

# Understanding the Leadership and Culture Dynamic within a Military Context: Applying Theory to an Operational and Business Context

IVAN YARDLEY AND DERRICK J. NEAL

## Discovering Leadership

Leadership has been an intensely scrutinized subject over many years; both academics and business practitioners have found value in developing a better understanding of the subject. Much of the original theory centred on identifying the qualities and behaviours of the leader.<sup>1</sup> Bernard<sup>2</sup> believed that it was the internal qualities of the individual that made them a leader; that is an individual is born to be a leader. Others such as Halpin and Winer,<sup>3</sup> and Hemphill and Coons<sup>4</sup> examined behaviours in an attempt to analyse what successful leaders actually did. This work first linked leadership theory with environmental context and from this research the theory that leadership could be taught was further developed.<sup>5</sup> Coinciding with this work was a broadening of management interest in both people and task activity. Work led by Blake, Shepard and Mouton<sup>6</sup> developed the proposition that managers exhibited behaviours that fell into either task or people orientated activity and the work of Adair<sup>7</sup> typified this in the notion that leaders need to recognise three aspects, namely task, team and individual needs. Later Blake et al. added a third dimension; the interaction between the leader's behaviour, individual traits and the situation or context. The proposition was that leadership could be different in varying situations.<sup>8</sup> Work conducted by Fiedler<sup>9</sup> suggested that context created circumstances in which a preferred leadership style was best suited. Researchers such as House and Mitchell<sup>10</sup> added to the debate by developing the 'path-goal theory' which suggests that leaders help develop their followers behaviours in order to achieve specific goals. This work then spread into a host of

linked contingency theories, such as Graen's 'dyad linked theory',<sup>11</sup> all of which examined the broader context through relations between the leader and the follower.

Schein<sup>12</sup> identified leadership's relationship with culture (and specifically the management of change). This focus on culture was expanded by Cameron and Quinn<sup>13</sup> who categorized organizational cultures and suggested an optimum leadership style for each. As the management of change became a critical requirement in organizational development so a greater interest was taken in the leadership of change and the subsequent management of culture.

Other key issues began to emerge including flexibility, employee empowerment and the desire for greater autonomy, all of which impacted on leadership theory. The emerging thinking began to recognize the requirements for managing context and creating an environment in which the followers began to develop behaviours that achieved desired goals. This thinking is linked to motivational theories such as Herzberg<sup>4</sup> who suggested that individuals are driven by the need for satisfaction while others such as Alderfer,<sup>15</sup> Maslow<sup>16</sup> and Murray<sup>17</sup> had espoused the theory that people are driven by their order, or range of, needs which span from basic survival to higher order social needs. These vary from author to author but the basic principle is the same in that individuals have needs which they are motivated to fulfil.

Other motivational theorists include Vroom (expectancy theory),<sup>18</sup> Adams (equity theory),<sup>19</sup> Locke (goal setting)<sup>20</sup> and Skinner (reinforcement theory)<sup>21</sup> all of which develop the concept of the leader developing the context and sub-culture to motivate followers to achieve goals.

New theories of leadership have emerged based on the requirement for managing change and motivational theory and a concept of transactional versus transformational leadership has developed. Transactional leadership<sup>22</sup> is a more traditional view of coercing followers through a transaction form of reward which is often most effective at satisfying lower order needs. On the other hand transformational leadership<sup>23</sup> aims to motivate individuals to satisfy higher order needs and fully engages them within the change process, often involving culture and organizational change. This is taken further by Drath and Palus who describe leadership as being part of a community, which is 'people united in a common enterprise who share a history and thus certain values, beliefs, ways of talking, and ways of doing things'.<sup>24</sup> This view argues that the leader should be more tightly integrated into the team, changing the role and responsibility of leader from command and control to facilitation and coaching and managing relations outside of the group.<sup>25</sup> The general thrust of current leadership theory suggests a very

different role for the leader of the future but Wilson, George and Wellins<sup>26</sup> state that ‘no matter how advanced the team is, there is still a need for leadership to enable the team to be successful’. As the concept of team development and empowerment became more popular, the idea of self-directed teams began to emerge. These are defined as ‘a group of employees who have day-to-day responsibility for managing themselves and the work they do with a minimum of direct supervision’.<sup>27</sup>

This thinking has led to an examination of the kinds of behaviours these ‘team leaders’ must exhibit. Authors such as Kozlowski, Gully, Salas and Cannon-Brown<sup>28</sup> have suggested that the behaviours need to include; ‘developing shared knowledge among team members, providing information, mentoring, instructing others, facilitation of group process, providing information, monitoring performance, promoting open communications, providing goals and allocating resources’. Brown<sup>29</sup> adds the behaviours of challenging ideas and promoting risk taking, while Kolb<sup>30</sup> states that leaders must avoid the team’s objectives being compromised.

Quinn<sup>31</sup> presents an alternative perspective on leadership with regard to high-performing organizations where he distinguishes between a ‘normal’ and ‘fundamental’ state of leadership. The distinction between the two states is represented in Table 1 below.

Quinn<sup>32</sup> argues that in situations of great pressure in private or professional life the individual may find themselves asking basic questions about the factors in Table 1. When we decide to move out of our comfort zone, listen to our innermost concerns about our own value sets, take a greater interest in making decisions for the good of the others instead of ourselves and being willing to take guidance from our external environment rather than trying to control it, then and only then, Quinn<sup>33</sup> argues, are we in a ‘fundamental state of leadership’.

