



Global Definitions of Leadership
and Theories of Leadership
Development:
Literature Review

Introduction

The University of Cambridge Institute for Sustainability Leadership (CISL) was commissioned to conduct a literature review on leadership and leadership development by the British Council. The purpose was to inform the design of a new global programme to support future global leaders in the UK and overseas, and to underpin its methodology for developing leadership skills and qualities.

More specifically, the British Council wished to improve their understanding of what ‘good’ leadership means, including how these concepts are understood across different countries and regions (most notably China, Egypt, India, Kenya and Mexico), and specifically, within the fields of policy and politics. In addition, the British Council sought to gain insight from existing leadership theories and leadership development programmes into how leadership is developed, and how perspectives and practices differ globally.

The review is structured in the following way:

- Chapter 1 explores ‘good’ leadership in a global context, including research into universal attributes of leaders, and gender and generational reflections
- Chapter 2 explores ‘good’ leadership in specific geo-cultural contexts, with reference to established theories and schools of leadership
- Chapter 3 explores ‘good’ leadership in a policy and political context, exploring public value, legitimacy, accountability, and capability.
- Chapter 4 explores what ‘good’ leadership development looks like, engaging with different theories of learning, the role of leadership competency frameworks, and hybrid models of learning.
- Chapter 5 picks up the specific countries in which the British Council is interested, providing further detail into their socio-economic and political context, before concluding with recommendations for specific leadership competencies to develop

The review concludes with some final reflections and a summary of recommendations for developing the new global programme.

1. Global Perspectives on Leadership

Summary

Our review of leadership thinking begins with global perspectives, and what ‘good’ leadership looks like in a global context. The key insights from this review are that:

- Leadership is increasingly defined and judged in relation to complex global socio-economic and environmental risks and opportunities, and the pursuit of ‘sustainable development’
- The literature has generated countless lists of supposedly universal leadership attributes. Gender and generational perspectives show general agreement but provide some nuanced perspectives.
- In the global context, a “global mindset” is a critical leadership attribute to cultivate, developing skills of open-mindedness, inclusivity, long-term and systemic thinking, and navigating complexity.

The chapter proceeds to examine the following areas: global context, leadership as a response, universal perspectives, gender and generational perspectives, and global mindsets.

Global context

The leaders of today – be they political leaders, corporate leaders or civil society leaders – have to act within the context of a dynamic system of global pressures and trends. These are tracked every year by the World Economic Forum’s (WEF, 2016) Global Risks Report, which identified the following risks for 2016: failure of climate-change mitigation and adaptation, weapons of mass-destruction, water crises, large-scale involuntary migration and severe energy price shocks.

The challenge of leadership is to turn these risks into opportunities, which may even pre-empt or prevent the risks. Indeed, the Global Opportunities Report (DNV GL, 2016) takes 5 key risks and explores 15 opportunities that may be key in tackling these.¹ These risks and opportunities vary by region and country. For example, the top risk in Latin America and the Caribbean and Sub-Saharan Africa is failure of national governments, whereas in the Middle East and North Africa and South Asia it is water crises, and in East Asia and the Pacific, it is natural catastrophes. North America, Sub-Saharan Africa and India rank the same top opportunity as smart farming,² while South America is focused on the digital labour market and China is prioritising smart ocean solutions.³

Typically, these risks and opportunities are framed in terms of sustainable development (WCED, 1987), which is encoded at a political level in the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which were launched in September 2016 (Figure 1). The 17 goals with 169 targets build on the success of the 8 UN

¹ The top opportunities in 2016 included: smart farming, the digital labour market, closing the skills gap, reducing food waste, and precision treatment in healthcare.

² Description by DNV GL (2016): Vast dissemination of advanced technological tools at an affordable price has meant that both large and small-scale farmers have new and more precise tools to produce more with less.

³ Description by DNV GL (2016): The oceans of the world are the last undiscovered frontier, which is slowly opening up to become smart oceans, this will enable us to make the right choices for sustainable development in the ocean space.

Millennium Development Goals which preceded them, setting priorities for government leaders and other sectors over 15 years to 2030.

Figure 1: UN Sustainable Development Goals



In response to these global risks and challenges, governments (national and city/local) are perceived as demonstrating the *weakest* leadership as compared with other sectors, according to a multi-stakeholder survey across 84 countries (Globescan & SustainAbility, 2016). This is despite a belief (especially in Oceania, Asia and Europe) that national governments, along with the private sector, are the institutions that *should* – more than any other group or sector – be leading on sustainable development.

This apparent failure of government leadership on sustainability is seen as one of the major drivers of what the World Economic Forum (WEF, 2016) calls the trend of “the (dis)empowered citizen”. They explain the political drivers of this phenomenon as follows: “*The perceived inability of governments to respond to major global challenges – from climate change and internet governance to food security – is eroding confidence in authorities ... Citizens’ view that their own voices are being ignored by political leaders is exacerbated – even apparently validated – by the perception that the wealthy enjoy privileged access to decision-makers*” (41).

In examining leadership responses to these challenges facing the world, it is critical that we understand global perspectives in leadership, including: 1) universal traits that have been associated with good leaders; 2) how these universal traits are viewed by different genders and generations; and 3) how globalisation is changing leaders’ perspectives and required competencies.

Leadership as a response

Leadership is often seen as one of the most important and effective responses to the challenges and opportunities presented by the global context. Definitions of leadership are many and varied. For the purposes of introduction, however, a sample of definitions will suffice to convey some of the key ideas in circulation.

Rost (1991) describes leadership as “an influence relationship among leaders and collaborators who intend significant changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (102), while Kouzes and Posner (1991) believe it is “the art of mobilising others to want to struggle for shared aspirations” (30). Common themes of influence, change and leader-follower collaboration emerge from these and other definitions. Senge et al. (1999), for example, describes leadership as “the capacity of a human community to share its future, and specifically to sustain the significant processes of change required to do so” (16).

Most of these (and other) definitions explicitly or implicitly reflect the ideas of an underlying theory or school of leadership. The most influential of these general theories of leadership are introduced briefly in Table 1.

Table 1: General theories of leadership

<i>Theory/school</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>References</i>
Great Man or Trait school	Celebrates outstanding individual leaders (in the heroic tradition) and studies their traits or characteristics to understand their accomplishments as leaders.	Stodgill, 1948; Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973; CEML, 2002; Harter, 2008
Behavioural or Styles school	Describes leadership in terms of people- and task-orientation, suggesting that different combinations of these produce different styles of leadership.	Lewin et al., 1939; Blake and Mouton, 1964, 1985; Kouzes and Posner, 1995
Situational or Context school	Emphasises the importance of context in shaping leaders’ responses to be more relationship or task motivated, or more authoritative or participative.	Hersey and Blanchard, 1969, 1974; Vroom and Yetton, 1973; Graeff, 1983
Contingency or Interactionist school	Proposes that leaders’ influence is contingent on various factors (like positional power), which in turn determines appropriate leadership styles.	Fiedler, 1967; House and Mitchell, 1974; Barbour, 2008
Transactional or Transformational school	Contrasts leadership as a negotiated cost-benefit exchange and as an appeal to self-transcendent values of pursuing shared goals for the common good.	Bass, 1974; Burns, 1978; Price, 2003

Source: CISL analysis

Universal perspectives

Implicit in many of these definitions is the notion of leadership traits, which is one of the oldest forms of leadership enquiry – often referred to as Great Man or Trait Theory (Carlyle, 1841; Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973; Harter, 2008). Despite criticism (e.g. Stodgill, 1948; Levine, 2008; Fletcher, 2003), the fascination with leadership traits persists. For example, a meta-study by the Centre for Excellence in Management and Leadership (CEML, 2002) identified over 1,000 leadership traits in the literature, which they distilled to 83 more or less distinct attributes. Less comprehensive lists have been produced (e.g. Levine, 2008) and categorisations proposed (e.g. Boyatzis, 1982; Stodgill, 1974). Of these, Stodgill is perhaps the most user-friendly (Table 2).

Table 2: Categorisation of factors associated with leadership

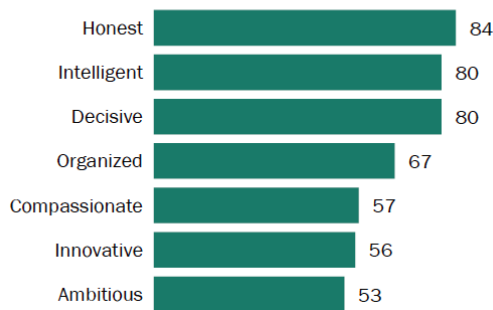
Primary factor	Associated leadership traits
Capacity	Intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality, judgement
Achievement	Scholarship, knowledge, athletic accomplishment
Responsibility	Dependability, initiative, persistence, aggressiveness, self-confidence, desire to excel
Participation	Activity, sociability, co-operation, adaptability, humour
Status	Socio-economic position, popularity
Situation	Status, skills, needs and interests of followers, objectives to be achieved

Source: Stodgill, 1974

A different approach to reviewing the literature is to poll the public and find out what may be universally admired characteristics of leaders. For example, Gallup's executive leadership research program has over the last four decades studied more than 50,000 prospective leaders and senior executives around the world across government and business. This research has identified 12 universal leadership traits important in helping distinguish leadership styles and in distinguishing successful from unsuccessful leaders, namely whether they are: intense, competitive, inspiring, courageous, prepared, consistent, enthusiastic, caring about individuals, success-oriented, analytical, focused and visionary (Newport and Harter, 2016). Similarly, the Pew Research Centre (2015b) identified 7 traits that people believe matter most (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Which leadership traits matter most?

% saying it is absolutely essential for a leader to be ...



Source: Pew Research Center (2015b)

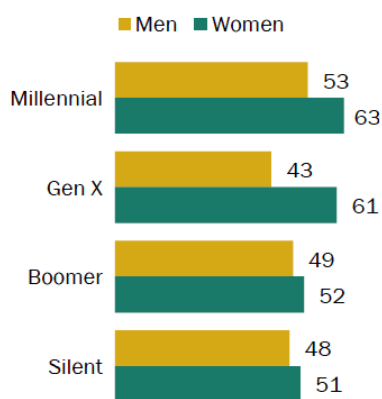
Gender and generational perspectives

There is a substantive literature on gender discrimination and leadership, i.e. why women are so under-represented in leadership positions in government and business around the world. This will not be explored further in this report, but interested readers are referred to Ely (2003), Eagly and Chin (2010) and Pew Research Center (2015b). There is also extensive research on the merits of more inclusive leadership (Chin and Trimble, 2014; Voyageur et al., 2014), including from gender and generational perspectives, which will be described in more detail in the next chapter. Here, we wish to highlight the variations that gender and age bring to universal perceptions of good leadership.

The Pew Research Center (2015b) studied gender and generational effects on perceptions of good leadership in an American context. The first finding is that, on the most highly rated ‘essential traits’ – namely honesty, intelligence and decisiveness – there is very little gender variation. Gender variation is more marked on leadership traits that are seen as relatively less important. For example, women are much more likely than men to say that being compassionate is absolutely essential in a leader (66% compared with 47%). Women also place a higher value on innovation than men do (61% vs. 51%). In addition, women are more likely than men to say that ambition is an essential trait for a leader (57% vs. 48%). The focus on ambition is driven by the younger generations—Millennials⁴ and Gen Xers⁵ (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Gender and generational perspectives on leader ambition

% saying it is absolutely essential for a leader to be ambitious



Source: Pew Research Center, 2015b

In terms of perceptions of political leadership, a strong majority (75%) say women and men make equally good political leaders, while just 14% say men generally make better political leaders than women, and 9% say women make better leaders than men. There is a slight tendency for each gender to prefer leaders of their own gender. There is broad agreement across generations as well, although Gen Xers are somewhat less likely than younger or older generations to say that women make better leaders than men.

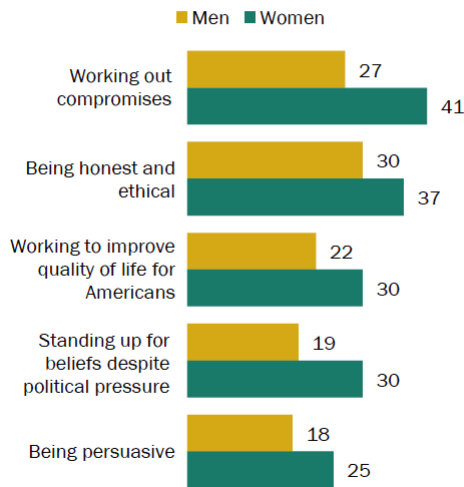
Where the variation occurs is not on whether women make equally good leaders, but on which traits they are more likely to exhibit. For example, 34% of all adults say women serving in high-level political offices are better at working out compromises (9% for men) and are more honest and ethical (3% for men), are better at working to improve the quality of life of citizens (26% for women, 5% for men) and are more likely to stand up for beliefs despite political pressure (25% for women, 10% for men). Perhaps unsurprisingly, women are also more likely to hold these views about the strengths of female political leaders than men (Figure 4).

⁴ The Pew Research Center describes Millennials as those born after 1980 and the first generation to come of age in the new millennium.

⁵ Generation X (or Gen X) refers to the demographic cohort sandwiched between the Baby boomers and the Millennials.

Figure 4: Gender perspectives on women political leaders' traits

% saying, in general, women in high political offices are better than men at ...



Source: Pew Research Center, 2015b

Finally, some gender differences arise in perceptions of government policy and functional capabilities. Notably, some 38% say women in high political office do a better job than men dealing with social issues such as education and health care (versus 3% for men), while 37% say men are better at dealing with national security and defense (5% for women).

Global mindsets

In addition to global perspectives *on* leadership, there is also the importance of the global perspective *of* leaders. The World Economic Forum’s (WEF, 2014) Survey on the Global Agenda is unambiguous about the qualities that make for strong leadership. From the US to Europe and Asia, there is agreement that having a “global perspective” is the number one skill for any strong leader in 2015. (“Collaboration” emerges as another key trait, appearing in the top three choices for every region, while “communication” was selected by four of the six geographical groups).

Similarly, insights from a twenty-year study of business leadership suggest that one of the four essential tasks of leaders is “cultivating a global mindset by viewing cultural and geographic diversity as an opportunity, not just a challenge” (Gupta et al., 2008). Research by the Thunderbird School among over 200 global executives and over 6,000 managers have also characterised “the set of individual qualities that are critical for the leaders of tomorrow” as a “global mindset” (Javidan, 2010). Having a global mindset, they say, requires:

- Intellectual capital: global business savvy, cognitive complexity, cosmopolitan outlook;
- Psychological capital: passion for diversity, quest for adventure, self-assurance; and
- Social capital: intercultural empathy, interpersonal impact, diplomacy.

