
introduced it and we went out we showed what it was to people and we used a big training
programme… and what I have got back to me was not from everywhere but from some
people is an element of scepticism… its fad …the next thing off the rank you know and so
what we have done is we have gone back and said…no no we are sticking with this we are
going to be around for a long time and I kind of personally committed myself to it and I see
the people who I directly manage doing exactly the same… in fact in the February we gonna
get everybody together and just reiterate that so that sense of and that is a quite good example
because the point there comes to is show people we support their families and our funders
why it is valuable why it is worthwhile being with [Name of organisation] that we will work
with an individual to set outcomes to show what progress their making on that… it drills
absolutely… it fits absolutely with the values of the organisation… there is no gap there…
you look at it and you think I am not quite sure what I am doing it should be obvious why I
am doing it and that sense of keeping focused on things.. not the exclusion of …you can’t just
go on relentlessly even if daft idea keep ploughing on but it is that sense of commitment the
final thing is I think in terms of particular characteristics of the learning disabilities sector we
work with people often over many years people we support a learning disability is part of
who you are is not there isn’t a recovering model and so there are people with learning
disabilities services 20 years next year and there are people we have supported for 20 years so
that sense of being alongside someone for a long period of their life and I think it is important
that the leadership of the organisation understands that and realise that it might take a kind of
change a long period of time

Q. Looking at the status quo, how is your organisation being led? Who takes the overall
responsibility of leading your organisation and why

Am… well clearly [Name of CEO] the CEO is a very important person in the organisation is
the CEO of course he is important but is important for other reasons because of he has got a
high public profile people if you say [Name of organisation] to people oh [Name of CEO]…
he is synonymous with the organisation if he will ever to leave the organisation we have to
think very differently about how we… there is that sense of strong leadership from the top…
I will come back to the point about the sector and that is important and that being
influential… there are risks associated with it… the risks is that we end up working in silos
that you don’t link across in fact we are doing a project at the moment were we are making
sure or trying to make sure that we do take advantage of the strengths we got in different sectors today in an hour or two we got a conversation about a particular individual who is currently living in a secure unit and this person has got significant learning disabilities levels and has got significant mental health problems we need to make sure that we deliver the best for that person and that will involve cross sector working you have to keep aware of that so the benefits in terms of leadership are that you get very skilful people working in really close with an individual with say substance misuse will look different to working with someone with learning disabilities but at the same time we need to make sure that … I think the other bits the other element that is key is the leadership in terms of services because it is the services that we deliver that generate the money that mean we can continue to operate there like the shop the shop front if you like there are all the support services IT, finance and the rest of it and my take on that is the need to be an alignment… the balance… It’s… so for example I rely upon my colleague in the risk assurance team to keep me update with what the law says about risk and assurance… absolutely reliant upon them… my job is to make sure that my colleagues who won’t deliver services know and understand what their legal obligations are but the responsibility does not rest with the risk assurance team, rest within the service structure so sometimes there is a tension there the risk assurance team gonna do this and I say hang on a minute that is what the law says… and I push back a bit and so there is that constant movement, same with say age guide and good practice around employment that might be an area we might get bogged really… really need to do x and my colleagues… respective colleagues you know and it is important that there is a discussion and debate… its absolutely important going back to my comment on leadership in terms of how we behave to one another and we listen and we reach an agreement we don’t always …oh know… we reach a conclusion… we not always agree… but I don’t think… I think one another good thing about the organisation is there is an element of creative tension sometimes the people will argue their case and the will do it clearly and they will do it business like way if you will and I think that is very healthy you know.. I don’t think… I think sometime conflict is not quite the right word but challenge

Q. Is it possible for anyone else to take up the overall responsibility of leading your organisation? In other words does the person or persons in charge of leading your organisation delegate the responsibilities of leading to others? If so, how?

Yes absolutely the… there is different aspects to leadership…so… so yes… I suppose… I would see my leadership role or one element of my leadership role that I get delegated to me is practice leadership around learning disabilities services so the expectation on me and my colleagues in the sector is that we will lead the organisation in terms of the very best practice around supporting people with learning disabilities … so I mean it is not reasonable to expect [Name of CEO] to have a grasp on all the different there are so many spending players… there is so much happening… but it is clearly important that…It needs that just so…yeah… so there is a particular way in which learning disabilities are changing we need to have that delegated leadership there and could be the same for my colleague in substance misuse the will be particular things that are happening and his job his leadership job is to go back into the organisation we need to do this is the best practice over here this is what the government
is saying and so there is... I think that works, I think that works in that you know I sit around this table and another tables and we say and I say we think need to do X or Y and that gets challenged you know and I say hang on a minute why ... it is to develop an argument... ha... so there are... it breaks down into component parts and we each take responsibility for it.

Q. What makes ‘leaders’ not to delegate the responsibility of leadership? And why?

Yeah...I think... I think it can break down things can go wrong when if people don’t feel that they can trust the service leadership to deliver and when things... if things go wrong then... [Name of CEO]’s view is that I am on the top of this pyramid and it is my neck on the block if something goes wrong so you know what went wrong... so I think that can be risky... I think there are risks in terms the larger an organisation gets it is impossible I don’t know everybody we works in the sector it is impossible for me to do so there are 7, 6, 7 hundred people we employ I don’t them by name by all means there has to be an element of trust... so that can be a problem we live in a very regulated world quite likely the life experiences of people with learning disabilities are very different as they were 30 years ago people live much more independently and element of risk when something goes wrong with somebody we are held accountable for that so that can be and its maintaining and making sure that quality is consistency across the organisation and that can constrain on leadership but I guess that is true in any big organisation it is not exclusive to the voluntary sector by any means... yeah... that could be one thing.. I think another element can be when the... you don’t get that sense of common purpose were there isn’t a shared understanding throughout the organisation... in the previous job that broke down there was a real gap between what the leadership... and that caused enormous problems... you got to have that strand... one more thing I think for me this is a personal thing I think that language is important that one of the things can damage leaders... if they don’t use plain simple language that people can understand...they have to manage jargon.. it just throws people and they don’t know what you mean and you are a support worker you get some piece of you know grand statement and you look and say what is this

Q. What do you think are the benefits of delegating the responsibility of leadership in your organisation?

I think there are a couple of key things... I think I... the trick is to get the responsibility at the right level... so... there... to take an example in my sector we have how many service managers... 25 managers I am not sure that kind of number it is important when we delegate that individual knows were the responsibility begins and ends and actually quite it is a straight forward really because taking an example in Kent the service manager is responsible for everything that happens there is her sole responsibility everything... everything that happens over here is not her responsibility and I am not going to hold her accountable for something over here...and the benefit is that if we got it right and I think we mostly get it right is she is quite comfortable to make decisions she knows what kind of decisions she knows what to push up to the organisation and one other thing I try to do is to push down... when I first started people would ask all sort of questions should I do that... you are in charge
you tell me you know… what is the right decision… I think it is that you…ok it looks reasonable you go and do that… the benefits are that it helps people to grow up and it helps them to get ready for the next job if they went not everybody wants to get to the top… some people do…so a colleague came to me fairly recently service manager colleague very good, very bright person and she wants to know how she can progress in the organisation she wants that job… there isn’t the job available at the moment but I can see how she could do that… I can see the skills she’s got… what we have agreed in this particular case is that we have identified where the gaps are what she needs where she needs to develop particular skills by delegating it throws into sharp relief where people are the got the skills and abilities or they haven’t and they can learn so it helps to grow people within the organisation and I feel very strongly that .they are certainly if you are in the line of service delivery in that management structure if you got grounding in the hard realities in what it is like to deliver a service and you are prepared to commit to developing yourself you will probably be a very effective manager because when you come up the ranks you know you gone up through the leadership and then a problem occurs you know you have been there and you have done that and I am not saying that it is an absolutely imperative because we have some very good people who have come in the organisation from quite different fields but it does help… am… I think the key benefit is in developing people and keeping people interested and my experience is that people really value being in control that and I think this is backs up with the research and one other thing which people always say is that I really value the freedom and autonomy that my job gives me… so again I don’t dictate in any way shape or form… right now I couldn’t tell you were my region managers are… I don’t know if they are working from home I don’t know if there are in a service or on leave or not… I know we are in the business… that is not for me to say that you got to be there … I rely upon them to manage their time effectively…and sometimes that can go wrong and you have to intervene but not often… so the delegation and the… it almost sounds paradoxical does it… on one hand I am saying you got the responsibility but I am also saying and you have the autonomy to try and work out the answer to the problem…my experience is that people do that… don’t always get it right and sometimes people struggle and I have made this mistake in the past were I gave too much responsibility delegated to far and too quickly and then someone struggles and felt you know they get scared and then they make a mistakes and then they think they have failed… you do need systems in place… in terms of quality management systems and all the rest of it to make sure that people are… you need a check list of things… so I get loads… loads… keep forms and indicators and I would think that I am not happy about that and why has it not improved you know and I will dwell down and we said that… wants gone wrong and my expectation is that that person will be able to explain to me why some things have gone wrong and we both go and say 200 loss of working days to 150 and in fact you have gone up and they say I don’t know then I know we have a problem so it needs that value in creating in building people up and giving them control