This concept fits well with the notion of Level 5 leadership proposed by Collins<sup>34</sup> and defined as, ‘builds enduring greatness through a paradoxical

TABLE 1 THE DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN THE NORMAL AND FUNDAMENTAL STATES

Normal State	Fundamental State
Comfort centred	Results centred
Externally directed	Internally directed
Self focused	Others focused
Internally closed	Externally open

Source: Quinn (note 31).

combination of personal humility and professional will'. Key aspects of the 'fundamental state' equate to humility and a willingness to be open and transparent in the style of leadership. Collins<sup>35</sup> also notes that within the dimension of humility great leaders often attribute their success to that of being lucky. Equally, great leaders will look out of the window to apportion credit and into the mirror to take criticism whereas Level 4 leaders (and below) will do precisely the opposite.

So where has the debate regarding leadership theory led? It appears that there is a general academic consensus proposing a more inclusive leader who promotes self-directed team behaviours. Through manipulating group culture the leader can evoke change in behaviours and achieve goals. However, many of these assumptions can be challenged as many organizations achieve optimum performance through a highly directive style of management and a bureaucratic structure that thrives in non-volatile environments and is optimized for efficiency. Alternatively, a faster moving industry may require more fluid and dynamic structures that can regroup and restructure to perform specific tasks. These concepts are linked to organizational structures which are in turn linked to their environments and maturity as businesses. It is contended that the optimum leader is an individual who can understand context, manage change through appropriate communications methodologies and portray consistent sustainable values that the culture identifies with.

The question still remains, are leadership values universal or specific to context? It is also interesting to note that this context can be multilayered with the leader playing different roles within each element. The British military have developed a culture and specific sub-cultures that promote group directive behaviours while creating teams that are highly self-directive and autonomous. This flexibility is supported by a highly developed command and control methodology. This sounds simple but when culture is examined it becomes clear that the boundaries, sub-cultures and influence of the leadership role becomes far more complex and it is the interplay between organizational context, leadership styles and management methodology which must be in balance with or appropriate to environmental volatility.

### **Identifying Culture and What It All Means**

Cameron and Quinn<sup>36</sup> wrote a book *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Cultures – Based on the Competing Values Framework* based on research that they had conducted into many businesses and they identified the types of cultures that existed, what defined these cultures and what kind of individuals would make the most effective leaders.

The thrust of the research was centred on the need for organizations to manage cultures effectively and to manipulate change of cultures in order to survive. They quote, 'of the largest one hundred companies at the beginning of the 1900s, only sixteen are still in existence. Of the firms in the Fortune Magazine's first list of five hundred biggest companies, only twenty-nine firms would still be included. During the last decade, 46 per cent of the Fortune's 500 dropped off the list'.<sup>37</sup> They have suggested that this phenomenon is due to the inability to manage organizational culture effectively. Cameron and Quinn offer a useful definition of what culture is: 'an organizational culture is reflected by what is valued. The dominant leadership style, the language and symbols, the procedures and routines, and the definitions of success that make an organization unique.'<sup>38</sup> It is recognized that organizations, especially large organizations, often have sub-cultures. These are described as 'sub-unit cultures' which 'also contain core elements of an entire organization's culture in addition to their own unique elements' (e.g., Alpert and Whetten<sup>39</sup>). There is always an underlying glue that binds the organization together (Schein,<sup>40</sup> O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell<sup>41</sup>).

Cameron and Quinn<sup>42</sup> tried to identify what made organizations effective. They set about this by developing a set of indicators which were later refined to four main clusters. These four clusters, shown in Figure 1, divide into two separate dimensions so forming four boxes. The first dimension differentiates effectiveness criteria that emphasize flexibility, discretion, and dynamism from criteria that emphasize stability, order, and control. The second dimension differentiates effectiveness criteria that emphasize an internal orientation, integration, and unity from criteria that emphasize an external orientation, differentiation, and rivalry.

These quadrants represent what people value about organizational performance. They define what is seen as good, right and appropriate; they define the core values of the organizations. As mentioned, in this leadership theory a greater emphasis is placed on managing culture in order to effect organizational change. Therefore to be effective, leaders must be able to understand the organizational context and effect change through changing cultures and behaviours.

Cameron and Quinn discovered that the four quadrants that emerged from this analysis match precisely the main organizational forms that have developed in organizational science. They also match key management theories about organizational success, approaches to organizational quality, leadership roles and management skills. Moreover, past research on child development (Piaget<sup>43</sup>), cognitive maps (Hampton-Turner<sup>44</sup>), and

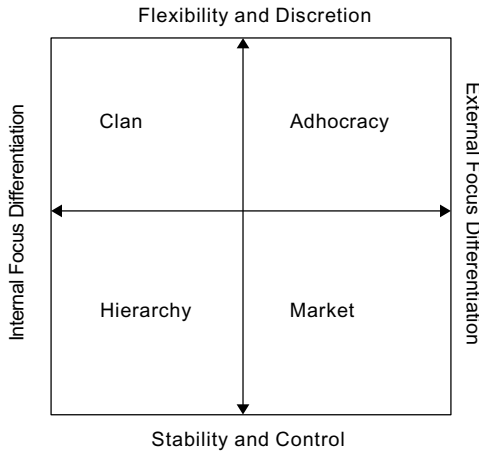


FIGURE 1 THE COMPETING VALUE FRAMEWORK (SOURCE: CAMERON AND QUINN NOTE 13)

information processing (Mitroff<sup>45</sup>), similar dimensions have emerged that have helped organize the way in which the brain and body work as well as the way behaviour is organized.

### Contextualizing to the British Military

Examination of each quadrant given in Figure 1 will illustrate how an organization can transit from one state to another and draws on the practical example of the British Military migrating from a training hierarchical state to an operational adhocracy state. However, before entering into this debate it is important to recognize some subtle differences that exist within the British military. While all elements of the military (Navy, Army and Royal Air Force) have many common areas in terms of culture they also have points of difference. Although the academic argument being presented here has relevance to all three services it is particularly pertinent to the Army. The reason for this is that the Army's structure is based on Regiments that each have a sub-culture and that the Army finds itself in a broader range of contexts than the other services. This situation places particular leadership demands on the commander that are consistent with the findings of Cameron and Quinn.<sup>46</sup> Consequently, the arguments developed in this article are based on the way the Army operates rather than the other services.