“Leaders with a strong stock of Global Mindset know about cultures and political and economic systems in other countries and understand how their global industry works. They are passionate about diversity and are willing to push themselves. They are comfortable with being uncomfortable in uncomfortable environments. They are also better able to build trusting relationships with people who are different from them by showing respect and empathy and by being good listeners.” (Javidan, 2010)

Pfeifer and Jackson (2008) agree that perceptions of what it means to be a successful ‘global leader’ are changing. *“No longer are the ‘geocentric globetrotters’ who were transferred from country to country to manage foreign operations seen as being the exemplars of good global leaders”* (34). Instead, global leaders need to become ‘transcultural creative leaders’ (Graen and Hui, 1999). *“These leaders have the ability to transcend their childhood acculturation; respect very different cultures; build cross-cultural partnerships based on mutual trust, respect and obligation; actively engage in cross-cultural problem-solving conflicts; and help to construct new cultures based around projects, networks and transitory organisations”* (Pfeifer and Jackson, 2008: 34-35).

Looking in more detail at the competencies such a global perspective implies, a number of elements of the CISL leadership model are especially relevant (Table 3).

Table 3: Traits, styles, skills and knowledge of global leaders

<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>Description</i>
Systemic thinker	The ability to appreciate the interconnectedness and interdependency of the whole system, at all levels, and to recognise how changes to parts of the system affect the whole
Open-minded	Actively seeking new knowledge and diverse opinions, questioning received wisdom, including being willing to have one’s own opinions challenged
Inclusive	Collaborative and participative, reconciling different world views and belief systems, both within communities and across geographic, cultural and political divides
Navigates complexity	Analysing, synthesising and translating complex issues, responding to risk, uncertainty and dilemmas, recognising and seizing opportunities and resolving problems or conflicts
Thinks long term	Envisioning and using strategic, long thinking and planning, seeing the whole, while not discounting the future
Globally conscious	Understands economic, social and ecological system pressures and the connections between these systems and political and economic forces
Interdisciplinary	Sees the relevance and interconnectedness of the political governance, physical sciences, social sciences, technology, business and other disciplines

Source: Adapted from Visser and Courtice, 2011

Some frame this global brand of leadership in terms of sustainability or future-fitness – that leaders for the future are *“individuals who are compelled to make a difference by deepening their awareness of themselves in relation to the world around them. In doing so, they adopt new ways of seeing, thinking and interacting that result in innovative, sustainable solutions”* (Sustainability Leadership Institute, 2016). More simply, a global leader is *“someone who inspires and supports action towards a better world”* (Visser and Courtice, 2011).

2. Geo-Cultural Perspectives Leadership

Summary

Following on from the global perspective explored in Chapter 1, this chapter explores what ‘good’ leadership looks like in particular geo-cultural contexts. The following insights were derived from this review:

- Leadership is influenced by the cultural or values context, which is often (but not always) clustered into geographical groupings.
- Some leadership behaviours or approaches enjoy more cross-cultural appeal (notably charismatic/value-based and team-oriented) than others.
- General theories of leadership shed further light on such leadership behaviours, with relevant insights from ‘transformational’, ‘servant’, ‘distributed’, ‘situational’ and ‘ethical’ schools of leadership.

The chapter proceeds to examine the following areas: geo-cultural perspectives, charismatic/value-based leadership, team-oriented leadership, participative leadership and humane-oriented leadership.

Geo-cultural perspectives

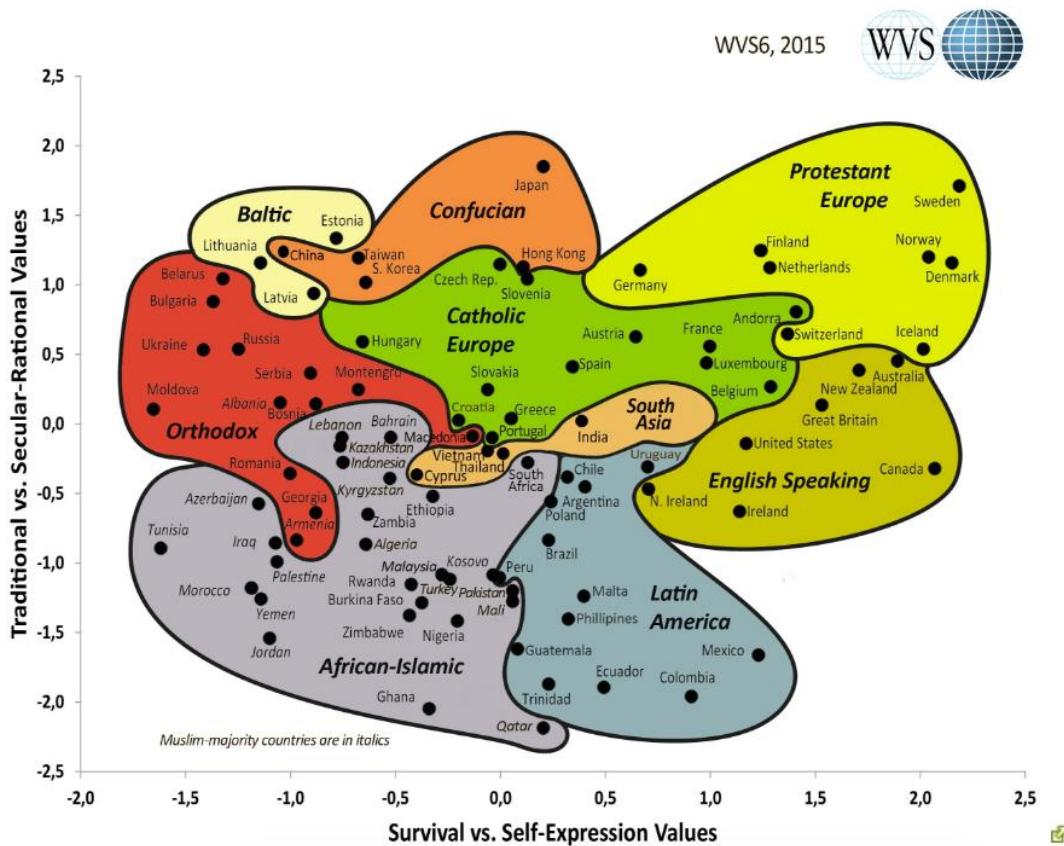
Flowing naturally from the global perspective of leaders is sensitivity to national contexts and cultural differences (Dickson et al., 2012; Gaddis and Foster, 2015; House et al., 2002; Kirkman et al., 2009; Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Clusters of cultural values have been studied extensively and give some insight into the context into which leaders must fit. For example, the World Values Survey (2015) – based on interviews with over 400,000 people from over 100 countries – maps countries on a grid (Figure 5) with one axis representing traditional versus secular-rational values and the other representing survival versus self-expression values (Table 4).

Table 4: Cultural dimensions of the World Values Survey

<i>Values</i>	<i>Description</i>
Traditional values	Emphasise the importance of religion, parent-child ties, deference to authority and traditional family values; reject divorce, abortion, euthanasia and suicide; high levels of national pride and a nationalistic outlook.
Secular-rational values	Less emphasis on religion, traditional family values and authority. Divorce, abortion, euthanasia and suicide are seen as relatively acceptable. (Suicide is not necessarily more common.)
Survival values	Place emphasis on economic and physical security. It is linked with a relatively ethnocentric outlook and low levels of trust and tolerance.
Self-expression values	Give high priority to environmental protection, growing tolerance of foreigners, gays and lesbians and gender equality, and rising demands for participation in decision-making in economic and political life.

Source: World Values Survey (2015)

Figure 5: World Values Survey cultural map (2010-2014)



Source: World Values Survey (2015)

The most comprehensive research using this approach and applying its findings to leadership is the GLOBE research project (House et al., 2004; Chhokar et al., 2013). The GLOBE study examines the role of culture as practices (“they way things *are* done in this culture”) and values (judgements about “the way things *should* be done”), building on the seminal work of Hofstede (1980) on cultural variation.

The study is not without its detractors. For example, De Ver (2009) argues that the GLOBE studies do not present any notion of the political nature of the leadership process, i.e. they do not explicitly address the role of competition between different leaders that is so prevalent in political institutions. Nonetheless, there are important insights to be gleaned from explicit consideration of cultural context, especially when designing and delivering leadership programmes (Gold et al., 2010; Hartley and Hinksman, 2003; Van Velsor et al., 2010).

The GLOBE study identified 21 primary leader attributes or behaviours that are universally viewed as contributors to leadership effectiveness and eight that are universally viewed as impediments. A further 35 specific leader attributes or behaviours are considered to be contributors in some cultures and impediments in other cultures. Based on this analysis, the research identifies six global leader behaviours, which are also called “culturally implicit theories of leadership”, including: charismatic / value-based, team-oriented, participative, humane-oriented, autonomous and self-protective leadership (Table 5).

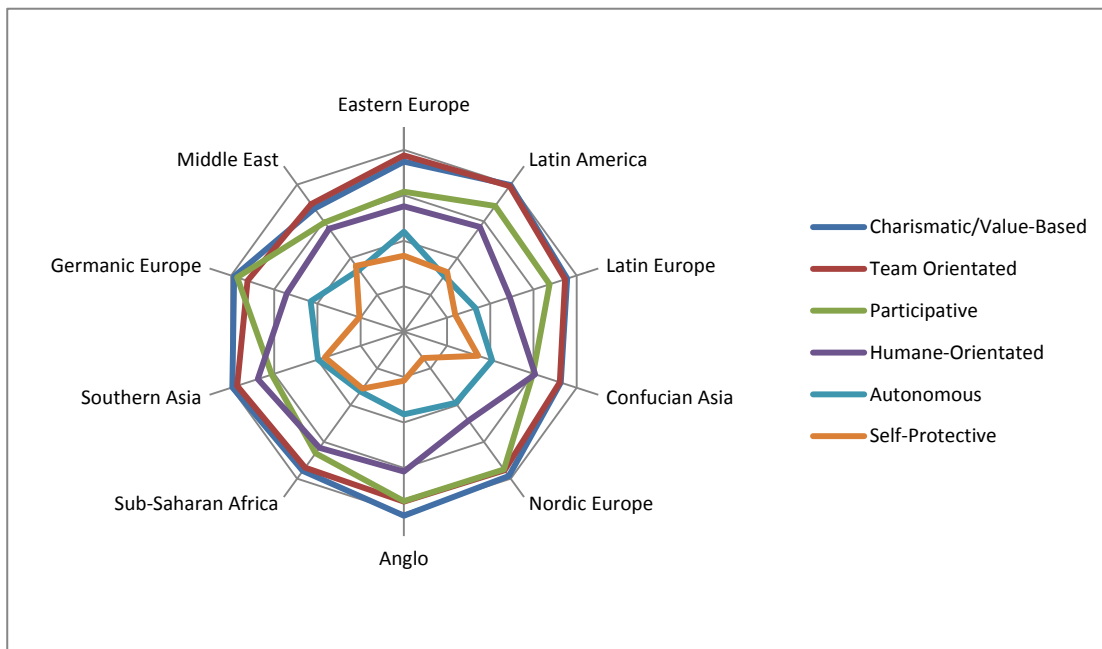
Table 5: GLOBE study’s six global leader behaviours

Dimension	Description
Charismatic / value-based leadership	Reflects the ability to inspire, to motivate and to expect high performance outcomes from others based on firmly held core values
Team-oriented leadership	Emphasises effective team building and implementation of a common purpose or goal among team members
Participative leadership	Reflects the degree to which managers involve others in making and implementing decisions
Humane-oriented leadership	Reflects supportive and considerate leadership but also includes compassion and generosity
Autonomous leadership	Refers to independent and individualistic attributes
Self-protective leadership	Focuses on ensuring the safety and security of the individual and group through status enhancement and face saving

Source: House et al., 2004

Each of these leadership dimensions includes sub-scales, which are a mixture of leadership characteristics and styles. Hence, these clusters of leadership behaviour draw on general theories of leadership (Table 1). Specifically, a focus on characteristics is consistent with the trait school of leadership (Levine, 2008; McCall and Lombardo, 1983; CEML, 2002).

Figure 6: GLOBE leadership dimension scores for each culture cluster



Source: House et al., 2004

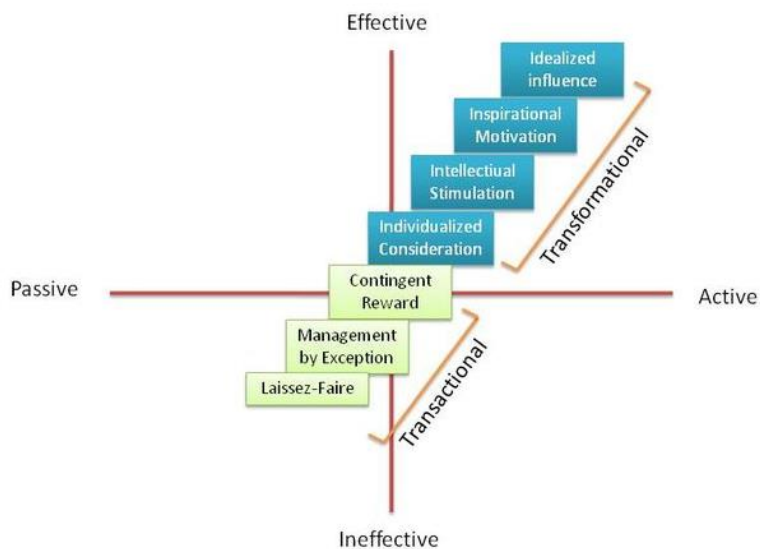
Of these six leadership behaviours, charismatic/value-based is the most universally preferred, i.e. it is considered most desirable in most cultures. The others are more culturally contingent, although team-

oriented is next most preferred. The relative preference of different “cultural clusters” for each leadership dimension is depicted in Figure 6 (above). In the following sections, we will describe the four most preferred leadership behaviours in more detail and how they relate to the popular theories of ‘good’ leadership. Since autonomous and self-protective leadership are least preferred across geo-cultural contexts, these will not be examined further.

Charismatic/value-based leadership

According to the GLOBE study, charismatic/value-based leadership reflects the ability to inspire, to motivate and to expect high performance outcomes from others based on firmly held core values. It includes the following six leadership subscales, which are roughly analogous to leadership traits or styles: 1) visionary, 2) inspirational, 3) self-sacrifice, 4) integrity, 5) decisive and 6) performance oriented. This set of leadership behaviours is most closely related to transformational leadership theory, in contrast to transactional leadership (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Transactional versus transformational leadership



Bass and Avolio, 1990

Transformational leadership is distinctive from transactional leadership in a number of ways (Price, 2003). Most notably, it:

1. Focuses more on ends than on means; hence, the focus is more on the vision or purpose than the mechanisms for achieving them;
2. Emphasises the role of leaders’ charisma; hence, the ability to inspire and stimulate is more important than controlling followers;
3. Assumes leaders have a moral responsibility; hence, they are committed to altruistic values, focusing on the interests of followers.

There is less of an emphasis on “clarifying goals and objectives [and] communicating to organise tasks and activities” (Bass, 1974: 341), which is more typically characterised as management, rather than leadership (MacKenzie et al., 2001). Rather, transformational leaders motivate followers by encouraging them to transcend their self-interests for the sake of shared goals, be they for the team, organisation or larger community (Bass et al., 1996).