Q. And finally in your own words what is the big society?

Right… OK…I think that it has to be put in a historical context momentarily… but alright going back to Beveridge 1942 the Beveridge Report we gonna get rid of the five evils I don’t
remember them all warmth and …. there was a settlement after the war1945 the National Health Service the warfare state was constructed …what we seem to be saying and I am not sure I believe this is that the welfare state has somehow failed that… there are failures clearly the NHS for example is an overly a bureaucratic organisation… we have taken on a number of services from the NHS over the last years and frankly… they are a messy and it is not right and have become stack… I get that bit I get the argument around breaking up big monolithic bureaucratic organisations I worked once in the local authority and monolithic and I hated it was awful could do anything … I feel that I did not have any delegated responsibility you end up doing… I get the bits about localising and decision making being taken at a local level…. And I agree with that… what I am worried about is that the concept of the Big Society concept is fundamentally if you like is pretending not to be … I don’t quite buy it… and it is I think built on the false premise that the welfare state has failed but I don’t think it has… but I think… if you look at the lives of people with learning disabilities within my working life… I started… I left university in 1987 and I started work … in that relatively 23 years people with learning disability they lived on wards human life pretty crumpy lives… the life expectancy of people with down syndrome has nearly doubled and that is not because of some miracle it is because there have dissent care and support… we did it together and I am not arguing to get back to monolithic structure but I do dispute the premise behind the Big Society that… so trying to be positive people we support one other things people we support with learning disability still live isolated and that is a bad thing I like and I do sort different things and I don’t have a learning disability and physically able much harder for people with learning disabilities….so I can get involve in a lot of things… letting local organisation to take control may be will get people more involved… the risk I think may be some of the underpinning elements of secured services for those at the bottom…I think still going to break down…it’s going to be the world of shambles… get the best of their families… ironically the way the law has changed should secure services for particular people with learning disabilities have various disabilities acts… human act rights a number of things which should prevent … but am a little bit sceptical,,,, we do have a role , and I am not if the opportunity presents itself…may be I am not thinking big enough… but I the … making sure that people are safe and well…so I am … I have to cast myself as sceptical …we shall see
Appendix VI

Phase 2 Survey Questions

UK Voluntary Sector Leadership

This PhD research is focused on the role of shared leadership in the operation and development of voluntary organisations in the UK from a perspective of leaders and followers. Shared leadership is a relatively new concept therefore the study will attempt to add more knowledge to this emerging way of leading. The purpose of the research is therefore to assess and analyse the concept of shared leadership in the context of voluntary organisations with a view of developing an appropriate leadership model for the sector. Be assured that the information that you will provide will be treated in confidence by the investigator and that your identity will be protected in the publication of any findings. No information will therefore be passed or shared on which may compromise your privacy. Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary. You can stop answering the questions at any point. You do not need to respond to all the questions. Thank you for your participation.

1. I am consulted in the decision-making process

   Extremely agree ○ Moderately agree ○ Slightly agree ○ Neither agree nor disagree ○
   Slightly disagree ○ Moderately disagree ○ Extremely disagree ○ N/A ○

   Other (please specify)

2. I am actively involved in the decision-making process

   Extremely agree ○ Moderately agree ○ Slightly agree ○ Neither agree nor disagree ○
   Slightly disagree ○ Moderately disagree ○ Extremely disagree ○ N/A ○

   Other (please specify)

3. I am consulted in future strategic planning of the organisation

   Extremely agree ○ Moderately agree ○ Slightly agree ○ Neither agree nor disagree ○
   Slightly disagree ○ Moderately disagree ○ Extremely disagree ○ N/A ○

   Other (please specify)

4. I am actively involved in future strategic planning of the organisation

   Extremely agree ○ Moderately agree ○ Slightly agree ○ Neither agree nor disagree ○
   Slightly disagree ○ Moderately disagree ○ Extremely disagree ○ N/A ○
Other (please specify)

5. Power is delegated to me from formal leaders of the organisation

   Extremely agree ○ Moderately agree ○ Slightly agree ○ Neither agree nor disagree ○
   Slightly disagree ○ Moderately disagree ○ Extremely disagree ○ N/A ○

Other (please specify)

6. I share and delegate power with other members of the organisation not in formal leadership positions

   Extremely agree ○ Moderately agree ○ Slightly agree ○ Neither agree nor disagree ○
   Slightly disagree ○ Moderately disagree ○ Extremely disagree ○ N/A ○

Other (please specify)

7. I am consulted regarding the organisation’s vision

   Extremely agree ○ Moderately agree ○ Slightly agree ○ Neither agree nor disagree ○
   Slightly disagree ○ Moderately disagree ○ Extremely disagree ○ N/A ○

Other (please specify)

8. I am actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision

   Extremely agree ○ Moderately agree ○ Slightly agree ○ Neither agree nor disagree ○
   Slightly disagree ○ Moderately disagree ○ Extremely disagree ○ N/A ○

Other (please specify)

9. I am consulted regarding responsibilities and how to handle problems

   Extremely agree ○ Moderately agree ○ Slightly agree ○ Neither agree nor disagree ○
   Slightly disagree ○ Moderately disagree ○ Extremely disagree ○ N/A ○

Other (please specify)

10. I regard myself as a leader in the organisation

    Extremely agree ○ Moderately agree ○ Slightly agree ○ Neither agree nor disagree ○
    Slightly disagree ○ Moderately disagree ○ Extremely disagree ○ N/A ○

Other (please specify)
11. Are you male or female?
   Male ○ Female ○

12. Which category below includes your age?
   17 or younger ○ 18-20 ○ 21-29 ○ 30-39 ○ 40-49 ○ 50-59 ○ 60 or older ○

13. Which category below best describes your status in the organisation?
   Trustee ○ Employee ○ Volunteer ○

14. How long have you worked or volunteered for this voluntary organisation?
   0-1 ○ 2-3 ○ 4-5 ○ 6-7 ○ 8-9 ○ 10+ years ○

15. What is the name of this voluntary organisation?

16. What size best describe the organisation you work for?
   Small ○ Medium ○ Large ○

17. What is your ethnicity?
   White ○ Black ○ Asian ○ Chinese ○ Mixed ○ Other ○
Appendix VII

Coding of Survey Questions for SPSS Data Analysis

Note: values allocated are highlighted in bold

1. I am consulted in the decision-making process

   Extremely agree 1 Moderately agree 2 Slightly agree 3 Neither agree nor disagree 4
   Slightly disagree 5 Moderately disagree 6 Extremely disagree 7 N/A 0 No Response 8

   Other (please specify)

2. I am actively involved in the decision-making process

   Extremely agree 1 Moderately agree 2 Slightly agree 3 Neither agree nor disagree 4
   Slightly disagree 5 Moderately disagree 6 Extremely disagree 7 N/A 0 No Response 8

   Other (please specify)

3. I am consulted in future strategic planning of the organisation

   Extremely agree 1 Moderately agree 2 Slightly agree 3 Neither agree nor disagree 4
   Slightly disagree 5 Moderately disagree 6 Extremely disagree 7 N/A 0 No Response 8

   Other (please specify)

4. I am actively involved in future strategic planning of the organisation

   Extremely agree 1 Moderately agree 2 Slightly agree 3 Neither agree nor disagree 4
   Slightly disagree 5 Moderately disagree 6 Extremely disagree 7 N/A 0 No Response 8

   Other (please specify)

5. Power is delegated to me from formal leaders of the organisation

   Extremely agree 1 Moderately agree 2 Slightly agree 3 Neither agree nor disagree 4
   Slightly disagree 5 Moderately disagree 6 Extremely disagree 7 N/A 0 No Response 8

   Other (please specify)

6. I share and delegate power with other members of the organisation not in formal leadership positions

295
Extremely agree 1 Moderately agree 2 Slightly agree 3 Neither agree nor disagree 4 Slightly disagree 5 Moderately disagree 6 Extremely disagree 7 N/A 0 No Response 8

Other (please specify)

7. I am consulted regarding the organisation’s vision
Extremely agree 1 Moderately agree 2 Slightly agree 3 Neither agree nor disagree 4 Slightly disagree 5 Moderately disagree 6 Extremely disagree 7 N/A 0 No Response 8

Other (please specify)

8. I am actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision
Extremely agree 1 Moderately agree 2 Slightly agree 3 Neither agree nor disagree 4 Slightly disagree 5 Moderately disagree 6 Extremely disagree 7 N/A 0 No Response 8

Other (please specify)

9. I am consulted regarding responsibilities and how to handle problems
Extremely agree 1 Moderately agree 2 Slightly agree 3 Neither agree nor disagree 4 Slightly disagree 5 Moderately disagree 6 Extremely disagree 7 N/A 0 No Response 8

Other (please specify)

10. I regard myself as a leader in the organisation
Extremely agree 1 Moderately agree 2 Slightly agree 3 Neither agree nor disagree 4 Slightly disagree 5 Moderately disagree 6 Extremely disagree 7 N/A 0 No Response 8

Other (please specify)

11. Are you male or female?
Male 0 Female 1 No Response 2

12. Which category below includes your age?
17 or younger 0 18-20 1 21-29 2 30-39 3 40-49 4 50-59 5 60 or older 6 No Response 7

13. Which category below best describes your status in the organisation?
Trustee 0 Employee 1 Volunteer 2 No Response 3
14. How long have you worked or volunteered for this voluntary organisation?