### *Hierarchy Culture*

This is based on the work of Max Weber<sup>47</sup> and his work with government organizations which mapped seven characteristics that have become known as the classical attributes of bureaucracy (rules, specialization, meritocracy, hierarchy, separate ownership, impersonality, accountability). These characteristics were highly effective in accomplishing their purpose. They were adopted widely in organizations whose major challenge was to generate efficient, reliable, smooth flowing, and predictable output. Until the 1960s this was classed as the ideal form of organization because it produced stable, efficient and highly consistent products and services. As long as the environment was relatively stable, tasks and functions could be integrated and coordinated, uniformity in products and services maintained and workers and jobs controlled. Clear lines of decision-making authority, standardized rules and procedures, controls and accountability mechanisms were valued as the keys to success.<sup>48</sup>

It is this culture that many observers would most readily see within the British military, especially in peacetime. Through its size and complexity, the military form of organization gravitates towards the characteristic traits of the hierarchy culture. Many of these characteristics are to be found in most large organizations to some degree. However, on closer inspection many of these characteristics derive from rites and rituals which form part of the organization's fabric and contribute towards a framework of stability in which the organization can develop more fluid and flexible characteristics, almost the foundations on which a more creative structure can be built.

### *The Market Culture*

In the late 1960s organizations were faced with new competitive challenges. The market culture relies on a fundamentally different set of assumptions than those attributed to a hierarchy, and was based largely on the work of Williamson,<sup>49</sup> and Ouchi.<sup>50</sup> They believed that organizational effectiveness lay through controlling transaction costs.

The term 'market culture' refers to a type of organization that functions as a market itself. It is orientated towards the external environment instead of internal affairs. It is focused on transactions with (mainly) external constituencies including suppliers, customers, contractors, licensees, unions, regulators, and so forth. And, unlike a hierarchy, internal control is maintained by rules, specialized jobs, and centralized decisions. The market operates primarily through its economic mechanisms, mainly monetary exchange. The major focus of markets is to conduct transactions with other

constituencies to create competitive advantage. Profitability, bottom-line results, strength in market niches, stretch targets and a secure customer base, are primary objectives of the organization. Not surprisingly, the core values that dominate market type organizations are competitiveness and productivity.<sup>51</sup> The military and many government organizations have adopted this culture within specific areas of operations. The military contracted out many of its support functions, from accommodation management through to transport and security services. The government has contracted out many social service functions including training and welfare services such as job centre activities. This approach is set to continue for the foreseeable future as organizations try to find cost savings within their operations.

The basic assumptions in a market culture are that the external environment is not benign but hostile; consumers are choosy and interested in value; that an organization is in the business of increasing its competitive position and that the major task of management is to drive the organization towards productivity, and profit. It is assumed that a clear purpose and an aggressive strategy lead to productivity and profitability. In the words of General George Patton, 'I'm not interested in holding on to positions. Let them [the enemy] do that. [We] are advancing all the time, defeating the opposition, marching constantly towards the goal.'<sup>52</sup> The author suggests this aggressive form of culture, where only the fittest survives would appear to be synonymous with the military, however, many of the subcontracted services have become heavily criticized. The apparent weakness of the outsourced relationship would appear to come from culture conflict. An example of this can be seen when the military (who have contracted services during peacetime) find they have to deploy on operations rapidly. No service level agreement could cater for such extreme circumstances or, if it were attempted, the cost would be prohibitively expensive. This has led to a perceived deterioration of capability, with a general dissatisfaction within the military. However, could this apparent failing be due to a clash of culture and management styles?

### *The Clan Culture*

After studying Japanese firms in the late 1960s and early 1970s, some researchers observed fundamental differences between the market and hierarchy forms of design in America and the clan forms of design in Japan (Ouchi,<sup>53</sup> Pascale and Athos,<sup>54</sup> Lincoln<sup>55</sup> ). Shared values and goals, cohesion, participativeness, individuality, and a sense of 'we-ness' permeated clan type firms. This seemed more like an extended family than an economic entity.<sup>56</sup> The military have the Regimental tradition, which is very

similar to the Clan culture. The Regimental family is a small unit of troops (normally a group of battalions, each of which comprise approximately 600 personnel) who share traditions, beliefs and identity. They are loyal to each other and find external criticism very hard to accept. The concept of the Regiment<sup>57</sup> is designed to allow rapid assimilation of new recruits, to make them feel part of a team that will support and encourage them, look after their needs, create an identity that is worth fighting for and potentially worth dying for. These structures are found in the frontline units called 'teeth arms' (infantry, artillery and armour).

According to Cameron and Quinn it is often found that:

instead of the rules and procedures of hierarchy or the competitive profit centres of markets, typical characteristics of the clan type firms were teamwork, employee involvement programmes, and corporate commitment to employees. These characteristics were evidenced in semi-autonomous work teams that received rewards on the basis of team (not individual) accomplishment and that hired and fired their own members, had quality circles that encouraged workers to voice suggestions regarding how to improve their own work performance and that of the company, and enjoyed an empowering environment.<sup>58</sup>

Again these similarities can be found in infantry sub-units, where teamwork not individual performance is recognized as a measure of success. It is often the case that a junior leader will be chastised if he/she succeeds and their team fail. Leaders are encouraged to involve the team in planning and individuals are given authority to carry out tasks without supervision. The level of empowerment is high within these sub-units and individuals are expected to act without asking permission and conduct their own analysis of what needs to be done.

