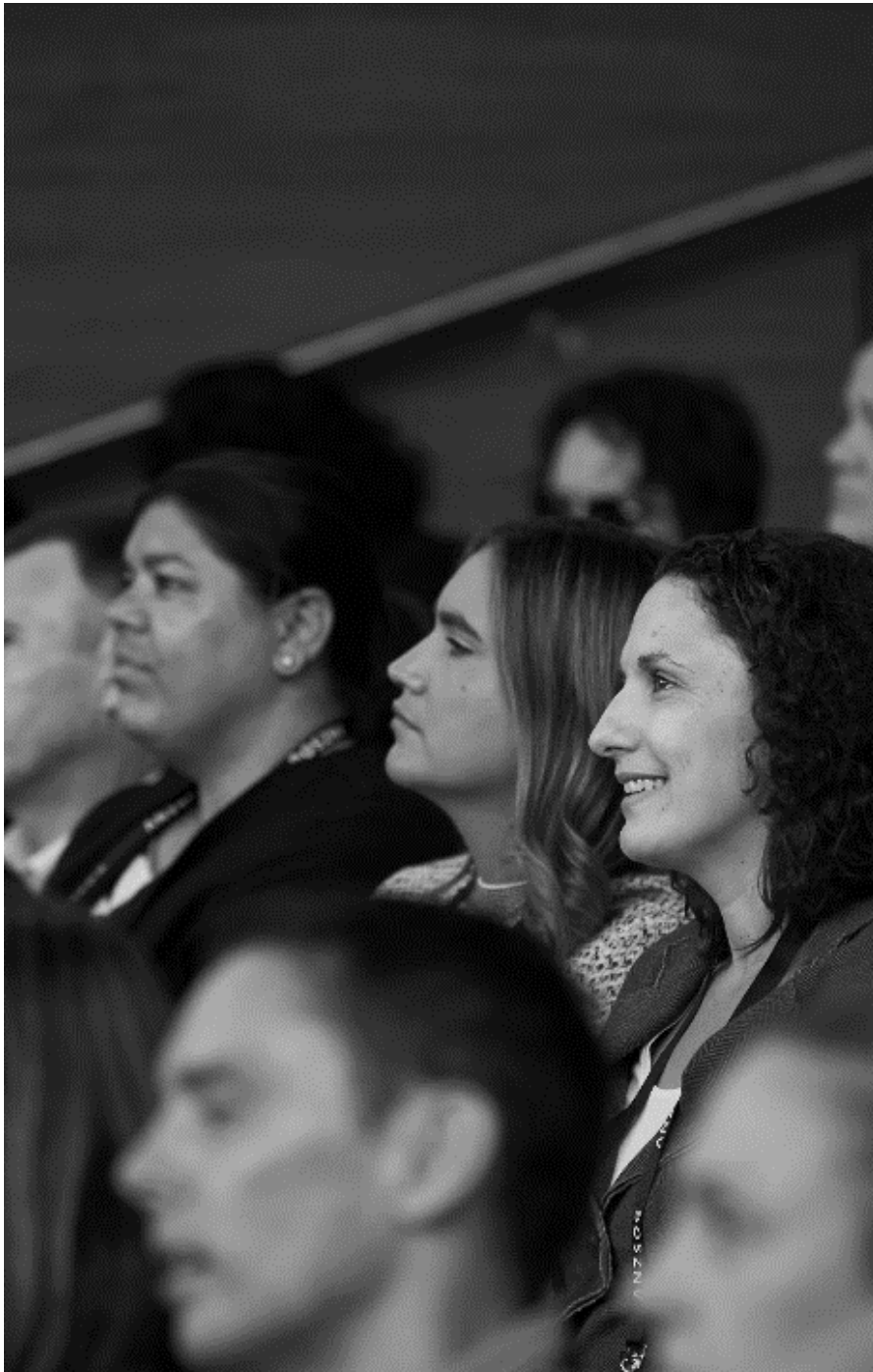ANZSOG

 RESEARCH
INSIGHTS

Relational Leadership:
An Approach to
Public Service
Capability Development

RELATIONAL LEADERSHIP

An Approach to Public Service Leadership Development

15 November 2024
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Queensland public sector seeks clear insights on how to create leaders for the future in a way that is collaborative, people-centred, place-based, and driven by a clear understanding of the context and needs of Queensland. One aspect of this enhancement is to understand contemporary leadership science including the latest, evidence-based, conceptualisations of leadership.

The scholarly discussion on these themes is vast. This document is not meant to be a full summary of what is known – this would be unwieldy. Instead, we (the UNSW Business Insights Institute) have followed a back-and-forth cycle of both engagement with the Queensland public sector and distillation of the relevant literature. We began by exploring the needs of the sector via interviews, asking what works and what does not with the present leadership philosophy. By gathering insights into present day issues and future hopes we compiled an interim evidence review, which was followed by workshops to test the relevance of research insights. Following this discussion was another, more refined research phase. With this approach, we have been able to search through the literature to provide a more targeted overview of leadership science pertinent to public sector leadership development in Queensland and more broadly.

We want to make it clear that this document is neither meant to formulate precise leadership guidance nor a detailed set of recommendations for the Queensland public sector. This report is intended to be a summary of the available evidence on the themes that matter, which can be used for the service to build and create a vision of leadership for the future.

In this report, we present a consolidation of the available science and practical knowledge across seven themes, a summary of each is presented here:

1. **What is leadership and what does it look like in practice?**

   - Traditional notions of leadership, centred on the study of heroic leaders at the top of organisations, have given way to more elaborate understandings in two ways:

     o Conceptualisations of leadership have advanced from *what designated leaders do* to considering leadership as a collective of relational interactions that generate Direction, Alignment, and Commitment between individuals and groups

     o There is a difference between novice leaders and experts; more experienced leaders exhibit a matured mindset that is correlated with enhanced outcomes.

   - Taken together, leadership science has evolved a more nuanced understanding of leadership spanning two dimensions: relational competencies and matured mindsets (see Wallace 2D architecture)

   - The Wallace 2D perspective provides a broader and richer view of the various types of leadership that are relevant across the sector that also represents the dynamic and contextual nature of leadership. For clarity, we have mapped the Wallace 2D architecture into a proposed architecture, with four leadership contexts (one for each cell of the 2x2): Managing, Relational Leadership, Systems Leadership and Stewardship.

2. **Evidence supporting the proposed leadership architecture**

   - The Wallace 2D architecture is a relatively new conceptualisation of leadership, however its two dimensions build from a robust evidence-base:

   - For relational leadership, research shows relational leadership approaches can predict team effectiveness, improve organisational performance, promote employee engagement, ameliorate customer satisfaction, and drive growth. Further, workplace experience and wellbeing outcomes can also improve.

- For matured mindsets, research evidence supports the view that leaders operating at higher order mindsets are more likely than those at lower order mindset to enact leadership in ways deemed effective in modern organisational contexts, leading to improved organisational outcomes.

3. Leader development – what to aim and train for?

- The idea that leaders can participate in an annual appraisal discussion, identify learning priorities, then check-in to a two-day training program, with the idea of emerging as better leaders is simplistic and not reflective of the science of adult learning.

- Training programs provide knowledge and opportunity to experience frameworks and ideas, however learning is maximised via structural approaches that help participants apply these learnings via on-the-job activities such as reflection, storytelling, feedback-seeking, and group learning as relevant to both individual and group outcomes.

- Benefits of the proposed architecture include more targeted development vectors:

    o Relational leadership mechanisms provide interventions for intact teams, including inclusivity, leader-member exchange, and psychological safety.

    o Matured mindset development approaches build from Constructive Development Theory, providing a scaffold to measure and develop leader's meaning-making systems. Underlying development mechanisms include 1-1 or small group development such as narrative, coaching, mentoring and feedback.

4. How to measure performance within the proposed architecture?

- Leadership development involves both individual and relational changes which should be assessed periodically. Organisational processes that support feedback from colleagues will be essential to facilitate and measure leadership development.

- We recommend measuring three categories of leadership development. First, foundational leadership capabilities, which include self-awareness and proactive self-development. Second, the relational development, using various validated tools described in this document. Third, mindset maturation development, assessed through a validated scale.

5. What challenges and obstacles are likely to impact implementing these models?

- Developing leadership capability is a change of culture.

- There will be obstacles and resistance to change that need to be navigated ranging from individual resistance to organisational level resistance.

- Change champions, communication, engagement and commitment are trusted methods of making change successful; whilst also noting that change takes time.

6. Diversity and Inclusion

- Under-represented groups are disadvantaged by a one-dimensional model of leadership development favouring a narrow top-down approach to solving organisational problems and limiting opportunities to include diverse voices and perspectives.

- To ameliorate this problem, we recommend developing inclusive leadership practices, aligned to the proposed architecture to reduce some of the barriers typically associated with extant leadership frameworks.

- Leadership science also shows that leadership development, on its own, is not enough to promote diversity and inclusion. Structural considerations that cater for inclusion of all groups include: (a) flexible working arrangements at all levels, (b) inclusive networking and development opportunities, (c) coaching and mentoring, (d) reducing biases and removing criteria that might discriminate against certain groups in recruitment and selection processes.

7. Learning from others

- What can we learn from other jurisdictions? We compared how different Australian jurisdictions articulate leadership development compared with the Wallace 2D architecture. Across public sector frameworks, there are clear differences in which skills are considered important:

  - The main focus across the public sector frameworks, is on the development of the individual leader competencies with limited consideration of relational and maturing leadership competencies.

  - There are also variable approaches to how leadership development is delivered. Typically, this comprises a hybrid of online and face-to-face programs and external programs that may be generic university qualifications or tailored programs offered by universities, institutes, or private sector providers. Some entities use leadership academies, but it is not apparent whether these are more effective in providing leadership development. Aotearoa New Zealand may be an exception with their focus on Māori leadership and mentoring and their consideration of how to deliver consistent core competencies at scale, leaving specialised needs to individual departments or units.

Overall takeaway

We provide an evidence-based review of the best leadership approaches in the literature that hopefully address the problems and aspirations of the public sector. We believe that the proposed architecture has the potential to provide opportunities for all members of the Queensland public sector community and beyond, to identify with a leadership journey that works for them. This 2D conceptualisation is not completely catered for in other jurisdictions and thus there is an opportunity to advance public sector leadership development in Australia and Aotearoa New Zealand.

GLOSSARY OF KEY TERMS

Leadership: the process whereby one or more people influence one or more other people to contribute to the achievement of collective goals.

Leader: any person who is contributing to leadership.

Designated leader: those with hierarchical oversight and/or responsibility for outcomes.

Leader and leadership development: actions and mechanisms that improve individual, or group, capacity to contribute to leadership.

Leadership competencies: the broad set of capabilities that support leadership (i.e., skillsets, mindsets, values, traits, beliefs etc).

Matured mindset: distinct from skill acquisition, a matured mindset refers to the cognitive complexity and maturation that enables leaders' to flexibly draw on internal resources (i.e., skill sets, identities, values, and mental representations) to make sense of new and complex situations and enable sense giving (providing clarity to others).

Relational leadership: where Direction, Alignment, and Commitment emerge from the group, rather than being provided by a designated leader. Here Direction means everyone agrees on a vision, a desired future, or a set of goals to achieve together, Alignment means everyone is clear about each other's roles and responsibilities; work feels coordinated, and Commitment means everyone helps the group succeed; there is a sense of trust and mutual responsibility.

Systems thinking: a body of knowledge and a set of tools to understand complexity, identify connections among different parts of a system (e.g. organization, industry, society), recognise recurring structures & patterns in the natural and human systems in which we operate, and help us improve our decisions and think through the associated consequences.

Mental models: simplified knowledge structures or cognitive representations about how some aspect of the world works.

Systems leadership: leadership that places emphasis on system-level factors, including their inter-linkages and interdependencies, to develop patterns of understanding and make sense of complexity.

Stewardship: systems leadership that goes beyond the day to day, through consideration and protection of the long-term sustainability of the service, society, and the broader environment.

1 PRESENT DAY LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND OPPORTUNITIES IN THE QUEENSLAND PUBLIC SECTOR

This research was guided by the identified needs and aspirations of the Queensland Public Sector (QPS) as they navigate current leadership challenges and prepare leaders to lead in increasingly complex contexts, ensuring that they have a pipeline of capable leaders to steward the Queensland into the future.

QPS currently defines good leadership through the Leadership Competencies for Queensland framework, which outlines expected behaviours and performance standards at various leadership levels.[1] While its use varies among agencies, it serves as a guideline rather than a driver of behaviour, helping leaders understand expectations. The framework categorises leadership into competencies and outlines career progression from individual contributors to chief executives.

Looking ahead, the sector seeks to update the framework to align with the new Public Sector Act 2022, ensure relevance in a complex and evolving service environment, and better fit the diverse functions and cultures of different agencies. In this context, it is understood from the QPS that leaders must be equipped with adaptive skills to navigate policy, service delivery, and sector-wide collaboration effectively.

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[1] Queensland Public Sector Commission, Leadership Competencies for Queensland Framework, 2019

2   WHAT IS LEADERSHIP AND WHAT DOES IT LOOK LIKE IN PRACTICE?

The scientific understanding and explanation of leadership is evolving. Traditional notions of leadership, centred on the study of heroic leaders at the top of organisations, have given way to more nuanced understandings of leadership as a more collective process. For instance, evidence shows that empowering the collective to contribute to leadership is positively related to organisational outcomes. As these new understandings of effective leadership have emerged, scientists have identified theories and frameworks attempting to capture and encode concepts to provide guidance for organisations wishing to hone their leadership as well as setting a target for aspiring leaders to *aim* and *train* for.

While leadership science has advanced, popular discussion on the theme of leadership, both in scholarship and practice, is replete with older ideas about leadership that simply refuse to depart our lexicon. Popularised as a 'Zombie' narrative of leadership – old ideas on leadership that refuse to die – organisations have continued to structure themselves in a vertical hierarchy with leaders at the top and often attribute success (or failure) to those individuals.[2,3] Evidence shows that such thinking can prevent organisations from realising the benefits of harnessing the power of the collective.

Given both the new science and the carry-over of old ideas, to explain *what constitutes leadership*, we briefly overview the chronological journey of leadership scholarship – outlining both historic and contemporary thinking. We do so to clarify what is new and to provide a contrast with outdated historical ideas and conceptualisations that persist.

2.1   Historic Perspective – Individuals Provide Leadership

Historical narratives frame leadership as solely the domain of those in charge of organisational units. Ensuing leadership models have adopted top-down, bureaucratic, paradigms built on the assumption that organisations, and the individuals within them, need a designated person at the helm to navigate towards success. Such narratives imply that organisational members are incapable of being productive on their own, require a hierarchical structure with strong leaders at the top that will endure[4] and that a large portion of any organisational success is directly attributable to the actions of this leader.

This perspective has fostered a stream of discussion and research attempting to identify successful leader profiles, and to use this knowledge to either seek out (i.e., recruit) leaders who exhibit *the right stuff* or to develop those who might be lacking in certain competencies.

With this frame, decades of leadership science have attempted to identify and codify a set of specific qualities (e.g. traits, competencies, and behaviours) of successful leaders who, by virtue of these qualities, positively influence organisational outcomes. This 'shopping list' of essential leadership competencies is long, with a variety of popular leadership publications promising the keys or ingredients of leadership success. Such thinking has also spawned a variety of leadership frameworks that propose to define an *aim* for aspiring leaders to *train* for.

However, evidence supporting the idea that *the right stuff* of leadership can be defined, distilled and then developed within aspiring leaders is thin. When it comes to the specific leadership qualities that aspiring leaders should *aim* and *train* for, the search to identify a common set of leadership qualities that can build a 'straw man' of

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[2] Kuri, S.K. and E.K. Kaufman, *Leadership insights from hollywood-based war movies: an opportunity for vicarious learning.* Journal of Leadership Studies, 2020. **14**(1): p. 53-61
[3] Haslam, A.S., M. Alvesson, and S.D. Reicher, *Zombie leadership: Dead ideas that still walk among us.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2024: p. 101770.
[4] Brown, A., *The myth of the strong leader: Political leadership in the modern age.* 2014: Basic Books.

leadership has not yielded much fruit. One example is the role of the President of the United States, a job that – since 1789 – is considered one of the most consistent and unchanging leadership positions available. Here, both social scientists and historians agree on the most successful presidents – Washington, Lincoln, and Roosevelt – however detailed studies have failed to agree a set of common qualities among them[5]. Instead, most (83%) of the difference between great and average presidents was better explained by situational factors, such as whether the country was at war, rather than individual characteristics. Wider leadership studies have also failed to uncover a common and desired set of traits. The only exception is intelligence, which, at best, accounts for 4% of the variation between effective and non-effective leaders.[6]

Intelligence aside, the search for specific leadership qualities assumes that designated leaders at the top are the primary influence on organisations. On the contrary, there are many stories of successful organisations that emerge without leaders. For instance, studies of human responses to disasters, such as the World Trade Centre catastrophe, have illustrated well-organised and highly effective volunteer organisations that emerged without the hidden hand of a leader.[7] Human history is also replete with social movements that have precipitated radical societal change without a designated leader. Some laboratory experiments have examined the necessity of formally appointed leaders. Haslam and colleagues (1998)[8] showed evidence of leaders getting in the way of positive group functioning. They compared groups with (1) no leader, (2) randomly chosen leader, or (3) selected leader based on pre-identified skills (e.g., social awareness, verbal, and planning skills). On measures of both cohesion and group performance, groups with a formally selected leader performed the worst.