0-1 0 2-3 1 4-5 2 6-7 3 8-9 4 10+ years 5 No Response 6

15. What is the name of this voluntary organisation?

Not Stated 0 Stated 1

16. What size best describe the organisation you work for?

Small 0 Medium 1 Large 2 No Response 3

17. What is your ethnicity?

White 0 Black 1 Asian 2 Chinese 3 Mixed 4 Other 5 No Response 6
Appendix VIII

Phase 3 Participant Information Sheet

Shared Leadership: A Stakeholder Approach in Voluntary Organisations
Participant Information Sheet

Dear Participant

I would like to ask you to participate in the data collection for a study on leadership for my PhD studies at De Montfort University. You will find more information about the study on the attached research summary. The study is aimed at exploring and developing the idea of how leadership is ‘shared’ among employees. The objective of the interview is to explore and assess the role of shared leadership in organisations and its implications on organisational/individual outcomes.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. It will involve an interview of approximately 45 - 60 minutes in length to take place by arrangement. I will initially contact you by email or telephone.

You may decide not to answer any of the interview questions if you wish. You may also decide to withdraw from this study at any time by advising me through my email address henrymumbi@hotmail.com or using the contact detail at the end of this document. If you notify me of your withdrawal, all identifiable data will be destroyed. Once data has been anonymised it will be impossible to identify the origin and cannot be destroyed.

I may ask for clarification of issues raised in the interview some time after it has taken place, but you will not be obliged in any way to clarify or participate further.

The information you provide is confidential, except that with your permission anonymised quotes may be used. If you request confidentiality, beyond anonymised quotes, information you provide will be treated only as a source of background information, alongside literature-based research and interviews with others.

Your name or any other personal identifying information will not appear in any publications resulting from this study; neither will there be anything to identify your place of work.

The information gained from this interview will only be used for the above mentioned objective, will not be used for any other purpose and will not be recorded in excess of what is required for the research.
Even though the study findings will be published in the form of a thesis they may also be 
published in international conferences and journals, only I will have access to the interview 
data itself but this can be looked at by individuals from De Montfort University. There are no 
known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study.

If you have any questions regarding this study or would like additional information please ask 
me, during, or after the interview.

Yours Sincerely,

Henry Mumbi 
Research Student (Faculty of Business & Law) 
De Montfort University 
The Gateway, Leicester LE1 9BH, UK 
Contact Numbers 07776810740 and 07950920572

**Research Summary (Phase 3)**

I started my studies initially at the University of Roehampton in 2008 in London and last year 
followed one of my supervisors at De Montfort University in Leicester. My research focus is 
on ‘shared leadership’ within voluntary organisations. Within this context, I am interested in 
how responsibility for leadership is delegated. The research methods have included a survey 
(Phase 2) which had 126 respondents from voluntary agencies and 10 semi-structured 
interviews (Phase 1). The final phase of the research will be in-depth interviews involving 
20-30 employees of voluntary organisations. The interview is likely to take about 45 minutes. 
The study is aimed at exploring and developing the idea of how leadership is ‘shared’ among 
stakeholders. The research has the following objectives;

1. To capture the meaning of leadership from the perspective of stakeholders (Phase 1 
   through semi-structured interviews)

2. To find out how stakeholders get involved in the leadership process (Phase 2 through 
a survey)

3. To explore and assess the role of shared leadership in organisations and its 
   implications on organisational/individual outcomes (Phase 3 through in-depth 
   interviews)

In line with objective tw of the research project highlighted above, the study is concerned 
with establishing the magnitude of shared leadership and identifying key indicators or factors 
by presenting the following research questions;

- What is the level of shared leadership among stakeholders in organisations?
What are the key factors that could affect the process of shared leadership among stakeholders in organisations?

What is intriguing about the study is that business and management research has focused mainly on ‘vertical leadership’ (the typical top-down paradigm) that stems from an appointed or formal leader (chief executive) as opposed to ‘shared leadership’ that is distributed across the organisation. However, the need for shared leadership is usually rhetoric and it presents a puzzle from a theoretical point of view. This research therefore, seeks to advance scholarly knowledge on the phenomenon of ‘shared leadership’.

I plan to produce a good practice guide on leadership within the voluntary sector in the UK based on the findings of the research. The research is intended to generate new knowledge on the notion of leadership and also contribute to better leadership and management in the voluntary sector, bridging theory and practice.

I am bound by the ethical requirements for such studies and therefore happy to sign a confidentiality agreement with your organisation. Moreover, a participant consent form will be required to be signed by all interviewees. All information collected is confidential and shall not be attributed to an individual in order to protect confidentiality of the respondents. In addition, nothing shall be disclosed or published in the name of the organisation.

Thank You.
Appendix IX

Phase 3 Consent Form

Shared Leadership: A Stakeholder Approach in Voluntary Organisations

Consent form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Respondent’s initial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have read the information presented in the information pack about the study &quot;Shared Leadership: A Stakeholder Approach in Voluntary Organisations.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have had the opportunity to ask any questions related to this study, and received satisfactory answers to my questions, and any additional details I wanted.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am also aware that excerpts from the interview may be included in publications to come from this research. Quotations will be kept anonymous.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I give permission for the interview to be recorded using audio recording equipment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I understand that relevant sections of the data collected during the study may be looked at by individuals from De Montfort University. I give permission for these individuals to have access to my responses.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree to participate in this study.

I agree to being contacted again by the researchers if my responses give rise to interesting findings or cross references.

- [ ] no
- [ ] yes
  
  if yes, my preferred method of being contacted is:
  - [ ] telephone ...................................................
  - [ ] email .............................................................
  - [ ] other ..............................................................

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant Name:</th>
<th>Consent taken by</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant Signature:</td>
<td>Signature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Date</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Phase 3 In-depth Interview Schedule

This interview is being conducted as a part of requirement for the doctorate thesis on the topic of leadership. The main objective is to get your views and perceptions about the leadership process in your organisation based on your experience.

Background Questions

Could you tell me about your organisation and its work?

How long have you been working with the organisation?

What is your role? Probe- (Describe your typical week and what is core to your role)

General Leadership Questions

Who do you consider as leaders of your organisation and why? How do you characterise leaders? Could you describe how these people lead? Probe: How is the leadership of your organisation? How does it differ from other organisations?

Theoretical framework (Relationships, Rational, Process and Transactional)
How would you describe your relationship with the leaders of the organisation and your colleagues? What elements of the relationship do you like and why? How do you feel about the management?

*Questions based on the Shared Leadership Dimensions (SLDs) and Stakeholder theory*

*Theoretical framework (Decision-making) and (voluntarism, cooperation and support)*

Could you describe in as much detail as possible an incident or incidents in which you were consulted or involved in the decision-making of the organisation? Did you volunteer or you were instructed? How well were you supported? How cooperative were you? Did you encounter any difficulties? Probe- What kind of decisions? (How did you feel?) What impact or outcomes if any did this experience had on the organisation and you as an individual?