The military spend a great deal of time in training and developing their staff, ensuring that they understand what is required and how they should conduct themselves. It is important to equip the organization with the basic tools for self-management and effective decision making. Cameron and Quinn have stated that:

the basic assumption in a clan culture is that the environment can best be managed through teamwork and employee development, customers are best thought of as partners, the organization is in the business of developing the human work environment and the major task of management is to empower employees and facilitate their participation, commitment, and loyalty.<sup>59</sup>

This links closely with the concept of mission command (non-directive control) which is the management system employed by the British military, while servant leadership is the leadership style which has been developed. The linking of management methodology and leadership style will be returned to later.

Many writers within the field of human relations have advocated the clan approach (McGregor;<sup>60</sup> Likert;<sup>61</sup> Agyris<sup>62</sup>). However, it took the highly visible success of Japanese firms, which had adopted these principles and applied them successfully after World War II, to help US and Western European organizations catch the message in the late 1970s and 1980s that clan cultures can make good business sense. For example, when rapidly changing turbulent environments make it difficult for managers to plan far in advance and when decision-making is uncertain, it was found that an effective way to coordinate organizational activity was to make certain that all employees shared the same values, beliefs, and goals. This could be associated with the loss of infrastructure and social architecture systems that were present within Japan and Germany prior to and during World War II. During reconstruction, resources were scarce and the need for a clan approach was paramount for organizations to develop quickly. Later this inclusive culture was needed to retain the best people. Also the leaders had grown up within the culture and felt that this approach was the norm and had distinct benefits. It is also interesting to note that the military had more direct involvement in post-war reconstruction in Germany and Japan than in other countries.

Cameron and Quinn define the clan culture, as assessed in the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument, as typified by, 'a friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves',<sup>63</sup> it is like an extended family. Leaders are thought of as mentors, perhaps even as parent figures, and the organization is held together by loyalty and tradition. Commitment is high. The organization emphasizes the long-term benefits of individual development with high cohesion and morale being important. Success is defined in terms of internal climate and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus. These qualities are important requirements for military units deployed on operations. The external threats that are constantly present require a culture that is inclusive, supportive and loyal. The authors would argue that many organizations exhibit these cultural characteristics when under threat from external forces.

### *The Adhocracy Culture*

According to Cameron and Quinn:

As the developed world shifted from the industrial age to the information age a fourth type of organization emerged. It is an organizational form that is most responsive to the hyper-turbulent, hyper-accelerating conditions that increasingly typify the organizational world of the 21st century. With the rapidly decreasing life of product and service advantages, a set of assumptions was developed that differed from those of the previous three forms of organization. These assumptions were that innovation and pioneering initiatives lead to success, that organizations are mainly in the business of developing new products and services and preparing for the future and that the major task of management is to foster entrepreneurship, creativity, and activity on the cutting edge. It was assumed that adaptation and innovation lead to the attraction of new resources and the improvement or maintenance of profitability. Emphasis was placed on creating a vision of the future embracing organised anarchy and disciplined imagination.<sup>64</sup>

This culture can be more closely aligned with military units on operations where, often, new situations require a fundamental re-examination of processes, systems and structures. The military's ability to adapt in the face of adversity is often seen as a major competitive advantage. The communication and implementation methodology that the military use leads to short rapid decision and implementation cycle times. This speeds the ability of the organization to adapt and learn from its environment.

The root of the word *ad hoc* is referring to the temporary, specialized, dynamic unit. Most people have served on an *ad hoc* task force or committee, which disbands as soon as its task is completed. *Ad hoc* organizations are similarly temporary. They have been characterized as 'tents rather than places' in that they can reconfigure themselves rapidly when new circumstances arise. A major goal of an *ad hoc* organization is to foster adaptability, flexibility, and creativity where uncertainty, ambiguity and/ or information overload are typical. The military use this flexibility to reorganize formations and sub-units and is based on the German *Kampfgruppen* or battle groups. These are specifically designed for the task in hand and are temporary organizations. The culture and process must be coherent to ensure the unit's ability to perform its task. Frequently, units will display a mix of clan culture in their approach towards day to day duties and employ an *ad hoc* culture within their decision-making and planning processes while on operations.

According to Cameron and Quinn, 'a high emphasis on individuality, risk-taking, and anticipating the future exist as almost everyone in an

adhocracy becomes involved with production, clients, research and development, and so forth'.<sup>65</sup> As mentioned earlier, the military spend a great deal of time in training all ranks in the processes of analysis, communication and implementation. The military use the 'estimate process' which has been designed to allow for calculated risk taking throughout the organization. Leaders are trained to be bold and daring while understanding that they are accountable for there own actions. This level of commitment requires trust and belief in the organization and between members in the organization.

The adhocracy culture, as assessed in Cameron and Quinn, is characterized by a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative work place. People stick their necks out and take risks. Effective leadership is visionary, innovative, and risk orientated. The glue that holds the organization together is a commitment to experimentation and innovation. The emphasis is on being at the leading edge of new knowledge, products, and/or services. Readiness for change and meeting new challenges are important. The organization's long-term emphasis is on rapid growth and acquiring new resources. Success means producing unique and original products and services. Although much of this terminology seems strange when applied to the military, it is the culture which is displayed within units on operations, where new challenges are presented that are outside the collective experience of the unit. The military leadership and training emphasizes the need to adapt and overcome adversity. In times of war we can identify huge steps in experimentation and innovation.

The Cameron and Quinn model can be used to plot an organization's profile. Many large organizations sit in several quadrants of the model, with sub-units or divisions displaying different culture characteristics. The authors believe that the military display a predominantly two dimensional bias as shown in Figure 2.