Despite the lack of evidence supporting these historical, top-down, notions of leadership, the executive recruitment industry continues to promote the idea that organisations need to seek, recruit, and retain outstanding leaders who have *the right stuff*. However, there is evidence that searching for, and paying top dollar to attract expert leaders might not guarantee top performance. For instance, studying universities, Walker et al. (2019)[9] observed a small but significant *negative* correlation between Vice-Chancellor pay and key indicators of institutions' research quality and research impact. Other studies have shown that high CEO pay increases workplace inequality[10] and limits the voice of organisational actors that is essential for the detection and correction of problematic decisions and arrangements.[11]

Another outcome of historical thinking on leadership is the multi-billion-dollar leadership development industry that purports to help leaders attain these desired qualities. In 2020, the global leadership development industry was estimated to be $50 billon per annum.[12] Studies have shown that this investment generates positive net benefits to organisations, as measured via key organisational outcomes. However, the effectiveness of specific interventions varies from negative to positive influences depending on the mode and type of delivery, with interactive, simulation-based, and application-focussed pedagogies trumping those that focus solely on individual capabilities.[13]

In summary, despite decades of effort, evidence does not strongly support the idea that there are consistent and replicable qualities of individual leaders that guarantee organisational success. This should not be taken to mean

[5] Simonton, D.K., *Historiometry in personality and social psychology.* Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 2009. **3**(1): p. 49-63.
[6] Judge, T.A., A.E. Colbert, and R. Ilies, Intelligence and leadership: a quantitative review and test of theoretical propositions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 2004. 89(3): p. 542, and Hoffman, B.J., et al., *Great man or great myth? A quantitative review of the relationship between individual differences and leader effectiveness.* Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 2011. **84**(2): p. 347-381.
[7] Voorhees, W.R., *New Yorkers respond to the world trade center attack: An anatomy of an emergent volunteer organization.* Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management, 2008. **16**(1): p. 3-13.
[8] Haslam, S.A., et al., *Inspecting the emperor's clothes: Evidence that random selection of leaders can enhance group performance.* Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 1998. **2**(3): p. 168.
[9] Walker, J.T., et al., *The impact of journal re-grading on perception of ranking systems: Exploring the case of the Academic Journal Guide and Business and Management scholars in the UK.* Research Evaluation, 2019. **28**(3): p. 218-231.
[10] Steffens, N.K., et al., *Identity economics meets identity leadership: Exploring the consequences of elevated CEO pay.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2020. **31**(3): p. 101269.
[11] Weick, K.E. and K.M. Sutcliffe, *Managing the unexpected: Sustained performance in a complex world*. 2015: John Wiley & Sons.
[12] Kellerman, B., *Professionalizing leadership*. 2018: Oxford University Press.
[13] Avolio, B.J., J.B. Avey, and D. Quisenberry, *Estimating return on leadership development investment.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2010. **21**(4): p. 633-644, and Geerts, J.M., A.H. Goodall, and S. Agius, *Evidence-based leadership development for physicians: a systematic literature review.* Social Science & Medicine, 2020. **246**: p. 112709.

that leaders do not matter, but rather that studies of effective leaders have not yielded a consistent set of qualities that explains their success. It is indeed possible that the *secret sauce* of leadership competencies has not yet been found. However, an alternate possibility is gaining traction in leadership circles: the idea that effective leadership is a much broader activity than the sole domain of designated leaders.

2.2 Where Does Leadership Happen?

If leadership cannot be traced to the qualities of leaders at the top, then where does leadership happen? Recent studies have questioned organisational participants, asking them for their opinion on *who* contributed the most to leadership and success. The results, across a number of fields, were surprising because participants in the studies rarely pointed to those in charge as being the greatest contributors to performance. Instead, they highlighted that leadership emerged across all spans of hierarchies and contexts. Examples include:

- Einola and Alvesson (2018)[14] asked junior investment bank professionals about leadership: many had difficulty identifying who their leader was supposed to be and what their supposed leader was contributing. Instead, they saw leadership as coming more from their experienced colleagues who provided them with advice and guidance, instead of higher-ups with formal leadership responsibilities.
- Smith and colleagues (2020)[15] conducted an ethnographic study of a science research institute and found that little actual leadership was carried out by those with formal managerial roles. Instead, leadership that contributed to the institute's success was exhibited on the ground by relatively junior scientists who were working closely with other team members to resolve specific problems as they arose. It was the unheralded leadership of those on the front line that was consistently singled out as critical to the unit's ultimate success.
- In a longitudinal study of 279 athletes in 18 sporting teams, Fransen and colleagues (2023)[16] found that when team members were asked to reflect on "who was doing leadership?", leadership was less attributed to formal leadership roles (in particular, coaches) and more exhibited by rank-and-file team members who had informally adopted certain roles (e.g., responsibility for motivating the team or organising social events). It was the leadership of the team members that had the most positive impact on the performance of the team and its members' well-being.
- Studies of organisational change show that successful transformation is rarely led and planned from the top. Instead, change that works requires those who are closest to organisational processes to contribute their ideas and innovations.[17] Indeed Beer & Nohria (2000)[18] identified that it was the organisational units that were geographically displaced from corporate head offices, and far from bureaucratic oversight, that were the most likely to innovate and change.

What these studies highlight is that significant acts of leadership play out in the many interactions between organisational actors, and that leadership is not solely the domain of the important people in charge.

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[14] Alvesson, M. and K. Einola, *Excessive work regimes and functional stupidity.* German Journal of Human Resource Management, 2018. **32**(3-4): p. 283-296.
[15] Smith, P., S.A. Haslam, and J.F. Nielsen, *In search of identity leadership: An ethnographic study of emergent influence in an interorganizational R&D team.* Organization Studies, 2018. **39**(10): p. 1425-1447.
[16] Fransen, M., et al., *Effects of donation frequency on US source plasma donor health.* Transfusion, 2023. **63**(10): p. 1885-1903.
[17] Hastings, B.J. and G.M. Schwarz, *Leading change processes for success: a dynamic application of diagnostic and dialogic organization development.* The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 2022. **58**(1): p. 120-148.
[18] Beer, M. and N. Nohria, *Cracking the code of change.* Harvard business review, 2000. **78**(3): p. 133-141.

2.3 Process Perspective of Leadership

These leadership instances, occurring between various actors within an organisation, highlight that leadership occurs throughout organisations and beyond the consideration of designated leaders. With this perspective, leadership can be better considered as a distributed and social process, something that happens between individuals and throughout the organisation.

Clarifying this theme, Haslam et al, (2024)[19] summarise a definition of leadership: "there is broad consensus that [leadership] can be defined as the process whereby one or more people motivate one or more other people to contribute to the achievement of collective goals (of any form)".[20] Such a process consideration of leadership expands the historical view of leadership in several ways. First, the process perspective indicates that leadership requires two or more individuals, meaning that the locus of leadership shifts from what an individual does, to how individuals interact with each other. Second, one specific individual, even if she is the boss, can only have a degree of influence over the process of interactions – meaning that individuals do not provide leadership, instead they influence it. Third, anyone in the organisation, at any level, can contribute to leadership.

The idea that leadership emerges through interactions within organisations suggests that leadership is fluid and less confined to traditional leadership roles. From this perspective, everyone (or nearly everyone) takes on both leader and follower roles, and these roles are dynamic in nature. Whereas one person might exercise leadership in a team by virtue of having the most formal or informal influence, that could change in an instant if someone else brings greater expertise or a more helpful sensemaking to the problem at hand. This locus of leadership is dynamic and can change over time, even possibly within the same role episode. With this frame, the idea of investing in leadership development to improve organisational outcomes expands. Everyone needs to be made a better leader in terms of being better prepared to participate in the process of leadership as the situation demands and as challenges unfold.

It is the process of interaction that defines a *dancefloor* where leadership happens – individuals can take part, take the lead, or follow. Drath et al, (2008)[21] provide clarity about what constitutes good leadership from this process perspective (see Table 1 below) by unpacking the three desired outcomes of this human interaction process – Direction, Alignment and Commitment (DAC) – and illustrating when leadership is happening and not happening via these three constructs.

Table 1 Where Leadership Is Happening (and not)

	LEADERSHIP IS HAPPENING	LEADERSHIP NOT HAPPENING
DIRECTION	Everyone agrees on a vision, a desired future, or a set of goals to achieve together	Lack of agreement on priorities; people feel pulled in different directions

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[19] Haslam, A.S., M. Alvesson, and S.D. Reicher, *Zombie leadership: Dead ideas that still walk among us.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2024: p. 101770.
[20] Goethals, G.R., *Encyclopedia of Leadership*. 2004: Sage Publications, and Yukl, G., *Leadership.* Cases in Leadership (3rd. ed. pp. 1–42). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 2012.
[21] Drath, W.H., et al., *Direction, alignment, commitment: Toward a more integrative ontology of leadership.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2008. **19**(6): p. 635-653.

ALIGNMENT	Everyone is clear about each other's roles and responsibilities; work feels coordinated	Deadlines are missed; rework is required; there's duplication of effort and competition
COMMITMENT	Everyone helps the group succeed; there is a sense of trust and mutual responsibility	Only the easy things get done; people seem focused only on what's in it for them

Regardless of the context, this view provides a template to understand how the process of leadership occurs both within and between teams. Put simply, if a team agree on their overall direction, are coordinated in their efforts and actions to achieve this aim, and share a sense of motivation and commitment, then we can say that the process of leadership is happening. This same thinking applies to between teams, such as where different departments or agencies need to collaborate, or where agencies need to collaborate with communities.

2.4 A Model that Differentiates Designated Leaders from Leadership

Such a process perspective does not dictate that formal leaders should be omitted from leadership models. Instead, where historical perspectives assumed that top-level leader qualities directly influenced organisational outcomes, a process perspective introduces *the process of leadership* as a mediating variable between a designated leader's influence and organisation outcomes. Here a designated leader can influence collaboration between organisational members – i.e., where leadership happens – which, in turn, influences organisational outcomes. Importantly, the designated leader themselves may or may not be a part of this collaboration process.

This social process model of leadership places emphasis on how designated leaders enable (or disenable) environments where leadership can emerge through interactions. What do designated leaders do that promotes or detracts from DAC, both within and between teams? Figure 1 below, illustrates how designated leaders influence the process of leadership. This perspective contrasts with the historical ideas that leaders influence outcomes directly and that the individual qualities of leaders matter most. Instead, the role of designated leaders is to create DAC between those for whom they are responsible. Further, the way leaders create DAC is more likely due to the beliefs, mindsets and practices of designated leaders, than their individual traits or competencies. For instance, constructs such as Psychological Safety, reflecting the degree to which designated leaders foster environments where individuals feel safe to speak up and contribute to overall aims, become potent themes, which are strongly correlated with organisational effectiveness.

Figure 1 Designated Leaders and DAC
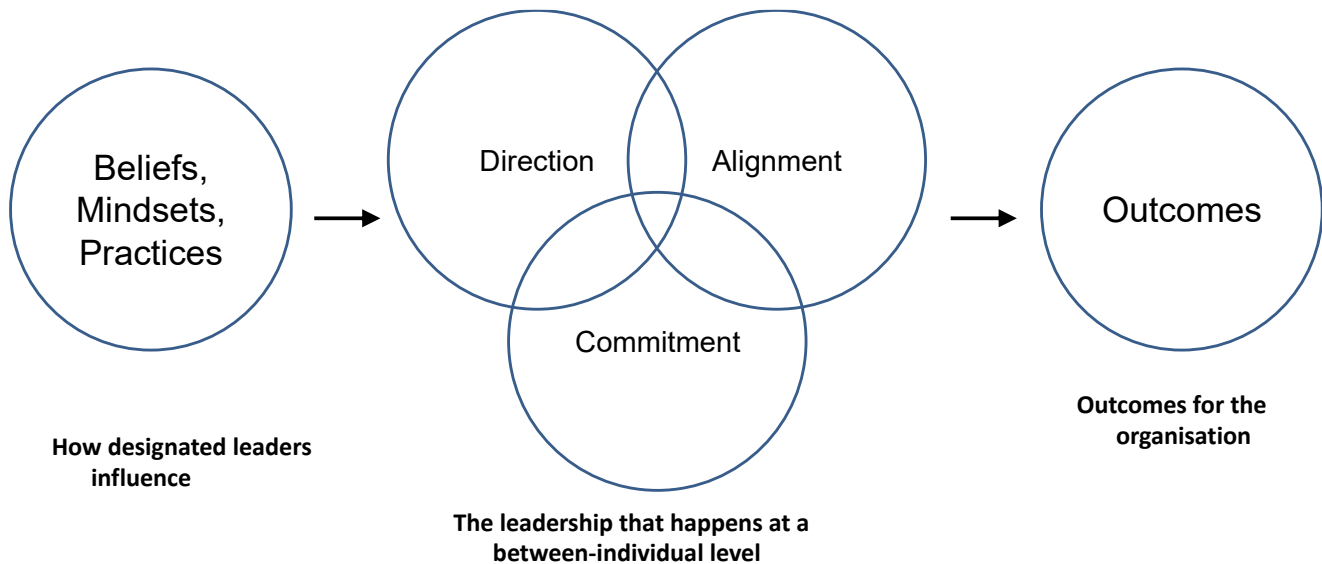
2.5 How Leaders Influence Across Four Leadership Contexts

One problem with the traditional conceptualisation of leadership – as a set of qualities of individual leaders – is that this perspective has generally presented a single, static destination of leadership that applies in all contexts.[22] However, leadership contexts vary. For instance, there are times when leaders need to take charge and decide a course of action, and there are times when the future needs to be discovered collectively. There is also a big difference between leading small teams and leading across organisations. Another problem with a static view of what constitutes good leadership is that it is often built from western views of leadership that might not be aspirational for those with diverse natural abilities and cultural backgrounds.[23] Indeed, important factors such as cultural awareness and 'cultural diversity' have tended to become add-ons to traditional frameworks as opposed to core leadership principles.

With the above limitations in mind, we move away from targeting a single set of leader development competencies, and their matched development pathways, to consider the multi-dimensional nature of leadership across and within organisations.[24] Put simply, how leaders inspire DAC can vary depending on the context and complexity of the situation at hand. Wallace *et al.* (2021)[25] provide an extensive review of the leadership development and competency literature and formulate a two-dimensional (2D) architecture that addresses these deficits. Broadly speaking this perspective separates two dimensions of leadership, framing four characterisations:

- The x-axis illustrates the locus of leadership, separating contexts that require individual competencies (i.e., more leader-centred DAC) from relational competencies (i.e., where groups interact to generate DAC)
- A y-axis illustrates the maturation of leader's mindsets, separating novice leaders from experts. Or, more specifically, differentiating leadership contexts where competencies can be learned then applied, from situations that require more matured, complex, and evolved thinking.

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[22] Johns, G., *The essential impact of context on organizational behavior.* Academy of Management Review, 2006. **31**(2): p. 386-408
[23] Lord, R.G. and R.J. Hall, *Identity, deep structure and the development of leadership skill.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2005. **16**(4): p. 591-615.
[24] Goethals, G.R., *Encyclopedia of Leadership.* 2004: Sage Publications.
[25] Wallace, D.M., E.M. Torres, and S.J. Zaccaro, *Just what do we think we are doing? Learning outcomes of leader and leadership development.* Ibid.2021. **32**(5): p. 101494.

The advantage of this 2D perspective is that expands consideration of leadership advancement from the traditional *ladder* perspective where development is seen as a linear addition of capabilities with the ultimate aim of becoming a Chief Executive. This ladder paradigm has many drawbacks: 1) it does not cater for leaders who may not desire to be the boss, 2) there is a subtle inference that failure to reach Chief Executive might be regarded as failure as a leader, 3) this perspective does not cater for different leadership contexts, and 4) the perspective does not cater for different cultural contexts, where some cultural backgrounds are predisposed to different types of leadership.

Following our initial interactions with the Queensland public sector, and careful review of the evidence base, we propose such a 2D architecture, albeit with some modifications. We have altered the explanation of the architecture in two ways. First, the Wallace 2D architecture presents a multi-dimensional view of leadership development criteria and multiple levels of leadership. However, crucially, the architecture is presented as targeted competencies and omits the relevant leadership contexts. Thus, reflecting our discussions and for illustrative purposes, we first explain this model from the view of four different leadership contexts (or roles). Second, throughout our interactions the Queensland public sector have encouraged us to be less academic in our language. Thus, we have tried to modify this language into terms that might resonate better with a wider audience, giving rise to the Wallace 2D based, proposed architecture. Figure 2 provides this illustration. The illustrated quadrants are explained below.

Figure 2 Proposed Architecture Adapted from Wallace (2021)[26]

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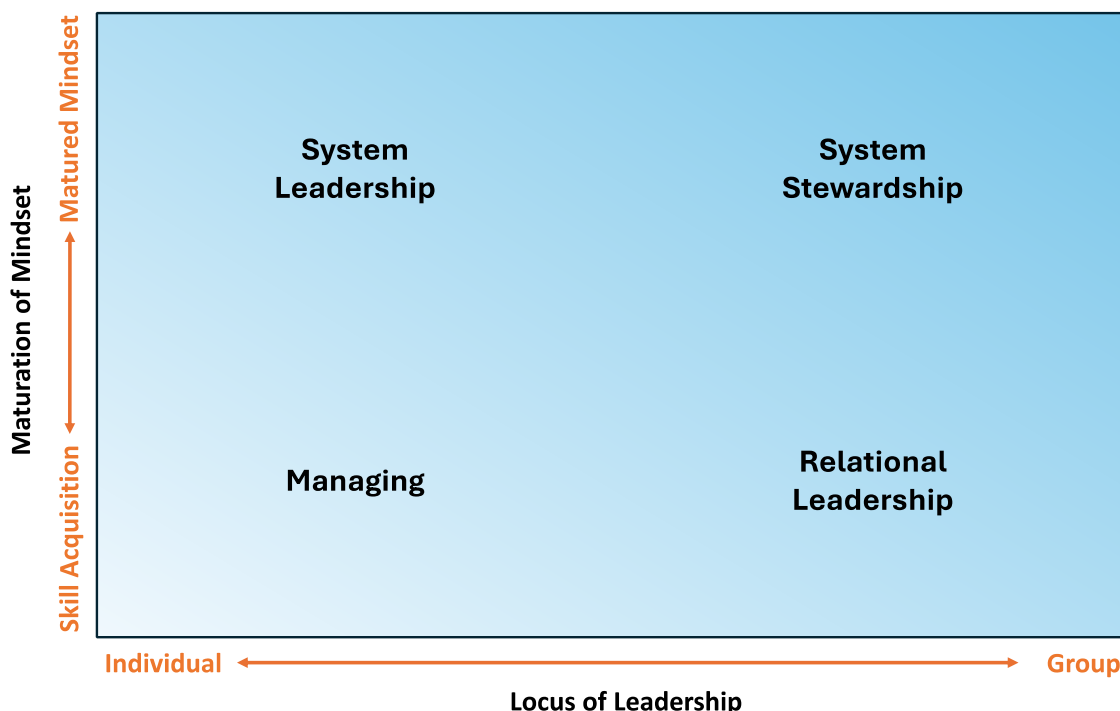
[26] Wallace, D.M., E.M. Torres, and S.J. Zaccaro, *Just what do we think we are doing? Learning outcomes of leader and leadership development.* Ibid.2021. 32(5): p. 101494.

2.5.1 Managing

Proposed label: Managing
Wallace terminology: First-order individual
Development focus: Personal competencies (i.e., knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes) that improve an individual's capacity to lead (self and others)
What's unique here: The focus is on how individual competencies enable performance
Contexts: Clearly defined processes, low in complexity, where multiple people need to be coordinated to achieve overarching aims
How DAC is achieved: Predominantly leader influenced
Examples: Managing/leading of basic services, e.g. road maintenance, customer enquiries, or triage, back-office processes, and planning processes.