*Theoretical framework (Strategic planning) and (voluntarism, cooperation and support)*

Could you share in as much detail as possible an incident or incidents in which you were consulted or involved in the planning of the organisation? (What kind of plans?) Did you volunteer or you were instructed? How well were you supported? How cooperative were you? Did you encounter any difficulties? What impact or outcomes if any did this experience had? *Probe about the involvement in strategic planning*

*Theoretical framework (Communication) and (voluntarism, cooperation and support)*

Describe an incident when you were involved in the communication process of the organisation? (What kind of communication?) Did you volunteer or you were instructed? How well were you supported? How cooperative were you? Did you encounter any difficulties? What impact or outcomes if any did this experience had? *Probe about the communication of the vision of the organisation*
Theoretical framework (Influence, Power) and (voluntarism, cooperation and support)

Give an example when you influenced others in the organisation? What made it possible? Did you encounter any difficulties? (How did you feel?) Did you volunteer or you were instructed? What impact or outcomes if any did this experience had on the organisation and you as an individual? *Probe about the delegation of power?*

Theoretical framework (Responsibility) and (voluntarism, cooperation and support)

Describe a scenario in which you were consulted or involved regarding the responsibilities and how to handle problems? (How active were you in the process) Did you volunteer or you were instructed? How well were you supported? How cooperative were you? Did you encounter any difficulties? What impact or outcomes if any did this experience had on the organisation and you as an individual?

Theoretical framework (What is shared leadership?)

Have you heard of the notion of shared leadership? What does this mean to you? What do you think are the characteristics, conditions, drivers and limitations of this kind of leadership?

Do you have any other issues you would raise?
Appendix XI

Phase 3 Sample of Interview Transcript

Good afternoon [Name], thank you very much for agreeing to be interviewed and as I said that the interview is about you know shared leadership and the purpose is for my PhD degree. Could you tell me about your organization and its work briefly?

Yes we offer custom services for clients affected by autism either directly or sometimes we other support for parents, groups and siblings as well and we operate in quite a diverse area with in different boroughs in London and also in Birmingham, the services we offer – we tend to specialise in um PRACTICAL services that’s what we offer with an emphasis on hard to reach populations and clients who quite often have difficulties accessing different services and we are a charity and we have been around to close to 15 years now

How long have you been working for the organisation?

Coming up to 5 years

What is your role and describe maybe your typical week?

OKAY, I work as a music therapist and I the here we have another part of a team of therapists we have music therapists and an art therapist and I although I’m based here on some days of a week and our office here where we have an office room I’m also part of my role is an outreach music therapy so I work in schools. One day of the work I’m based in a school and yea it my role involves promoting music therapy to other outside agencies and where appropriate providing music therapy to individuals and sometimes groups of adults affecting by autism um it’s yeah it’s a TYPICAL day will involve seeing various clients, assessing their needs, and carrying out a course of therapy with a review at the end, reports and um lots of liaising as well, lots of clients we see are um quite COMPLEX cases so it often involves liaising with schools, teachers, GPs, speech and language therapists, social workers, to get an coherent picture of the clients were working with and yeah that’s my role

Thank you very much. Who do you consider as leaders of your organisation and why?

Um, so, well here we have the DIRECTOR here and um that’s who I’m responsible to and so I will have supervision with my director but within that I’m given degree of responsibility over the clients I see and how I manage those um we’re quite multi-faceted organisation so (Hesitation) there are for example there’s a play service and there’s a reach out service and there’s kind of I guess people responsible for coordinating those and I guess you’d see those as leaders in some way because they take the oversight and responsibility of looking over the things.
Just a prompt, you mentioned you see them as leaders in some way? Why? What makes them leaders? Apart from the director?

Apart from the director, um perhaps the they’re initiating ideas, coming forward with um you know it’s- it’s a CHALLENGE you know the working environment and you’re presented with lots of challenging cases and sometimes you’ve got to think of to come forward and think of solutions and perhaps there is a lead on from those people. From you know leaders of play and reach out to think about what best meets the needs of the clients and that’s my view on what makes them yeah.

Thank you very much for that. How would you describe your relationship with the leaders of the organisation? You mentioned that you’re responsible to the director but you’re given responsibility? How would you describe that relationship?

Yeah so it it’s quite I’m given quite a lot of freedom in terms of what music therapy can provide to the clients and I think that in terms of the director here sees it as myself and the other music therapists to being an EXPERT in that kind of field and will be able to talk directly to people and other agencies about what it can offer so quite often when we do have a music therapy referral it is pointed in the direction of myself or my colleagues in terms of what will be the best case to do here so in that way you know it’s a very communicative relationship where it’s back and forwards there’s a lot of listening going on between both sides and er I don’t feel like I’m kind of not listened to in terms of you know there is you got to this or got to that there is a kind of an assessment that goes on and because we’re working directly with service users it’s always pretty complex and you’ve got to think about the bigger picture in terms of would it be best for you know which service is best and um that’s quite an important part of the role and the linking up with the director at that part because once the client has started music therapy they started then it’s normal you know there’s not much input from either side but its separate but that initial stage where when they were approaching the organisation because we other so many services it’s well with will this client be good for music therapy I’m not sure I don’t think so or yes they would so that’s when most of our dialogue happens between myself and the director.

Thank you very much. Could you describe in as much detail as possible an incident in which you were consulted or involved in the decision making of the organization? So we’re talking about the decision making of the organization? What kind of decision was that?

Um (Long silence)

(Reminder) Ever consulted or involved?

(Again long silence) So I’ve been involved in for example we’ve initiated quite a lot of groups here and projects and I’ve kind of been instrumental in a couple of those and I think there’s a need for this or a particular or I think this would be you know to make the decision about say, last year we did an adult group where it involved um working in collaboration with
a few different people and also our adult development service worker and the decision was made to kind of I think more of a collaborative project but defiantly involved in terms of who we recruited to work on and also how long it was going to be and what the purpose and the outcome of it was going to be.

When you recall that incident did you volunteer or where you did you volunteer to participate in that decision making and you had the willingness to do it or you were forced?

No yeah it was more a voluntary-But I also saw it as part of my job as well

Did you encounter any difficulties or problems?

Yeah I’d say the group itself wasn’t a particular success in terms of the outcome of it and how engaged clients were but the process of actually linking with some of the other people in the organization was good because you get to know each other and it was you know there was a bit more when you know who you’re working with and a bit of communication and you’re working on a shared project that was a good outcome from it even though perhaps the attendance of the group in itself wasn’t particularly successful yeah it was more about the linking between the organization.

When you talk about the good outcome of it, what is the impact on you as an individual, who participated in that decision, and also for the organization?

The impact on me was clarifying my role within the organization so I can kind of distinguish between what someone else was doing say leads the… another part of the organization and what their role was and what my role was and so, does that make sense? Clarity, yeah.

Yeah it makes a difference. Did it impact on your job satisfaction?

Well it felt more like working as part of a team so I think that’s important. You know working with a I like the idea of working within a multi-disciplinary team and that was that’s quite appealing to me because part of my role can often be quite, you’re working by yourself quite a lot so opportunities to work with different individuals is good.

Again it’s about another incident you can recall but this one deals with planning, do you remember when you were involved in the planning of the organisation?

Well probably my last example would be the best in terms of planning. I’ll try and think of another one, for example I can give you an example of something that I’m thinking about at the moment. We do a lot of work with volunteers um and clients who obviously are affected with autism but are keen to get some work experience and to do some work of which just you know just to get some experience of being within the community and being within groups I’m planning in collaboration with the service user who has done some voluntary work with us at the moment to set up a music making group on a Monday evening and he’s going to be quite involved in the planning and the and he’s it’s going to be present with it so I see it very
much as a collaborative project and it’ll be interesting because it’ll be the first kind of project where I’ve had in collaborating with the service user not in terms of I’m providing the service to them were actually doing it in collaboration because obviously he is affected with autism and he’s very aware and he’s very articulate about what particular things he would do so it’s going to be a shared project with that in mind so I’m quite excited about that and we’re planning that over the summer and hopefully will get it up and running by September.

**Any difficulties at the moment?**

No, no but it’s come about quite organically, quite naturally he’s been coming to the centre for a while and it’s very much about finding the roles again and seeing you know.

**I think you talked about communication as well so I wanted you to clarify and incident when you were involved in the communication process? Maybe the vision or anything?**

Yeah I think one of my kind of you know big roles in terms of communicating is just clarifying for outside organisations what music therapy is and what can it actually offer clients with autism. and I was in a meeting on Tuesday in the school that I work in and I still felt it quite important to try and communicate with the teachers there about what the role was and what we were going to do and this particular school has a autistic provision for children with autism it’s quite unique in the area so there was a you know meeting with myself and SENCO and speech and language therapists and teachers about how we can bet work together to provide a service but it was I felt an important during that time just to reinstate exactly what I’m offering in terms and what it was different from the teachers and why is it was different from the occupational therapists and other people there so and that’s often a big part of the work and just communicating these differences because I think we’re not, we don’t sit in the health sector and we don’t directly in the education sector so there’s always a bit of confusion are they there for music lessons or for this or are they there for communication so it often needs you know a lot of communicating.

**You talked about external stakeholders you know at the school, were there any sort of difficulties with trying to clarify your role as a music therapist?**

To the school?