The ability for the organization to transit from one task or operation to another is linked to its cultural state. This model illustrates that the military spend the majority of its organizational life within the hierarchy state as this is the most effective command and control structure for a large organization. The cultural traits described by Cameron and Quinn would be easily recognized by any visitor to a military establishment. However, deployment to operational duties often sees the temporary organization develop a sub-culture which is underpinned by a clan culture. It plans and implements within an adhocracy methodology. The forces (political economic, resources etc.) and the task (operation task or mission to be achieved) combined with the limitations which are applied to the organization or force are usually the determining factors as to the mix of the cultural forms

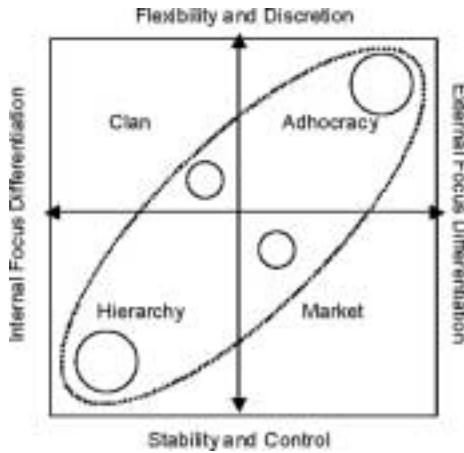


FIGURE 2 OCAI APPLIED TO THE MILITARY ORGANIZATION ADAPTED FROM CAMERON AND QUINN (NOTE 13)

the deployed force assumes. These factors not only shape and influence the culture of the deployed force but will also determine the leadership style of the force.

The transition from one state to another (e.g. hierarchy to adhocracy) is often managed through a culture change programme that is developed within pre-deployment training as shown in Figure 3. Commanders and subordinates are trained under operational conditions to induce the circumstances where the cohesion and cooperation can be developed that will be required for the operation. This can involve a series of scenarios that the unit has not faced before. They force the group to recognize the challenges and reflect on their present processes and procedures. Adaptation and culture change takes place as the team develop shared experiences and knowledge of new ways of working. The greatest achievement will be the readiness and flexibility of the unit to adapt to local conditions within a rapidly changing environment. The shift from proven procedures and rules to an acceptance of chaos and uncertainty is a fundamental requirement.

It should be noted that different cultural needs have a direct impact on the leadership styles and methods that are required. At this point the leader is part of the team, developing culture and empowering individuals to make their own decisions within a decision framework that promotes unity of effort. The individuals must identify so strongly with the values and identity of the team that they are willing to subjugate their own needs to the

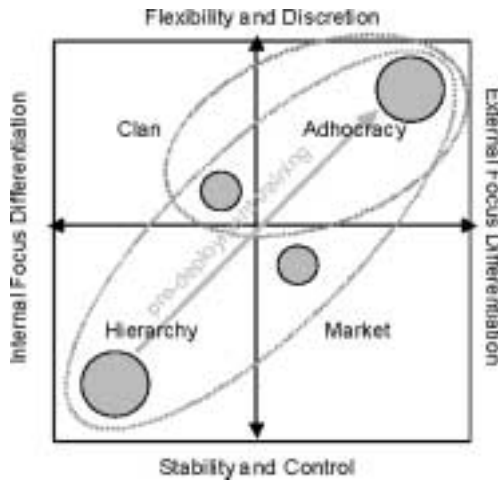


FIGURE 3 THE DYNAMIC MOVEMENT OF CULTURE WITHIN THE ARMY

good of the whole. For this to be achieved the leader must exhibit traits which personify this enduring quality, that of servant leadership. This line of development fits very well with the ‘action centred leadership model’ used to develop officers at Royal Military Academy Sandhurst which is based on the Adair model<sup>66</sup> of three dimensions (task, team, individual) as shown in Figure 4.

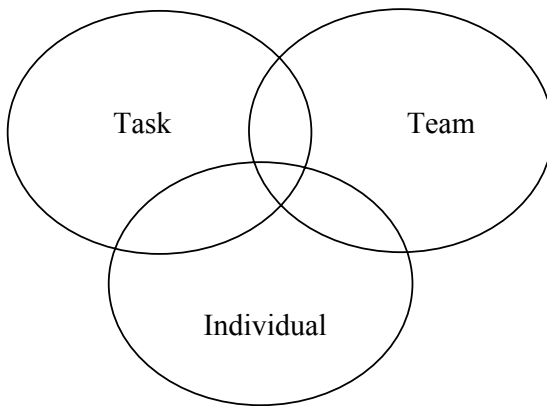


FIGURE 4 THE ACTION CENTRED LEADERSHIP MODEL (SOURCE: ADAIR, NOTE 7)

The move towards outsourcing and contracting of support services can be similarly identified between the hierarchy and the market culture. The catalyst or pre-deployment training is often facilitated by an external training team that will set the training conditions required for the task and often leads to greater innovation and empowerment of junior leaders with the organization. This operational flexibility is often lacking when the military tries to engage with external resources such as management consultants that identify and contract support services. There have been many high profile accounts of equipment debacles, which illustrate this failing to work together effectively. Where contracted services have been utilized often friction has been created in these relationships when the organization moves into operational deployment, and when the contractor is not prepared for the flexibility that is required for this kind of relationship.

The system can function due to the comparatively little and limited time that the main bulk of the military organization spends on operational deployment. However, these relationships have been problematic when sustained operations have been required such as Iraq since 2003. The key issue that the military faces is that the organization is geared for warfighting capabilities – a requirement that is seldom needed. The new age of military operations has seen a greater emphasis on conflict intervention and management and as such calls into play different skills and processes.