Here we contextualise leadership in a way that can be more commonly characterised as managing. These are the leaders who direct processes or small organisational units, they typically work within pre-established environments (i.e., where governance rules and processes are set in place) with an emphasis on achieving outcomes and a low requirement for innovation or transformation. Considering the DAC model, these managers are the primary source of Direction, Alignment and Commitment within teams. They set the aims, coordinate the actions between individuals, and work on the incentives and motivational mechanisms to inspire others along the journey. While these managers are the source of DAC, the process view of leadership dictates that they are not dictatorial in their approach. Instead, desired competencies extend to leading the interaction process whereby aims translate into common understandings and alignment within the teams they manage.

2.5.2 Relational leadership

Proposed label: Relational leadership
Wallace terminology: First-order collective
Development focus: Emergence across multiple people of new collective states (e.g., collective knowledge, mutual respect, trust, social bonds) and processes that improve the collective's capacity to lead itself or others
What's unique here: Belief that the power of the group is greater than the power of an individual
Contexts: Complex *and* adaptive environments where multiple people need to interact and collaborate to achieve overarching aims
How DAC is achieved: Emerges from group interaction
Examples: Leadership (mid-levels) of services (e.g. Police & Health), engagement on future policy directions, situations where innovation and/or creativity are desired.

The wisdom of a group was first identified by Francis Galton in 1907, who observed a village fair competition where people were invited to identify the correct weight of an ox. Nobody guessed the proper weight, however the median of everyone's guesses was within 1% of the true weight. This observation spawned the idea that the wisdom of a group can be more powerful than the opinion of a single expert, giving rise to a stream of research and practice aimed at understanding how human beings can come together to achieve better decisions and outcomes.

Since then, the idea that group-centred decision-making is more powerful than individuals has been replicated across many industries. One notable example in the 1980s was the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), who researched the human factors involved in airline accidents.[27,28] NASA researchers placed cockpit crews in flight simulators and tested them to see how they would respond during the crucial 30 to 45 seconds

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[27] Cooper, G., M. White, and J. Lauber, Resource management on the flightdeck: Proceedings of a NASA/Industry workshop (NASA CP-2120). Moffett Field, CA: NASA-Ames Research Center, 1980.
[28] O'Toole, J. and W. Bennis, A culture of candor. Harvard Business Review, 2009. 87(6): p. 54-61.

before a simulated accident.[29] The research identified two types of pilots: (1) stereotypical take-charge decisive pilots, who acted immediately on the information presented to them, and (2) inclusive pilots who said to their crews, in effect, *'we've got a problem, how do you read it?'* then engaged in discourse before deciding a course of action. The take-charge pilots almost always made decisions that crashed their plane, whereas those who engaged with their colleagues were far more likely to keep flying. Subsequently, pilot training has been updated to incorporate relational leadership principles.

Relational leadership takes the premise that Direction, Alignment, and Commitment emerge through human interactions, rather than being the domain of a single designated leader.[30] Like the examples of the villagers and pilots, healthy and collaborative communication and interaction before decision-making, enhances the quality of the resulting decisions and actions.

Relational leadership is both a model and a process for leadership. As a model, relational leadership directs designated leaders away from providing DAC themselves, and toward facilitating environments where others can come together to collaborate and create DAC (see Figure 2.1). As a process, relational leadership: (1) places emphasis on creating and holding the spaces for individuals to collaborate, including inclusion, empowerment, purposefulness, ethical behaviours, listening, and process orientation, (2) encourages inputs that promote positive inquiry, building collaboration, enhancing trust, mutual respect, learning orientation, and goal alignment, and (3) telegraphs the conversational and interaction processes that groups use to facilitate effective outcomes.

A popular leadership expert, Nick Udall, eloquently summarises the difference between individual and relational leadership as the difference between leaders who **take up space** and those that **hold space**. Taking up space represents management actions such as planning and directing others, activities which are not conducive for individuals to come forward and share their ideas about how things could be done differently. In contrast, holding space describes "leaders who have the quiet humility to create and hold spaces where diverse groups and communities can come together, become greater than the sum of their parts, and consciously and wisely shape, and make, the unmade future".[31]

In the context of the proposed architecture (see Figure 2.2), relational leadership refers to leadership that is carried out in the right-hand quadrants. Research shows that these interactions are also a source of productivity, creativity, innovation and group learning. See Evidence of Relational Leadership below.

2.5.3 System leadership

Proposed label: System leadership
Wallace terminology: Second-order individual
Development focus: Changes in leaders' cognitive frames, identities, values, and epistemologies that advance their ability to make (and give) sense to complexity
What's unique here: Growing understanding that leadership is more learned than applied, instead it is a dynamic interplay between a core set of principles, the needs of followers, and the demands and affordances of situations
Contexts: Leadership of complex systems
How DAC is achieved: Designated leaders create narratives that explain overarching aims, purpose, and principles, followers create DAC with this guidance
Examples: Designated leadership roles (mid- to senior level) of services (e.g. Police & Health).

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[29] Cooper, G., M. White, and J. Lauber, Resource management on the flightdeck: Proceedings of a NASA/Industry workshop (NASA CP-2120). Moffett Field, CA: NASA-Ames Research Center, 1980, and O'Toole, J. and W. Bennis, A culture of candor. Harvard Business Review, 2009. 87(6): p. 54-61.

[30] McCauley, C.D. and C.J. Palus, *Developing the theory and practice of leadership development: A relational view.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2021. **32**(5): p. 101456.

[31] Udall, N. Holding space, the high art of leadership. 2018 March 28, 2018; Available from: https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/holding-space-high-art-leadership-nick-udall.

As organisations become more complex, so has the need for leadership to consider ways and means to lead amongst complexity. Complex systems do not behave in the same way as smaller, linear processes.[32] As an example, the first mass-produced automobile – the Model T ford – contained 3,000 parts and was built (initially) on one single assembly line with most of the parts made in-house. In stark contrast, a modern-day Toyota contains over 30,000 parts, is produced in multiple factories around the world, requiring a vast and global network of supply chains. Where the production line of the Model T could be managed, modern automobiles are the product of leaders who create, design, and steer global production systems.

Leading systems requires making sense of the complexity of different processes and organisational units by considering how processes interact and relate to each other, in the pursuit of overarching aims. Systems leadership does not focus on specific processes, problems, or solutions in isolation. Instead, systems leadership involves viewing inter-linkages and interdependencies to develop patterns of understanding. Higher levels of sensemaking to distil complexity into simple explanations and sense giving help create narratives or metaphors that provide clarity for others. Systems thinkers make things happen by advocating, lobbying and influencing tactics, to make change happen across the whole system, rather than in one part of the system.

System leaders create DAC between teams and organisational units. They work at sometimes-abstract levels of collaboration to understand and design how different parts of the organisation can fit together, as well as bringing clarity to those within those various parts regarding what they need to do to transform themselves in order to contribute to the larger picture.

2.5.4 System stewardship

Proposed label: System stewardship
Wallace terminology: Second-order collective
Development focus: Collective-level maturation (i.e., boards or senior management teams) of philosophies, shared cognitions, behaviours, beliefs, and attitudes that endure.
What's unique here: A perspective that looks beyond the present system and forward in time
Contexts: The top-level steering and/or governance of organisations
How DAC is achieved: Overarching beliefs, values, identities, and purpose frame a philosophy that guide followers, who create their own DAC
Examples: Boards of directors, policy development, executive leadership teams, and multi-team system leadership teams.

The concept of stewardship comes from preservation of biodiversity and that the mismatch of scales between ecological processes and human societies requires the latter to consider their role as wise managers and protectors of natural environs. In organisational contexts, the stewardship theory of corporate governance[33] proposes that organisation leaders should consider themselves stewards of the assets of the entity rather than agents of stakeholders. Thus, stewardship can be considered as leadership with a lens that embraces long term responsibility and sustainability. For instance, by ensuring that today's resources are not only purposed for present day outcomes but are also deployed to ensure enduring success. This theory further argues that there are different behaviours undertaken by leaders – collectivistic and individualist, with the former providing ground for higher effectiveness than individualistic decisions, which tend to be focussed on short term opportunities. Thus, to be an

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[32] Uhl-Bien, M., R. Marion, and B. McKelvey, *Complexity leadership theory: Shifting leadership from the industrial age to the knowledge era.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2007. **18**(4): p. 298-318.
[33] Davis, J.H., F.D. Schoorman, and L. Donaldson, *Toward a stewardship theory of management.* Academy of Management review, 1997. **22**(1): p. 20-47.

effective steward requires a mindset where the concept of the benefits to the collective outweigh the benefits of self; this is not the domain of narcissists or psychopaths.

Stewards use their long-term view to help navigate organisations successfully through complex and contrasting interests (e.g., public, political and workforce). They understand what is important, now and into the future. Another aspect of stewardship, as Wallace explains, is to work to mature the individual and collective leadership capabilities within systems. Systems stewards generate the philosophies that enable DAC to be created between different stakeholder groups – be that customer, political, or organisational. Their leadership unites groups that may otherwise see no need to work together for common goals. These leaders see beyond the differences between groups and work to inspire collaboration on the common values and purposes that unite groups.

2.6 Summary of Advantages

The Wallace 2D architecture and the proposed architecture have advantages over linear 'one-size fits all' development frameworks:

- It is not a one-size-fits-all model; instead, contexts differ, and individual journeys also differ

- Both dimensions frame more specific, tailored, and targeted leader development mechanisms that are more finely tuned to individual and organisational requirements

It encompasses a relational perspective on leadership which, by virtue, embraces that leadership can be a collective endeavour across cultural and other boundaries. Considering the Queensland public sector's desire for cultural diversity, this relational perspective encompasses the capabilities that promote inclusion and contribution amongst diverse teams.

3 WHAT CASE EVIDENCE IS THERE TO SUPPORT RELATIONAL AND MATURED MINDSET LEADERSHIP?

3.1 Relational Leadership

Research confirming the efficacy of relational leadership, when contrasted with traditional leader-centred (or top-down) leadership is vast. While there has not been a single meta-analysis that has collated this research to determine an overall effectiveness of relational leadership approaches, there is a broad evidence-base that overwhelmingly supports this approach in various contexts.

When considering the benefits of relational leadership, it is important to understand the backdrop of a dramatic increase in complexity of organisations. Healthcare, for example has become one of the most complex systems that humankind has invented.[34] Here, multiple layers of managerial oversight are put in place to develop strategies for coordinating the use of expensive, institutionally based technologies. Leaders are tasked with overseeing complex information systems to carry out quality assessments and bring together different disciplines in the delivery of care. While this investment in information technology, specifically quality and control systems, has tended to be helpful, an unintended consequence is that it has shifted decision-making upwards in hierarchical structures – to managers and leaders – rather than using the individual judgement and professionalism of the nurses and other health professionals at the front line. This shift has been blamed for poorer clinical outcomes and a decrease in the quality of the working environment, particularly for nurses. Relational leadership in nursing has been identified as a remedy for this problem. By recognising that leadership happens at all levels, and blurring traditional hierarchies, relational leadership empowers those with less organisational influence to lead in situations where their expertise is required and to challenge the formal leadership structures which may undermine the quality of their work. Here relational leadership has promoted positive outcomes, including high reported levels of job satisfaction and empowerment, improved teamwork and productivity, greater satisfaction with the organisations within which the nurses work, higher levels of retention and increased wellbeing among members of the workforce.[35]

The following detailed stories are provided as examples of the benefits of relational leadership. These stories relate to improving delivery of health care services in the United Kingdom, business-IT alignment in government and effective operation of emergency services.

Story 1 - Shared governance in nursing in the United Kingdom

Since 2014, a model of relational leadership has been promoted for UK nursing in which the collective voice of nursing and midwifery is valued and listened to in all decision-making conversations. This approach follows the premise that nursing leadership is powerless without an engaged workforce. Here, strong, visible nursing leadership, with oversight of the quality and safety agendas, take a long-term view of service delivery across the system and partner with an empowered workforce to understand their perspective on the changes that need to be driven forward. The Chief Nursing Officer for England reports that evidence shows this collective leadership approach harnesses and enables nursing and midwifery staff to improve the outcomes and experiences for individuals, families, and populations, addressing local, regional, and national unwarranted variations and inequalities. It has also driven forwards transformation across traditional organisational boundaries including other care sectors.[36]

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[34] Braithwaite, J., *Changing how we think about healthcare improvement.* Bmj, 2018. **361**.
[35] Campbell, K.A., et al., "The hardest job you will ever love": Nurse recruitment, retention, and turnover in the Nurse-Family Partnership program in British Columbia, Canada. PLoS One, 2020. 15(9): p. e0237028.

[36] Clarke, N., Relational leadership: Theory, practice and development. 2018: Routledge.

Story 2 - Government organisations: Republic of South Korea

Moon et al (2018)[37] report a study in which 102 government organisations within the Republic of Korea participated in a study that explored the impact of the level of relational leadership on (1) social alignment between business and executives, (2) how knowledge is integrated, (3) information security system (ISS) effectiveness, and (4) organisational performance.

This example highlights the difference between formal and informal networks. The idea is that formal network relationships (or formal authority-based relationships) may facilitate little communication if they don't always mirror the informal social structure within organisations, for instance a follower is less likely to follow a direction from a superior if colleagues are also questioning this same leader. Such a mismatch between formal and informal communication can negatively impact organisational performance. With this context, training teams in relational leadership was hoped to benefit organisational performance because it reinforces the informal information, behaviours, and normative directions, thus creating greater alignment.

The study supported the impact of relational leadership, specifically confirming that relational leadership positively influenced social alignment between the executives and followers, which in turn positively influenced integrated knowledge. This in turn positively influenced ISS effectiveness which in turn positively influenced organisational performance.

Informal network ties such as school ties and regionalism may have a greater influence than formal authority in South Korean government organisations.

Story 3 – Frontline emergency services

Studying emergency-response paramedics in Canada, Mercer et al. (2018)[38] illustrated how relational leadership is key to the effectiveness of emergency response units. When responding to an incident, Mercer identified a universal understanding that developing a vision of how the emergency should be responded to is a shared responsibility. One interviewed paramedic explained how they were "motivated to become part of that vision" (p. 17). With this shared approach, ambulance officers are also given the autonomy to innovate with established care processes and apply them in the way that best suits the situation. As an example, a tragic accident may require standard processes to be implemented out of order, or by different personnel, depending on who has the best access to the casualty. To enable this environment, senior leaders noted that they had to take a conscious decision to step back and allow their teams to develop their own relational leadership culture.

Scientific research has studied forms of relational leadership under the terms: collective leadership, distributed leaders, or shared leadership. Collective leadership involves shared decision-making and responsibilities, distributed leadership is where different aspects of leadership are formally assigned to different people, and shared leadership is where leadership is seen as a shared responsibility. The evidence of efficacy of relational, shared and collective leadership is summarised in the Tables in Appendix A. Our keyword search on this theme identified 30 reports relating to effective use of relational leadership principles dating from 1995 to 2024 with examples from around the world and involving healthcare, education, government and public sector organisations, corporations, not-for-profits, and consultancies. The examples in the tables show that relational leadership has been used effectively in diverse organisations and contexts.

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[37] Moon, Y.J., M. Choi, and D.J. Armstrong, The impact of relational leadership and social alignment on information security system effectiveness in Korean governmental organizations. International Journal of Information Management, 2018. 40: p. 54-66.
[38] Mercer, D., A. Haddon, and C. Loughlin, Leading on the edge: the nature of paramedic leadership at the front line of care. Health Care Management Review, 2018. 43(1): p. 12-20.

Overall, these studies demonstrate that employing relational leadership can be a useful predictor of team effectiveness and can enhance team and organisational performance. In corporate environments relational leadership has been shown to promote employee engagement, customer satisfaction, transaction volumes and growth. Further, workplace experience and wellbeing outcomes can also improve.

However, the actions and behaviours of individual leaders can impact the realisation of shared leadership, and there are contexts (such as business re-orientation), where task orientation and relational leadership is required. Moreover, there is some evidence that shared leadership is not effective in all contexts, a result which may reflect the relationship between team autonomy and performance. In diverse teams, shared leadership has been shown to enhance team performance through information sharing although there is some evidence that cultural background may be a moderating feature in this context.

The magnitude of the relationship between relational leadership and performance varies but as theory and measurement get closer to embracing the complexities of shared leadership, the magnitude of the effect increases.

3.2 Maturation of Mindset Evidence

Like relational leadership, research into the influence of later-order mindsets on organisational outcomes lacks a wide-ranging meta-analysis. The most complete summary of data on this theme was reported by McCauley et al., (2006)[39] who examined studies that have focused on the relationship between a leader's order of development and his or her leadership effectiveness.

McCauley reports a growing body of research finding that leaders operating at higher order mindsets are more likely than those at lower order mindset to enact leadership in ways deemed effective in most modern organisations.[40] For example, higher-order leaders are more likely to delegate, hold people accountable, influence through rewards and expertise (rather than coercive power), look for underlying causes of problems, spot patterns, act as change agents, and be more comfortable with conflict. There is some support that leaders at later developmental orders are rated as more competent or effective by others who work with them, but there were also a couple of studies that found no relationship between order of development and leadership effectiveness – see Table A4 in Appendix. The authors identified that this research context necessitated qualitative and/or ethnographic studies which typically involve smaller sample sizes (ranging from a handful to 30 subjects) which has limited the ability to draw wider conclusions.

McCauley also noted parallels between constructive development theory and popular leadership depictions. One example is Weick's (1979)[41] explanation of the role a leader plays in sensemaking and sense-giving, where higher order mindsets are seen as crucial to make and give sense to new situations at an appropriate level of abstraction for others to understand and make their own choice to participate. Another example is Lord and Hall's (2005)[42] depiction of leader development from novice to expert. In this model self-identity plays an important role in organising knowledge structures, which becomes relevant for motivating others. For instance, some leaders may say "we need to do this so that I can meet my objectives", whereas others will employ values and purpose with correspondingly lower degree of self, e.g. "we value care and our purpose is to help people; achieving these objectives is an indication that we are meeting our overarching purpose".

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[39] McCauley, C.D., et al., The use of constructive-developmental theory to advance the understanding of leadership. The Leadership Quarterly, 2006. 17(6): p. 634-653.
[40] McCauley, C.D., et al., The use of constructive-developmental theory to advance the understanding of leadership. The Leadership Quarterly, 2006. 17(6): p. 634-653.
[41] Weick, K.E., *The social psychology of organizing*. 1979, MA: Addison-Wesley Reading.
[42] Lord, R.G. and R.J. Hall, *Identity, deep structure and the development of leadership skill.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2005. **16**(4): p. 591-615.

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4 LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT – WHAT TO *AIM* AND *TRAIN* FOR?