**Yes**

Yes I think particularly with the teachers who were because they sit in the education centre they’re very fixed on education targets and to communicate our role we are a voluntary organisation offering practicing services and one of the services they have found quite useful in promoting communication self-expression and creativity which is very difficult for clients with autism of the art therapies and music therapies but how does that set in within the school setting, that’s a big challenge still because obviously in school you have to follow a set of rules you have to do this you have to do that and our job to kind of we’re promoting creativity and we want communication and expression that is always going to be a challenge.
Despite the difficulties and the obstacles, what drives you to continue you know trying to bring the best of from your clients?

Yeah I mean I think I’m quite I think anybody who is involved in a music therapy or art therapy obviously music or art is a big part of their life as well it’s a big passion for them that they want to use in some way so and if you can quite passionate about it and you quite believe in the power and usefulness as something as a tool to help people in some way then it’s worth doing so and it’s kind of it’s also a very interesting job you get to kind of work with a lot of different people and it’s a big learning, you learn something each time it can be quite motivating.

Now we come to this thing about influence, could you recall when you sort of influence others in your organisation?

I’m working with […] I’ve worked with various people from the organisation but some of the work I do is, in the past with the plate team over the summer and well I hope that I’ve influenced them in some ways in terms of how they can use musical activities to promote communication with some of the clients that we see here, so that would be a psychical modelling in terms of you know, understanding the way that they’re interacting better with the service users and to try and get them to reflect on that a little bit, it wouldn’t be as direct as this is supervision or something like that but it’s more of a modelling it’s more of a how you are with them, you can see that the interaction changes so you know, I don’t offer, for example unless it would be to a music therapy student, supervision to anybody else within the organisation but I could see that there is some influence in terms of I’ve done collaborative groups and it’s more of modelling and then reflecting afterwards about things so yeah and in the future it would be nice we hopefully might have a musical therapy student starting in September and then it would be more formal saying I’ve done – at the moment people come from very diverse areas so they don’t always have the same interests so it’s more of a modelling to promote it and you know there are certain things there are certain ways just using music in sense to promote communication which I guess is my job to share with the organisation as on a wider scale as well as recognising that it’s not just that that I offer because I’m also a therapist as well so it’s more about the relationship with the service user which is confidential and shared between the other departments but you must fit within the organisation some how

What are the benefits of that? And how to you feel yourself despite not having a supervision role but you are able to influence others?

Yeah it’s I mean it’s satisfactory from the point of view that you’re kind of getting some recognition for your qualifications and your experience and your expertise in an area and that’s quite satisfactory or I can offer something here I can help here in some way. I don’t know I mean it’s at the moment it’s done in a quite informal ad hock way, for example whether it’s part of the play schemes or even as part of the training as such it’s more about the experience of doing something rather than a set, as you say, supervising thing as you say it’s more of a yeah, I don’t know, I guess from something that I would think about in the
future and would perhaps how it affected them and I’d like to get more feedback about that and because just now maybe it is quite subjective from my point of view that you’re hoping it helps and you’re modelling and things like that and you’re helping out whatever. What did they, I don’t really know what they got from it so I’d like to get some feedback.

I’m mostly interested was there any moment that you influenced people, for example the director? It can be anything but you felt that I’ve managed to influence somebody.

Yeah I mean I always think well from the director here that they are they do take my decisions and ideas they’re listened to and the influence about within the music therapy or the you know, occasionally the play work that there is, for example I’ll give you an example, we’re working with a client today and I had been working for them with a little while just trying to do an assessment and I said to the director look I really don’t think this person is ready for music therapy at the moment but the director was quite keen that we persevere and try to offer some kind of the service and I said I’m not, well I feel that my role is finished here in terms of I can’t offer this service as well but why don’t we get somebody else to work with them on a one to one basis and try and make connection with them that way it might take a longer period of time but then my role can be put to better use with somebody else on the waiting list and yeah that’s what we’re doing at the moment.

Have you ever heard of this thing of shared leadership? What does this mean to you?

It’s I guess it says something about a shared vision, that’s what it would mean to me. I think that if you are a leader that you have some kind of vision that/s what I would differentiate between a leader and a manager of something that would be some kind of vision and a shared leadership is everybody agreeing on what that vision is and working towards that.

What do you think the characteristics are? What are the conditions and the drivers that can attract the sharing of the vision?

So the characteristics and the qualities of sharing the vision […] I don’t know are you thinking of like bullet points?

Anything, like conditions where a shared leadership could thrive

Well I think it’s very helpful to have an understanding of what the other person does and clear idea of other peoples roles, clarity of roles, where the limitations occur between each person what they can offer and what they can’t offer, that’s very important and also they need to feel that they are contributing in some way and recognised in some way for what they bring to things and if it’s shared then I imagine that you would want to feel as valuable and recognised as the other person and seeing the person’s role or there is, it’s not such a hierarchy, I guess shared leadership, obviously within every organisation there is a hierarchy but within shared leadership there would be less. I don’t know it’s a difficult

That’s fantastic.
# Appendix XII

## Phase 1 Descriptive Codes Features Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive Code</th>
<th>Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Designated Leader (DL)</td>
<td>CEO, Director, Chairperson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Satisfactory + and -</td>
<td>Relationships, work, task, processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Recognition</td>
<td>Outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Senior Management Team (SMT)</td>
<td>CEO, Directors, Senior Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Frustration</td>
<td>Outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Experienced person</td>
<td>Length of Time, expertise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Expert Leadership</td>
<td>Leading as a specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Involvement</td>
<td>Taking part</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Relationship + and -</td>
<td>With leaders and peers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Participation</td>
<td>Active involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Engagement</td>
<td>Taking part, active involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Robed of leadership</td>
<td>Feelings, relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Board of trustees (BT)</td>
<td>Management Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Trustee leadership</td>
<td>Trustees leading the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Volunteer leadership</td>
<td>Volunteers leading the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Communication</td>
<td>Internal sharing of information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Designated manager (DM)</td>
<td>Person in authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Members</td>
<td>Affiliated people of the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Service users</td>
<td>People who use or benefit from a service or product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Everyone (EO)</td>
<td>Togetherness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Valued</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Morale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Happy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>Listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>Needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Disappointed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>One Leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>Many Leaders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>Responsibility/Accountability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>Task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>Vision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information/Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>Empowered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>Control/Controlling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>Power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>Disagreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>Mistake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>Fault</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>Lacking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>Delegation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>Leave or quit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>Considerate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>Passion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>Willingness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>Collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>Neglected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69. Direction</td>
<td>Future route</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70. Time</td>
<td>Period, factor affecting an organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71. Motivating</td>
<td>Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72. Inspiring</td>
<td>Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73. Influencing</td>
<td>Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74. Directing</td>
<td>Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75. Interests</td>
<td>Could be mutual of conflicting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76. Meetings</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77. Away days</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78. Forums</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79. Face to face</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80. Emails</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81. Memos</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82. Outcomes</td>
<td>Benefits, Results, Achievements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83. Transparency</td>
<td>Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84. Integrity</td>
<td>Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85. Complexity</td>
<td>Organisational, Relationships, Process, Environment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix XIII

**Phase 3 Data Analysis and Formation of Overarching Categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Stakeholders’ perspective (Interview Quotes)</th>
<th>Number of interviewees contributing to this category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholder conceptualisation of leadership (What is leadership)</td>
<td>Leadership is... making people want to work, make them feel that they work on the strength and giving them independence and allowing them to try new things and then giving them the time and support they need to develop and grow but basically being there showing them that you work hard and giving a personal example basically… personal example and support (IN7). I think what leadership should be and what I think it is, is taking people forward, supporting, motivating people to the cause, whatever cause that might be and that leader is someone who is strong, gone backbone, makes decisions in difficult times, supports, is a team player. What else do I think he is… erm… has vision and someone who is not afraid to bring somebody up to another level, to recognise sills in others, to support the development of those skills (IN8). Well leadership is, apart from just in the world in general, how people develop as leaders and people follow them, erm… you know even the world politics and everything, you wonder why, but somebody who is a leader has a certain charisma usually but gets people to follow them and not question or not argue too much. So I think a good leader is someone who is… listens..., is open to criticism and can discuss with people the reasons for decisions and has to be mature person to be a good leader and has to accept criticism.. errr and sometimes somebody has to make the decisions. A decision maker, I think is a leader – somebody has to make the decision – there isn’t a right or</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
wrong but a decision but somebody has to make a decision (IN9).

I think there has to be clear communication, a clear go – where do we want to be and everybody having the same vision and sharing values and working together with other people, making sure that everybody is involved. Everybody who has got a stake, who has got… yeah something… yeah is involved to make sure that you get to wherever you want to be (IN12).