The military have developed a communication system that enables the organization to analyse, communicate and implement decisions rapidly. This has been in keeping with the contextual requirements of the organization's terms of reference. This may well be changing in the future where communications and virtual structures are required to fulfil the new types of task that future operations may hold. This suggests that as the organization's context becomes more complex it has a direct effect on the management methods and styles of leadership employed

Arguably there may well be leaders who are fit for purpose; that is they exhibit the types of leadership qualities that best fit an organization within a given stage of its development. However, leaders may be specialists in change and this would introduce another style to the four previously mentioned. Kanter<sup>67</sup> has long been a prophet in relation to the crucial importance of leaders being change agents, stating that all leaders must develop an understanding and high degree of competence in creating and managing change so that their organizations can survive. This statement would imply that all leaders would need to have change capabilities as a core competence. Wheatley<sup>68</sup> notes how change is the essence of the new global environment, and new leaders need to order, not control, chaos. The authors recognize that through any form of implementation process change

is an inevitable factor, and forms an important consideration within any such programme.

What is clear is that research indicates Horner<sup>69</sup> that the requirements of leaders are changing, that organizations are becoming more complex with multiple cultures and different maturity stages to be coped with. The organization itself is set within an operational environment which impacts on the volatility of the subsystems that are utilized to communicate the leader's intention (management methodology). Figure 5 illustrates how these factors inter-relate, forming a dependent interlocking relationship and also mirrors the Adair<sup>70</sup> leadership model discussed earlier. This would suggest that successful organizations are not those that just have the right leader, but those that have developed the right culture and employed an appropriate management methodology, with leaders that understand the intersects of organizational context, complexity and communications.

Although the article has given prominence to the interactions between leadership, context and management processes and the dynamics associated with the changes from hierarchy to adhocracy/clan cultures the military also has to contend with another scenario. In order for the military to conduct operations it also has to define, procure and support equipment and services to the Front Line Commands (FLCs). The military, as part of a much larger Ministry of Defence (MOD), has to be able to transit from an operational

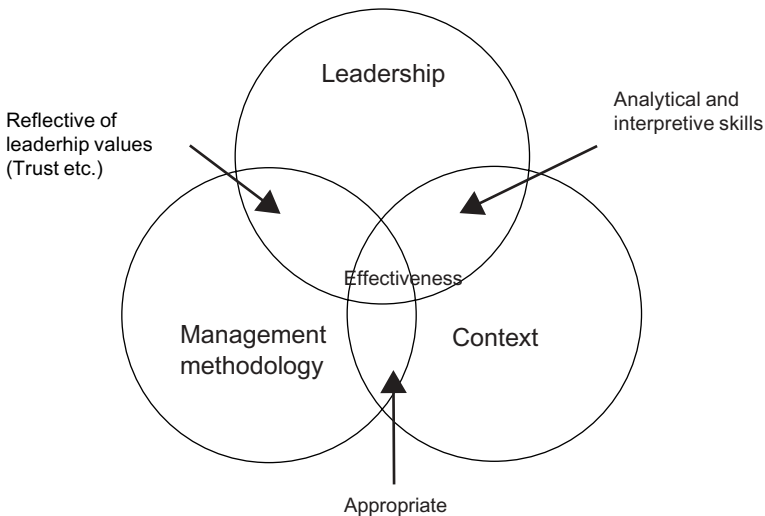


FIGURE 5 EFFECTIVENESS, THE THREE DEPENDENT PRINCIPLES (SOURCE: IVAN YARDLEY ©)

culture (together with its systems, processes and imperatives) to a business space<sup>71</sup> culture that needs to be responsive enough to support military operations. Clearly, in terms of the overriding culture the MOD can be described as a bureaucratic, risk averse organization.

However, in order to help overcome a slow and methodical approach to equipment procurement the MOD moved to a structure of Integrated Project Teams (IPTs) where innovation, teamwork and autonomy were the defining characteristics. In effect this approach is a move to the clan culture with the IPT as the base unit. While this approach may seem like second nature to the Army officer it does not fit so well with the other service personnel and certainly does not fit the traditional Civil Service culture. More recently it has become apparent that the delivery of operational effectiveness relies on several IPTs working collaboratively in order to deliver a military capability and that this is producing its own set of challenges. Not least of these is that the reward system favours success at the base unit level rather than at the level of delivering the desired final state.

Over and above the MOD day-to-day business it is also the case that when the military are on operations they find that they need the MOD machine to work at a much faster tempo. This leads to the term, Urgent Operational Requirements (UORs) and in this case the MOD is able to slip into the adhocracy MOD in order to deliver equipment upgrades, solutions to problems and in some cases new equipment very quickly. Often, however, this is achieved at a cost premium but it is argued, that cost is acceptable when the lives of service personnel are at stake.

When the operational emergency is over the military staff find themselves having to manage the frustration of operating in the slow, risk averse MOD machine. The only consolation they have is that their posting is likely to be for a maximum of two to three years after which they will be able to return to their regiment where the tempo and modes of operation return to their comfort zones.

## **Conclusions**

In this article a closer examination of leadership theory and organizational culture has been drawn, with the view that effective leaders are those that fully recognize and understand the context of the organization and the type of organizational culture which is operating. The literature has discussed much about leadership characteristics, and how they need to adapt to new methods of interaction, becoming part of the team and creating the environment in which self-directive decision-making can take place. For this kind of transformation to take place a high degree of trust must exist within

the group and also have strong bonds of trust with the leaders or architects of such a transformation. It is also important to note that organizations vary so much that many styles of leadership will be involved.