As noted, charismatic/value-based leadership (linked with transformation leadership) is the most universally preferred approach. Nevertheless there are some geo-cultural variations (Figure 8). It is most preferred in the Anglo, Latin America and Southern Asia regions and least preferred in Middle East, Confucian Asia and Eastern Europe. In terms of countries of special interest to the British Council, the order of preference (highest to lowest) for charismatic/value leadership is: India (5.85), Mexico (5.66), Egypt (5.57) and China (5.56). Kenya was not included in the GLOBE study.

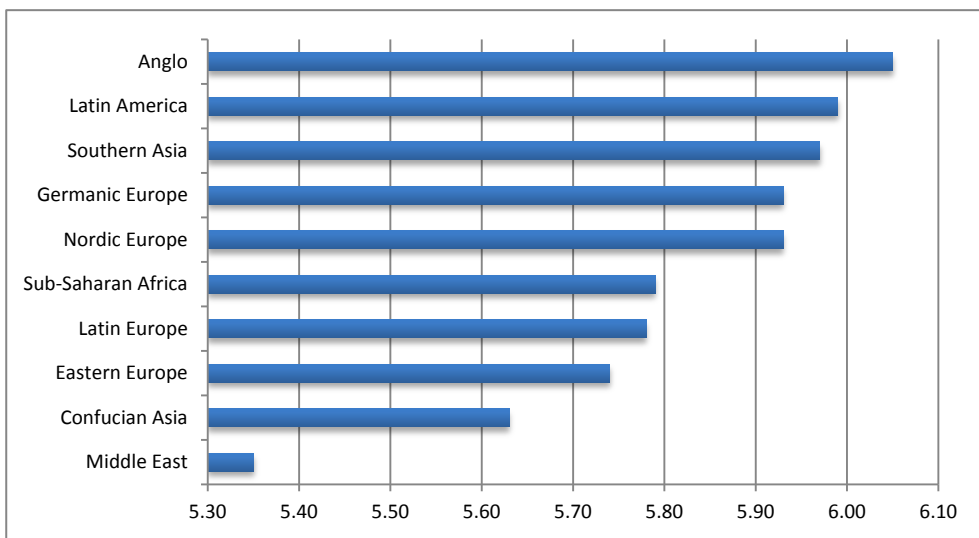


Figure 8:
Charismatic/value leadership by geo-cultural cluster

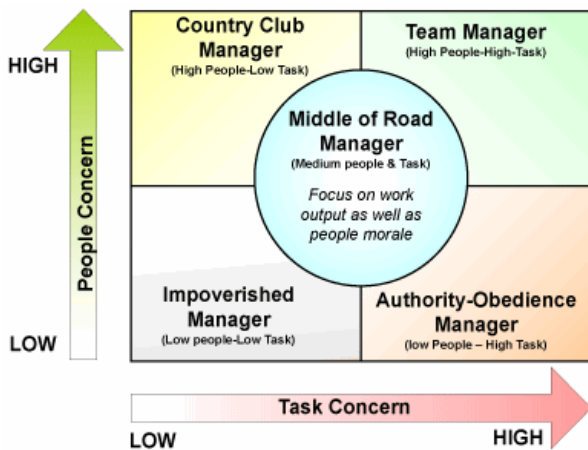
Source: House et al., 2004

Team-oriented leadership

According to the GLOBE study, team-oriented leadership emphasises effective team building and implementation of a common purpose or goal among team members. It includes five leadership subscales, namely: 1) collaborative team orientation, 2) team integrator, 3) diplomatic, 4) malevolent (reverse-scored), and 5) administratively competent.

The importance of team orientation is recognised in the behavioural / style school of leadership, typified by the research of Blake and Mouton (1964). Their Leadership Grid® (Blake and Mouton, 1985) suggests that most leaders’ behaviour falls within five major leadership styles, with team management (scoring high on concern for people and production) as the ideal (Figure 9).

Figure 9: Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid®



Source: Blake and Mouton, 1964

Team-oriented leadership also draws on the notion of the leader as a servant (Hollander, 2008). Robert Greenleaf (1977), who coined the term ‘servant leadership’, distils the essence of this approach by saying that the servant leader must pass the following test: “Do those served grow as persons? Do they while being served become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants?” (Greenleaf, 1977: 9).

Servant leadership suggests a distinctive set of characteristics. In a review of the literature, Russell and Stone (2002) found that these could be classified as functional and accompanying attributes (Table 6). In addition to these, Spears (1995) adds empathy, healing, awareness, conceptualisation, foresight, commitment to the growth of people and building community.

Table 6: Attributes of servant leaders

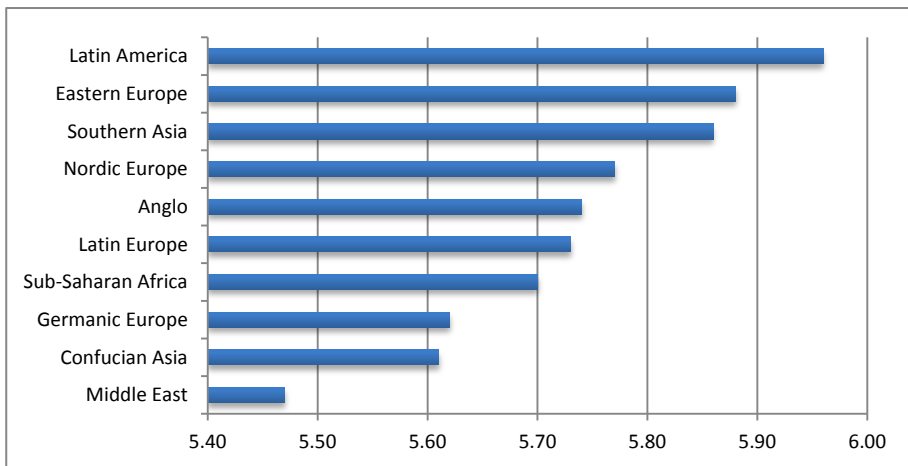
<i>Functional attributes</i>	<i>Accompanying attributes</i>
Vision	Communication
Honesty, integrity	Credibility
Trust	Competence
Service	Stewardship
Modelling	Visibility
Pioneering	Influence, persuasion
Appreciation of others	Listening, encouragement
Empowerment	Teaching, delegation

Source: Russell and Stone (2002)

Another theoretical school that aligns with team-oriented leadership is *distributed* leadership (Gronn, 2000; Spillane et al, 2004), which seeks to challenge models focused on the individual leader (e.g. trait, situation, style and transformational theories). Its proponents argue for a more systemic, collectively embedded concept of leadership, which challenges the traditional hierarchical view of power and influence, and suggests that leaders are distributed throughout organisations, at multiple levels and in varied contexts.

In terms of geo-cultural variations (Figure 10), team-oriented leadership is most preferred in the Eastern Europe, Anglo and Latin America regions and least preferred in Middle East, Confucian Asia and Latin Europe. In terms of countries of special interest to the British Council, the order of preference (highest to lowest) for team-oriented leadership is: Mexico (5.74), India (5.72), China (5.57) and Egypt (5.55). Kenya was not included in the GLOBE study.

Figure 10: Team-oriented leadership by geo-cultural cluster

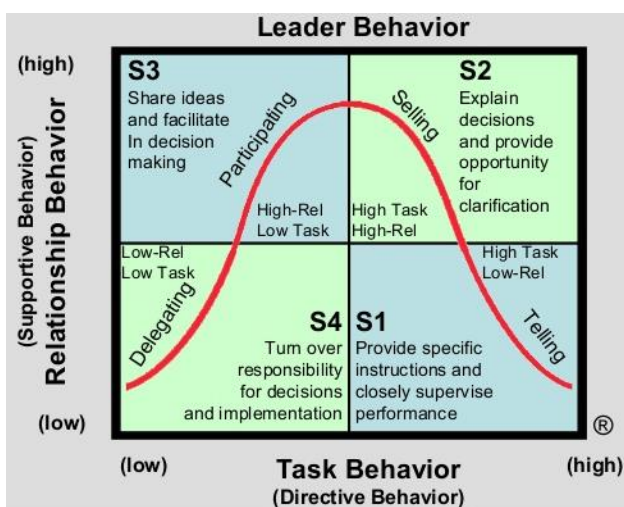


Source: House et al., 2004

Participative leadership

According to the GLOBE study, participative leadership reflects the degree to which managers involve others in making and implementing decisions. The situational school of leadership theory – especially Hersey and Blanchard (1969; 1974) – is helpful in signalling that participative leadership is most appropriate in particular contexts when follower maturity is high (see also Vroom and Yetton, 1973).

Figure 11: Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Leadership Grid



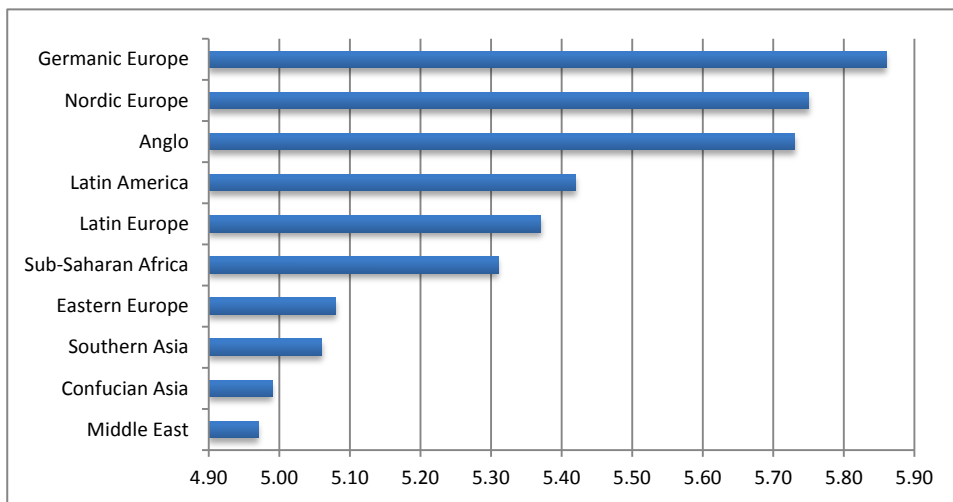
Source: Hersey and Blanchard, 1974

Another perspective on participative leadership is the growing recognition that ‘good’ leadership today includes diversity and inclusivity, both among leadership teams and within organisations (Chin and Trimble, 2014). This links with the “global mindset’ identified in Chapter 1 and the development of cultural dexterity: “*the ability to connect across myriad areas, backgrounds, and focuses that are different*” (Brescoll, 2011).

This view is supported by practitioner research. Deloitte Australia and the Victorian Equal Opportunity and Human Rights Commission (2013) found that inclusive teams outperform their peers by 80% in team-based assessments. In a business context, McKinsey & Company (Hunt et al., 2015) found that gender-diverse companies are 15% more likely to outperform their peers and ethnically-diverse companies are 35% more likely to do the same (see also Carter et al., 2007). There have also been studies that have derived models of leadership, based on the traits of diverse leaders (see for example, research by The Diversity Practice, 2007, on successful black and minority ethnic individuals).

In terms of geo-cultural variations (Figure 12), participative leadership is most preferred in the Eastern Europe, Anglo and Latin America regions and least preferred in Middle East, Confucian Asia and Latin Europe. In terms of countries of special interest to the British Council, the order of preference (highest to lowest) for participative leadership is: China (5.04), India (4.99), Egypt (4.69) and Mexico (4.64). Kenya was not included in the GLOBE study.

Figure 12: Participative leadership by geo-cultural cluster



Source: House et al., 2004

Humane-oriented leadership

Humane-oriented leadership reflects supportive and considerate leadership but also includes compassion and generosity. It includes two leadership subscales: 1) modesty, and 2) humane orientation. Humane-oriented leadership draws especially on the moral or ethical school of leadership theory. Leadership ethics emerged as a distinct academic area of applied ethics in the 1990s (Ciulla, 1995), but has been debated for thousands of years. Ethical leadership most often concerns a normative perspective on leaders, i.e. how

should a leader behave (Freeman and Stewart, 2006)? This is sometimes called ‘authentic leadership’ (George et al., 2007) and addresses the so-called ‘Hitler problem’.⁶

Many questions of ethics manifest as dilemmas and this is certainly true in the leadership sphere. On the one hand, leadership usually embodies the utilitarian notion of a leader looking after a constituency, i.e. addressing the needs of their voters (Mill, 1987). On the other hand, the things leaders have to do to become leaders and stay in power can (and often do) conflict with the interests of their constituents.

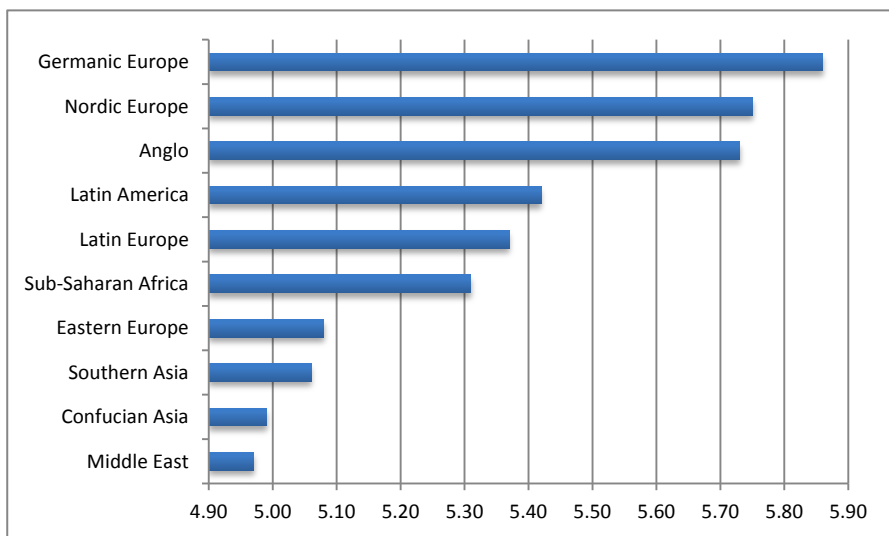
There are arguably three moral facets to the ethics of leaders (Ciulla, 2008):

1. The ethics of leaders themselves, i.e. their personal motivations and moral beliefs;
2. The ethics of how a leader leads, i.e. the process of leadership, including leaders’ means of getting things done and the relationship between leaders and those impacted by their actions; and
3. The ethics of what a leader does, i.e. the ends or final impacts of a leader’s actions.

However, in matters of ethics and leadership, it is seldom that simple. Resick et al. (2011) demonstrate that ‘ethical leadership’ means different things in different countries and cultural contexts. We often make leaders responsible for things over which they have little or no control, or we give them credit for so-called ‘moral luck’ (Williams, 1981). In an attempt to lessen the ambiguity, we devise governance systems that prescribe moral principles (e.g. the US Constitution) or ethical checks and balances (e.g. the Cadbury Code on Corporate Governance).