4.1 What to aim for?

The Wallace 2D architecture categorises leadership progression under three broad levels of development:

1. **Foundations.** This layer encompasses self-leadership and motivation. Self-leadership is a process by which individuals exert influence over their own thoughts, feelings, and behaviours at work. It is a mechanism by which leaders are encouraged to take personal initiative and focus on their personal self-development

2. **Competency-based leadership.** This level relates to the acquisition of knowledge or skills around competencies that support leading. These could be general interpersonal skills such as general problem solving, planning and implementation, solution construction, solution evaluation, social judgement, and meta-cognitive processing, self-regulation, creativity, and intelligence that assist with the execution of these skills

3. **Mindset maturation.** This refers to the development of mindsets that enable leaders to integrate the social and technical aspects of systems, notice interrelationships and interdependencies, spot emerging patterns, architect paths forward and generate action through inspiring narratives and metaphors. Leaders with matured mindsets integrate personal qualities of leadership-related identities, values, and frameworks to combine multiple stakeholder perspectives, leadership knowledge, and situational knowledge and distil simple, powerful insights that help others make sense of complex situations and, in doing so, encourage action.

This section first details the *aim* of leadership development by explaining the desired capabilities and learning outcomes of each quadrant. Table 2 provides descriptions of the capabilities within the Wallace 2D architecture that support leading, leadership and their maturations. Table 3 provides examples of the competencies within each section of the Wallace 2D architecture. It then follows with descriptions of how to *train* aspiring leaders to develop these proficiencies.

Table 2 Descriptions of The Capabilities That Support Leading, Leadership and Their Maturation

	Relational	Individual
Foundational	**Emergent states that enhance team learning** (e.g., shared norms for learning, cohesion) through supporting, propelling, and reinforcing relational learning.	Competencies that enable learning about leadership represent the starting inputs of development.
		The ability to develop as a leader (e.g., metacognitive ability and self-awareness).
		The motivation to develop as a leader (e.g., learning orientation, implicit theories of leader development, and developmental self-efficacy.
Competencies that support leadership at a skill acquisition level	**Emergent states for leadership** are collective-level psychological states that support, propel and reinforce leadership in the collective. These include emergent states that enhance the effectiveness of individual leader behaviour and enhance shared leadership.	**Intrapersonal competencies** are combinations of knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes that enable leaders to recognise and engage in behaviours demanded or afforded by the leadership context.

	Relational	Individual
	Relational leadership competencies enable effective leadership functions that support the collective's capacity to self-lead and to lead others. In multiteam systems these functions support the capacity for teams to lead other teams. These competencies promote intra- and inter- team alignment behaviours contributing to the overall leadership of a multiteam system.	**Interpersonal competencies** are social competencies that improve an individual's ability to influence others. Including knowledge, skills and abilities around receiving, processing, and sending verbal (social) and non-verbal (emotional) expressions and extraverted behaviours such as being open and warm with others and understanding and influencing others as well as knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes about managing group processes, collaborative problem solving and working in a team setting.
		Management competencies are sets of knowledge, skills, and abilities required for effective management behaviours common to most leadership situations and include planning, monitoring, and assigning tasks; developing motivating and empowering individuals; collecting, disseminating, and leveraging information; envisioning, planning for and implementing change efforts; and boundary spanning.
	Relational technical competencies involve task and learning process outcomes around collective, technical task performance which may serve as catalysts for abstraction of collective leadership in the team.	**Technical competencies** involve the knowledge, skills, and abilities expected of leaders related to technologies (broadly defined) within their domain. Leaders are expected to have relevant technical expertise to promote effective leadership and management of technical tasks through facilitating, relating to others, shared language, and basic assumptions that mark organisational culture.
Maturing leading and Leadership at a system level	**Common abstractions and mental models of leadership** refer to emerging agreement between individual leaders regarding what it means to be a leader and how a leader or a collective approaches leadership, based on shared leadership developmental experiences. These experiences can include experienced leadership situations and collective learning situations. Collective learning requires engagement with processes that enable development of shared understanding.	**Leader identity** is the conceptualisation of oneself as a leader reflecting leader experiences, mental models, and self-conceptions that drive leader cognitions, affective reactions and behavioural choices. Those who self-identify as leaders are likely to take on leadership roles, perceive leadership demands and opportunities in situations and develop appropriate mental models of the leadership networks around them.
	Social networks of leadership As social networks form between leaders, their ability to adapt quickly and accurately in response to change builds collective efficacy around the ability of these structures to lead and generates collective endorsement of the network, as well as changes in individual	**Leader identity strength and integration** Development of leader identity requires reflective practices through which leadership experiences are understood and incorporated.

Relational	Individual
understanding of the network.	
	Leader identity level with increasing leadership expertise, leader identity develops from an individual self-concept focusing on distinction from followers and other leaders to a leader of others who understands their own identity through their relationship with followers, to expert leaders who see their leader identity as part of a collective.
	Abstraction of leadership relates to having a coherent idea of what it means to be a leader, and how one approaches leadership. Also involves creating a leadership philosophy: a personal framework of how leadership "works" that guides a leader in perceiving situational leadership demands and opportunities, and how those perceptions guide actions to achieve leadership outcomes.

Table 3 Examples of Competencies

	Individual	Relational
Foundational	Learning agility, motivation to develop as a leader, metacognitive ability, self-awareness, implicit theories of leader development, developmental self-efficacy	Collective adaptive reflection, knowledge storage and retrieval systems
Skill-based	**Intrapersonal competencies** Creative thinking, problem-solving, decision-making, personal courage, resilience, proactivity	**Emergent states for leadership** Psychological safety, group cohesion, group trust, collaborative problem-solving, collective identity, motivation to work on behalf of the collective, voice, social support, shared purpose
	Interpersonal competencies Emotional intelligence, social intelligence, extraverted behaviours, warmth **Management competencies** Planning, delegating, monitoring, developing others, motivating others, empowering others, collecting, interpreting, and disseminating information, building networks, spanning boundaries, advocating for change **Technical competencies** Budgeting, sales skills, customer relations management, HR processes	**Collective leadership competencies** Supporting team self-leadership, team staffing, defining mission, establishing expectations and goals, structure and planning, development, and training, sensemaking, providing feedback, monitoring the team, managing team boundaries, challenging the team, supporting team leadership of other teams, monitoring other teams, setting overarching objectives, monitoring between team/cross-organisational interactions, co-ordinating between team actions, prompting other teams **Collective technical competencies** Financial planning, strategy forecasting, operational planning

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	Individual	Relational
Matured mindset	**Leader identity** Leader identity strength, leader identity centrality, leader identity integration **Level of leader self-concept** Individual, relational, collective identity **Abstractions of leadership** Leadership philosophy, transformational leadership, authentic leadership, servant leadership	**Common abstractions of leadership** Common leadership philosophies, congruence, differentiation, collective leadership identities **Social networks of leadership** Structure of leadership networks, peer leadership networks, organisational leadership networks, cognition, efficacy for engaging leadership networks

4.2 What to train for?

Leadership learning outcomes are maximised when development programs combine information, demonstration, and practice delivery modes over several learning sessions.[43] Programs designed to be delivered off-site, with limited opportunity for practice are, generally, not effective for leadership development. Therefore, leadership development programs should be purposefully designed to integrate all three delivery modes. On-the-job experience and interactions with peers in the workplace, provide the required opportunities to practice over time to embed classroom learning in the organisation (i.e., the transfer of learning from the classroom to the workplace). Therefore, development programs should be deliberately designed to integrate classroom learning with specific on-the-job activities that involve practising the skills and capabilities learned in the classroom setting, to experiment with new ideas, and monitor and reflect on the outcomes. With this perspective, leadership development and learning become a career-long process.

It is also important to note that each leader learns differently, depending on their individual learning modes, experience, talent, and engagement with training programs. Therefore, it is valuable to incorporate a multitude of different pedagogical approaches into leadership development programs.[44]

More broadly, the evidence on effective leadership development suggests that successful transfer of learning relies on a few key factors. These features are summarised in Table 4 and provide evidence-based guidance for designing effective leadership development programs.

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[43] Lacerenza, C.N., et al., *Leadership training design, delivery, and implementation: A meta-analysis.* Journal of Applied Psychology, 2017. **102**(12): p. 1686.
[44] Kets de Vries, M.F. and K. Korotov, *Developing leaders and leadership development.* 2010.

Table 4 Features of Effective Leadership Training

Content	Delivery method	Context	Length
The training content needs to be based on an identified development need before designing the program. Specifically, where do leaders need to develop skills, and how does the training program address this need? Integration of feedback throughout the training **process** is important for transfer of learning to on-the-job practice. Training programs need to be evidenced-based and relevant.	Deliver training using a diverse range of modalities. Wherever possible, combine information, demonstration, and practice delivery modes. While delivering training voluntarily is better for transfer of knowledge, if leaders are not enthusiastic about attending, then mandatory training may be necessary to achieve organisational change. Face-to-face training programs are more effective than online courses, as there are less opportunities to demonstrate learnings and practice in virtual environments. However, the use of simulation-based virtual learning can overcome the limitations of online learning.	Training held on site is more effective than off-site training. Facilitation by an internal or external trainer is more effective than self-administered training (i.e., by someone who is not an experienced, impartial trainer). Practice-based contexts deepen knowledge transfer when compared with information only or demonstration only delivery modes. Classroom practice-based delivery includes role-play, simulations, in-basket exercises, guided practice, and others. Many on-the-job activities also provide practice opportunities.	Training programs delivered over multiple sessions are more effective than single sessions. Longer training programs are more effective than shorter ones.

4.3 Wallace 2D Architecture and Leadership Development Strategies

Now that we have identified the basic design features needed for effective leadership development programs, the following sections discuss the mechanisms (or approaches) research finds effective for developing the **horizontal** relational locus of leadership competencies and the **vertical** leader and leadership maturation capabilities in the proposed architecture.

We start with the locus of leadership competencies because more research evidence exists for how to develop these competencies. Then we focus on the leadership maturation dimension, where we draw on the limited relevant scholarly research and draw on the work emerging from different communities of managerial practice focused on this area of leadership development. These development mechanisms are mapped to the proposed architecture in Figures 3 and 4.

In addition, we provide evidence that may guide organisational design considerations for upskilling leaders, as well as evidence for the most effective ways to track and measure leadership progress and maturation over time.

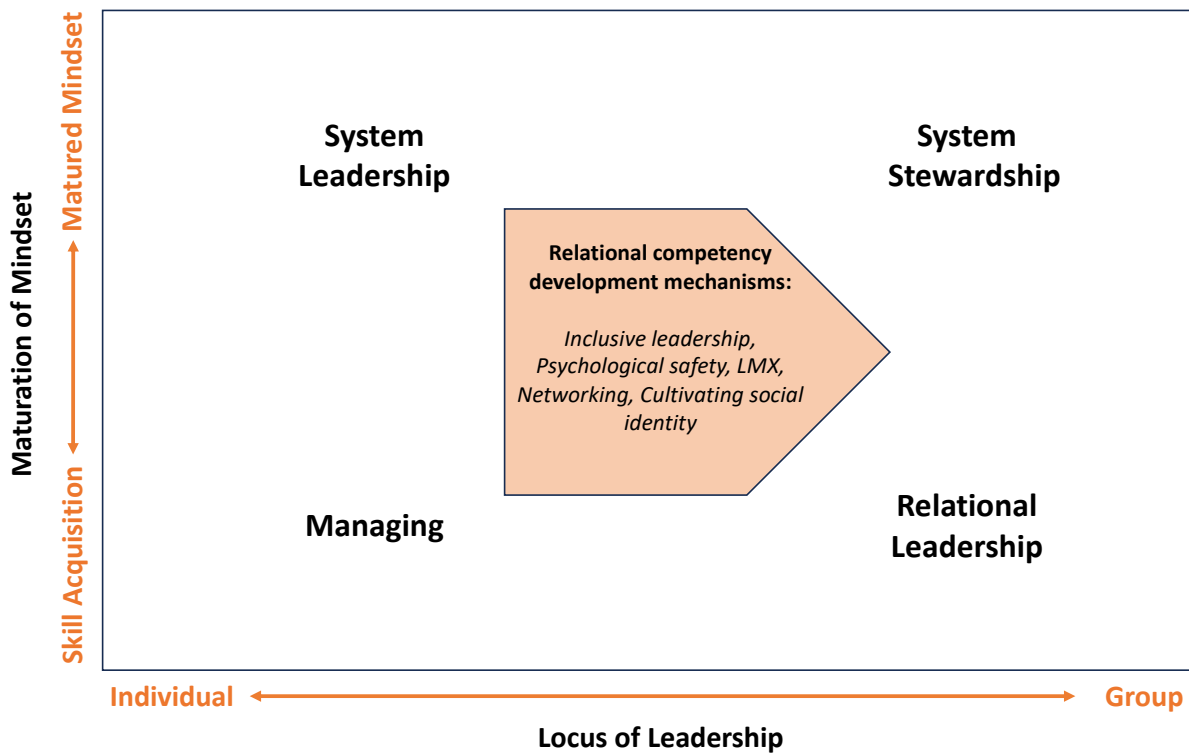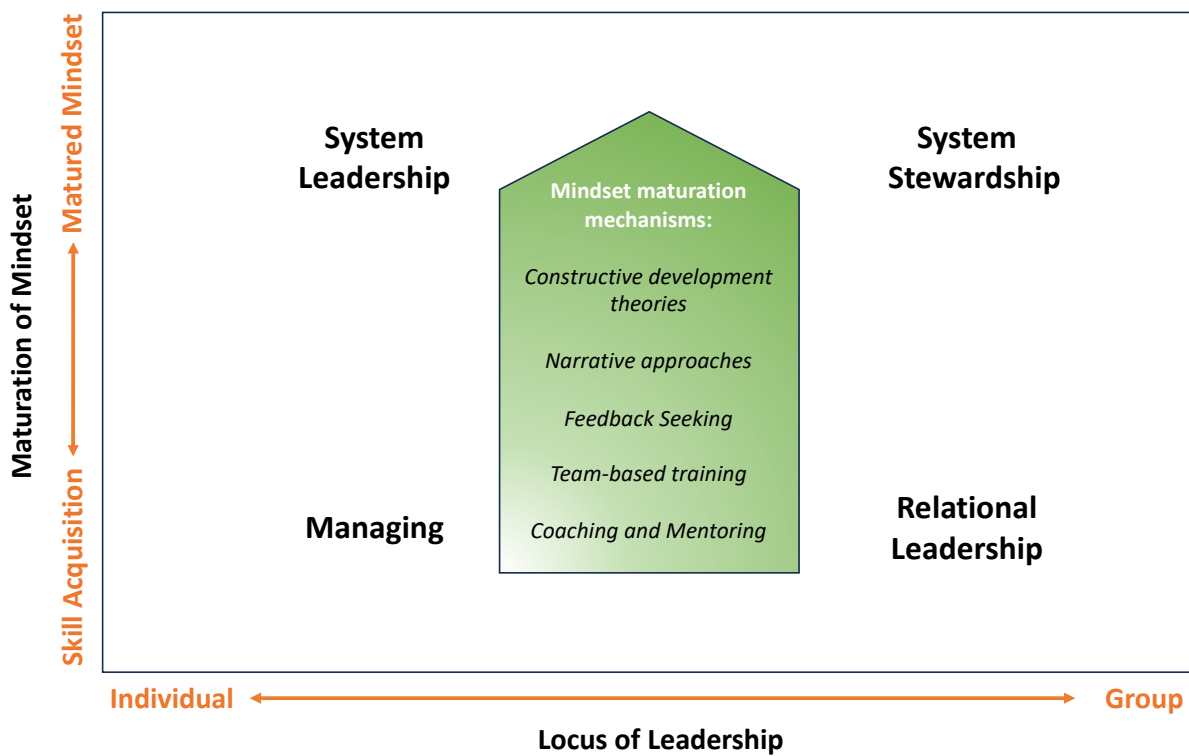**Figure 3 Relational Development Mechanisms Mapped to Proposed Architecture**

Figure 4 Mindset Maturation Mechanisms Mapped to Proposed Architecture

4.4 Relational Leadership Development Mechanisms

4.4.1 Inclusive practices

Inclusive leadership practices are important for developing collective leadership identities that account for diversity and inclusion. Inclusive leadership is a relational-based leadership process, and it involves a balancing act between ensuring that team members feel included, connected, and prototypical of the group (for cohesion and identity), whilst also ensuring a level of uniqueness and distinctiveness about them that provides value to the team (e.g., promotion of diversity). To develop inclusive leadership, practices need to be targeted at the individual, group, and organisational levels.[45]

At the *individual level*, an inclusive leader moves away from traditional viewpoints of leading to a more inclusive and relational point of view. Inclusive leaders:

- Focus on forming strong relationships and networks across the team by developing reciprocal social interactions and collective identity
- Use their leadership position to enable collaboration across networks, question dominant and normative practices, and focus on building equity for team members
- Empower others through transparency and include team members in decision-making by facilitating spaces for dialogue and idea-sharing.

At *the group level,* an inclusive team:

- Nurtures dyadic relationships between leaders and members (for instance Leader-Member Exchange or LMX)
- Has high levels of psychological safety
- Fosters mutual respect and openness between all members.

At an *organisational level,* an inclusive workplace is one with social norms and collective behaviours that:

- Value and utilise individual and intergroup differences within its workforce
- Demonstrate stewardship by cooperating with and contributing to the community it serves
- Alleviate the needs of disadvantaged groups in its wider environment.

4.4.2 Leader-Member eXchange

Leader-member exchange (LMX) is an approach used to develop high-quality relationships between leaders and their team members. These relationships are characterised by mutual trust, respect, and reciprocity, as well as a social and working partnership, between leaders and members.[46]

LMX works by using a three-step process of leaders engaging in the purposeful development of a dyadic relationship with each member of the team. Step 1, role taking, involves the leader making the purposeful decision to engage in developing their relationship with a team member. Step 2, role making, involves the leader purposefully finding social relatedness and connection with the team member. Step 3, role routinisation, involves a stable exchange of ideas between each dyad (or relationship between two people), and the monitoring of any disruptions to the quality of that relationship.

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[45] Booysen, L., *The Development of Inclusive Leadership Practice and Processes*, in *Diversity at Work: The Practice of Inclusion*. 2013, John Wiley & Sons, Inc: San Francisco. p. 296-329.

[46] Graen, G.B. and M. Uhl-Bien, *Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective.* The Leadership Quarterly, 1995. **6**(2): p. 219-247.

Building relationships (i.e., Steps 1 and 2) can be developed using maturation of mindset development mechanisms – that will be discussed in a later section – such as narrative approaches, feedback seeking, developing psychological safety and trust. Step 3 integrates the monitoring processes and systems to assess for any disruptions to the relationship by using feedback mechanisms, measuring trust and psychological safety, and in some cases directly measuring the quality of leader-member exchange.

4.4.3 Psychological safety and trust

Developing psychological safety and trust within a team is very closely related to positive intra-team relations.[47] For trust to develop within a team, members of the team must perceive that they have been vulnerable, or taken a risk, with other team members, and that this vulnerability or perceived risk was treated with respect.