Well leadership – my understanding of leadership is someone, you can be leader and lead an organisation, you don’t have to be a manager because there is a difference from a leader to a manager. A leader can be born. A leader and a manager. So that’s my understanding of leadership – it’s leading an organisation or a group (IN13).

Somebody who knows like the strength and weaknesses of a certain situation or like, let’s say in the organisation they have once a month when they take about 10 people from the volunteers and people who work in the organisation and we go out and we speak to the service users and ask them, what do you want from the service, so it’s like we are asking them and we are giving back to the leaders and the leaders take that and kind of like implement and try to make and they basically serve to their service users (IN14).

Leadership is the ability to have a vision and also to motivate other people to participate towards attainment of that vision. Being also flexible, taking into consideration the internal environment and the external environment but having that driving motivating other people to move towards a particular vision (IN15).

Being responsible and leading people (IN17).

Leadership is to represent to people who are participating, who are coming to have services
with us and to be communicating with the other staff and make sure that you don’t use your power over the staff and the staff communicate with you as well (IN19).

In my own words, leadership means like…setting… I mean being a role model, you see. You have to present yourself as a role model and also should be able to manage day to day activities in an organisation or wherever leadership is required, you should be able to co-ordinate and manage day to day and you should be able to plan long term – vision, goals, objectives for the organisation (IN20).

Leadership is guidance. Erm…having sets of values and principles that you work by. Being focused and also not being dictatorial but allowing a sort of democratic process in which by you get information, what are needs, then you have a direction that you have to follow and you bring others with you with that direction but are open to inputs (IN22).

Being meaningfully involved in decision making, service delivery where appropriate and making decisions about how work is monitored (IN23).

Working with a team and meeting the organisation’s objectives and aims (IN24).

Leadership to me is having clear goals, aims and objectives and ensure that as a team we work collectively together. Leadership must allow room for flexibility when needed, but at the same time be clear and consistent in one’s approach. Leadership involves participation from the team and the service users you are providing the service too (IN25).

Inspiration, how to solve problems and listening, showing the way, be strong (IN26).
Someone who you can look up to (IN27).

To me leadership is decision making, problem solving, initiating tasks, guiding and teaching. Also setting standards (IN28).

Good decision-making, use initiative, wise, smart, lead by example (IN29).

The process of influencing people, motivating people as well as directing people (IN30)

| Defining shared leadership (what is shared leadership) | The involvement of more than one person in the influencing, motivating and decision making process (IN30).

Communication, partnership, team (IN29).

I think shared leadership is communicating, compromising, understanding and cooperating (IN28).

Shared leadership is vital, different ideas and the organisation may prosper (IN27).

Very good as it makes us learn through each other and be there for each other when we are down and low (IN26)

Shared leadership is very important for self-development and the development of others. We can always learn something new or change an approach if another way works better. Shared leadership only works when one is receptive to listening and open to new ideas and ways of learning (IN25).

What all organisations need to do as it makes organisations achieve their goals. I believe that working as a team makes a job or project easier as each individual has their own strength and ideas that if shared an organisation may be successful |
Where those in a position of leadership pool their skills and abilities together for the good of the organisation. It also involves consultation, joint decision making and problem solving. It involves reaching a consensus, but also recognising that not everyone will agree in a decision. Important to agree to disagree. To some extent compromising. Being a critical friend, humility and generosity.

If you’re having a partnership there is need for shared leadership. Also within the board of trustees, you have people who have been picked up to lead that there is, as I say, a Chair. And the chair is not an executive chair so there must be input. He has a focus and then if there is something that he has seen, and he wants to make a case for it’s his onus to make sure that he brings the board along with him so that they know the direction that he is going.

To me? It’s basically what we are doing in {Name of organisation}. What we say in my country, we say that if the Chief Officer of a police station suddenly collapses, you cannot close the police station, because once it goes down people will try and go and commit crime. The other ones that have been there, they must step up and everybody knows what’s happening in the organisation. So I consider myself as a very generous individual. I don’t keep information to myself. I am one person, because I am an introvert I am not found here, there, it does not mean I don’t know what’s going on. I have got an incline into it, however, because of the power that people have given me it’s not my power – I like to see them having fun. They tell me about the stories, I am fine about it. Even if when they go there is remuneration, listen, for you to be a leader – that’s why they say you know, enough chiefs – no India. Be the chief. In a nice way, where
people when they don’t see you but they know exactly that you care and you support whatever it is that you are doing. That’s my vision of it (IN21).

Shared Leadership, I mean is quite an – I’m not sure if I am going to… it’s not like there is a yes or no answer…yes or correct…. But a shared leadership, for an organisation to run, it’s not run by a Chairman only or if it is in the private sector but whoever is Chief executive but when everyone within the organisation, including service users and there is an input from everyone, especially within the leadership and everyone accepts seriously what someone contributes I think to me, that is shared leadership. Taking everything on board from everyone who is within an organisation (IN20).

What comes to my mind – sharing leadership means maybe to join with the other organisation. And because of the banks it is easier for them. For use if we are aiming at the same thing, then that is probably the sharing of leadership (IN19).

I’m not quite sure but shared leadership just means that means, I refer to be on another organisation? To sharing for another … like partnership (IN18).

Shared leadership, I think it’s like everyone in an organisation who are just helping each other basically to come up with a natural decision in the end, a final decision. Valuing everyone’s opinions as well (IN17).

Perhaps involving… Shared leadership for me would probably… probably is, the top management, or the people that are responsible for the actual leadership, involving those who are not directly involved in the leadership so that they can run the organisation together. That would be my take on it (IN16).

Shared leadership is when the leader decides to
give authority to other people so that they can also exercise their talents, their skills with the leader assuming the ultimate control. For instance with our type of network that’s more appropriate because we have got say Congolese groups, they have got their own uniqueness. We have got say the Zimbabwean groups, they have got their own uniqueness’ and their own politics. Different people from all over Africa – everyone wants to feel respected if he is given the room to decide and use his intelligence. It will be difficult for me to move into say the Congolese community and start telling them what to do. Benefitting from the fact that you said that everything is confidential I will tell you one scenario. There was a time we were struggling to get a woman who was going to work with the Congolese women. Actually the Secretary had overstepped his mandate in trying to bring his wife and we could not accept it but we asked her to come in as a volunteer but even that she made a mess of it. Then… because time was ticking and we needed to meet the milestones, we advertised to look for somebody who could speak Lingala, French and I think the other Congolese language. We got somebody, very switched on who was able to work with them. She had a lot of experience, she had worked here, she had been brought up in Congo. But unfortunately, we didn’t know that she was originally from Rwanda. Congolese and Rwandese – they’ve got their own politics. When they came to know of her surname that became an issue. She did good work but could have achieved more. When we heard these fights coming up to say, no! where is she from, it became difficult for her to network and some could not really open up to her but they could open up to me to say because she is from the other country we can’t come in. So that’s where shared leadership becomes very important because somebody who is so familiar with Congo will know which buttons to press for things to happen but if you try and be a know all, you will mess other aspects, particularly being in a
heterogeneous community like ours (IN15).

Is it sharing a leader? Like leaders sharing for money. To give an example, like leaders sharing their responsibilities or something... of an organisation, of the activities or something like that (IN14).

Leadership – it’s probably being the sharing of the responsibility that is on you as a leader being able to do that with other people (IN13).

In my head, you know?, I would think it would be about probably all departments working together and making sure that everyone else from top to ground is involved – I am not sure (IN12).

Erm... it’s weird because I did a drama, ???. and education degree so we did a lot of co-facilitation so in my head when I think of shared leadership, it’s kind of you’re leading with somebody else so you need to be on your highest levels together but also on the page. Erm... in that instance, it’s quite helpful because where somebody might be lacking in something, that other person might also have that quality. I think it might be quite difficult though because I think people always have their different agendas so in terms of matching those agenda’s and really going forward together could be quite difficult. But at the same time you’ve got somebody who is also kind of with you fighting at the same... and leading your team together, but I think it has its problems as well just as leading on your own can have its problems (IN11).

I think of it as being where... I don’t know, I don’t know. I’m not sure whether you mean equal shared leadership or a leadership ... It’s important to have a leader, a single leader but then I think there should be perhaps, depends on the size of the organisation, but I think we have a size that ideally there would actually be – we have got people in charge of the playside, we have got
people in charge of the adults, we have got people in charge of volunteering and so on. So I think the structure is there erm…that’s my idea of what shared leadership should be (IN9).