In terms of geo-cultural variations (Figure 13), humane-oriented leadership is most preferred in the Eastern Europe, Anglo and Latin America regions and least preferred in Middle East, Confucian Asia and Latin Europe. In terms of countries of special interest to the British Council, the order of preference (highest to lowest) for humane-oriented leadership is: India (5.26), China (5.19), Egypt (5.15) and Mexico (4.72). Kenya was not included in the GLOBE study.

Figure 13: Humane leadership by geo-cultural cluster



Source: House et al., 2004

⁶ Hitler may have been effective – he had millions of followers – but it would be hard to argue that his actions were morally good.

3. Political Perspectives on Leadership

Summary

This chapter examines 'good' leadership in the context of policy making and the execution of governmental activities. The key insights from our review are that:

- While general theories do apply, there are also distinctive perspectives about public sector leadership, notably the goal of creating public value, and the importance of legitimacy and accountability.
- In terms of effective policy leadership, the literature around 'policy entrepreneurs' is especially helpful, emphasising skills of (re)framing, building coalitions, and working across multiple jurisdictions.
- A 'systems mindset' is also critical, with a focus on design and experimentation, policy coherence, and a learning approach rather than command-and-control

The chapter proceeds to examine the following areas: delivering public value; leading policy change; and developing a systems perspective.

Defining political and policy leadership

This review understands 'political' leadership as more than the preserve of politicians with formal power (elected or otherwise). Rather, it refers to the political context in which leadership is exercised, with a specific focus on delivering public value. 'Policy' leadership makes the explicit connection to the development of policy – a course or principle of action, again specifically relating to the delivery of public value. The literature also covers 'administrative' leadership, which refers to the leaders of public agencies, who might be responsible for carrying out policy, as well as recommending and shaping actions (Pearce and Conger, 2003). Actors within the system may be involved in political, policy and administrative leadership in a variety of ways.

Delivering public value

The global and geo-cultural perspectives already explored apply equally to political and policy leadership. However, there is a case to be made that the political context is also distinctive from that of business or civil society and therefore requires special characteristics of leadership. First, there is the challenge of political power and public accountability, especially within the confines of democracy. Political leadership development, therefore, needs to incorporate these distinctive elements by paying attention to rhetorical, negotiation, mediation and other relational skills, besides more general capabilities.

Second – and relatedly – there is the importance of 'public value', which Moore (1995) coined as the equivalent of 'shareholder value' in public management. This notion of public value forms part of Harvard Kennedy School of Government's 'strategic triangle' for the public sector (Moore and Khagram, 2004): (i)

what public value is being delivered, (ii) what sources of legitimacy are needed to create and sustain that value, and (iii) what capabilities are required to deliver?

These are helpful tests to apply to political and public leadership, and much could be said on the topic. For the purpose of this review, we believe that there is an intimate connection between public value and the ‘sustainable development’ outcomes explored in Chapter 1. In terms of sources of legitimacy, there is considerable evidence to link this with the willingness to listen to and involve multiple stakeholders in decision-making (e.g. Dryzek, 2010; Fishkin, 2011), which links with the discussion in Chapter 2 around inclusive and participative leadership.

When it comes to the capabilities to deliver, there is a long history of reflection on the nature of political leadership, drawing on the intellectual foundations of the hybrid-disciplines of political philosophy, political sociology and political psychology. Since these insights tend to be rather academic and theoretical, they are only briefly summarised in Table 7, but many point to the importance of rhetorical, negotiation, mediation and other relational skills.

Table 7: Political theories of leadership

<i>Theory/school</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>References</i>
Political philosophy	Based on the ideas of philosophers like Plato, Aristotle, Confucius, Cicero and Machiavelli about idealised governance structures and political leader behaviours.	Elcock, 2001; Chan and Chan, 2014; Keohane, 2014
Political sociology	Draws on the work of influential sociologists like Max Weber on bureaucratic leadership, as well as anthropological perspectives such as cultural symbolism and feminism.	Abélès, 1988; Kertzer, 1988; Elcock, 2001; Sjoberg, 2009; Shore, 2014
Political psychology	Seeks to establish the linkages between what political leaders are like, and the actions and policies of the institutions they run, e.g. through character typologies.	Barber, 1972; Reicher et al., 2014; Augoustinos and de Garis, 2012
Analytical and methodological	Types of analysis that scholars perform on political leaders, such as rhetorical or biographical analysis, using survey, observation and archival methodologies	Gottweis, 2006; Zarefsky 2010; McAdams, 2009; Uhr, 2014; Walter, 2014

Source: CISL analysis

What is particularly interesting for the purposes of this review, however, is the role of the ‘policy entrepreneur’: a political actor who uses their knowledge of the policy process to promote and gain support for a particular policy idea.

Leading policy change

Much of political and policy leadership is exercised through policy change. The literature on this topic is extensive, exploring the role of institutions, the impact of socio-economic processes, the role of networks, theories of rational choice, and the significance of ideas (John, 2003). The ‘policy entrepreneur’ is a key actor in the work of Kingdon (1984), who sought to understand the process of ‘agenda setting’ and why certain ideas gain traction, proposing a convergence of the three strands of problem, politics and policy

solutions, which come together in a ‘window of opportunity’.⁷ Policy entrepreneurs may be elected politicians, civil servants, leaders of interest groups, think tanks, consultants, or researchers. Mintrom and Vergari (1996) distinguish them by their desire to *radically* change existing policy, rather than exhibiting “political posturing and risk avoidance” (Mintrom and Norman, 2009: 654).

Mintrom (2000) highlights six key characteristics of effective policy entrepreneurs:

1. Creative and insightful;
2. Socially perceptive;
3. Skilled communicators;
4. Persuasive debaters;
5. Strategic team builders; and,
6. Prepared to lead by example.

They have the capacity to “*define policy problems in ways that both attract the attention of decision makers and indicate appropriate policy responses*” (Mintrom and Vergari, 1996: 423). This might involve various ‘softening up processes’ (Guldbrandsson and Fossum, 2009) such as presenting evidence in a way that suggests a crisis is at hand, or reducing the perception of risk among decision-makers, for example demonstrating the workability of policy proposals (e.g. Mintrom and Vergari, 2009; Knott and McCarthy, 2007).

Mintrom and Norman (2009) observe that, as well as working across jurisdictions, policy entrepreneurs may work hard to gain support from groups that might appear as unlikely allies, in order to generate a broad coalition. Sabatier and Jenkins-Smith (1993) define a coalition as an association of people from a variety of positions (e.g. elected and agency officials, interest group leaders, researchers) who share a core system of normative and causal beliefs. For coalitions to work, there need to be ‘knowledge brokers’ – trusted and credible intermediaries, who are able to communicate and translate knowledge (ODI-IKM, 2009). Mintrom and Norman (2009) argue that “*policy entrepreneurs typically display skills needed to do this kind of translational and definitional work*” (657).

This links to an important debate about the role of ‘framing’ within a policy or political setting.⁸ Jones (1994) highlights the ability of the policy entrepreneur “*to frame an issue so as to move it over the threshold of attention of policymaking institutions*” (26). Discursive structures such as concepts, metaphors, linguistic codes and rules of logic, can help determine what policy-makers can more easily understand and articulate, and hence which policy ideas they are likely to adopt (Campbell, 2002, quoted in ODI-IKM, 2009: 14).

The literature on these issues is vast but for the purposes of this review, it is helpful to note that effective leadership for policy change is likely to involve the nurturing of skills such as the ability to navigate discursive strategies, ‘reframe’ problems and solutions, and build a wide coalition of support across multiple groups and jurisdictions.

⁷ This model has been applied to a number of different policy contexts, from tobacco control in California (Blackman, 2005) to public health in Sweden (Guldbrandsson and Fossum, 2009).

⁸ Framing has received considerable attention in a range of domains (see for example Goffman, 1974; Schön and Rein, 1994; Tversky and Kahneman, 1981; Lakoff, 2004).

A systems approach

Working across multiple jurisdictions and ‘spanning boundaries’ is one characteristic of embracing a ‘systems’ approach to policy or political leadership. Chapter 1 has already emphasised the importance of a systemic, open-minded, inclusive, globally conscious, inter-disciplinary approach to leadership. In a policy context, a ‘systems’ approach manifests in a number of different ways.

First, it requires a new mental model (Chapman, 2004), seeking to understand the behaviour from a ‘system’ perspective. Rather than seeking to address a policy problem by looking at the micro-level interactions between individuals, this approach might involve the study of interactions between different scales of decision maker, as well as the emergence of collective responses.

Second, a focus on the wider system encourages policy makers to consider ‘policy coherence’, which Owens and Driffill (2008) describe as “the consistency of government objectives across all policy spheres”. This is a critical dimension in ‘good’ policy outcomes that deliver lasting public value.

Finally, a systems approach encourages us to look at policy development from the perspective of design and experimentation. Hallsworth and Rutter (2011) argue that ‘rigorous design’ is one of seven fundamentals of good policy making processes – an iterative process that provides the opportunity to conduct living (*in vivo*) experiments on complex systems. Johnson (2008) observes that “*almost every large public policy decision is an experiment*” (521),⁹ which encourages a ‘learning’ approach rather than centralised command-and-control. The ability and willingness to learn is a key attribute for those who want to develop as leaders (Seijts, 2014).

⁹ In China, the government set up emissions trading pilot schemes in seven cities with different levels of economic development, which allowed them to study how emissions trading schemes work in different economic conditions (The Climate Institute, 2012).⁹

4. Perspectives on Leadership Development

Summary

As theories of leadership have evolved, so too have theories of development, with a growing belief that the ability to be a ‘good’ leader can be learned. The key insights from our review are that:

- Learning outcomes for leadership development can involve cognitive (knowledge), affective (values) and psychomotor (skills) domains.
- Transformative theories of learning underpin many contemporary leadership competency frameworks, and there is growing interest in experiential and continual learning.
- Structured learning still has a role to play, but there has been an evolution from standardised, class-room/lecture formats to hybrid models involving more situational and immersive approaches.

The chapter proceeds to examine the following areas: theories of learning, leadership competencies, learning through experience, and structured learning approaches.

Theories of learning

The Great Man Theory – the school of thought that ‘leaders are born, not made’ – suggested that some individuals have innate characteristics that make them better suited to lead (Burgoyne, 2010). As theories of leadership have evolved, however, so too have theories of learning/development (Table 8), with a growing belief that the ability to be a good leader can be learned, even if some people have a greater innate will to lead (Burgoyne, 2010; Cawthon, 1996).

Table 8: General theories of leadership development

<i>Theory/school</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>References</i>
Behaviourist	See learning as an experience through conditioning, reinforcement or repetition that leads to a permanent change in behaviour; learning is active, not passive	Watson, 1913; Hartley, 1998; Jordan et al., 2008
Cognitive	Focuses on internal events, i.e. making mental connections and inferring or building on knowledge. How information is conveyed is as important as what is conveyed.	Hartley, 1998; Jordan et al., 2008
Constructivist	Goes beyond knowledge acquisition to consider how learning is actively built through combining new information with existing knowledge.	Cooper, 1993; Bruner, 1966; Ford and Lawler, 2007;
Social / situational	Recognises the importance of social interactions, settings and factors in learning skills and gaining knowledge. Learning can be based on shared experiences.	Durkheim, 1956; Bandura, 1986
Transformative	Emphasises critical reflection in response to experiences and political or societal structures. Strives to create more effective personal or organisational change agency.	Mezirow, 1997; Musselwhite, 2006; Prandini et al., 2012; Vellner, 2015

Source: CISL analysis

A useful lens through which to consider these theories is that of learning outcomes – the knowledge, values and behaviour that a learner will be able to demonstrate upon completion of the learning process. The classic work on learning outcomes is that of Bloom et al. (1956), who identified three domains of learning: cognitive (mental skills, knowledge); affective (attitudes, emotions); and psychomotor (skills). Traditionally, many education systems have prioritised the cognitive domain, but in leadership development in particular, there has been a resurgence of interest in the other domains.

Leadership competencies

A focus on skills is linked with the continued interest in leadership competencies. Competencies are essentially learned behaviours or skills; hence they can be taught or developed through leadership programmes (see Salaman, 2004, for example).

While there is no model template for leadership competencies, for illustrative purposes, Table 9 presents the competency framework of the U.S. Office of Personnel Management, which is framed around five Executive Core Qualifications, each of which is supported by competencies (OPM, 2016).

Table 9: U.S. Office of Personnel Management Executive Core Qualifications (ECQ)

ECQ	Abilities	Competencies
Leading change	To bring about strategic change, both within and outside the organisation, to meet organisational goals, including the ability to establish an organisational vision and to implement it in a continuously changing environment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creativity and innovation • External awareness • Flexibility • Resilience • Strategic thinking • Vision
Leading people	To lead people toward meeting the organisation’s vision, mission, and goals, including the ability to provide an inclusive workplace that fosters the development of others, facilitates cooperation and teamwork, and supports constructive resolution of conflicts.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conflict management • Leveraging diversity • Developing others • Team building
Results driven	To meet organisational goals and customer expectations, including the ability to make decisions that produce high-quality results by applying technical knowledge, analysing problems, and calculating risks.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accountability • Customer service • Decisiveness • Entrepreneurship • Problem solving • Technical credibility
Business acumen	To manage human, financial, and information resources strategically.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial management • Human capital management • Technology management
Building coalitions	To build coalitions internally and with other Federal agencies, State and local governments, non-profit and private sector organisations, foreign governments, or international organisations to achieve common goals.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Partnering • Political savvy • Influencing / negotiating

Source: OPM, 2016

A focus on leadership competencies might seem to neglect the importance of character and values (affective learning outcomes) and, as Seijts (2014) argues, part of leadership development is about building the character of a person to be a leader, not teaching someone how to lead. Yet in an extensive review of UK leadership competency frameworks (both public and private sector), Bolden and Gosling (2004) conclude that a somewhat moderated version of transformational leadership tends to be promoted which, as Chapter 2 explores, places a high premium on values and the ability to inspire others to transcend self-

interest. Even in the example above for the U.S. Office of Personnel Management, the core competencies were complemented by further cross-cutting ‘fundamental’ competencies including integrity/honesty, a commitment to continual learning, and public service motivation.

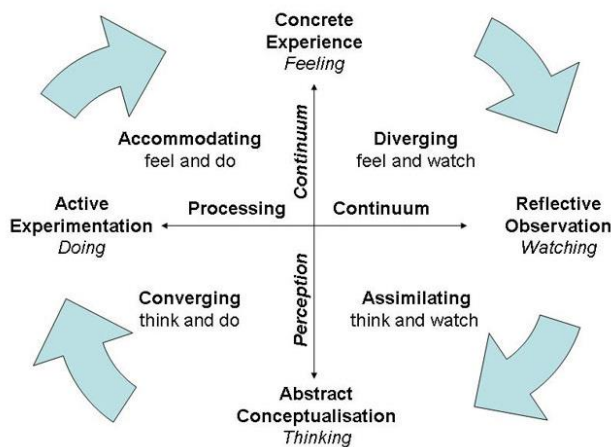
Learning through experience

The greater emphasis on developing character and values (affective learning outcomes) draws on more constructivist and transformative theories of learning, encouraging critical reflection and construction of new insights. For instance, Allen (2008: 101) argues that through leadership development initiatives, we are often “*inviting leaders to become aware of their biases, prejudices and perceptions, potentially to create new insights, to become more self-aware and change behaviour*”.