However no matter what the development stage of the business or what type of organizational culture exists the effective development of the team will always require some degree of risk-taking which fundamentally requires trust. The British military have a lengthy history of controlled risk-taking. They have developed a very specific set of values that they encourage all members of the organization to uphold and the custodians of the values of the British Army are the officer corps. This concept has been encapsulated in the handbook for the British Army *Values and Standards of the British Army*. This book is a guide to the core requirements of every officer and soldier. It acts as a central point of reference and its intention is to remind each individual of the key requirements and expectations of the organization. It may seem strange that an organization needs to articulate its values in such a prescriptive manner but committing these views to publication demonstrates the enduring nature of core leadership values as seen by the British Army.

Values are enduring standards that collectively form the value systems of our lives. It is for this reason that the leader's values must be in keeping with those of the organization. It is the consistent demonstration of values that builds trust and enables complex management systems to be accepted and encourages empowerment and earns legitimacy. However it has been noted that leaders often default to type or their basic, characteristics or beliefs especially under pressure. This has wider implications for the identification of universal truths relating to effective leadership and also how best to select leaders for our organizations.

The literature recognizes the increasingly complex cultures and environmental volatility, from which the British military have developed leadership through a values based philosophy that creates and sustains cultures that in turn produces self-directed behaviours to achieve goals. It is important that such organizations operate within a decision framework, a concept of intent, that is a shared understanding of what is trying to be achieved, not a prescriptive dogma which stipulates how the task should be conducted. This powerful combination of leadership values and context (culture) needs to be bound together through effective management methodologies, namely effective communications, measurement systems and reward criteria, which are reflective of the culture, and in keeping with the leadership style. For the leader to be effective (achieving results, targets and goals) he/she needs to possess leadership qualities, which are then augmented with specific characteristics as summarized in Figure 6.

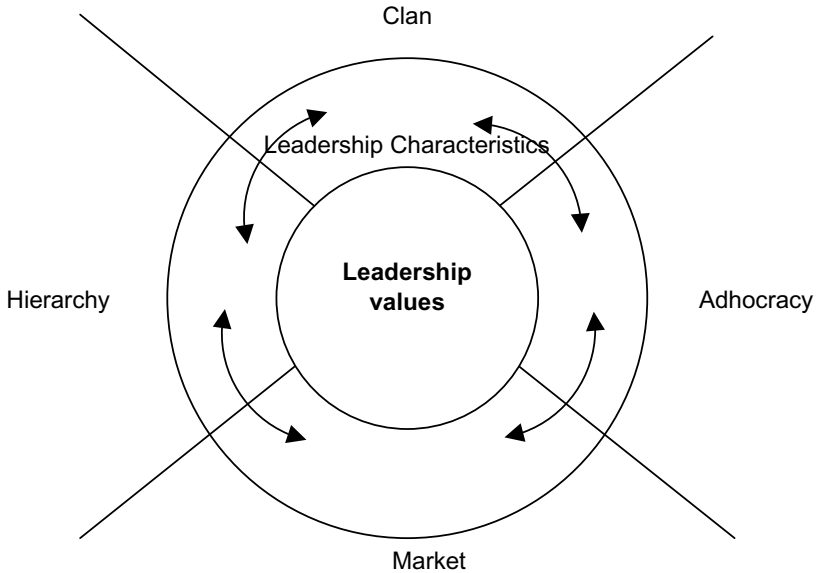


FIGURE 6 VALUES BASED LEADERSHIP, AUGMENTED WITH CHARACTERISTICS FOR RELEVANCE TO ENVIRONMENT

In summary it is contended that the key to effective leadership is through enduring values that transcend individual style, that resonates in all environments, and where risk is a requirement for transformation.

## NOTES

- 1 L.L. Bernard, *An Introduction to Social Psychology* (New York: Holt 1926); R.R. Blake, H.A. Shepard, and J.S. Mouton, *Managing Intergroup Conflict in Industry* (Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing Co. 1964); W.H. Drath and C.J. Palus, *Making Common Sense: Leadership as Meaning-making in a Community of Practice* (Greensboro, NC: Centre for Creative Leadership 1994); F.E. Fiedler, *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness* (New York: McGraw-Hill 1967); R.J. House and R.R. Mitchell, 'Path-Goal Theory of Leadership', *Journal of Contemporary Business* 3/4 (Fall 1974) pp.81-98.
- 2 Bernard (note 1).
- 3 A.W. Halpin and B.J. Winer, 'A factorial study of the leader behaviour description', in R.M. Stogdill and A.E. Coons (eds.), *Leadership Behaviour: Its Description and Measurement* (Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State Univ. 1957).
- 4 J.K. Hemphill and A.E. Coons, 'Development of the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire', in R.M. Stogdill and A.E. Coons (eds.), *Leadership Behaviour: Its Description and Measurement* (Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State Univ. 1957).
- 5 F.E. Saal and P.A. Knight, 'Industrial/Organizational Psychology: Science and Practice'. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co. 1988).