I think shared leadership would be about a few people or more in leadership sitting around the table, banging heads together, getting solutions, not just one person [not clear]… and leadership is also about teamwork and not just from one person taking something forward because you are bound to make a lot more mistakes. But shared leadership as well as if you do have one leadership and they are off, that they hand the reigns over to somebody else who can carry things through while they are away, rather than everything stops because they are not here. So I think it’s twofold, it can be that, if you’re just going to have it on that in one sense but on another we’ve got a lot more people sitting on a desk, you know like trustees, corporate directors and stuff like that – where you have more than one. That’s my idea of it (IN8).

Yes, I think it is everybody taking…I don’t know… shared leadership…when the organisation is smaller everybody takes responsibility at the same time to reach the goals of course there is something who leads the organisation but he allows other people to share that and do things achieve things together (IN7).

More than one person or various stakeholders can all come together to drive an organisation and yeah take it forward and lead it so there would not be one top down approach there would be lots of stakeholders involved (IN6).

I haven’t heard of it directly, I think that what it means to me is that it’s a collaborative approach to the running of an organisation, it doesn’t make much sense because it’s very difficult to share, how can you lead and share and if you’ve got three people and one leading all they’re all leading
it’ll have to be something more like shared working practice because leading by default means that someone leading and someone following (IN5).

I think shared leadership is when everyone who is a participant in the organisation and that’s from employees to managers to officers to directors and above and also the users of services have an active way to contribute to the strategy of the organisation, that’s what I think shared leadership is and what it should be and I think that everyone should feel as though they and their experience of an organisation and its services is being fed into the strategy and leadership of the organisation, that’s what I think shared leadership is (IN4).

It seems like it means- firstly, it would have been really interesting by saying what is the definition of leadership here. So I think I started this interview by saying, to you for me we are all leaders, as in I think that it’s a personal responsibility to be a leader and to be pro-active, for me to be a leader is to be pro-active and to finding creative solutions for problems, and creatively delegating work and making sure that work is delegated in the way that really works for people- we don’t all have the same strengths and weaknesses, so I think leaders in each teams are essential in spotting where the strengths and weaknesses are, but that’s just in a nutshell, but shared leadership- sort of the top definition of leadership as in- top leadership that is under, the job description of our executive directors and directors can be shared indeed to lower level directors and managers, I guess this is where you’re coming to? This shared leadership is I guess essential as leadership is for me needed in as many levels in the organisation as possible therefore people should- in order to fill in power, to make decisions and feel like they can really make an impactful and- sorry I lost my train of thought (IN3).
I haven’t heard of the notion of shared leadership I can imagine … what it means to me is various people in the organisation leading in different ways in areas where they have competencies…different people…in leadership being responsibility of everybody rather than just an individual each person knows….and I think is about the CEO actively delegating giving authority to people to lead and direct (IN2).

It’s I guess it says something about a shared vision, that’s what it would mean to me. I think that if you are a leader that you have some kind of vision that/s what I would differentiate between a leader and a manager of something that would be some kind of vision and a shared leadership is everybody agreeing on what that vision is and working towards that (IN1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Differentiation and integration of shared leadership (Who can a leader be)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yeah so it’s quite I’m given quite a lot of freedom in terms of what music therapy can provide to the clients and I think that in terms of the director here sees it as myself and the other music therapists to being an EXPERT in that kind of field and will be able to talk directly to people and other agencies about what it can offer so quite often when we do have a music therapy referral it is pointed in the direction of myself or my colleagues in terms of what will be the best case to do here so in that way you know it’s a very communicative relationship where it's back and forwards…(IN1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I think then within that structure… leaders within...
that… I do think that you sometimes then come across individuals who take lead in certain areas so in my team as for example there is one person who is specializing in a certain policy area and she is emerging as a lead thinker in that area [of] policy and academics so she is got, so have people who develop certain expertise who also become leaders in their own right… (IN2)

I have been asked to audit internal and external services because of my approach to methodical and unbiased. I have been asked to project manage set up of a service and a closure of a service. I consider myself a leader as I am well respected within my organisation, as I have acquired enough skills and knowledge to share, but also be open minded to learn from others (IN27).

When there is transparency and people know there is a direction, they know there is a focus, there’s an agenda, you have a set values that you adhere to, you have a set of policies that are put in place, you have volunteers, members of your board, or the membership. Once these things are outlined so that everybody is aware and there is no conflict and also we have a conflict resolution clause (IN22).

So I think one of the success here that I’ve seen in the comparison to the small NGO I used to work with, where leadership was kept at the top and the others were told what to do and were very much micromanaged, were very much disempowered, were very unhappy kept on leaving, high turnover, here there is a high level of realization that people need to feel empowered and need to be recognized, recognition from salary to- there’s no employee of the month scheme here but there are various other ways people feel they can get out of working really well, we have field trips- people who work for a long time get to go to the field and see their work first hand so I think the shared
leadership is something which is very present here- from what I understand of it (IN3).

| Stakeholder involvement & participation (How do stakeholders participate in the leadership) | I felt that, charging parents an entry fee in order to provide them with a cup of tea and biscuits would exclude some families from accessing services at the children centre… I was consulted about the provision of parenting courses to service users, teenage parenting classes… I felt that, despite the consultation the decision had already been made (IN30).

Leadership to me is having clear goals, aims and objectives and ensure that as a team we work collectively together. Leadership must allow room for flexibility when needed, but at the same time be clear and consistent in one’s approach. Leadership involves participation from the team and the service users you are providing the service too (IN27). |
| --- | --- |
| Voluntarism (Do they volunteer to take part in the leadership) | At times, I feel I am volunteering because you really go beyond the job description. We need to look at things this way, like when you are sort of educating them about the environment, sometimes you say… why am I educating them, everyone is [I] how things are being done around us but people are refusing to do things as they are supposed to be done. Or they could be doing things properly in their own organisation but when it comes to the network, it is a different situation so you need to volunteer to go out of your way, you say this is how we need to play the game if we are to grow, remain relevant and continue being attractive to funders, this is how we need to do it (IN15).

I think I volunteer. I have the advantage of being probably the oldest member of staff here and also the fact that I am an outside person, I don’t have |
to worry about what anybody thinks of me. I don’t – I can be given the sack tomorrow…so I think I have a sort of …. Just that experience makes it easier for me, I don’t have a problem, and also the director she is very much the one in charge. She’s also very approachable (IN9).

Because she leave me to sometimes take responsibility on the shop floor while she was up dealing with the deliveries for hours because there’s a lot of stuff that comes from companies, clothes from actual people, they need tagging and pricing. So she left me on the whole shop floor to just serve people and stuff so in a way I am leading (IN17).

The board I sit on for example is very much lacking in terms of BME communities – diversity, so one of the things I was consulted on is why - I mean they are already very good and have recognised the fact that we are actually quite imbalanced when it comes to diversity so they have involved me in asking why that might be the case and if there were any recommendations that I could make to be able to encourage the people from the BME communities to get involved. So that was one thing. And the other thing also is – there was quite a lot of research being done on patient involvement around home testing kits and that was another aspect where I got quite involved in doing it (IN16).

The supported vs the neglected (stakeholders’ relationships with perceived leaders) It’s really… well, like at the beginning I was a service user myself because I was using the service and one of the person that works there kind of saw me… we would really like you to join… why don’t you come and volunteer on your days off, like kind of help other people who are going through the same thing as you. As I said that’s fine. They made me feel really welcome and made me feel like they boosted my confidence, then it helped me in different kind of
always because I was helping people and I didn’t even notice that helping them kind of helped me so. So they are my backbone they really helped (IN14).

It’s a very good relationship because when there are issues, if they are raised they are taken to the management committee in a transparent way and they always get addressed. So I can say it’s a good relationship. Each time something is raised you always get a response or you always get an answer. So I can fairly say, I don’t know, maybe that it’s a small organisation, that’s why it works. If it was bigger then it would be a different story altogether (IN13).

With the director, I’ve been sort of getting to know them on a more personal level and obviously the relationship has improved – like I said she is very approachable so she is always easy to talk, always keen to want to know what areas you would like to sort of increase your knowledge on. She was very interested to know whether I would like to attend trustee training and was instrumental in me doing that. The same with the Chairman – she is also very keen on wanting to know how much more involved you’d like to become. She is also quite interested in the personal aspects of you as an individual, so outside the trusteeship – do you have children, what else is it you are doing and that kind of thing, so I would say the relationship is quite good with both of them (IN16).

| Outcomes, benefits, drivers, conditions of shared leadership | I think… driver would be creative to set trends… to try and find innovation because you have multiple thinking… you got vision coming from a range of places…. people driving the work forward coming from different directions… (IN2). Well I think it’s very helpful to have an | 6 |
understanding of what the other person does and clear idea of other peoples roles, clarity of roles, where the limitations occur between each person what they can offer and what they can’t offer, that’s very important and also they need to feel that they are contributing in some way and recognised in some way for what they bring to things and if it’s shared then I imagine that you would want to feel as valuable and recognised as the other person and seeing the person’s role or there is, it’s not such a hierarchy, I guess shared leadership, obviously within every organisation there is a hierarchy but within shared leadership there would be less. I don’t know it’s a difficult (IN1).