Described in this way, learning is not simply an activity undertaken as part of a formal training programme, but a lifelong process of inquiry, practice and reflection. This links with research identifying how leadership development is now seen as a process of learning through experience, whether structured, unstructured, formal, informal, inside or outside the formal learning environment (Jordan et al., 2008).

Kolb’s (1984) learning cycle (Figure 14) is one of the key theories that defines experiential learning. A critical element of this is the ability to reflect on learning as a means for improvement. Such an approach underpins the work of Seijts (2015), who explores a range of pathways towards learning, which include: learning from failure, self-awareness, adaptability (understanding the context) and continual learning.

Figure 14: Kolb’s experiential learning cycle



Source: McLeod, 2010, adapted from Kolb, 1984

Structure learning approaches

This is not to say that formal or structured learning has no role to play, but in light of the above evolving theories of learning, the practices of leadership development have also evolved (Day et al., 2014; Jordan et al., 2008). In particular, there has been a move from primarily classroom or instructional approaches to encompass more customised, experiential and reflective practices (Bolden, 2010), as set out in Table 10.

Moreover, structured learning sits alongside other contexts for learning. In the 1990s the Centre for Creative Leadership proposed a learning ratio, 70:20:10 (McCall et al., 1988), which is now used by many leadership development commissioners as a learning and development model (Ambler, 2013). This ratio indicates that effective learning needs the following balance of activities: learning from experience through workplace integration (70%), learning from others through developmental relationships (20%), whilst structured learning accounts for only 10% of learning (see Figure 15).

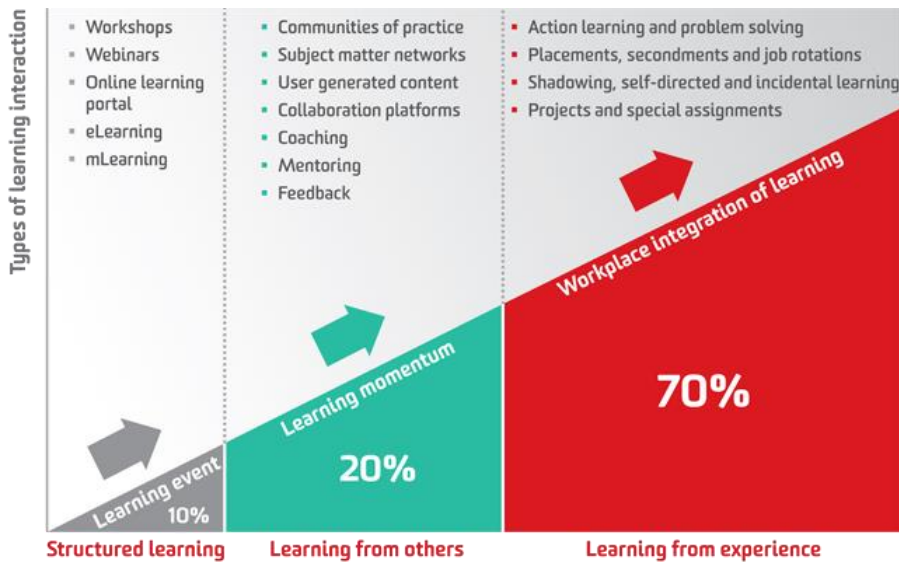
Table 10: Changing trends in leadership development

Key Trends	From	To
Type of provision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prescribed course • Standardised • Theoretical/academic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intervention/development programme • Customised • Applied/based on real-life challenges
Time-frame	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One-off • Discrete start & end points 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continual • An on-going development 'journey'
Format	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Didactic: lectures & presentations • Abstract/conceptual 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participatory: interactive activities & group work • Experiential/reflective
Location	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classroom-based • Off-site 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Blended (variety of methods) • Work-based as well as off-site
Focus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of individuals • Generic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of individuals & groups • Vocational/for a specific purpose
Role of provider	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supplier • Expert 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Partner, collaborator & coach • Co-designer/facilitator
Nature of support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited • Primarily concerned with accreditation • Theoretical/academic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extensive – relationship management • Primarily concerned with client experience • Coaching/mentoring

Source: Bolden (2010)

Through the 70:20:10 model (McCall et al., 1988), different leadership development approaches can be tailored to different modes of learning. The approach may vary depending on the target audience. For instance, the annual Henley Leadership Survey identifies a variation in preference of approach dependent on seniority: first-line managers prefer classroom-based learning, in contrast to 'high potentials', who are reported to prefer coaching followed by experiential learning (Hawkins and Vogel, 2014).

Figure 15: The 70:20:10 learning delivery model



Source: DeakinPrime (2016), adapted from the Centre for Creative Leadership

Engaging adults in learning can be challenging and complex, as it implies changing the behaviour of people who are very likely set in their ways (Allen, 2008). The following section includes specific examples of how different learning theories and approaches have been put into practice.

Leadership practice frameworks

How we think is driven by how we make sense of the world (Brady, 2003) and one way to make sense of the world is to develop ‘mental scaffolding’ to help us organise complex information (The Artefact Group, 2016). The term ‘practice framework’ refers to the ideas, assumptions, beliefs and conceptual maps that we use to understand the world and guide our actions. They are informed by many things – our childhood, belief systems, values, gender, culture, spirituality, expertise and even language. These frameworks are not necessarily consciously held (Claxton, 2005) and the different elements do not always fit together logically; hence, there will frequently be gaps and tensions.

Incorporating leadership practice frameworks can help leaders better understand their motivations, why they interpret and react to situations in particular ways, why they find some forms of information more persuasive than others, and why they prefer some strategies over others. This can in turn help them in identifying gaps in their understanding, knowledge and skills, which can then be used to inform their personal and professional development and enhance their leadership effectiveness. It also helps for leaders to seek to understand the frameworks applied by others (Owen and Kemp, 2014) – a process that sociologists refer to as ‘walking in the shoes of others’.

This approach has been used as a self-awareness tool by CISL on its Social Performance leadership programme for the global mining company, Anglo American, which it has delivered in South Africa and Chile from 2009 to 2015. Some of the guiding questions used to get participants started in developing their own leadership practice framework are:

- What matters to you in your work? Who/what inspires you?
- How do you see your relationship to your organisation? Your community? Your staff and peers?

- What ways of working are you are most comfortable with, e.g. interacting with people, or doing desktop work; reactive and adaptive, or planned?
- How do you understand and deal with change and complexity?
- What information and arguments do you find persuasive (e.g. “hard” data or personal stories) and what (or who) do you tend to disregard or distrust?
- Does your framework include space for spirituality, tradition and related belief systems?
- What are your guiding values and ethical ‘lines in the sand’?
- Are there gaps in your framework and aspects that you would like to change or develop?

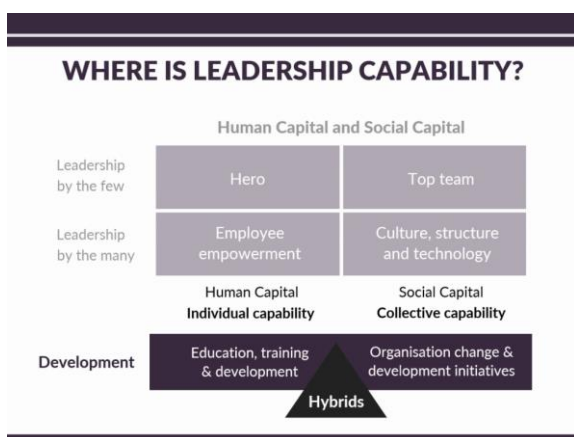
Action learning

The reflection and reflexivity inherent in the leadership practice framework is also part of an ‘action learning’ or ‘action inquiry’ approach (see Kramer 2008; Marquardt et al., 2009). Action learning (especially in the context of leadership development programmes) is the identification and undertaking of working on a real-work challenge, often supported by a coach (Van Velsor et al., 2010), and involving cycles of planning, action and active reflection. Action learning’s success is identified as being due to its key objective of generating ‘something useful’ and it has been applied in a public sector context to develop emotional intelligence and leadership capacity (Kramer, 2007).

Hybrid models

Burgoyne (2010) suggests that individual learning can be combined with action research projects to solve organisational problems, in what he refers to as a ‘hybrid’ model (Figure 16). This builds capability on two levels – individually and collectively – which we might distinguish as *leader* development and *leadership* development respectively (Van Velsor et al., 2010; Dalakoura, 2010).

Figure 16: Hybrid leadership development methods

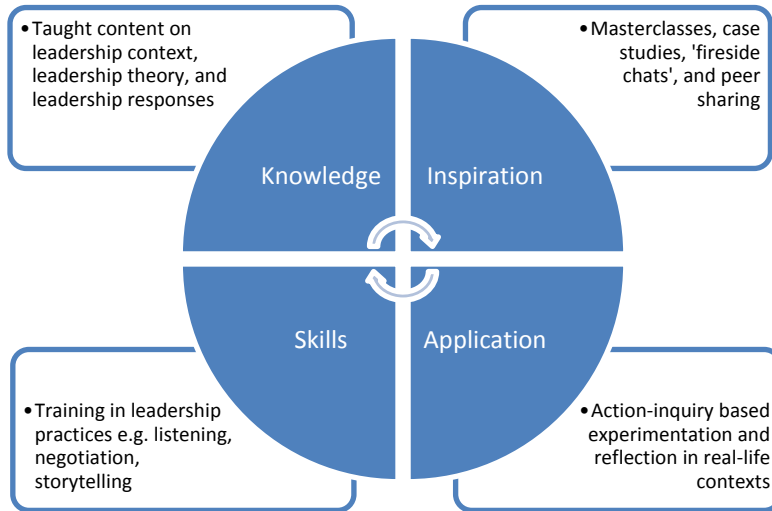


Source: Burgoyne (2010)

Other hybrid models might include a range of learning approaches, designed to tackle a range of learning outcomes: cognitive (knowledge), affective (values) and psychomotor (skills). For instance, CISL has

developed a model for leadership development for individuals on its post-graduate courses, based on the philosophy that leadership cannot be taught, but can be learned in multiple contexts (Figure 17).

Figure 17: CISL approach to individual leadership development

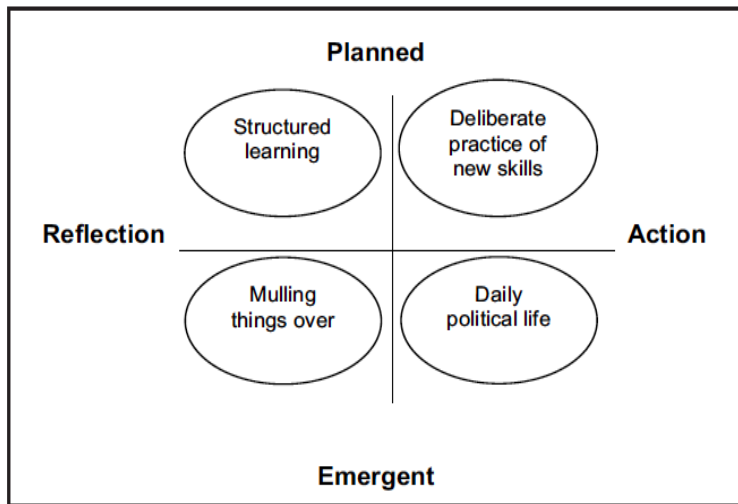


Source: CISL, 2017

In a political context, Hartley (2011) proposes a similar framework (Figure 18), which includes the following approaches:

- *Daily political life* – unplanned, unstructured 'learning on the job', in the course of conducting meetings and consultations, delivering speeches, giving interviews, etc.
- *Mulling things over* – unplanned, informal reflection on progress, what went well or badly, or how they feel, e.g. in the tea room, bar or over lunch or dinner, with colleagues, family or friends.
- *Structured learning* – planned input, such as financial briefings, parliamentary briefings, induction or other training workshops, 360-degree feedback and peer mentoring mechanisms.
- *Deliberate practice of new skills* – when a new idea or approach is experimented with, whether originating in structured learning, unstructured reflection or through the observation of others.

Figure 18: A framework for leadership development for politicians



Source: Hartley (2011)

In any approach, Allen (2008) emphasises the importance of remaining sensitive to leaders' needs and contexts. There are many dimensions to understanding context (geographical, historical, social, racial, cultural, economic, institutional to name but a few). The next and final section focuses on geographic context – specifically the five countries identified as of special interest for the British Council – and concludes with implications for 'good' leadership practice and development for each.

5. Application in National Contexts

Summary

This final chapter seeks to draw together some of the implications from the previous chapters in the context of five particular countries of interest to the British Council, namely: China, Egypt, India, Kenya and Mexico.

For each of these areas, special consideration is given to: the socio-economic and political context; perceptions of current leaders amongst the public; research insights into leadership preferences in that context; and insights into leadership development including examples of current practice.

Each section concludes with some specific recommendations regarding the leadership attributes to develop for that region.

China perspectives

Socio-economic and political context

According to the Global Competitiveness Report (WEF, 2015), for China the top 5 challenges facing political leaders are:

1. Insufficient capacity to innovate
2. Access to financing
3. Inefficient government bureaucracy
4. Inadequate supply of infrastructure
5. Tax rates

Corruption and political instability rank 6th and 7th respectively. Looking at the Institutional Pillar of the report, which relates most directly to political governance, China's greatest strengths are [the relative lack of] wastefulness of government spending and [the relatively low] burden of government regulation, while the lowest (weakest) rankings are the efficacy of corporate boards and [relative lack of] strength of investor protection.

Public perceptions

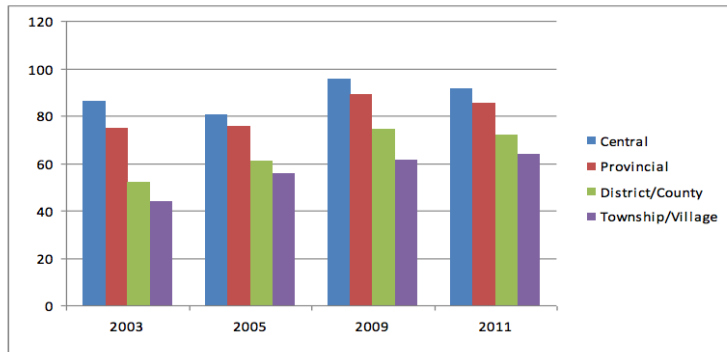
The World Economic Forum's (WEF, 2014) Global Leadership Index found that confidence in China's leaders was rated 4.93,¹⁰ which compares favourably to other global regions.¹¹ Within China, satisfaction levels with political leaders are highest for central government and lowest for local government, although both show a general upward trend (Figure 19). A survey by Pew Research Center (2015) of over 15,000

¹⁰ On a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 is no confidence and 10 is total confidence.