Similarly, psychological safety refers to the willingness of individuals to voice their opinion, ask for help and take risks without the fear of negative repercussions from their workplace.[48] Psychological safety allows for staff to demonstrate openness and transparency as these characteristics are valued, and work can be scrutinised in a positive and consultative fashion. A climate of psychological safety is aggregated from the organisation's members and their beliefs that honesty, feedback, and risks are acceptable in the workplace.[49]

Some examples of how leaders can develop their ability to promote psychological safety within their team include:[50]

- Explicitly inviting input from others.
- Encouraging others to share risky or experimental ideas.
- Modelling vulnerability by admitting to their own mistakes or lack of knowledge/skills in certain areas
- Setting up opportunities for teams to practise new knowledge and skills in safe environments before trialling them in high stakes environments (for example, a trial run for a presentation to a client with the team/leaders before the real presentation).

4.4.4 Cultivating social identity

Once inclusive leadership practices are incorporated into leadership, what becomes important is the development of a collective leadership identity.[51] To assist in the development of collective leadership identities, leaders must engage team members in the leadership process.[52] This means that leadership is *shared* between team members and that leaders use strategies to form a collective social identity.

The 5R shared leadership approach provides a process for creating a collective social identity. The 5R approach involves a sequence of five team workshop topics: Readying, Reflecting, Representing, Realising and Reporting (see Figure 5).[53] Working through this sequence of topics as a team helps cultivate a collective social identity.

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[47] Martin, R., et al., *Leader–member exchange (LMX) and performance: A meta-analytic review.* Personnel Psychology, 2016. **69**(1): p. 67-121.
[48] Edmondson, A.C. and Z. Lei, Psychological safety: The history, renaissance, and future of an interpersonal construct. Annual Review Organisational Psychology and Organisational Behaviour, 2014. 1(1): p. 23-43.
[49] Newman, A., R. Donohue, and N. Eva, *Psychological safety: A systematic review of the literature.* Human Resource Management Review, 2017. **27**(3): p. 521-535.
[50] Edmondson, A.C., R.M. Kramer, and K.S. Cook, *Psychological safety, trust, and learning in organizations: A group-level lens.* Trust and Distrust in Organizations: Dilemmas and Approaches, 2004. **12**(2004): p. 239-272.
[51] Christos, D., *Perceived Inclusive Leadership and Discrimination: The Mediating Roles of Work and Personal Identities*. 2020, University of Johannesburg (South Africa): South Africa. p. 117.
[52] McCauley, C.D. and C.J. Palus, *Developing the theory and practice of leadership development: A relational view.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2021. **32**(5): p. 101456.
[53] Fransen, K., et al., *All for us and us for all: Introducing the 5R shared leadership program.* Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 2020. **51**: p. 101762

Figure 5 5R Shared Leadership Workshop Topics54

1. Readying

- *Why does we matter?* Raising awareness of the importance of the team's identity for team effectiveness

2. Reflecting

- *Who are we?* Defining the team's shared identity by reflecting on the team's core values and assembling them in a trademark

3. Representing

- *What do we want to be?* Identifying the team's aspirations with respect to task, motivational, social, and external aspects

4. Realising

- *How do we become what we want to be?* Embedding the team's identity in practice by implementing strategies to acheive team goals

5. Reporting

- *Are we becoming what we want to be?* Monitoring progress towards team goals and troubleshooting

4.4.5 Networking mechanisms

The development of social networks and social relationships is aligned with collective and relational leadership approaches which emphasise the importance of connectivity. Social networking and leadership networks are viewed as being a key part of leadership capability, as leaders need to be connected to others to aid in problem solving, creativity, and delivering team goals to the appropriate internal and external stakeholders. Avenues that assist leaders in enhancing their ability to develop networks include: [55]

- Developing individual capabilities related to intra- and inter-personal communication to aid in autonomous relationship development.

- Providing structural mechanisms to develop their networks through coaching, mentoring, cross-team learning opportunities, or networking events.

Embedding a culture of connectivity and networking where all members feel comfortable to engage in their own efforts to develop connections, network and collaborate whenever they perceive it will assist in their collective goals.

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[54] Fransen, K., et al., *All for us and us for all: Introducing the 5R shared leadership program.* Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 2020. **51**: p. 101762.
[55] Cullen-Lester, K.L., C.K. Maupin, and D.R. Carter, *Incorporating social networks into leadership development: A conceptual model and evaluation of research and practice.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2017. **28**(1): p. 130-152.

4.5 Mindset Maturation Mechanisms

4.5.1 Constructive development theories

A common conceptualisation of leadership is that becoming a better leader means acquiring more skills and knowledge. Adult development psychologists disagree. According to Kegan (1998)[56], developing as an adult is not about learning new things (adding to the 'container' of the mind), instead it is about transforming the way we know and understand the world (changing the actual form of our 'container').

Constructive development theory is a theory of adult development focusing on the growth and elaboration of how one understands themselves and the world.[57] The approach is 'constructive', in that it deals with a persons' construal and interpretations of an experience, or the meaning making that one ascribes to experiences. It is also developmental in the sense that it explores how these interpretations advance, thus increasing one's effectiveness to deal with more complex situations in more comprehensive ways.[58]

There are several models. Keegan (1998) describes five development stages or 'orders of mind': the impulsive mind, instrumental mind, socialised mind, self-authoring mind and self-transforming mind. At each stage, underlying meaning making systems are founded on the knowledge attained at the previous stage. With this context, development requires a subject-object switch where one becomes aware of how subconscious meaning making frames experiences and interactions, thus developing from being the subject of such meaning-making (where it controls us) to object (where we control it).

Bill Torbert's Action Logics follow a similar premise, the key difference being that this approach offers more developmental stages – or Action Logics.[59] The eight stages are Opportunist, Diplomat, Expert, Achiever, Individualist, Strategist, Alchemist and Ironist. Perhaps less helpfully, Kohlberg describes stages of adult reasoning with fewer categories. In a similar vein, Bob Anderson's work has evolved into the popular Leadership Circle which, similarly, explores how consciousness can evolve into a higher-order capacity to better respond to complexity.[60] This approach differs in that it does not describe a development of stages, rather it examines how leadership behaviours manifest (or not). These approaches were initiated in scholarship, are discussed to some extent in leadership literature, and have thrived in management practice.

Table 5 below describes the developmental stages of each order, with prevalence of each stage (for Keegan and Torbert) shown in parentheses. When comparing these stages to the proposed architecture, the transition to Strategist (represented by the more solid horizontal green line on the table) differentiates System level thinking. Systems level leaders and stewards should profile at Strategist (or Self-Transforming mind) or above.

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[56] Kegan, R., *In over our heads: The mental demands of modern life*. 1998: Harvard University Press.
[57] McCauley, C.D., et al., *The use of constructive-developmental theory to advance the understanding of leadership.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2006. **17**(6): p. 634-653.
[58] *ibid*
[59] Rooke, D. and W.R. Torbert, *Welcome: Background Material 7 Transformations of Leadership Making the case for a developmental perspective The Hidden Talent Essay 7: Emergent Leadership: Linking Competency, Cognitive Processes, Adaptability, an Innovation.* Harvard Business Review, 2005.
[60] Anderson, R.J. and W.A. Adams, *Mastering leadership: An integrated framework for breakthrough performance and extraordinary business results*. 2015: John Wiley & Sons.

Table 5 Constructive Development Theory Stages

Keegan's Developmental Orders	Kohlberg's Stages	Torbert's Action Logics
Self-transforming mind (rare)	Post-conventional	Ironist (1% of participants*)
	Post-conventional	Alchemist (2%)
	Post-conventional	Strategist (5%)
Self-authoring mind (variable, if achieved)	Post-conventional	Individualist (11%)
	Conventional	Achiever (30%)
	Conventional	Expert (37%)
Socialised mind (post-adolescence)	Conventional	Diplomat (11%)
Instrumental (6-adolescence)	Pre-conventional	Opportunist (4%)
Impulsive mind (2-6yrs)	Pre-conventional	

* N.B.: Sample bias since people who undertake this test are more likely to be in leadership roles.

4.5.2 Team skills training

Skills that assist teamwork represent the interpersonal qualities required to effectively lead. These skills include conflict resolution, collaborative problem solving, communication, goal setting and performance management, and planning and task coordination. To develop these skills, training programs immerse leaders and team members in challenging situations that require the use of inter-personal skills. This involves the following steps: [61]

1. Instructional training on the skills required (i.e., conflict resolution, collaborative problem solving, communication, goal setting and performance management, and planning and task coordination)

2. An opportunity to practice those skills through the presentation of a complex case which requires collaboration between team members to solve the problem. Each team member should have a unique role, and to solve the problem, all team members must use the skills taught in Step 1 (above) to achieve success at Step 2

3. Collaborative team reflection on how the task went afterwards with feedback mechanisms embedded in the process to assist in learning.

4.5.3 Feedback seeking

Feedback seeking aids the mindset maturation process because it is a mechanism that places focus on the meaning making systems that underlay behaviour. Feedback seeking refers to the conscious process of gathering information to assess whether actions have led toward achieving specific goals. Feedback seeking behaviour is reflective of inter- and intra-personal leadership qualities such as proactivity, self-awareness and adopting a

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[61] Ellis, A.P., et al., An evaluation of generic teamwork skills training with action teams: Effects on cognitive and skill-based outcomes. Personnel Psychology, 2005. 58(3): p. 641-672.

learning orientation.[62] Some examples of feedback seeking behaviour include leaders seeking feedback from their team regarding their performance (or other work-related concerns), demonstrating that they are listening to the feedback provided by actioning or addressing the concerns, and role modelling a learning culture within the organisation by also providing feedback. These practices can be integrated into daily, weekly, or monthly rituals.

4.5.4 Narrative approaches; self and others

Narrative approaches involve the practice of reflecting, journaling, or sharing impactful positive or negative stories (self-narrative) and recalling the stories of others from their perspectives (other narrative).[63] Research suggests that leaders who engage in narrative building develop empathy, authenticity, self-awareness, and identity formation over time. Narrative approaches are also a leadership development tool that can be incorporated into a life-long practice for most leaders.

Some aspects of narrative approaches are similar to traditional methods of First Nations storytelling, where the purpose is to develop community through understanding, co-creation, building relationships and forming meaningful ambitions collectively.[64] The action of re-telling a story from another's perspective is also designed to aid in the formation of new ideas, strategies, and creation of solutions to problems which incorporates the viewpoints of multiple stakeholders.[65] This assists in the development of intrinsic motivation as it allows leaders to consider the purposeful meaning behind their actions for themselves and for others.[66] Developing this meaning with others also increases social relatedness, which involves feeling connected to others and having a sense of belonging within the group, another significant motivator for leaders and their team.

4.5.5 Coaching and mentoring

The practice of coaching and mentoring benefits leadership development by increasing leadership identity and leadership-capacity building through the development of relationships, and the co-creation of a learning environment between leaders and their team members.[67] Mentoring benefits leaders, whether as a mentor or a mentee, depending on their confidence in engaging in mentoring activities and their specific developmental needs. Integration of coaching and mentoring schemes across the organisation facilitates development of mentoring and coaching relationships. This requires organisation level support for the development of partnerships between people based on leader needs and scheduling regular meetings every four to six weeks over a 6–12-month period.[68]

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[62] Crans, S., et al., *Learning leadership and feedback seeking behavior: Leadership that spurs feedback seeking.* Frontiers in Psychology, 2022. **13**: p. 890861.

[63] Fresko, B., et al., *Developing narratives as a pedagogical approach to fostering professional interpersonal competences.* Studies in Educational Evaluation, 2013. **39**(4): p. 232-239.

[64] Chan, A.S., *Storytelling, culture, and Indigenous methodology*, in *Discourses, dialogue and diversity in biographical research*. 2021, Brill. p. 170-185

[65] Sparrowe, R.T., *Authentic leadership and the narrative self.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2005. **16**(3): p. 419-439.

[66] Veglia, F. and G. Di Fini, *Life Themes and Interpersonal Motivational Systems in the Narrative Self-construction.* Frontiers in Psychology, 2017. **8**.

[67] Stead, V., *Mentoring: a model for leadership development?* International Journal of Training and Development, 2005. **9**(3): p. 170-184.

[68] *ibid*

5 HOW TO MEASURE PERFORMANCE WITHIN THE PROPOSED ARCHITECTURE?

Leadership development should involve both internal (i.e., individual) and external (i.e., relational) changes over time. Measuring leadership capabilities should occur at regular intervals to compare progress in line with the introduction of any leadership development mechanisms or training programs. This includes:

1. Pre, post, and follow-up changes in leadership capabilities

2. Pre, post, and follow-up changes in leadership mindset

3. The efficacy of the training itself (training evaluations)

4. Any relationships between leadership capability improvements and changes in the public sector objectives (e.g., improvement in service delivery)

5. The measurement of processes, behaviours, and teams' perceptions, over tangible outcomes which can be influenced by other contextual factors.

5.1 Feedback

For both locus of leadership and mindset maturation development, feedback is a significant aspect of leadership development. While leaders are encouraged to be proactive in their feedback seeking behaviours, integrated processes of measuring leadership development through organisational systems can be a key mitigation strategy and an additional prompt for leaders to receive information and coaching on their leadership. These tools can also be used to identify emerging leaders. Feedback should be managed through normalised team check-ins with leaders during coaching and mentoring sessions.

5.2 Foundational Leadership Capabilities

Progressing leadership mindsets and capabilities hinges on the ability and motivation of the individual to develop as a leader. Therefore, leaders' self-awareness of their strengths and weaknesses, and proactive behaviour towards self-development activities will be important. Proposed measures to assess these include tracking of participation in self-development activities and measures of emotional intelligence such as the widely used measure termed the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT).[69] A subset of the items included in this measure might be appropriate given that it includes the measurement of EI dimensions including appraisal of emotions, social skills and utilisation of emotions.

5.3 Locus Of Leadership Development Measurement

There are a variety of validated measurement tools that can measure development of locus of leadership from individual to relational leadership, briefly these include the Relational Leadership Scale[70], Psychological Safety

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[69] Schutte, N.S., et al., *Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence.* Personality and Individual Differences, 1998. **25**(2): p. 167-177.

[70] Carifio, J., *Development and validation of a measure of relational leadership: Implications for leadership theory and policies.* Current Research in Psychology, 2010. **1**(1): p. 16-28.

Climate Scale[71], LMX Scales[72], Social identity instruments[73], Inclusion Measurement Survey[74], and trust instruments.[75]

The Relational Leadership scale measures the degree to which leaders exhibit relational leadership, for instance by creating the conditions and environments that promote productive and healthy collaboration. This scale assesses the degree to which leaders communicate a vision and are inclusive, empowering, caring, and ethical. Relational leadership has been shown to correlate strongly with measures of trust and LMX. These scales are best completed by the direct reports of the leaders being assessed and can be easily monitored periodically by including the respective scales in an online survey. Anonymity of respondents enable honest responses without fear of negative consequences. As such, it is common practice to collect such data for teams with a critical mass of respondents (e.g., teams of 3 or more direct reports answering about a particular leader).

An alternative approach is to draw on the DAC framework[76] from Section 2 in which direction refers to agreement on shared goals, alignment to the organisation of work and commitment to the willingness to subsume individual interests for the good of the collective. The DAC scale is a brief survey with 5 items for each of the three domains, through which employees can assess how they perceive the team is operating on each.

5.4 Mindset Maturation Development Measurement

Both the Leadership Circle and Action Logics provide validated measurement scales for mindset maturation, as discussed above. For Action Logics, the Leadership Development Profile, offered by a private organisation (Harthill), provides means to measure an individual's predominant action logic. The test follows a sentence completion format, where 32 sentence steps are provided for the participant to complete. Resulting coding of the words and sentence structure gives insight into the underlying meaning making that is active given the context of the stem. Leadership Circle relies on a behavioural-based set of questions that both an individual and their colleagues complete.

Action Logics differs from most psychometric tests by comparing individual responses to a developmental spectrum. It is possible to measure someone's predominant Action Logic and then build an individually tailored development plan. This approach is unique in psychometric testing because, rather than measuring against a fixed set of constructs, an assessment takes a dynamic/growth focused view where thinking and meaning-making evolve with experience and learning. Here individuals receive a map of their development journey and where they are situated on it (see picture below).

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[71] Edmondson, A., *Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams.* Administrative Science Quarterly, 1999. **44**(2): p. 350-383.

[72] Liden, R.C., et al., *Leader-member exchange measurement.* The Oxford handbook of leader-member exchange, 2015: p. 29-54.

[73] Heere, B. and J.D. James, *Stepping outside the lines: Developing a multi-dimensional team identity scale based on social identity theory.* Sport Management Review, 2007. **10**(1): p. 65-91.

[74] Ratcliff, N.J., et al., *Inclusive Leadership Survey Item Development.* US Army Research Institute, 2018.

[75] Semerciöz, F., M. Hassan, and Z. Aldemir, *An empirical study on the role of interpersonal and institutional trust in organizational innovativeness.* International Business Research, 2011. **4**(2): p. 125-136

[76] Drath, W.H., et al., *Direction, alignment, commitment: Toward a more integrative ontology of leadership.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2008. **19**(6): p. 635-653.

Figure 6 Example Leadership Development Profile, Showing the Distribution of Action Logics (As Prompted by The Question Stems)
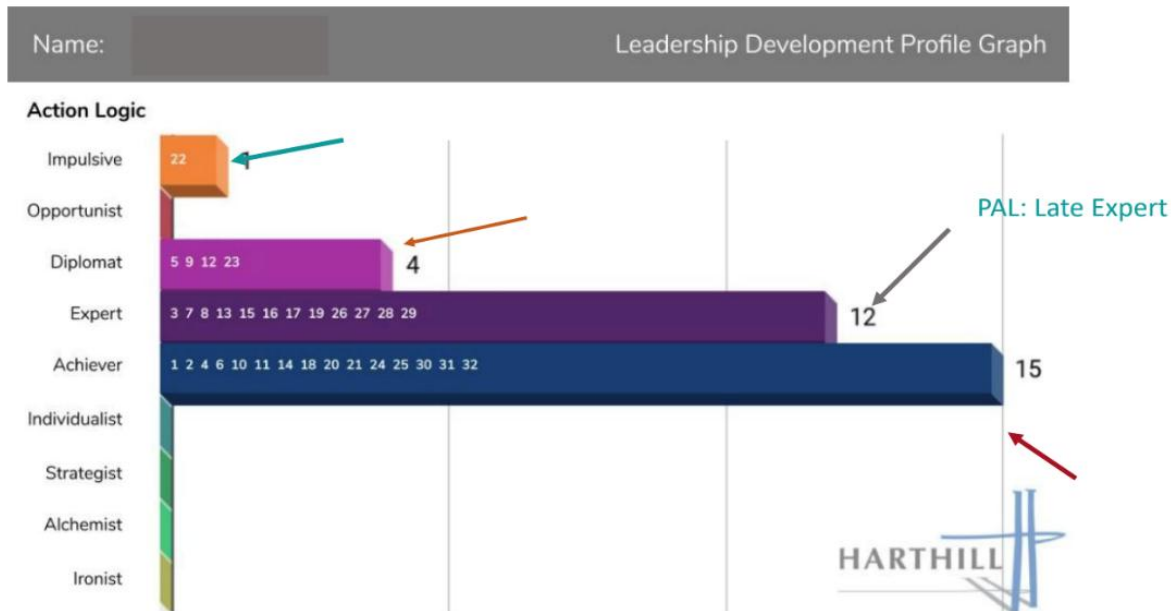
Mindset maturation will also result in behaviours such as stewardship, active feedback seeking, and being perceived by other team members as empathetic, authentic, and reflective. Therefore, additional validated measurement tools that can help assess mindset maturation by capturing some of those key outcomes include the stewardship scale[77] and the team member exchange scale.[78]

5.5 Social Network Analysis – A Possible Measurement for Stewardship

Social network analysis provides another tool for measuring progress in leadership development. A social network analysis involves mapping leader and team connections based on their working relationships.[79] While mapping the social network within an organisation can be a time intensive process, this analysis can provide valuable information regarding leadership connections, networks and relationships, and can help identify opportunities for leadership development. For example, this analysis can provide information regarding which leaders have the most connections, which leaders are pivotal "bridges" or "brokers" between groups or individuals, which leaders are most influential, and if there are any clusters of people who are well connected compared to others.