- 6 Blake, Shepard and Mouton (note 1).
- 7 John Adair , *The Inspirational leader; How to Motivate, Encourage and Achieve Success* (London: Kogan Page 2003).
- 8 Saal and Knight (note 5).
- 9 Fiedler (note 1).
- 10 House and Mitchell (note 1).
- 11 G. Graen, 'Role-Making Processes within Complex Organizations', in M.D. Dunnette (ed.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (Chicago: Rand McNally 1976).
- 12 E.H. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass 1985).
- 13 K.S. Cameron, and R.E. Quinn, *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework* (Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley 1999).
- 14 F. Herzberg, 'The Motivation-Hygiene Concept and Problems of Manpower', *Personnel Administrator* 27 (1964) pp.3-7.
- 15 C.P. Alderfer, 'A New Theory of Human Needs', *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 4 (1969) pp.142-75.
- 16 A.H. Maslow, 'A Theory of Human Motivation', *Physiological Review* 50 (1943) pp.370-96.
- 17 H.A. Murray, *Explorations in Personality* (New York: OUP 1938).
- 18 V.H. Vroom, *Work and Motivation* (New York: Wiley 1964).
- 19 J.S. Adams, 'Inequity in Social Exchange', in L. Berkowitz (ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol.2 (New York: Academic Press 1965).
- 20 E.A. Locke, 'Toward a Theory of Task Motivation and Incentives', *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance* 3 (1968) pp.157-89.
- 21 B.F. Skinner, *Cumulative Record* (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts 1959).
- 22 J.M. Burns, *Leadership* (New York: Harper & Row 1978).
- 23 B.M. Bass, *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations* (New York: Free Press 1985).
- 24 Drath and Palus (note 1) p.4.
- 25 K. Fisher, *Leading Self-Directed Work Teams: A Guide to Developing New Team Leadership Skills* (New York: McGraw-Hill 1993).
- 26 Fisher (note 25).
- 27 Fisher (note 25).
- 28 S.W.J. Kozlowski, S.M. Gully, E. Salas and J.A. Cannon-Bowers, 'Team Leadership and Development: Theory, Principles, and Guidelines for Training Leaders and Teams', in M. Beyerlin, D. Johnson & S. Beyerlein (eds), *Advances in interdisciplinary studies of work teams*, *Team leadership* 3, pp. 251-289 (Greenwich, CT: JAI Press).
- 29 T. Brown, 'Great Leaders need Great Followers', *Industry Week* (1995) pp.24-30.
- 30 J.A. Kolb, 'Leader Behaviours Affecting Team Performance: Similarities and Differences between Leader/Member Assessments', *Journal of Business Communication* 32 (1995) pp.233-48.
- 31 R.E. Quinn, 'The Best of HBR – The High Performance Organization, "Moments of Greatness: Entering the Fundamental State of Leadership"', *Harvard Business Review* (July-Aug. 2005) pp.75-83.
- 32 Ibid.
- 33 Ibid.
- 34 J. Collins, 'The Best of HBR – The High Performance Organization, "Level 5 Leadership: The Triumph of Humility and Fierce Resolve"', *Harvard Business Review* (July-Aug. 2005) pp.136-46.
- 35 Ibid.
- 36 Cameron and Quinn (note 13).
- 37 Ibid. p.6.
- 38 Ibid.
- 39 S. Alpert and D.A. Whetten, 'Organizational Identity', *Research in Organizational Behaviour* 7 (1985) pp.263-502.
- 40 Schein (note 12).

- 41 C. O'Reilly, J. Chatman, and D. Caldwell, 'People and Organizational Culture: A Profile Comparison Approach to Assessing Person-Organization Fit', *Academy of Management Journal* 34 (1991) pp.487-516.
- 42 Cameron and Quinn (note 13).
- 43 J. Piaget, *The Moral Development of the Child* (New York: Harcourt Brace 1932).
- 44 C. Hampton-Turner, *Maps of the Mind* (New York: Macmillan 1981).
- 45 I.I. Mitroff, *Stakeholders of the Organizational Mind* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass 1983).
- 46 Cameron and Quinn (note 13).
- 47 M. Weber, *The Theory of Social and Economic Reform*, Henderson and Parson, translators (New York: Free Press 1947).
- 48 Cameron and Quinn (note 13).
- 49 O. Williamson, *Markets and Hierarchies, Analysis and Antitrust Implications: a Study in the Economics of Internal Organization* (New York: Free Press 1975).
- 50 W.G. Ouchi, *Theory Z: How American Business Can Meet the Japanese Challenge* (Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley 1981).
- 51 Cameron and Quinn (note 13).
- 52 General George S. Patton, Jr., Speech to the Third Army (England 1944).
- 53 Ouchi (note 50).
- 54 R. Pascale and A. Athos, (*The Art of Japanese Management* (New York: Simon & Schuster 1981)
- 55 James Lincoln, Mitsuyo Hanada and Jon Olson, 'Cultural orientations and individual reactions to organizations', *Administrative Science Quarterly* 26 (1981) pp. 93-115.
- 56 Cameron and Quinn (note 13).
- 57 The original basis of the Regimental structure was linked to the restoration of the Stuarts to the throne, when the MODern British Army was born by Royal Warrant on 26 Jan. 1661. The Army was then expanded and contracted over many years to meet the needs of the nation. This was achieved through fostering small units with unique characteristics, often sponsored by a single individual (the Colonel of the Regiment). It was through this individualism that the Regimental system was born.
- 58 Cameron and Quinn (note 13) p. 36.
- 59 Ibid, p. 37.
- 60 D. McGregor, *The Human Side of Enterprise* (New York: McGraw-Hill 1960).
- 61 R. Likert, *The Human Organization* (New York: Macmillan 1970).
- 62 C. Argyris, *Integrating the Individual and the Organization* (New York: Wiley 1964).
- 63 Cameron and Quinn (note 13) p. 38.
- 64 Ibid p. 38.
- 65 Ibid p. 39.
- 66 Adair (note 7).
- 67 R. Kanter, *The Change Master* (New York: Simon & Schuster 1985).
- 68 M. Wheatley, *Leadership and the New Science* (San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler 1992).
- 69 M. Horner, 'Leadership theory: past present and future', *Team Performance Management* 3/4 (1997) pp.270-87.
- 70 Adair (note 7).
- 71 While the terms 'business space' has been used in the past to define the activities of the MOD that support the military fighting capability, more recently this term has been replaced by the phrase 'deep operations'. The term has not been used here as it also has connotations of covert military activity and may cause confusion to a non-military reader.

Copyright of *Defence Studies* is the property of Routledge and its content may not be copied or emailed to multiple sites or posted to a listserv without the copyright holder's express written permission. However, users may print, download, or email articles for individual use.