¹¹ For comparison: Europe (4.54, with UK at 4.29), Middle East and North Africa (4.41), Asia (4.38), Sub-Saharan Africa (4.19), Latin America (4.00) and North America (3.93).

people in 10 Asia-Pacific nations found that median support for President Xi stands at 47%, as compared with 43% for Japanese Prime Minister Shinzo Abe and 39% for Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi.

Figure 19: Level of satisfaction with Chinese government leadership

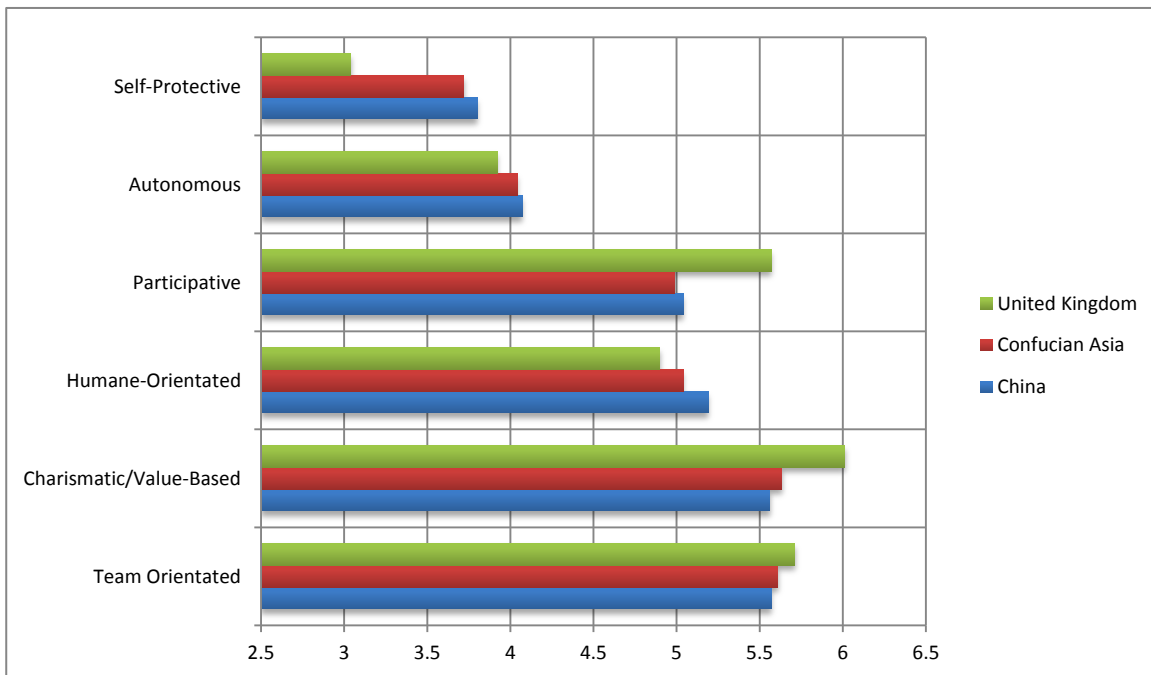


Source: Saich, 2012

Leadership preferences

In terms of the World Values Survey (2015), leaders in China will need to demonstrate consistency with survival and secular-rational values, i.e. placing emphasis on economic and physical security, with less importance given to religion, traditional family values and authority. According to the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004), China (consistent with the whole Confucian Asia region) has an almost equal preference for charismatic/value based and team oriented leadership. Least preferred are autonomous and self-protective leadership, although self-protective is still notably more preferred than it is in the UK (Figure 20).

Figure 20: GLOBE leadership dimensions in China



Source: House et al., 2004

Pittinsky and Zhu (2005) report that, according to a Chinese Implicit Leadership Scale (CILS), the Chinese use four dimensions to describe their conceptualization of leadership: personal morality, goal efficiency, interpersonal competence, and versatility. Of these, the highest ratings are given to interpersonal competence, consistent with Chinese collectivist values.

An analysis of the GLOBE leadership dimension sub-scales shows the Top 10 most admired behaviours in leaders in China (Table 11):

Table 11: Most admired leadership behaviours in China

<i>Behaviour</i>	<i>Score</i>	<i>GLOBE Leadership Cluster</i>
Integrity	5.98	Charismatic/value-based
Inspirational	5.92	Charismatic/value-based
Administratively competent	5.88	Team-oriented
Visionary	5.85	Charismatic/value-based
Collaborative team orientation	5.71	Team-oriented
Performance oriented	5.64	Charismatic/value-based
Humane-oriented	5.40	Humane-oriented
Team integrator	5.36	Team-oriented
Decisive	5.29	Charismatic/value-based
Diplomatic	5.05	Team-oriented

Source: House et al., 2004

Finally, Chow (2005) notes that one aspect of leadership that is very highly regarded in China is *guanxi*, or ‘good connections’. Importantly, it is not all about patronage, especially in political leadership. Angang (2014) notes that “*contrary to Western stereotypical views on China’s democratic centralism, democratic procedures from information exchange to consensus seeking are in fact the backbones and lifeblood of the country’s collective decision-making*” (17).

Leadership development

Li (2013) offers an insight into the political leadership development system in China, which is run by the Party’s Organization Department and functions like a giant human resource engine. It operates a rotating pyramid made up of three components: civil service, state-owned enterprises, and social organisations. These form separate yet integrated career paths for Chinese officials, who move through multiple levels. Pittinsky and Zhu (2005) note that there is a dual career path model for Chinese political leaders – either to become ‘politically reliable bureaucrats’ or ‘administrative-technical elite’.

An example of a leadership development programme within a key area of government responsibility is China’s Vocational Education Leadership Training (VELT),¹² which was jointly established by China Ministry of Education and Ministry of Finance in 2008. One of the interesting features is that VELT seeks to promote reform and development through opening-up, establishing a platform of international exchange with the USA, UK, Australia, Canada, Germany, Republic of Korea and Singapore.

¹² http://en.ceaie.edu.cn/velt_program?columnid=79

Chow (2005) notes that traditionally, Chinese leadership development was an apprenticeship system. Hence, the Chinese value learning by experience over any other learning style, and appreciate people who have learned from the bottom up. Chow also emphasises the value of self-reflection, as does McDonald (2012) who highlights its roots in Confucian philosophy, the influence of which persists in leadership practices to this day. This approach of learning through exchange, immersion and reflection is certainly one that is reflected in CISL’s own leadership programmes for Chinese government delegations.

Confucian philosophy also has other implications, however, in that its *“teaching emphasizes hierarchy, filial piety, and respect, and this can make it difficult for subordinates to give what seems like negative feedback and, likewise, for superiors to receive such feedback”* (Chow, 2005: 13). This does appear to be changing, with the younger generation judging Chinese leaders more on their perceived merits than traditional values such as respect for age and position.

Recommended attributes

Taking into account the insights from the cross-cultural surveys and other literature reviewed above, a leadership development programme for China should likely focus on the following attributes: ethical, managerial, strategic, collaborative, and pragmatic (Table 12).

Table 12: Leadership development attributes for China

Competence	Associated desired behaviours	References
Ethical	Integrity, humane oriented, respect	House et al., 2004; McDonald, 2012
Managerial	Administrative competence, connected, performance orientation, decisive	House et al., 2004; Chow, 2005
Strategic	Visionary, inspirational, development through opening-up	House et al., 2004; VELD program
Collaborative	Team-orientation, diplomatic, team integrator, consensus seeking	House et al., 2004; Angang, 2014
Pragmatic	Fostering economic and physical security, apprenticeship, experiential learning	Li, 2013; World Values Survey, 2015

Source: CISL analysis

Egypt perspectives

Socio-economic and political context

According to the Global Competitiveness Report (WEF, 2015), for Egypt the top 5 economic challenges facing political leaders are:

1. Political instability
2. Inefficient government bureaucracy
3. Poor work ethic in the labour force
4. Inadequately educated workforce
5. Access to financing

Government instability ranks 8th. Looking at the Institutional Pillar of the report (relating to political governance), Egypt's greatest strengths are [the relative lack of] favouritism in decisions of government officials and judicial independence, while the weakest rankings are the efficacy of corporate boards and the business costs of crime and violence.

Public perceptions

The World Economic Forum's (WEF, 2014) Global Leadership Index found that confidence in the Middle East and North Africa's leaders was rated 4.41, which still compares favourably to much of the rest of the world.¹³ One of the strongest features of Egyptian political leadership perceptions is the on-going tension between democratic and autocratic leadership.

The Pew Research Center (2014) found that 52% of Egyptians (down from 64% in 2011 after the overthrow of President Mubarak) said that to solve their country's problems they should rely on a democratic form of government, while 43% (up from 34% in 2011) think that a leader with a strong hand is the best way to deal with Egypt's myriad challenges. The most important priorities for political leaders to tackle are perceived to be law and order (96%), a fair judiciary (95%) and improved economic conditions (94%).

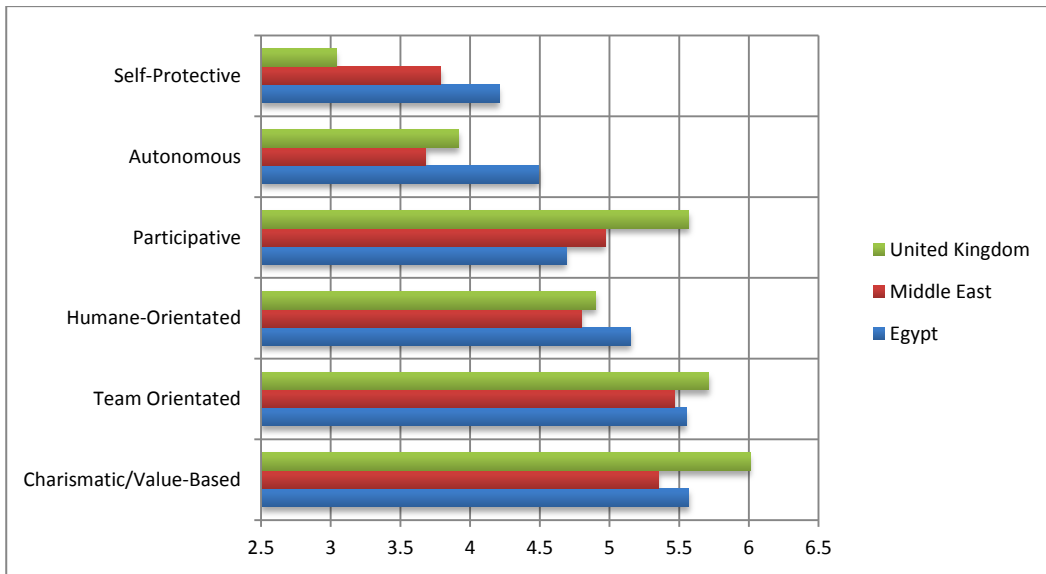
Leadership preferences

Although Egypt is not profiled in the World Values Survey (2015), it is likely similar to its neighbours, Tunisia and Morocco, suggesting that leaders in Egypt will need to demonstrate consistency with survival and traditional values, i.e. placing emphasis on economic and physical security, as well as religion, traditional family values and authority.

According to the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004), Egypt has an almost equal preference for charismatic/value based and team oriented leadership (whereas the Middle East region has a stronger preference for team oriented leadership and the UK for charismatic/value based). Least preferred are self-protective and autonomous leadership, but both are notably more preferred than they are in the UK (Figure 21).

Figure 21: GLOBE leadership dimensions in Egypt

¹³ For comparison: Europe (4.54, with UK at 4.29), Asia (4.38), Sub-Saharan Africa (4.19), Latin America (4.00) and North America (3.93).



Source: House et al., 2004

Shahin and Wright (2004) tested Bass and Avolio’s transformational/transactional leadership model in Egypt and found significant variations from the US-based findings. While there are similarities in three factors (enthusiastic leadership, reluctant decision-making and individual consideration), four factors that were strong in Egypt were not reflected in the American research (positive leadership, bureaucratic leadership, social integration and authoritative leadership).

An analysis of the GLOBE leadership dimension sub-scales shows the Top 10 most admired behaviours in leaders in Egypt (Table 13):

Table 13: Most admired leadership behaviours in Egypt

Behaviour	Score	GLOBE Leadership Cluster
Integrity	6.05	Charismatic/value-based
Administratively competent	5.81	Team-oriented
Performance oriented	5.79	Charismatic/value-based
Diplomatic	5.65	Team-oriented
Decisive	5.60	Charismatic/value-based
Visionary	5.52	Charismatic/value-based
Team integrator	5.50	Team-oriented
Inspirational	5.50	Charismatic/value-based
Status conscious	5.25	Self-protective
Modesty	5.22	Humane-oriented

Source: House et al., 2004

Research by Kabasakal et al. (2012) reinforces these findings, indicating that integrity is perceived as the most important characteristic of effective leaders in Egypt, followed by administrative competence and performance orientation. *Effectiveness*, however, is more related to status consciousness, modesty, self-sacrifice and humane attitudes. The research found that Egypt shares leadership attributes with a MENA sub-cluster that includes Iran and Kuwait. In a similar analysis building on the GLOBE research, Elsaid and

Elsaid (2012) suggest that Egyptians are most interested in reducing the power distance and increasing the future orientation aspects of their societal culture.

Bowker (2016) notes that Egypt faces significant leadership challenges, especially in the policy sphere, in the wake of President Mohamed Morsi’s July 2013 ousting and the military’s takeover. Hence, the preferred styles of leadership are in a state of contestation and flux. Jones and Saad (2013) argue that different leadership competencies need to be developed in Egypt to promote a more entrepreneurial culture. Further insights into Egyptian leadership are offered by Metwally and Punnett (2016).

Leadership development

An example of a government-led leadership development programme is Egypt’s custom-designed Presidential Leadership Program (PLP)¹⁴. The PLP’s mission is to prepare the country’s youth to be future political leaders and to provide government ministries and institutions with skilled staff. It focuses on building leadership skills across three program components: social science and governance, public administration and entrepreneurship for leadership, and politics and national security. The PLP screens potential students based on the following qualities: analytical skills, learning agility, innovation, effective communication and persistence. Once accepted, these future leaders are required to complete the core modules, as well as community service activities, field visits and attendance of guest speaker sessions (called “Meet the World”).

Recommended attributes

Taking into account the insights from the cross-cultural surveys and other literature reviewed above, a leadership development programme for Egypt should likely focus on the following attributes: ethical, strategic, collaborative, pragmatic and creative (Table 14).