It is feasible to use social network analysis tools to assess relational capability gaps, opportunities, and growth. As a leadership development tool, social network analysis enables leaders to measure changes to relational aspects of leadership over time by observing whether their networks are better connected, communicating more often, and

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[77] Barbuto Jr, J.E. and D.W. Wheeler, *Scale development and construct clarification of servant leadership.* Group & Organization Management, 2006. **31**(3): p. 300-326.
[78] Farmer, S.M., L. Van Dyne, and D. Kamdar, *The contextualized self: How team–member exchange leads to coworker identification and helping OCB.* Journal of Applied Psychology, 2015. **100**(2): p. 583.
[79] Wasserman, S. and K. Faust, *Social network analysis: Methods and applications.* 1994.

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are composed of diverse teams. The analysis also can help leaders identify barriers regarding collective maturation related to bottlenecks in communication or silos.

5.6 Organisational structures that support development

Public sector leadership development processes are often disparate across divisions, leading to silos and different understandings about how to engage in leadership development. While the proposed architecture (See: Figure 2, Tables 2 and 3) allows for a decentralised means of developing leadership relative to the unique identities and needs of each work team, these activities should still map onto and be measured as agreed competencies reflected by the horizontal plane of the architecture (see also Table 6). Therefore, support structures related to program implementation across the public sector jurisdictions would be beneficial. These include:

1. Centralised engagement with the proposed architecture, supported by learning and development regarding relevant competencies, its relevance to the jurisdiction's public sector objectives, and best practice methodology regarding leadership development.[80]

2. The integration of a standardised means of identifying existing and emerging leaders in relation to the proposed architecture and means of tracking their development over time. These form part of integrated feedback mechanisms discussed above.

74.Boonzaaier, J.J., *Centralisation versus decentralisation of the organisation development function within the Western Cape Provincial Administration*. 2003, Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University.

6 WHAT CHALLENGES AND OBSTACLES (I.E., CULTURE) ARE LIKELY TO IMPACT IMPLEMENTING THE ARCHITECTURE?

6.1 Obstacles to a New Leadership Philosophy

While the benefits of moving towards a model embracing both locus of leadership and mindset maturation have been set out in this report, implementing this change will require more than simply persuading employees of the merits of the change. Strategic change is a multifaceted and dynamic process that involves overcoming the complexity, ambiguity, and contradictions inherent in resistance to change.[81] Acceptance of, and engagement with, a new way of developing leadership will involve changes to organisational culture which is the values, beliefs, assumptions, norms, and shared experiences within the organisation.[82,83] This is important because cultural change and behavioural change will often incur a large amount of resistance.[84]

Resistance to change is an important obstacle to understand given that formal leaders are often much more understanding of the need to change than other members of the organisation. Common obstacles to overcome from sources of resistance include.[85,86, 87, 88, 89]

- **Loss of control and uncertainty:** In which new ways of doing things lead to defensiveness because the new ways are difficult to understand and are uncertain. Participation and dividing the change into small steps are key to overcoming loss of control.
- **Surprise:** In which people resist decisions and requests which are sprung upon them seemingly without groundwork and preparation. People often speak out against and try to undermine surprise. Building commitment to change, giving people time to adjust and providing information are all good ways of reducing surprise.
- **Loss of face:** In which people resist change because the new ways of doing things suggest that the old ways of doing things must be wrong. Sensitivity and support, whilst ensuring no-one looks stupid, are important to overcome loss of face; whilst this also helps to address concerns over future competence.
- **Ripple effects and increase in workload:** In which previous changes, other ongoing changes and personal situations negatively influence the perception of change. Changes do not occur in isolation, so changes to the model for leadership development will likely occur alongside other organisational changes, that may be creating their own challenges and stresses within the organisation. One lesson that people often learn is that change involves more work, energy, time and learning. For example, change process will involve a transitional phase during which changing political and power dimensions within the organisation can impact both informal and formal leadership, decision-making systems and consequently impact the daily attitudes and behaviours of those affected by the change It is important to try and anticipate the effects of these changes and recognise that additional resources are valuable in the change process.
- **Loss becomes resistance:** In which people recognise that the change involves them losing power, status, influence or comfort. People who lose out from the change are often some of the biggest obstacles to the change. From this perspective, anger and complaining are really just normal reactions to change. Accepting that this kind of resistance is natural may lead to reductions in confrontation and help people

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[81] Kunisch, S., et al., *Time in strategic change research.* Academy of Management Annals, 2017. **11**(2): p. 1005-1064.
[82] Sarros, J.C., J. Gray, and I.L. Densten, *Leadership and its impact on organizational culture.* International Journal of Business Studies, 2002. **10**(2).
[83] Serpa, S., *An overview of the concept of organisational culture.* International Business Management, 2016. **10**(1): p. 51-61.
[84] Kegan, R. and L.L. Lahey, *The real reason people won't change.* 2001: Harvard Business Review Boston, MA.
[85] Ibid
[86] Cameron, E. and M. Green, *Making sense of change management: A complete guide to the models, tools and techniques of organizational change.* 2019: Kogan Page Publishers.
[87] Dias de Lima, J., *Managing change: winning hearts and minds.* Balanced Scorecard Report, 2009.
[88] Kotter, J.P. and D.S. Cohen, *The heart of change: Real-life stories of how people change their organizations.* 2012: Harvard Business Press.
[89] Stouten, J., D.M. Rousseau, and D. De Cremer, *Successful organizational change: Integrating the management practice and scholarly literatures.* Academy of Management Annals, 2018. **12**(2): p. 752-788.

adjust to the change. When power blocks within an organisation perceive a change as a threat then the resistance can be very hard to overcome without using more authoritarian techniques which can push change forward against high levels of resistance.

- **Inertia:** In general people are tired of change and find it hard to generate enthusiasm. Participation, ownership and providing vision are helpful leadership tools to overcome inertia.
- **Reactions to achieving change through power dynamics:** Traditional notions of leadership frame leaders at the top who direct and control the change effort. Several studies have shown that such an approach to change results in significantly lower probabilities of success than a more inclusive style[90,91] Here it will be important to vet the leaders of the transformation, and perhaps train them in the desired leadership qualities, to ensure that they are the epitome of what the jurisdiction's public sector are aiming for and that they practice the type of inclusive leadership that is allied with change success.
- **Lack of readiness for change:** Especially, when driving cultural change, it is important to identify those who are likely to resist (the "laggards") and those who are likely to be early adopters. Trying to change the mind of the laggards is notoriously hard and often has a high failure rate. It is thus often better to identify and energise the change champions. Lack of readiness to change can also be reflected in the organisational systems and processes which are used to promote change within the organisation.
- **Change agents may not be credible to drive the change forward:** The principal change agents must have credibility, trustworthiness, and expertise, and others' perceptions of these attributes, will impact capacity to build commitment. This is very important when there is shared membership of cohesive groups with strong group boundaries such as hierarchical or professional boundaries that can create an 'us-and-them' attitude that leads to more resistance. Relational leaders often have the credibility to successfully lead change.

To achieve successful change, the Direction-Alignment-Commitment (DAC) Framework of relational leadership[92] can be helpful, in which direction is agreement on shared goals, alignment is the organisation of work and commitment is the willingness to subsume individual interests for the good of the collective. This model is discussed earlier in this report at Section 2.

6.2 Direction (What Change Do We Want to Make?)

A first consideration relates to designing the change and identifying the urgency for implementing the change.[93] For Queensland, this consideration has been partially addressed through the current project. To fully develop the direction of change, engagement (i.e., encouraging participation and shared ownership) across the jurisdiction at all levels is needed to understand how a proposed change is viewed and how its impact is imagined. This engagement needs to be inclusive. Oreg and Berson (2017)[94] and Hastings and Schwarz (2022)[95] demonstrate the strong support across reported studies for the benefits of involving workers broadly in the change process, especially in the initiation phases. It can also be beneficial to keep stakeholders abreast of the development of the change proposal during the direction phase, including how and where there has been consultation on design rather than simply delivering the proposal as a *fait accompli*. Another advantage of including people in developing the direction of the change is that the shared ownership can also lead to larger numbers of early adopters, change champions, and enthusiasts who can influence others regarding the benefits of getting on board. Moreover, this

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[90] Higgs, M. and D. Rowland, *All changes great and small: Exploring approaches to change and its leadership.* Journal of Change Management, 2005. **5**(2): p. 121-151.
[91] Hastings, B.J. and G.M. Schwarz, *Leading change processes for success: a dynamic application of diagnostic and dialogic organization development.* The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 2022. **58**(1): p. 120-148.
[92] Drath, W.H., et al., *Direction, alignment, commitment: Toward a more integrative ontology of leadership.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2008. **19**(6): p. 635-653.
[93] Kotter, J.P., *A sense of urgency*. 2008: Harvard Business Press.
[94] Oreg, S. and Y. Berson, *Leaders' impact on organizational change: Bridging theoretical and methodological chasms.* Academy of Management Annals, 2019. **13**(1): p. 272-307.
[95] Hastings, B.J. and G.M. Schwarz, *Leading change processes for success: a dynamic application of diagnostic and dialogic organization development.* The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 2022. **58**(1): p. 120-148.

inclusivity can also lead to learnings and improvements to the plan through listening to the comments of the community.

Consideration needs to be given to operational diversity. Questions that need to be considered include:

- How is the organisation's current leadership development process being used in practice?
- Will all departments be expected to take up the new model? If not, why not?
- What resistance, if any, already exists to following organisational processes? Who will be the early adopters and enthusiasts? Who are the laggards? Are there any particular work units who stand to lose out from the change?
- Is that resistance justified, or does it reflect cultural challenges that may impede successful implementation of a new leadership model? If the former is true, then can improvements to the plan be made or can confrontations be reduced through understanding that some people are losing out from the change. If that latter is true, how will that be addressed? What are the consequences if it is not addressed?

The purpose here is to ensure that the drivers of the change develop a clear, coherent and robust vision regarding what the proposed change is, how it will be implemented, why it needs to happen and in particular why now?

6.3 Alignment (Making the Change Happen)

When a change can be planned and is not hugely urgent, communication and engagement are key to successful change and critical to sensemaking of the change for workers.[96] This is more than just selling the proposed change. Showing why change is needed, without immersing participants in voluminous, complex information is critical to winning hearts and minds in the way that is needed to create effective change.[97] A compelling story that showcases the impact of the issue in need of change, delivered without blame or criticism can galvanise action.[98] Workers need to understand why the proposed change is seen as the solution to the issue.[99] Even a well-crafted message will not get its point across until it has been heard multiple times because people focus predominantly on messaging they see as relevant to themselves, in terms of how issues affect them, what is in it for them. If the message has content that causes a negative reaction they may well stop listening and miss key information.[100]

Participants also need to understand why change is needed in the near future.[101] A key element of the story is the strategic challenge that has led to a decision that change is needed. This is critical where a change is likely to require a cultural shift, which is likely to be a more demanding change than one which simply redefines leadership competencies within an existing individual focused model. The reasoning behind the timing of the change needs to be shared to focus participants on why this change needs to occur amidst other demands on their time – a more considered answer than 'we were told to do it' is required.

Participants need to understand in simple terms what the proposed architecture will look like in practice. Clear and transparent communication needs to start well before implementing the change process commences. Critical messaging will relate to the need for the change and the capacity to implement the change[102] and communicate the level of engagement that has given rise to the proposal.

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[96] Oreg, S. and Y. Berson, *Leaders' impact on organizational change: Bridging theoretical and methodological chasms.* Academy of Management Annals, 2019. **13**(1): p. 272-307.
[97] Stouten, J., D.M. Rousseau, and D. De Cremer, *Successful organizational change: Integrating the management practice and scholarly literatures.* Academy of Management Annals, 2018. **12**(2): p. 752-788.
[98] Orr, K. and M. Bennett, *Relational leadership, storytelling, and narratives: Practices of local government chief executives.* Public Administration Review, 2017. **77**(4): p. 515-527.
[99] Armenakis, A.A. and S.G. Harris, *Reflections: Our journey in organizational change research and practice.* Journal of Change Management, 2009. **9**(2): p. 127-142.
[100] Stouten, J., D.M. Rousseau, and D. De Cremer, *Successful organizational change: Integrating the management practice and scholarly literatures.* Academy of Management Annals, 2018. **12**(2): p. 752-788.
[101] Kim, W.C. and R. Mauborgne, *Fair process: Managing in the knowledge economy.* Harvard business review, 2003. **81**(1): p. 127-136.
[102] Armenakis, A.A. and S.G. Harris, *Reflections: Our journey in organizational change research and practice.* Journal of Change Management,

Armenakis *et al.* (2009)[103] discuss the potential for this messaging to be two-way, including feedback from the recipients of the change message. They also point to the possibility of using a range of media to deliver the message. The communication could be participatory with the change message generated by active participation so that it is essentially self-discovered. Participatory processes could include diagnosing the need for change, developing strategy, and implementation planning. Employees need to understand not only what is changing and why but also how the proposed changes will be implemented. They need to recognise that this is not just change for change's sake but how this will benefit their own organisation and themselves. They also need to understand how they will be supported during the change process.

Presenting the vision for the change clearly and honestly, and confidently addressing responses such as anger is essential. What leaders say must match what they do. Individual differences in appetite for and comfort with change should also be recognised and accommodated where possible. This needs to be an inclusive process. Consideration needs to be given to how differences will be addressed. Employees need confidence that the change process can take place without derailing their roles and goals or if change to roles and goals will follow that they will not be simply collateral damage.[104] However, resistance can also occur because people have a useful argument to make concerning the change. Such arguments should be listened to without prejudice as they may lead to beneficial modifications.

Without influential champions committed to the change in the alignment phase, the effort is likely to founder, even if communication around the need for the change is clear, and there is a well-developed plan for implementation. However, the need for support is deeper than clearly visible champions. It is necessary to build a coalition of supporters. Similarly, relying on existing leadership structures to lead the change process is at odds with the proposed change. Leading change, generally, is likely to require a different type of team from operational leadership. This requires close attention to ensure that the process is not parked with team members who lack the skills or support to effect change and recognition that incumbent leaders may see the change as a threat.[105] Oreg and Berson (2017)[106] point out that this change leadership team can assist the change process by reducing employees' negative emotions about the change, through managing the pace of change and by addressing employees' concerns. Effective implementation of change requires careful attention and consideration of the change recipients. Networks of relationships and individuals recognised as opinion leaders need to be considered in implementing change. Opinion leaders can be powerful allies if they support the proposed change.

6.4 Commitment (Staying the Course)

It is important not to set people up for failure by asking them to change and take risks if there is little reward for achieving transformation and significant cost for failing. Rewarding new kinds of behaviour, providing role models who have been through a successful change, sharing sufficient information and cultivating a realistic attitude that everything can't be done at once are important to ensuring success.[107] Implementing major change takes time but successful transformation benefits from tangible short-term successes that serve as a boost to the transformation team and help allay negativity. These short-term wins need to be authentic; embellishment or creativity with reporting results will likely create mistrust rather than building support. Celebrating short-term wins should not detract from focussing on the long-term goal but rather serve to maintain commitment to the process. It is critical to

2009. **9**(2): p. 127-142.

[103] *Ibid*

[104] Orr, K. and M. Bennett, *Relational leadership, storytelling, and narratives: Practices of local government chief executives.* Public Administration Review, 2017. **77**(4): p. 515-527.

[105] Stouten, J., D.M. Rousseau, and D. De Cremer, *Successful organizational change: Integrating the management practice and scholarly literatures.* Academy of Management Annals, 2018. **12**(2): p. 752-788.

[106] Oreg, S. and Y. Berson, *Leaders' impact on organizational change: Bridging theoretical and methodological chasms.* Academy of Management Annals, 2019. **13**(1): p. 272-307.

[107] Cohen, D.S., *The heart of change field guide: Tools and tactics for leading change in your organization*. 2005: Harvard Business Press.

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have realistic progress requirements that accommodate both existing workloads and the impact of the change process.[108]

Leadership is a central pillar of culture. Because culture goes so deep, changing leadership is one of the hardest kinds of transformation. Cultural changes are built on participants trying new behaviours and being convinced that they work. These new attitudes do not become culture until they go deep, and this requires the new attitudes to stick after the change process is complete. Teaching these behaviours to new employees and promoting staff who take on board the new culture can assist in embedding the culture. There is a need for a critical mass for change to create momentum which can cascade.[109] It may be that only a portion of workers from particular levels or groups will become part of this critical mass. What is critical is that this group comprises sufficient individuals and/or groups so that the change can occur. Mapping the formal organisation, stakeholders, key individuals and their relevance to and position towards change can be used to identify the system of individuals and groups who are part of the critical mass and can help drive the change.

Birch (2024)[110] discusses the attributes of successful relational leaders which encompass: self-awareness; compassion; empowering learning through developing effective relational coaching skills and strategies to build interdependent autonomy; nurturing culture to build and sustain trust; capacity to effectively navigate complexity; developing capacity as a disruptive innovator to envision and promote beneficial innovation; and developing selflessness, where focus on goals rather than self prevails. Developing and growing these attributes requires leaders to engage in ongoing reflective practice and to be willing to face considerable discomfort. Growing these capabilities takes time.