The benefits – you’ve always go someone that’s supporting you and you could always continually kind of share those ideas and somebody can give you initial feedback – no, that’s not a good idea, that is a good idea. And just having that person behind you to really support your idea and as a shared leader, you really should be behind your idea, no matter what anyway (IN10).

For it … be a… I think you have to have some kind of good communication and kind or to know the weakness and the strength of each other so it’s like somebody who is lacking in computer writing or you can help then or if somebody is good at talking, you can be the one that’s sitting down and…. that kind of thing…. Kind of help each other and boost each other up in a good way (IN14).

I think where people share common values like where we say we need to perform, everyone should work to his ability. The trust that has been put before us it needs each other’s contribution. Teamwork is part of the values that must be ??? for shared leadership and also the fact that those who are being delegated authority will take it as form of apprenticeship whereby in future they
may takeover so by doing the work, whereby the ultimate credit will go to the leader they may take it as a training ground for their own future ???? future positions (IN15).

Quite pleased actually because it then made me feel like whatever contribution I had to make was actually quite relevant and it was quite important so for me it made me feel involved and sort of necessary that I was there, so yeah, it made me feel quite pleased so I was quite happy with that (IN16).

| Limitations, difficulties and drawbacks of shared leadership | The fact that too many ideas, as they say too many cooks spoil the broth that would probably be a problem. The other one would be there may be resistance in terms of who brings the ideas and you know… it may cause some kind of … ill feeling… If one idea is not taken on board even if the reasons were valid it gives room for people to think oh maybe… you know… they get discouraged and they lack confidence or things like that, so for me those would be the main drawbacks (IN16).  
I think it might be quite difficult though because I think people always have their different agendas so in terms of matching those agenda’s and really going forward together could be quite difficult. But at the same time you’ve got somebody who is also kind of with you fighting at the same… and leading your team together, but I think it has its problems as well just as leading on your own can have its problems (IN11).  
I think and also limitations and also the drivers… limitation if it is not… there is something about … leadership is different from management….if leadership is not actually being managed… I mean being too democratic decision making could become difficult… shared leadership… how do you then balance it out…so I think they could be | 5 |
limitations around being… too democratic or not decisive…(IN2).

You have to continually be with somebody else on their vision and really see things together and when you can’t see something together, that could be quite difficult because you still need to lead your team and if the 2 leaders are not on the same page, I don’t know where your team is going to be because they are going to be very confused. You have to continually consult somebody else before you do anything and whereas on your own you can just kind of have that idea of really go for it! Erm… (IN11).

ABSOLUTELY, giant ones. It’s- I don’t think any organisation has perfect communication I don’t think it’s ever possible, I think it’s limited to time and resources and money coming down to it. Having to set up that, to do it efficiently requires a lot time all evaluation requires a lot of time, it requires taking in information and processing it and turning it into something worth profit and all of that requires resource, resource that 3rd sector organisations are severely strapped for. At a time when contracts for 3r sector organisations only give them money and only give them resource to do the job they do with no evaluation with no real communication you know the money is given to provide the service and that is it and organisation would not be able to survive off that, because organisations cannot simply just provide a service and expect for them to continue working, they can’t do that but that is the limitation we are working at the moment that councils and commissioners are only willing to pay for the service and do not recognize the resource requirement, for an organisation to evaluate its services at the same time and to be able to change them and to be able to put them into shared leadership and that is a REALLY REALLY big difficult limitation, which I don’t know how you overcome that (IN4).
| I regard myself as a leader (Self-Leadership) | Yes, yes, yes…. I said, I mean everyone has got something. People anyway by nature, biologically we are different and the way we think, the way we act we influence things in a different way so I believe just because I am a unique individual, I should have influence… I should have played a role in my organisation yes (IN20). Yeah I am actually. To think about it, I am…Probably… Because at the beginning I didn’t really see my role at that, I kind of threw myself into volunteering because I needed the experience and all of that but actually I learnt so much from volunteering from both of the organisations and from meeting people and making so many better relationships with people, I am kind of like helping other people and seeing somebody’s else’s potential – like they do not see it themselves but you kind of like boost them. It helps them but at the same time, it helps you because you feel like you’ve done something good to the community – like aaahhh I’ve done this – you can see somebody come back and they have that bright smile and they are happy to speak to you like oh this happened I did this, I went to college – you gave me confidence to for me to do this and all of that. So, I am kind of a leader (IN14). I consider myself as a leader in the organisation because I have managed to influence the decision making process in some ways (IN30). Yes, I was involved in most of the decision-making in the team and I was present for every step of the way (IN29). Yes, I am decisive, considerate work within given standards and communicative (IN28). Yes, the people clients I support get inspiration from me (IN27). | 11 |
I consider myself a leader as I am well respected within my organisation, as I have acquired enough skills and knowledge to share, but also be open minded to learn from others (IN25).

I listen, share, work as a team player. I am always available to help and always want to make sure that we meet the vision of the organisation (IN24)

I believe my involvement is at a senior level. Because my decisions and suggestions are taken seriously. I am consulted around decisions governing important work within the organisation. I am meaningfully involved. I also believe I make a real contribution in the leadership of the organisation (IN23)

Yes of course because when we are meeting we have every 3 months meeting, committee meeting, we have trustee meeting we decide what the organisation going and is there any decisions we want to, we do it. All people, are gathering people altogether. We agree together (IN18).

In a way yeah I would say I am sort of…Because she leave me to sometimes take responsibility on the shop floor while she was up dealing with the deliveries for hours because there’s a lot of stuff that comes from companies, clothes from actual people, they need tagging and pricing. So she left me on the whole shop floor to just serve people and stuff so in a way I am leading (IN17).
Appendix XIV

Phase 2 Tables of the Crosstabulation between Position and SLV

The following are the tables representing the findings of the crosstabulation between ‘Position in the organisation’ and the shared leadership variables (SLV).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consulted in decision-making process</th>
<th>Position in the organisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trustee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely agree</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately agree</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree nor disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that 20 volunteers out of 30 representing 66% ‘agree’ to being consulted in the decision-making process compared to 66 employees out of 81 representing 81.4%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are consulted in the decision-making process.
The table above shows that 16 volunteers out of 30 representing 53.3% ‘agree’ to being actively involved in the decision-making process compared to 58 employees out of 81 representing 71.6%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are actively involved in the decision-making process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actively involved in decision-making</th>
<th>Position in the organisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trustee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely agree</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately agree</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly agree</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree nor disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table above shows that 17 volunteers out of 30 representing 56.6% ‘agree’ to being consulted in the strategic planning compared to 60 employees out of 81 representing 74%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are consulted in the strategic planning.
The table above shows that 16 volunteers out of 30 representing 53.3% ‘agree’ to being actively involved in the strategic planning compared to 50 employees out of 81 representing 61.7%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are actively involved in the strategic planning.
The table above shows that 17 volunteers out of 30 (56.6%) agree that power is delegated to them compared to 64 employees out of 81 (79%). Moreover, only 6 trustees out of 14 (42.8%) agree that power is delegated to them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Power is delegated to me</th>
<th>N/A</th>
<th>Extremely agree</th>
<th>Moderately agree</th>
<th>Slightly agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Slightly disagree</th>
<th>Moderately disagree</th>
<th>Extremely disagree</th>
<th>No Response</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trustee</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table above shows that 12 volunteers out of 30 (40%) agree that they share and delegate power compared to 62 employees out of 81 (76.5%). Moreover, all the trustees agree that they share and delegate power.
The table above shows that 16 volunteers out of 30 representing 53.3% ‘agree’ to being consulted regarding the organisation’s vision compared to 55 employees out of 81 representing 67%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are consulted regarding the organisation’s vision.
The table above shows that only 11 volunteers out of 30 representing 36.6% ‘agree’ somehow to being actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision compared to 44 employees out of 81 representing 54.3%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are actively involved in the formulation of the organisation’s vision.
The table above shows that 18 volunteers out of 30 representing 60% ‘agree’ that they are consulted regarding responsibilities and problems compared to 59 employees out of 81 representing 72.8%. It is also interesting to note that all trustees (14) are consulted regarding responsibilities and problems.
The table above shows that 10 volunteers out of 30 representing 33.3% ‘extremely disagree’ to being regarded as leaders compared to only 15 employees out of 81 representing 18.5%. It is also interesting to note that nearly all trustees (14) regard themselves as leaders.