Table 14: Leadership development attributes for Egypt

<i>Competence</i>	<i>Associated desired behaviours</i>	<i>References</i>
Ethical	Religious, family-oriented, integrity, social integration, humane attitudes	House et al., 2004; Shahin and Wright, 2004; Kabasakal et al., 2012; World Values Survey, 2015
Strategic	Visionary, inspirational, communicator, performance orientation, future orientation	House et al., 2004; Shahin and Wright, 2004; Elsaid and Elsaid, 2012
Collaborative	Team-orientation, diplomatic, self-sacrifice, modesty	House et al., 2004; Masry et al., 2004
Pragmatic	Administrative competence, fostering economic and physical security, persistence, decisiveness	House et al., 2004; World Values Survey, 2015
Creative	Innovation, entrepreneurship, learning agility	Jones and Saad, 2013

Source: CISL analysis

¹⁴ <http://plp.eg/en/about-plp/>

India perspectives

Socio-economic and political context

According to the Global Competitiveness Report (WEF, 2015), for India the top 5 economic challenges facing political leaders are:

1. Corruption
2. Policy instability
3. Inflation
4. Access to financing
5. Government instability/coups

Inefficient government bureaucracy ranks 8th. Looking at the Institutional Pillar of the report, India's greatest strengths are the strength of investor protection and [the relative lack of] burden of government regulation, while the weakest rankings are organised crime and the business costs of terrorism.

Public perceptions

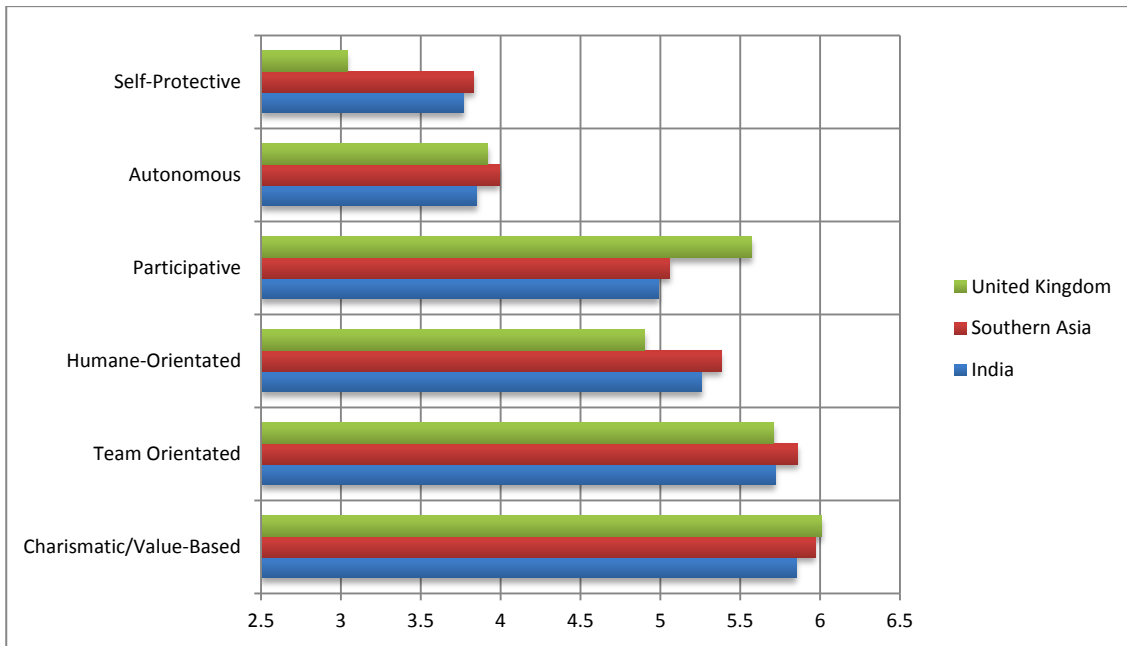
The World Economic Forum's (WEF, 2014) Global Leadership Index found that confidence in India's leaders was rated 4.49, which sits just below Europe, and compares favourably with other regions.¹⁵ As previously noted (Pew Research Center, 2015), support for Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi among Asia-Pacific nations is low (at 39%) compared to Chinese President Xi Jinping (47%) and Japanese Prime Minister Shinzo Abe and 39%). Nevertheless, among Indians Modi enjoys a high approval rating (63%), albeit that support is stronger among those 'Thriving' (81%) than those 'Struggling' (66%) or 'Suffering' (45%) (Nichols and Singh, 2015).

Leadership preferences

In terms of the World Values Survey (2015), leaders in India will need to strike the balance between survival and self-expression values and traditional and secular-rational values, i.e. placing some emphasis on religion, traditional family values and authority, as well as on economic and physical security, environmental protection and tolerance for diversity. According to the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004), there is a preference (consistent with the Southern Asia region and the UK) for charismatic/value based and team oriented leadership. Least preferred are autonomous and self-protective leadership, although self-protective is still notably more preferred than it is in the UK (Figure 22).

Figure 22: GLOBE leadership dimensions in India

¹⁵ For comparison: Europe (4.54, with UK at 4.29), Asia (4.38), Sub-Saharan Africa (4.19), Latin America (4.00) and North America (3.93).



Source: House et al., 2004

Kumar et al. (2001) suggest that there are four philosophical influences on leadership in India:

- *The ethical model*, influenced by Gandhi’s trusteeship concept, which encourages acts of community welfare;
- *The statist model*, aligned to the state-led development approach of Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru;
- *The liberal model*, influenced by the thesis of neo-classical economist, Milton Friedman; and,
- *The stakeholder model*, drawing on Ed Freeman’s stakeholder theory.

Arora and Mahajan (2010) argue that there has been a convergence of these four models in India. Wackrill and Bakshi (2013) suggest that there has been an evolution of Indian leadership approaches, through three eras (pre-liberalisation, liberalisation and 21st century), in which the latter phase emphasises social upliftment and nation-building.

This is echoed by Cappelli et al. (2010), who find that Indian business leaders, in contrast to their American counterparts, are far stronger on pursuing a social mission (rather than focusing on shareholder value) and investing in their employees, and also have strong problem-solving competencies. The authors contend that major Indian companies are not succeeding despite these distinctive leadership approaches, but rather because of them.

An analysis of the GLOBE leadership dimension sub-scales shows the Top 10 most admired behaviours in leaders in India (Table 15):

Table 15: Most admired leadership behaviours in India

<i>Behaviour</i>	<i>Score</i>	<i>GLOBE Leadership Cluster</i>
Visionary	6.02	Charismatic/value-based
Integrity	5.99	Charismatic/value-based
Administratively competent	5.98	Team-oriented

Performance oriented	5.96	Charismatic/value-based
Inspirational	5.93	Charismatic/value-based
Team integrator	5.83	Team-oriented
Decisive	5.83	Charismatic/value-based
Diplomatic	5.70	Team-oriented
Collaborative team orientation	5.51	Team-oriented
Self-sacrifice	5.45	Charismatic/value-based

Source: House et al., 2004

Leadership development

Research by Chachra et al. (2011) identified key leadership development trends happening in the region which, although in a business context, offer some transferable lessons. The two most relevant for this review are: (i) the need for leaders in India to mature faster, and (ii) the role of innovative action learning (i.e. beyond traditional instructor-led training) to accelerate learning. They predict that more and more organisations will use blended learning solutions.

An example of a leadership development program in India is Leadership Management International’s (LMI) Effective Leadership Development program.¹⁶ It is very focused on developing practical competencies, which is evident from their eight modules: 1) Successful Leaders are Made – Not Born; 2) Improving Results Through Better Time Management; 3) Exercising Authority Effectively; 4) The Art of Delegation; 5) Effective Communication is a Leadership Essential; 6) Motivating People to Produce; 7) Preventing and Solving Problems; and, 8) Developing People’s Potential.

Recommended attributes

Taking into account the insights from the cross-cultural surveys and other literature reviewed above, a leadership development programme for India should likely focus on the following attributes: goal, directed, ethical, collaborative, strategic and pragmatic (Table 16).

Table 16: Leadership development attributes for India

Competence	Associated desired behaviours	References
Goal-directed	Performance orientation, decisiveness, authoritativeness	House et al., 2004
Ethical	Religious, family-oriented, tolerant of diversity, integrity, social mission	Kumar et al., 2001; Cappelli et al., 2010; World Values Survey, 2015
Strategic	Visionary, inspirational, motivational, environmental protection	House et al., 2004; Chachra et al., 2011; World Values Survey, 2015
Collaborative	Team-orientation, self-sacrifice, diplomatic, nation-building	House et al., 2004; Wackrill and Bakshi, 2013
Pragmatic	Administrative competence, action learning, problem-solving	House et al., 2004; Cappelli et al., 2010; Chachra et al., 2011

Source: CISL analysis

¹⁶ http://www.lmi-india.in/wp-content/uploads/2014/11/ELD_Outline.pdf

Kenya perspectives

Socio-economic and political context

According to the Global Competitiveness Report (WEF, 2015), for Kenya the top 5 economic challenges facing political leaders are:

1. Corruption
2. Access to financing
3. Tax rates
4. Inadequate supply of infrastructure
5. Inefficient government bureaucracy

Looking at the Institutional Pillar of the report, Kenya's greatest strengths are the efficiency of the legal framework in challenging regulations and [the relative lack of] burden of government regulation, while the weakest rankings are the business costs of crime and violence, and the business costs of terrorism.

Public perceptions

The World Economic Forum's (WEF, 2014) Global Leadership Index found that confidence in Sub-Saharan Africa's leaders was rated at 4.19, lower than most other regions included in the study.¹⁷ According to the *The Status of Governance in Kenya* report (SID, 2012), the public perception of government leadership is extremely low, with only 18% believing that the law is being upheld by Parliament (18%), the Judiciary (19%) or the Executive (15%).

Ethnic patronage still plays a strong role, with many who will not vote for someone outside their ethnic group to become President (20%), Governor (33%), Senator (42%), Member of Parliament (45%) or Ward Representative (47%). Leadership remains strongly patriarchal; however, 56% of the public believe that women can make better political leaders than men.

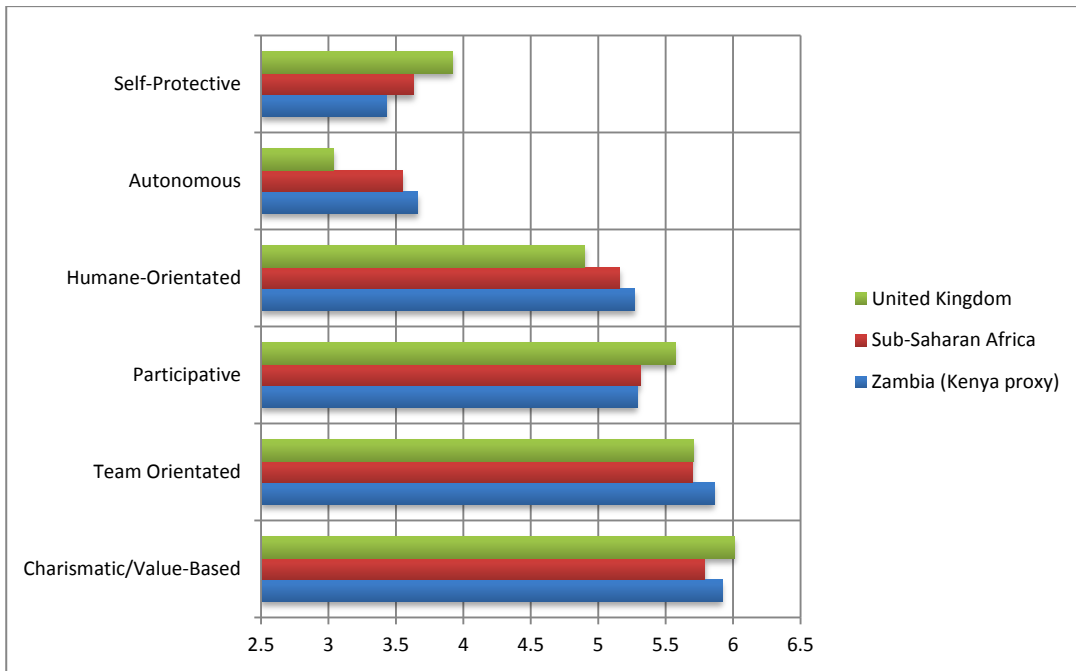
Leadership preferences

Although Kenya is not profiled in the World Values Survey (2015), it is likely similar to one of its close countries, Zambia, suggesting that leaders in Kenya will need to demonstrate consistency with survival and traditional values, i.e. placing emphasis on economic and physical security, as well as religion, traditional family values and authority.

Likewise, the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004) did not include Kenya as a survey country, but as a proxy, Zambia (consistent with the Sub-Sahara Africa region and the UK) prefers charismatic/value based to team oriented leadership. Least preferred are autonomous and self-protective leadership, although self-protective is still notably more preferred than it is in the UK (Figure 23).

Figure 23: GLOBE leadership dimensions in Zambia (a proxy for Kenya)

¹⁷ For comparison: Europe (4.54, with UK at 4.29), Middle East and North Africa (4.41), Asia (4.38), Latin America (4.00) and North America (3.93).



Source: House et al., 2004

Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) note that, in Kenya, there are multiple, and sometimes conflicting, forces at work shaping Kenyan leadership systems, such as the bureaucracy rooted in the legacy of British colonial rule, traditional Kenyan values rooted in the extended family practices, and conventional Western values promoted by Western multinationals and Kenyan leaders educated in the West. For instance, while subordinates are expected to be deferential to superiors, the superior’s authority is rooted not just in position but also in moral integrity. Thus, leaders should provide care and affection to subordinates, as well as guidance and inspiration.

Koshal (2005) also found congruence between Greenleaf’s (1977) servant leadership theory and characteristics perceived to be desirable in Kenyan leaders, including: role modelling; sacrificing for others; meeting the needs of others and developing them; service as a primary function of leadership; recognising and rewarding employees; treating employees with respect (humility); and involving others in decision making.

An analysis of the GLOBE leadership dimension sub-scales shows the Top 10 most admired behaviours in leaders in Zambia (as a proxy for Kenya) in Table 17.

Table 17: Most admired leadership behaviours in Zambia (proxy for Kenya)

<i>Behaviour</i>	<i>Score</i>	<i>GLOBE Leadership Cluster</i>
Administratively competent	6.27	Team-oriented
Inspirational	6.25	Charismatic/value-based
Integrity	6.10	Charismatic/value-based
Performance oriented	6.10	Charismatic/value-based
Visionary	6.10	Charismatic/value-based
Decisive	6.02	Charismatic/value-based
Team integrator	6.02	Team-oriented
Collaborative team orientation	5.68	Team-oriented

Modesty	5.43	Humane-oriented
Diplomatic	5.24	Team-oriented

Source: House et al., 2004

Research specifically undertaken in Kenya suggests the overwhelming majority of Kenyans (77%) rank integrity (transparency, honesty, not corrupt, trustworthy) as the most important characteristic of good leadership (SID, 2012). Other ranked factors are educated (20%), hardworking or committed (12%), God fearing (12%), caring (interaction with people, loving, social, available) (9%) and visionary (9%).

Leadership development

In terms of leadership development, a sustainability leadership programme run in Kenya by CISL South Africa (in partnership with Strathmore’s Centre for Sustainability Leadership, Safaricom, Unilever Kenya and the UN Global Compact in Kenya) incorporates the leadership practice techniques of listening and reflection. These are extremely well received by participant leaders, as they are a positive contrast to the more traditional forms of learning they are used to, i.e. ‘one way transmission’ in the lecture style.