Finally, it is important for the change to be embedded in systems and procedures as well as the emerging new culture. Without alignment of systems, procedures and culture then the advantages of the new change will quickly diminish. For example, the Queensland public sector may well find it important to align promotion and annual appraisal systems and procedures to the new leadership criteria. At the same time, these new leadership behaviours will also become increasingly embedded if the leaders "walk the walk" as well as "talk the talk".

6.5 Summary

The success of any new leadership development strategies may encounter change resistance.[111] Effective change management requires recognition of the levers that can prevent the process from becoming derailed as a result of all these obstacles. Understanding how employees perceive the consequences of the change is important. For example, if employees perceive that the new model will ask things of them that they fear they cannot deliver, there is likely to be inertia towards effecting the change.[112] That inertia may be articulated as assertions that the change is not viable, because, for instance, it requires more resourcing than is available, or that the impact of the change on workers and organisational processes has not been fully understood. Research shows that good direction from researching the change and preparing stakeholders to overcome obstacles is important. Then engaging the people with communication, participation and clear expectations can really align the change. An inclusive style of leader can really help here.[113] Finally, it is important to embed the change in systems, processes and culture to ensure the longevity of the change.

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[108] Kunisch, S., et al., *Time in strategic change research.* Academy of Management Annals, 2017. **11**(2): p. 1005-1064.

[109] Cohen, D.S., *The heart of change field guide: Tools and tactics for leading change in your organization*. 2005: Harvard Business Press

[110] Birch, J., *The Compassion Advantage: 7 Practices to Lead Stronger, More Successful Teams*. 2024, Toronto: Birchgrove.

[111] Kotter, J.P. and D.S. Cohen, *The heart of change: Real-life stories of how people change their organizations*. 2012: Harvard Business Press.

[112] Kegan, R. and L.L. Lahey, *The real reason people won't change*. 2001: Harvard Business Review Boston, MA.

[113] See: Higgs, M. and D. Rowland, *All changes great and small: Exploring approaches to change and its leadership.* Journal of Change Management, 2005. **5**(2): p. 121-151, Hastings, B.J. and G.M. Schwarz, *Leading change processes for success: a dynamic application of diagnostic and dialogic organization development*. The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 2022. 58(1): p. 120-148, Higgs, M. and D. Rowland, *What does it take to implement change successfully? A study of the behaviors of successful change leaders.* The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 2011. **47**(3): p. 309-335.

7 PLACING DIVERSITY AND INCLUSION CONSIDERATIONS FRONT AND CENTRE

7.1 The Challenge

Many public sector reviews have highlighted the necessity for greater inclusion of leaders from diverse backgrounds One example is the Moving Ahead Strategy and Inclusion and Diversity Strategy of the Queensland Public Sector (2021-2025). One-dimensional models of leadership development, focused on individual leadership capabilities, intrinsically limit inclusive practices. A benefit of the proposed architecture is that it emphasises inclusive and relational leadership practices – the very capabilities required to promote diversity and inclusion. Thus, these relational leadership capabilities will help leaders cultivate teams that feature diverse members who feel included and safe to contribute innovative and well-balanced solutions to community problems, whilst also finding common ground to form collective identities, without conforming to an individualist (aligned with a dominant leader) way of thinking.

Enabling relational leadership competencies, on their own, does not guarantee a complete solution for diversity and inclusion. There is an ongoing need to consider both leadership development and structural barriers to inclusion. In this section we explore the evidence on structural and systemic considerations that also promote diversity.

7.2 Structural Barriers

One often-cited example of structural barriers is the absence of flexible work conditions at executive levels of leadership, which may exclude employees who have care-taking duties from applying for affected roles. Other barriers include the pigeonholing of members to roles that specialise in issues related to those members' backgrounds, for example, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander leaders working in roles that target Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander issues. This presents a barrier to the representation of diverse people across different sectors and prevents valuable insights which may otherwise be overlooked because they are not typical of the group that usually work in that space.

More generally, barriers to leadership inclusion can largely be attributed to:[114]

- A lack of mentoring and role models for people from under-represented groups
- Exclusion from informal networks of communication
- Stereotypical ideas of what roles and responsibilities diverse groups might want to be a part of (i.e., pigeonholing)
- A lack of assignment of challenging work opportunities to develop individual talents
- A lack of visibility of talents that contribute to leadership progression (e.g., for remote workers) and
- Underplaying the importance of allocating time for non-work commitments such as care-taking duties.

Systemic changes employed to mitigate barriers to inclusion and diverse representation have the added benefit that they provide an avenue for all staff to discuss structural barriers impacting their progression and ability to work effectively, with the expectation that they will be provided with the necessary supports to guide their success. Specific barriers will vary between individuals. Consequently, general, illustrative systemic changes to mitigate exclusion are provided here by way of example only, together with an indication of relevant worker groups.

These systemic changes are discussed in more detail below and include:

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[114] McCarty Kilian, C., D. Hukai, and C. Elizabeth McCarty, *Building diversity in the pipeline to corporate leadership.* Journal of Management Development, 2005. **24**(2): p. 155-168.

- Providing coaching and mentoring opportunities.
- Providing flexible working arrangements at all levels.
- Providing inclusive networking and development opportunities.
- Reducing biases and removing criteria that might discriminate against certain groups in recruitment and selection processes.

7.3 How Coaching and Mentoring Translates in Practice

Interviewees identified a low level of shared understanding amongst workers at the Queensland public sector about the role of coaching and mentoring. It was reported that employees see coaching and mentoring as tools for performance management rather than recognising their role as important leadership development tools. Coaching and mentoring are related but distinct programs. Coaching is a learning and development tool in which a coach works with an individual to identify their strengths and challenges, sets goals related to the goals of the organisation, and ideally tracks goal progress with the help of ongoing feedback from colleagues. Mentoring is built on a relationship between a more senior professional and a worker, with the mentor providing support based on their expertise and drawing from their professional experience.[115]

Evidence shows that mentoring and coaching enhances career progression for members of under-represented groups.[116] Mentors need to be aware of the challenges that diversity can present for career development and advancement, so they can assist with strategies to overcome them. Investment by mentors can provide motivation, a focus on personal growth, resilience to cope with setbacks and reduce the risk of falling performance and departure from the organisation as the worker navigates the challenges they confront. [117]

7.4 Representation and Quotas

Research suggests that diverse representation at the leadership level is a significant factor in increasing inclusivity across organisations.[118] Workers who perceive that there are appropriate role models for them within higher positions are more likely to feel that they are represented within the group. Further, diversifying workers into roles that are not related to their backgrounds (e.g., cultural background, work history, etc.), is also important to mitigate issues related to a lack of diversity in teams or units. This lack of diversity can be based on pre-conceived ideas of who is appropriate to work in a role as well as failing to provide opportunity for minority groups to participate more broadly.

However, research also suggests that addressing representation of group members by using interventions such as quotas alone might be problematic. Specifically, interventions that do not engage in initiatives to increase the participation of diverse groups into leadership roles across the sector through coaching and mentoring opportunities working in tandem with inclusive leadership and collective identity development practices, could paradoxically have adverse long-term effects of reduced diversity and inclusion. For example, a paradoxical outcome of selection quotas is that under-represented groups might experience increased selection failure if they are not selected for executive roles and become less likely to apply for them in the future.[119] Similarly, effects such as "the queen bee" phenomenon (for women in leadership for example) can occur, where selected women leaders distance themselves from other women they lead within the team in an attempt to socialise themselves with the perceived "male-dominant" culture.[120]

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[115] Abbott, I., *High-quality mentoring and sponsorship can increase diversity and inclusion.* Modern Legal Practice, 2018. **2**(3): p. 36-41
[116] *Ibid*
[117] *Ibid*
[118] McCarty Kilian, C., D. Hukai, and C. Elizabeth McCarty, *Building diversity in the pipeline to corporate leadership.* Journal of Management Development, 2005. **24**(2): p. 155-168.
[119] Brands, R.A. and I. Fernandez-Mateo, *Leaning out: How negative recruitment experiences shape women's decisions to compete for executive roles.* Administrative Science Quarterly, 2017. **62**(3): p. 405-442.
[120] Derks, B., C. Van Laar, and N. Ellemers, *The queen bee phenomenon: Why women leaders distance themselves from junior women.* The

7.5 Enabling Flexible Working Arrangements at Executive Levels

Flexible working arrangements are not always included in working conditions at higher positions, and any needed flexibility is dependent on the relationship between the worker and the leader they report to (ADD Footnote to say ''based upon sector consultations for this report'',). This lack of flexible working arrangements can be a barrier to progression for affected workers. For example, workers managing care responsibilities or living with disability might need access to flexible working arrangements due to needing extra time, resources, and flexibility to handle their various responsibilities and recover from work. However, if these flexible working arrangements are managed on an individual basis between leaders, it might create a paradox where executives avoid promoting or giving development opportunities to workers with disabilities or care-taking duties due to the perception that they might be "stretching" those individuals and causing them stress if they do so.[121] Therefore, despite efforts to be inclusive and understanding, unintentional exclusion may occur in these situations at the individual level. Based on this, structural barriers at the executive levels preventing flexible working arrangements (for example, resourcing problems, hard deadlines, hierarchical management structures or lack of job sharing), need to be addressed through appropriate interventions to increase participation of under-represented groups into executive positions.

7.6 Inclusive Networking and Development Opportunities

Like other jurisdictions, Queensland public sector has a range of diversity networks that support traditionally under-represented groups, such as the *All-Abilities Action Group* for disability inclusion, *Generations in the Workplace* for employees transitioning into retirement, *Parents' and Carers' Network, Proudly Me Committee* for LGBTQ+ inclusion and *Young Professionals' Network* for workers under 30 years of age. However, these kinds of networks might also inadvertently re-produce inequality and create exclusion. Individuals may perceive that the only networks available to them relate to their identification with an underrepresented group, rather than their career prospects or having access to influential or higher-level connections within the organisation.[122]

Fieldwork informing this project suggested a prominent culture of informal networking is found among public sector agencies.[123] By nature, informal networks can be exclusive due to their lack of transparency and accessibility.[124] Informal networking that is not inclusive may have a detrimental impact on leadership effectiveness. Research suggests that effective leaders build their networks strategically through cultivating connections with others who provide them with a diverse range of information and expertise (as opposed to building networks with others who share their views) and developing high quality relationships to receive developmental feedback, support, and influence.[125] Limited diversity in informal social networks may limit the scope of relationships developed. There are other challenges too. In informal networks, social connections develop which may promote a member candidate for a leadership position over an equally suited candidate without opportunity to socialise with people in influential positions.[126] Further, informal networking events which increase the visibility and connectivity of leaders in the workforce do not always factor in issues related to responsibilities outside of work (such as care-taking duties), cultural considerations (such as participation in activities that involve drinking), or accessibility considerations (such as fatigue, wheelchair access, noise, etc.). These issues could be resolved by providing opportunity for all workers to network with others embedded within regular work activities.

Leadership Quarterly, 2016. **27**(3): p. 456-469.

[121] Wilson-Kovacs, D., et al., *'Just because you can get a wheelchair in the building doesn't necessarily mean that you can still participate': barriers to the career advancement of disabled professionals.* Disability & Society, 2008. **23**(7): p. 705-717.

[122] Dennissen, M., Y. Benschop, and M. Van den Brink, *Diversity networks: networking for equality?* British Journal of Management, 2019. **30**(4): p. 966-980.

[123] 99.*Anonymous Interview #2.* 2024.

[124] Horak, S. and F. Alsarhan, *Social exclusion-The dark side of informal networks.* Global encyclopedia of informality, 2022.

[125] Cullen-Lester, K.L., C.K. Maupin, and D.R. Carter, *Incorporating social networks into leadership development: A conceptual model and evaluation of research and practice.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2017. **28**(1): p. 130-152.

[126] Horak, S. and F. Alsarhan, *Social exclusion-The dark side of informal networks.* Global encyclopedia of informality, 2022.

Location can present another barrier to networking for workers who are working remotely or are based in regional and remote areas. These can be mitigated through formal online networking events or funded inclusive networking opportunities (such as a working retreat in regional areas with accommodations made for those with care-taking duties or disabilities).[127] This can also create connections between leaders in regional remote areas and those located in urban locations.

7.7 Reducing Bias in Career Progression and Selection Decisions

Discrimination and bias may arise through the criteria for selection, promotional processes, and evaluation of leadership. For example, our research suggests that career progression might depend on the number of social networks one belongs to as this is seen as reflective of their ability to demonstrate leadership activity. However, as noted, under-represented groups might not have access to the same level of networking or development opportunities as other groups despite having the skills to be able to cultivate relationships. Further, the number of networks is not a valid criterion for leadership relationship building, as research suggests that the quality and diversity of networks may be more reflective of leadership performance.[128]

In other examples, young professionals at the Queensland public sector[129] state they get overlooked for opportunities to progress in their careers due to limited experience within the organisation, despite being able to demonstrate competencies that would make them suitable for the position required. These examples highlight the importance of ensuring that the criteria by which leaders are being evaluated are valid and reliable indicators of leadership capability. As discussed above, there is a need to ensure that unnecessary barriers to inclusion are not built into job descriptions. Critical evaluation of the criteria applied to selection and promotion of leaders is needed to ensure that they do not unnecessarily discriminate against certain groups.

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[127] Procaccini, E., *Factors that Impact Career Development in Virtual Environments.* 2021.
[128] Cullen-Lester, K.L., C.K. Maupin, and D.R. Carter, *Incorporating social networks into leadership development: A conceptual model and evaluation of research and practice.* The Leadership Quarterly, 2017. **28**(1): p. 130-152.
[129] Queensland Government, *Equity and Diversity Plan 2023-2024*. 2023, Department of Resources, Queensland Government: Brisbane.

8 LEARNING FROM OTHERS

We reviewed how leadership conceptualisations (i.e. competency frameworks) and development approaches compare across the Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, Western Australia, and Aotearoa New Zealand public services. There may have been developments since this review in January 2024.

8.1 Competency Frameworks

Competencies articulated by the public sector commissions in New South Wales, Victoria, Western Australia and Queensland were selected as a sample and compared for their alignment with the[130] competencies from the Wallace 2D architecture described in Section 4 of this report. The comparison is shown in Table 6 using summaries of relevant competencies for the sake of conciseness.

The Queensland public sector has currently taken an approach where leadership capabilities are incorporated at all employee levels and therefore form part of a single capability framework. In NSW and Victoria, leadership and worker competencies are provided in separate frameworks. Their leadership framework competencies have been included in bold in Table 6. Competencies common to both the relevant worker capability framework and leadership framework are shown in italics. Western Australia differs further by having a two-tiered worker capability framework that identifies all senior employees as having leadership competencies. There are also specific leadership competencies articulated through the WA public sector leadership program in *Leadership Expectations*.[131] These competencies are included in bold.

In the agencies considered, individual competencies receive most attention – as per historical notions of effective leadership. Intrapersonal, interpersonal and management capabilities also dominate. Inclusion of individual technical competencies is variable and reflects differences in ethos around whether these are organisation-wide or department specific competencies. There is little focus on leader identity. Foundational competencies of ability and motivation to lead are addressed across all the frameworks. The focus on relational leadership competencies in all entities is limited to some provision of competencies relating to catalytic emergent states and technical competencies.

Overall, our review indicates that the Queensland public sector is in a similar position to other Australian public sector organisations with respect to articulation of leadership competencies and there is an opportunity for all jurisdictions to better align with the evidence base.

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[130] Queensland Government, *Leadership Competencies for Queensland*. Queensland Government: Brisbane.
[131] Queensland Public Sector Commission, *Leadership Expectations*. 2024.

Table 6 Comparison of Capability and Leadership Frameworks Between Public Sectors

Wallace 2D Competencies	Examples	NSW	Victoria	WA	QLD
Ability to develop as a leader	Metacognitive ability, self-awareness	Growth mindset	Self-awareness	Self-awareness, commitment to personal development	Pursues continuous growth
Motivation to develop as a leader	Learning orientation, developmental self-efficacy	Innovative	Innovation and continuous improvement	Growth mindset, adaptive to change, adjusts leadership style to context	Stimulates ideas and innovation
Intrapersonal – characteristics that enable leaders to engage in behaviours relevant to leadership context	Creative thinking, problem solving, decision-making, courage, resilience, proactivity	*Resilience, courage*, integrity, delivers results, solves problems, *accountable, adaptable*	Resilience, adaptability, outcomes focus, systems thinking, **integrity, accountable, impartial**	Critical thinking, ambiguity, assess impact, judgement, courage, resilience, listen	Makes insightful decisions
Interpersonal – social competencies that promote effective interactions with others	Emotional intelligence, social intelligence	Values diversity, communicates effectively, *collaborative,* influences, negotiates, **authentic, empathetic**	Works collaboratively, promotes inclusion, responsive**, respectful, engage, motivate, inspire**	Builds relationships, values diversity, communicates clearly, negotiates, inspires direction, **empathy, humility, integrity**	Builds enduring relationships, fosters healthy and inclusive workplaces
Management – characteristics for effective management behaviours common to most leadership contexts	Planning, delegating, monitoring, developing others	Strategic, plans, prioritises, effective management, develops people	Strategic, fosters talent, builds capability, continuous improvement	Harnesses information and opportunities, guides, coaches and develops people	Develops and mobilises talent, demonstrates sound governance
Technical – skills expected of leaders to lead technical performance	Customer relations, human resources	Customer service, finance, technology	Policy design and development	Professional expertise	Not included

Wallace 2D Competencies	Examples	NSW	Victoria	WA	QLD
Leader identity	Strength, centrality, integration	Not included	Not included	Not included	Not included
Catalyst emergent states – Catalytic psychological states relevant to leadership within a collective	Psychological safety, group trust, shared purpose	*Inspire* direction and purpose, manage reform and change	Inspires a sense of purpose and direction	Delivers, prioritises, tenacity, resilience, builds skill, responsiveness	Leads change in complex environments, inspires others
Collective leadership – Leader identity and self-efficacy	Collective reflection, define mission	Not included	Not included	Not included	Not included
Social networks of leadership – develop adaptable networks to respond to change	Cognition of and efficacy for engaging in networks	Not included	Not included	Not included	Not included
Abstraction of leadership – agreement between leaders - what leading means	Philosophy, congruence, differentiation	Not included	Not included	Not included	Not included
Collective technical – relevant to collective technical task performance	Financial planning, strategic forecasting	Optimise business outcomes	Future focus, define, shape and adapt to the future	Focuses strategically	Strategic, drives accountability, outcomes

9 CONCLUSION

9.1 Final Thoughts

Our intention with this review was to provide a broad overview of contemporary leadership science informed by the Queensland public sector. Leadership is complex and there is a correspondingly broad set of conceptualisations. To distil this vast knowledge in a way that is relevant for the Queensland public sector, our review was hermeneutic in approach, cycling back and forth between the local context and leadership science, to home in on guidance that both reflects the evidence and will work for Queensland.