This echoes the approach of Develop Africa, which runs an Innovative, Indigenous Leadership Development Program¹⁸ in Kenya, which places emphasis on “learning, not teaching”, which is multi-sectoral, multi-cultural and involves “learning by experiencing and interacting”. By using action research, problem solving and scenarios, the programme strives to nurture “creative practitioners”. One of the sub-programs is the Girls Leadership Mentoring program, which they run in Kisii, Kenya.

Recommended attributes

Taking into account the insights from the cross-cultural surveys and other literature reviewed above, a leadership development programme for Kenya should likely focus on the following attributes: strategic, managerial, ethical, collaborative and pragmatic (Table 18).

Table 18: Leadership development attributes for Kenya

Competence	Associated desired behaviours	References
Strategic	Visionary, inspirational, charismatic	Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003; House et al., 2004; Koech and Namusonge, 2012;
Managerial	Administrative competence, Performance orientation	House et al., 2004; World Values Survey, 2015
Ethical	Religious, family-oriented, integrity, morality	House et al., 2004; Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003; World Values Survey, 2015
Collaborative	Team-orientation, participative, diplomatic, servant leadership, modesty, collective	Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003; House et al., 2004; Koshal, 2005; World Values Survey, 2015
Pragmatic	Fostering economic and physical security, decisiveness	House et al., 2004; World Values Survey, 2015

¹⁸ <http://www.developafrica.org/leadership-development-africa>

Source: CISL analysis

Mexico perspectives

Socio-economic and political context

According to the Global Competitiveness Report (WEF, 2015), for Mexico the top 5 economic challenges facing political leaders are:

1. Corruption
2. Inefficient government bureaucracy
3. Crime and theft
4. Tax rates
5. Complexity of tax regulations

Looking at the Institutional Pillar of the Global Competitiveness, which relates most directly to political governance, Mexico's highest rankings (i.e. greatest strengths) are the strength of auditing and reporting standards, and strength of investor protection, while the weakest rankings are the business costs of crime and violence, and organised crime.

Public perceptions

The World Economic Forum's (WEF, 2014) Global Leadership Index found that confidence in Mexico's leaders was rated 4.05, lower than all regions but Latin America and North America.¹⁹ Mexicans are divided over President Enrique Peña Nieto, with approval ratings having declined to 44% in 2015 (from 51% in 2014). Dissatisfaction is high regarding how he is handling fighting corruption, the economy, energy reform and a host of other issues (Pew Research Center, 2015). In terms of challenges that political leaders are expected to tackle in Mexico, rising prices is perceived as the biggest problem (by 76% of the public), followed by crime (74%), lack of employment opportunities (73%) and corrupt political leaders (72%).

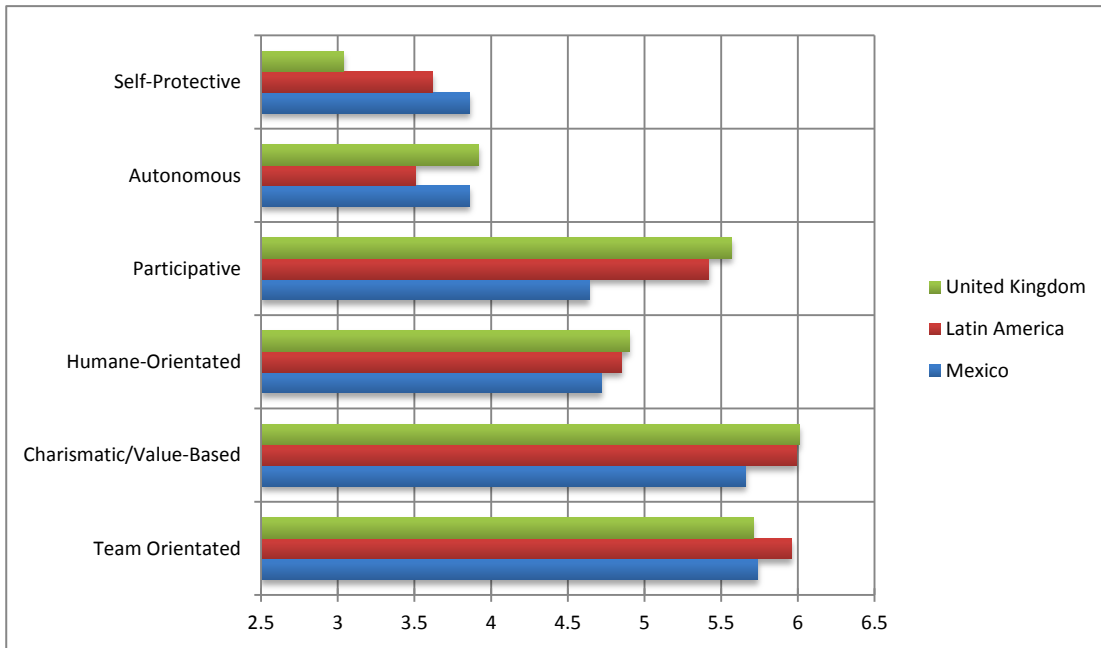
Leadership preferences

In terms of the World Values Survey (2015), leaders in Mexico will need to demonstrate consistency with traditional and self-expression values, i.e. placing emphasis on religion, traditional family values and authority, as well as giving priority to environmental protection, growing tolerance of diversity and rising demands for participation in decision-making in economic and political life.

According to the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004), Mexico prefers team oriented to charismatic/value based leadership (as compared with the Latin America region, which has shown more or less equal preference and the UK, which more strongly prefers charismatic/value based). Least preferred are autonomous and self-protective leadership, although self-protective is still notably more preferred than it is in the UK (see Figure 24).

¹⁹ For comparison: Europe (4.54, with UK at 4.29), Middle East and North Africa (4.41), Asia (4.38), Latin America (4.00) and North America (3.93).

Figure 24: GLOBE leadership dimensions in Mexico



Source: House et al., 2004

Delvira and Elvira (2012) conclude that “cross-cultural studies describing Latin American managers have been highly consistent: authority and group relations score high in the definition of leadership. In addition, within a context defined by complex economic, social and political structures, the content of these dimensions often becomes associated with a paternalistic leadership style” (548). In a similar vein, Gutiérrez (2015) finds that the most admired leaders in Mexico have characteristics associated with the masculinity dimension of the Hofstede cultural model.

In a review of the literature, however, Howell et al. (2007) finds a more diverse set of effective leadership styles in Mexico, including:

- *Supportive* - Reflects the importance of interpersonal relations with a high value placed on caring, listening, and understanding (simpático)
- *Directive* - Reflects the traditional autocratic patron model of Mexican history, where the elite leader expects compliant respect and loyalty
- *Charismatic* - Reflects the historical tradition of charismatic leader as a ‘spiritual’ advisor, often associated with collectivist cultures

Gordon (2010) finds that there is an increasing convergence between Mexican and US cultures, which is also reflected in leadership styles. Nevertheless, he argues that some ‘cultural vestiges’ still exert an influence. For example, some anthropologists link Mexican tolerance for autocratic leadership styles to behaviours shaped by the heritage of the Conquest and the Hacienda system (e.g. cruelty toward social inferiors and a desire to exercise power harshly).

An analysis of the GLOBE leadership dimension sub-scales shows the Top 10 most admired behaviours in leaders in Mexico (Table 19):

Table 19: Most admired leadership behaviours in Mexico

<i>Behaviour</i>	<i>Score</i>	<i>GLOBE Leadership Cluster</i>
Performance oriented	6.14	Charismatic/value-based
Administratively competent	5.92	Team-oriented
Inspirational	5.91	Charismatic/value-based
Team integrator	5.85	Team-oriented
Visionary	5.78	Charismatic/value-based
Integrity	5.77	Charismatic/value-based
Diplomatic	5.55	Team-oriented
Decisive	5.54	Charismatic/value-based
Collaborative team orientation	5.54	Team-oriented
Self-sacrifice	4.80	Charismatic/value-based

Source: House et al., 2004

Leadership development

In terms of leadership development, Garza and Salcedo (2013) propose five characteristics that need to be developed in the next generation of Mexico's leaders, taking into account the country's national and cultural context, and which now underscore a leadership course developed by the Universidad de Monterrey: self-awareness; clear purpose (life's mission and vision); social awareness; critical thinking; and, teamwork skills.

Recommended attributes

Taking into account the insights from the cross-cultural surveys and other literature reviewed above, a leadership development programme for Mexico should likely focus on the following attributes: goal, directed, managerial, ethical, collaborative, and strategic (Table 20).

Table 20: Leadership development attributes for Mexico

<i>Competence</i>	<i>Associated desired behaviours</i>	<i>References</i>
Goal-directed	Performance orientation, decisiveness, authoritativeness, self-directed, purposeful	House et al., 2004, 2007; Delvira and Elvira, 2012; Garza and Salcedo, 2013
Managerial	Administrative competence, task management, critical thinking	Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Gutiérrez, 1993; Garza and Salcedo, 2013
Ethical	Religious, family-oriented, tolerant of diversity; social awareness, integrity	House et al., 2004; Garza and Salcedo, 2013; World Values Survey, 2015
Strategic	Visionary, inspirational, self-sacrifice, environmental protection	House et al., 2004; World Values Survey, 2015
Collaborative	Team-orientation, participative decision making, diplomatic	House et al., 2004; World Values Survey, 2015

6. Conclusions and Recommendations

The global challenges that we face make the task of leadership far more complex and indeed urgent than in previous generations. The power of today's dynamic context is everywhere in evidence, from political upheavals (such as the recent dramatic movement to the political right) and social pressures (such as the growing tide of refugees in recent years) to technological shifts (such as cyber-terrorism or autonomous cars) and environmental problems (such as climate change or collapsing ecosystems).

Recommendation 1: In this global context, 'good' leadership should ultimately be defined and judged in relation to these complex global socio-economic and environmental risks and opportunities, and the pursuit of 'sustainable development' outcomes.

The way that leaders express global challenges – and whether they understand and communicate these growing 'risks' as 'sustainability' goals for the future, or emerging 'opportunities' for votes or economic development – is less important than the systemic perspective that is required for leaders to effectively respond. This systems perspective is seen in the development of a global mindset and, in a policy context, the willingness to work with complexity, engage in design and experimentation, and adopt a learning approach, rather than seeking to command-and-control.

Recommendation 2: 'Good' leadership will require the cultivation of a 'global' and a 'systems' mindset, developing skills of open-mindedness, inclusivity, long-term and systemic thinking, and navigating complexity without trying to artificially reduce it.

All leadership theories draw conclusions about what they see as the defining traits, skills, knowledge, styles and characteristics of leaders, with many seeking to define 'universal' attributes of good leadership. Gender and generational perspectives offer some nuance here, although it is the case that on the most 'essential traits' (honesty, intelligence and decisiveness) there is very little variation. Women are more likely to place a higher value on compassion, innovation and ambition, with the focus on ambition driven by younger generations.

Recommendation 3: 'Good' leadership should be understood, not only in terms of outcomes (e.g. sustainable development) but also in the motivation and character of leaders, bearing in mind that certain traits are valued more by different genders and ages.

This links with a growing interest in different theories of leadership, including 'transformational', 'ethical', 'inclusive', and 'servant' schools of leadership. Transformational leadership is particularly relevant in a global context in light of the need to inspire and mobilise others to transcend self-interest for the sake of shared goals. This theory appears to be one of the most popular and universally applicable across cultural contexts. The work on distributed leadership is a helpful corrective to the preoccupation with individual leaders at the expense of the context and systems in which leadership is manifest.

Recommendation 4: 'Good' leadership is also defined in terms of its process – who is involved, who is empowered – and the values underpinning such decisions. It should take care not to focus unduly on individuals with formal power, but also consider the role of followers, and distributed leadership.

There are distinctive perspectives about leadership in a policy or political context, most notably the importance of creating public value, what sources of legitimacy are needed to create and sustain that value, and what capabilities are required to deliver. Much of political and policy leadership is exercised through policy change, and the literature offers some very helpful insights into the role of policy entrepreneurs, who are able to work across jurisdictions, build broad coalitions, and use effectively discursive strategies.

Recommendation 5: ‘Good’ leadership in a political or policy context would benefit from applying the three tests of public value, legitimacy and capability. In terms of specific skills required by those seeking to bring about change, a focus on the role of policy entrepreneurs could be instructional.

Insights from the policy and political literature also emphasise the importance of context. Contextual factors such as political ideology, economic crisis, historical events and international agendas all impact upon how a policy actor might act in a timely manner. This links with the importance of paying considerable attention to the external environment in all leadership development – not simply to the specific area of service provision, but changes in the economy, society and the environment in general (see Gold et al, 2010). At a national level, this will involve taking into account the biggest economic, societal and environmental issues facing the country.

Recommendation 6: ‘Good’ policy and political leaders need to develop the ability to ‘read the context’ so that they understand the most pressing challenges and likely opportunities.

Geo-cultural contexts also shape attitudes to ‘good’ leadership, for example whether there is a preference for traditional versus secular-rational values. The main variation in our consideration of China, India, Egypt, Kenya and Mexico seems to be along the democratic-autocratic spectrum, i.e. the extent to which consultative and participative leadership styles are perceived as desirable. In some contexts, more autocratic styles of leadership are seen as evidence of a ‘strong’ leader. Conversely, more democratic styles of leadership are valued more highly in other countries or regions. Despite this variation however, charismatic/values-based leadership (strongly linked with transformational leadership) is universally preferred.

Recommendation 7: Some basic foundations of good leadership can be drawn and conveyed from the international literature, while tailoring examples and aspirations to suit each cultural context

Cultural context also shapes preferences for approaches to learning and leadership development, with some cultures preferring a more traditional or didactic approach over more experiential or interactive approach. Overall though, theories of leadership development have evolved, with a growing interest in constructivist and transformative theories, and learning through experience. Structured learning still plays a role, but there has been an evolution from standardised, classroom formats, to hybrid models involving action learning and leadership practice.

Recommendation 8: A hybrid model of leadership development is likely to add most value – focusing on knowledge, values and skills – although there may need to be some adaptations as some nations are further than others along the prescriptive-interactive-experiential learning spectrum.

Finally, leadership competency frameworks may offer a structured approach to guide the design of leadership development programmes, and we have suggested some specific attributes that are particular to each of the countries of specific interest to the British Council. To add real value, however, such competency frameworks would do well to embrace the inclusive, holistic, systems mindset of the global leader, and the social perceptiveness of the policy entrepreneur who is able to translate, define and frame issues in ways that garner attention. They should actively encourage consideration of the wider context and pursuit of global goals such as social justice, protection of eco-systems, and functioning economies.

Recommendation 9: Development of a leadership competency framework would provide a structured approach to leadership development for the British Council, but it should also seek to develop the underlying mindsets, motivations, values and character that will encourage young leaders to strive for positive global impact as the goal of their leadership efforts.

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