The following concluding points may be pertinent to Queensland public sector's future leadership philosophy and also of interest to other jurisdictions:

- The complex nature of leadership, both across science and practice, suggests that a single leadership framework may be confining and constraining. Thus, we recommend an overall architecture of leadership – the proposed architecture – with more targeted leadership frameworks and guidance sitting underneath (i.e., specific guidance for systems leadership, stewardship, relational leadership and managing).

- Relational leadership has broad support in the literature for enabling better outcomes. Historical notions of leadership, based on hierarchical structures and centralised decision-making, are known to work counter to relational aims. Tension arises between hierarchical and relational leadership because hierarchical leadership values structure and control, while relational leadership values flexibility and collaboration. Balancing these two approaches requires navigation of the paradox of maintaining authority while fostering bottom-up emergence. Here, leadership development capabilities such as adaptive leadership and holding polarities and paradox may be helpful.

- We understand the desire for diversity and inclusion to form a core tenant of future leadership. Evidence supports that the relational leadership aspects of the proposed framework provide a means to include diversity and inclusion as a core component of future leadership narrative – rather than an add-on.

- Emphasis should also be given to maturing leadership mindsets. There is broad evidence to support that higher-order mindsets are aligned with more effective outcomes.

- We note that research has suggested that most off-the-shelf leadership development programs prioritise the bottom left-hand quadrant of the proposed architecture. With this context, we suggest that the Queensland public sector do not solely rely on what is available from public (institutional) offerings and consider developing custom programs that promote relational competencies and matured mindsets. Also, for relational competencies, the evidence shows that developing these competencies within intact teams (i.e. conducting learning interventions for teams that work together on a day-today basis) is more productive than sending individuals to training courses and assuming that this individual learning will advance team effectiveness.

- Transitioning to a new leadership philosophy is a cultural change that will bring resistance. The proven remedy is to engage participants (including resistors as far as possible) in the design, planning, and implementation of cultural change. Change that is centrally driven and implemented top-down has a low probability of success.

- Lastly, the data does not suggest an approach of learning from other jurisdictions. While others will have elements of the proposed architecture, our research did not find an example that could guide implementation. By following the evidence, rather than following others, we believe that the Queensland public sector has an opportunity to craft a world-class leadership environment.

9.2 Assumptions and Limitations

In a topic as broad as leadership, it is important to have some boundaries. Here, we focussed on the issues most pertinent to our mission. Some of the topics beyond the scope of our report include:

- A full discussion of some of the alternative approaches to encouraging greater diversity and inclusivity in the workplace such as the use of quotas.

- A full discussion of structures and processes useful in encouraging diversity and inclusivity.

- How these approaches might be implements implemented by the Queensland public sector together with the costs of such an implementation.

Further, to date our interactions with the Queensland public sector were largely in the human resources space. We recognise this is a small sample, and these views may not be representative across the whole Queensland public sector community.

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APPENDIX A

Table A1 Examples of Effective Relational Leadership

Organisation	Observations	Author(s) (year)
Schools	Effective female school principals demonstrated "ethic of care" across teaching, learning, dedication to students, efforts to create child-centred schools, empowering others, listening, and resolving conflicts fairly, emphasizing relationships over control.	Regan and Brooks (1995)
Health services UK	Salford Royal NHS Foundation Trust is realising its vision to become the safest organisation in the NHS, by building a collective leadership culture, assessing leaders' performance and potential to facilitate succession placement, readiness for promotion and ameliorating attrition risk. Nottinghamshire Healthcare Trust's growth and success was attributed to its collective leadership, based on all staff taking responsibility for leading the organisation. Distributed and situational leadership are at the heart of its culture and are achieved through an array of purposeful and strategic development efforts. Southern Health NHS Foundation Trust evaluate their collective leadership strategy, through *inter alia* data on cultural shift and are working to develop leadership of integrated teams to co-create services with patients.	West *et al* (2014)
Chinese IT company	Relational leadership played a significant, positive role in generating structural and relational organisational social capital. Leaders who are more inclusive, ethical, caring, empowering and visionary, produce strong connections and higher level of trust among themselves and their followers, providing more empowerment, care and vision, including workers in decisions and treating them more ethically to build a better organisational environment.	Akram *et al* (2016a)
Chinese IT company	Relational leadership as a powerful motivational tool, effect on employee innovative work behaviour, helps employees to demonstrate innovative work behaviour during idea generation, idea promotion and idea realization as well as having an overall impact on employee innovative work behaviour.	Akram *et al* (2016b)
Local government	Relational narrative and storytelling practices of local government chief executives in the United Kingdom. Focus on narratives embedded in a recognition of leadership as a relational process in which story telling builds shared vision and understanding.	Orr *et al* (2017)
Mental health services UK	Organisations in partnership facilitated by voluntary locality planning groups of senior managers from health, social care and the voluntary sector, working collectively to solve complex problems led to service improvement, opportunity for enhanced collaboration to support innovation in service delivery.	Clarke (2018)
Visa Europe	Not-for-profit membership organisation processing card payments across Europe. Voluntary engagement of employees in dialogues that were non-hierarchical placing members of staff in dialogue with individuals outside their normal working role, building trusting relationships with these individuals and increased their support network. Employee engagement, customer satisfaction, transaction volumes and growth demonstrated an upward trend.	Clarke (2018)

Organisation	Observations	Author(s) (year)
UK nursing services	Shared governance in which the nursing and midwifery collective voice is valued and listened to in all decision-making conversations (as per Story 1 in Section 3).	Clarke (2018)
Republic of Korea government organisations	Relational leadership benefited organisational performance in government organisations in Republic of Korea (as per Story 2 in Section 3).	Moon *et al* (2018)
Health system Cape Town, South Africa	Supporting leadership development in crisis prone contexts within primary health care services, found relational leadership associated with practices such as mentoring/coaching others, and enabling the relationships and commitment needed to work together to achieve common purpose is important in strengthening the performance of health systems, and relational leadership can be strengthened through collaborative reflective practice that pays attention to values and relationships. Gains from relational leadership development included increased trust and team cohesion across and within levels of the district health system.	Cleary *et al* (2018)
USA The Center for Creative Leadership	CCL, a not-for-profit educational organization, examined their own use of relational leadership and observed that relational leadership is enabling new directions for the practice of leadership development, holding promise for addressing demand for leadership development that is more sensitive to context, supportive of organisational transformation and provides scope for helping individuals and collectives to adapt and thrive in an increasingly complex and interdependent world.	McCauley and Palus (2021)
Italy local government	A study of the engagement between Italian mayors and citizens, public managers and politicians, demonstrated that relational leadership is being employed effectively in at least some instances.	Sancino *et al* (2022)
Healthcare	Evidence from the Covid 19 pandemic demonstrates existing capacity in healthcare services to adopt relational leadership and create effective outcomes. Three key cues are identified relating to inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process and enabling others that promote relational leadership implementation. Existence of these cues can be identified through examining leadership structure, process autonomy, and framing change as a learning outcome.	Hastings and Schwarz (2023)
Temporary organisations	Impact of the level of relational leadership of team leaders on team members' conflict-handling style and team coordination, evaluation of how the cultural background of leaders moderates the nature of the association between relational leadership and project team performance. Relational leadership influences team members' cooperative and conflict-avoiding styles, which are, in turn, positively associated with team coordination and team performance. Team coordination and performance are more closely related to relational leadership for leaders from a specific within-nationality cultural background.	Tabassi et al (2024)
Africa Asia	Relational leadership is a common approach in African and Asian	de Jongh and

Organisation	Observations	Author(s) (year)
Twende Mbele	countries which have more collectivist cultures than Western countries. The Twende Mbele initiative is rooted in African culture and embodies relational leadership principles that strongly align with the ethical values of Ubuntu (an African world view which is about the essence of being human). The Twende Mbele Programme involves six core country partners and two regional evaluation capacity development partners with eight other countries actively forming part of the wider learning network, learning from each other, and around how more effective monitoring and evaluation (M&E) systems at all levels of government can strengthen government performance.	Ntakumba (2024)

Table A2 Effective Shared Leadership

Organisation	Observations	Author(s) (year)
Change management teams	Comparison of hierarchical versus shared leadership as predictors of the effectiveness of change management teams found both hierarchical and shared leadership to be significantly related to team effectiveness, but shared leadership appears to be a more useful predictor of team effectiveness than hierarchical leadership.	Pearce and Sims (2002)
Hotel corporation	Implementation of a re-orientation is more likely to be successful if its leadership is shared between a task-oriented and a relations-oriented leader. In the implementation phase the critical roles to share are those of task and relations, close to where the change is taking place.	Waldersee and Eagleson (2002)
US change management teams	A study investigating the effects of both formal hierarchical and shared leadership exhibited by both formal leaders and team members on team effectiveness. When transformational or empowering leadership were exhibited (either formally or shared), then these were positively associated with team effectiveness. Directive and aversive styles (either formal or shared) had a negative effect. Where formal leaders engage less in these negative styles, shared leadership was more likely to be facilitated.	Pearce and Conger (2003
New venture management teams	Two studies examined the impact of transformational, transactional, empowering and directive dimensions of shared and hierarchical leadership on new venture team performance (revenue growth and employee growth). While both hierarchical and shared leadership predicted new venture team performance, the latter accounted for additional variation in performance over and above hierarchical leadership. Shared leadership promoted team performance because of its effects on team cohesion and a collective vision.	Ensley, Hmieleski, and Pearce (2006)
Self-managed teams	A study that compared shared leadership and individual leadership, found that teams with shared leadership have motivational and cognitive advantages over teams relying on an individual leader.	Solansky (2008)
German consulting project teams	A study of internal team context and coordination found that team coordination facilitates access to the knowledge and resources that each member brings to the team. Shared leadership was	Hoch, Pearce, and Welzel (2010)

Organisation	Observations	Author(s) (year)
	associated with team performance only when team coordination was low. Shared leadership could compensate for low team coordination. The positive effects of shared leadership may not be realised where teams already possess very effective internal team processes to begin with.	
	The likelihood of a team experiencing a full range of leadership behaviours increased to the extent that multiple team members shared leadership. Teams with shared leadership experienced less conflict, greater consensus, and higher intragroup trust and cohesion than teams without shared leadership.	Bergman, Rentsch, Small, Davenport, & Bergman (2012)
Danish manufacturing plant	Shared leadership did not enhance performance in teams characterised as having low autonomy. Work function significantly moderated the relationship, with shared leadership exhibiting a negative relationship with manufacturing team performance and a positive relationship with knowledge team performance. Team autonomy was positively related to performance, and significantly moderated the relationship between shared leadership and team performance. There may be factors that place constraints on the effectiveness of shared leadership in particular team contexts.	Fausing, Jeppesen, and Jonsson (2013)
Administrative public sector organization; medium sized training and development provider	There was a positive relationship between shared leadership and team performance with the relationship mediated by information sharing. This relationship was stronger in more diverse teams than in less diverse teams.	Hoch (2014)
Meta-analysis	Wang *et al.* (2014) examined 42 independent studies reporting on shared leadership that emphasised social interaction as an indicator of sharing, to evaluate the relationship of shared leadership to team effectiveness. This analysis revealed an overall positive relationship. However, shared traditional forms of leadership were less effective than shared charismatic or transformational leadership. They observed that shared leadership tends to be more strongly related to team attitudinal outcomes, behavioural processes and emergent team states than to team performance and the effects of shared leadership are stronger when the work is more complex. They concluded that compared with vertical leadership, shared leadership shows unique effects in relation to team performance.	Wang *et al.*, 2014
Meta-analysis	Generalised observation that shared leadership will correlate positively with team performance. The magnitudes of this relationship varied widely across studies. As theory and measurement get closer to embracing the complexities of shared leadership, the magnitude of observed shared leadership–team performance relationships became stronger. Teams sampled from classroom and laboratory settings yielded lower average effect sizes as compared to teams sampled from field settings. The complexity of team tasks related negatively to the magnitude of shared leadership–performance relations. The relative effect sizes of density versus centralization conceptions of shared leadership did not differ significantly from one another.	D'Innocenzo *et al,* (2016)

Organisation	Observations	Author(s) (year)
IT project	Impact of shared leadership behaviour on project success finding that shared leadership amplifies project success both directly and via knowledge sharing and cohesion. Further, team trust interacts with cohesion and knowledge sharing affecting project success.	Iman and Zaheer (2021)

Table A3 Effective Collective Leadership

Organisation	Observations	Author(s) (year)
Group in Ireland, consisting of 11 hospitals, ranging in size and purpose	Four teams from four different hospitals within the group participated in a collective leadership intervention co-designed by healthcare staff, patient representatives and researchers. There was a strong link between the development of interpersonal relationships, collective leadership and engagement in proactive helping behaviours. Contexts characterised by stronger interpersonal relationships resulted in enhanced levels of trust, a greater willingness to speak up and a willingness to ask for help when needed. Improved team cohesion and interpersonal relationships were also reported. The intervention served to foster a more positive work environment for teams and through this, team members developed a collective-focused mindset, recognising the need for, and value of, other disciplines to provide optimal care and to improve team performance and enhance safety and care quality.	DeBrun and McAuliffe (2022)
England, nursing	Collective leadership has been shown to lead to improvements in nurses' workplace experience, the care environment generally, productivity and patient outcomes. Collective leadership values nurses' leadership skills and seeks to involve them in achieving organisational goals.	Hatchett (2023)
Allianz, Haier, Microsoft, and Nucor	These organisations are transforming their industries through developing new architectures featuring collaborative networks of self-managing teams that operate in rapid cycles and focus on creating value for their stakeholders. Networked leadership teams steer the organisation. Leaders are accountable for their individual roles, but *leadership* resides in teams of leaders acting in service to the organisation. High-performing leadership teams outperform the capabilities of their individuals.	De Smet *et al* (2024)

Table A4 - Mindset Maturation Evidence

Study	Findings	Authors(s) (year)
Sample of managers	Developmental order related to decision-making style and use of power. Managers at earlier orders of development tended to enforce others' decisions rather than make decisions themselves. They used coercive power and relied on rules and procedures to deal with ambiguous problems. Managers at later orders made decisions based on their own convictions and influenced others through rewards and their own expertise.	Smith (1980)
Managers' approaches to solving problems	At earlier development orders, managers tend to treat a problem as an isolated event, accept the given definition of the problem, and neglect underlying causes. At later orders,	Merron, Fisher, & Torbert (1987)

Study	Findings	Authors(s) (year)
	managers were more likely to redefine the problem, question underlying assumptions in the definition, and treat the problem as a symptom of a deeper underlying problem.	
Study of how entrepreneurs ran their businesses	Dependent entrepreneurs participated in a "hands-on" way in every phase of their operations. Independent entrepreneurs involved their staff and delegated responsibility to them. Inter-independent entrepreneurs focused on broader strategic issues. Those at later developmental orders had businesses that generated more income.	Hirsch (1988)
Assessing the order of moral development of 94 MBA students	Later orders of moral development were significantly related to ethical decision making. However, a measure of locus of control showed an even higher correlation to ethical decisions and Trevino (1992) concluded that cognitive moral development may be too limited to account for ethical actions in organizations, since too many other factors are at play.	Trevino & Youngblood (1990)
In-depth interviews with 17 managers about their on-the-job experiences on how they led subordinates, related to superiors, and proposed and implemented ideas	Middle order mindset managers tended to mould subordinates to their own understanding, whereas higher order mindset managers worked with subordinates to synthesise their ways of thinking. Both indicated that they enlist peers, subordinates, and superiors primarily as equal team players in getting work accomplished. Middle order managers often try to get superiors to accept the "correct" course of action while higher order mindset managers recognise the need to negotiate to create a common frame. Both middle and higher order managers saw awareness of others' points of view as important. Independent managers saw it as important to design ways of gaining acceptance by others of their own goals.	Fisher & Torbert (1991)
A sample of military officers who had successfully completed a battalion command	Order of development was strongly related to a measure of cognitive work capacity - the capacity to make effective decisions at successively higher levels of management.	Lewis & Jacobs (1992)
Leader identity	Managers at earlier orders reported relying more on external authority while managers at later orders relied more on their own internal authority. Later-order managers also demonstrated more self-knowledge and perceptiveness of recurring patterns in personal experience.	Weathersby (1993)
Leadership behaviours of master teachers providing peer leadership in their schools at different orders of development rated by colleagues	No relationship was found between the teachers' order of development and how others rated their effectiveness as leaders.	Gammons (1994)
An in-depth study of five women leaders of college student groups	Dependent leaders were reluctant to delegate, tended to avoid holding others accountable, sought unanimous agreement in their groups, felt threatened by others' complaints, had difficulty expressing their disagreement, and saw college authorities exclusively as judges and experts. Independent leaders negotiated performance standards with group members and held them accountable, evaluated the complaints of others, expressed their disagreements with others, and saw college	Spillet (1995)

Study	Findings	Authors(s) (year)
	administrators as resources.	
Sample of 24 managers from one organization engaged in transformative change	No significant relationship between manager's developmental order and co-workers' perceptions of whether the manager contributed to the organization's transformation in an exemplary way.	Mehltretter (1995)
Ratings of bank managers by subordinates and through existing performance appraisal data	Independent managers (Achievers) were seen as more inspirational than Dependent managers (Experts). None of the remaining ratings were significantly related to developmental order of the manager.	Steeves (1997)
CEOs	Both Independent CEOs and CEOs transitioning to the Inter-independent order were found to be operating competitive, well-established corporations and were operating at later orders of development compared to a sample of similar age middle managers from the same organizations.	Eigel (1998)
Longitudinal study of 10 organisations attempting transformation	Seven of the change efforts successfully resulted in transformative change with five led by CEOs measured at higher developmental logics (strategists) and two by CEOs measured as Achievers. The three unsuccessful efforts were led by CEOs measured as Expert or Diplomat. The correlation between CEO development order and degree of transformative organizational change was significant, accounting for 43% of the variance between success and failure.	Rooke & Torbert (1998)
A study of nine teachers who were taking on peer leadership roles in their school system	Early and late-stage leaders were both effective in the roles, but early-stage leaders experienced more challenge around indicators such as split loyalties when acting as a boundary-spanner, conflict and concern regarding how they were seen by others.	Hasegawa (2004)
Relationship between order of development and leader performance in a sample of West Point cadets	Order of development (measured in the senior year) was significantly related to the cadets' overall performance as assessed by their Military Development (MD) grade, a standard measure of how effectively cadets carry out their leadership responsibilities.	Lewis et al. (2005)
A study of 41 executives examining order of development and 360-degree performance rating	Order of development predicted average ratings executives received on seven of the eight dimensions assessed and was also significantly correlated with the mean rating received from each subgroup of raters: subordinates, peers, and superiors. Executives studied were dependent and independent.	Harris (2005)

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