

Jari Mielonen

**MAKING SENSE OF SHARED LEADERSHIP.
A case study of leadership processes and
practices without formal leadership
structure in the team context**

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Science (Technology) to be presented with due permission for public examination and criticism in the Auditorium 1381 at Lappeenranta University of Technology, Lappeenranta, Finland on the 25th of November, 2011, at noon.

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ABSTRACT

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Leadership is essential for the effectiveness of the teams and organizations they are part of. The challenges facing organizations today require an exhaustive review of the strategic role of leadership. In this context, it is necessary to explore new types of leadership capable of providing an effective response to new needs. The present-day situations, characterized by complexity and ambiguity, make it difficult for an external leader to perform all leadership functions successfully. Likewise, knowledge-based work requires providing professional groups with sufficient autonomy to perform leadership functions.

This study focuses on shared leadership in the team context. Shared leadership is seen as an emergent team property resulting from the distribution of leadership influence across multiple team members. Shared leadership entails sharing power and influence broadly among the team members rather than centralizing it in the hands of a single individual who acts in the clear role of a leader. By identifying the team itself as a key source of influence, this study points to the relational nature of leadership as a social construct where leadership is seen as social process of relating processes that are co-constructed by several team members. Based on recent theoretical developments concerned with relational, practice-based and constructionist approaches to the study of leadership processes, this thesis proposes the study of leadership interactions, working processes and practices to focus on the construction of direction, alignment and commitment. During the research process,

critical events, activities, working processes and practices of a case team have been examined and analyzed with the grounded theory –approach in the terms of shared leadership.

There are a variety of components to this complex process and a multitude of factors that may influence the development of shared leadership. The study suggests that the development process of shared leadership is a common sense -making process and consists of four overlapping dimensions (individual, social, structural, and developmental) to work with as a team. For shared leadership to emerge, the members of the team must offer leadership services, and the team as a whole must be willing to rely on leadership by multiple team members. For these individual and collective behaviors to occur, the team members must believe that offering influence to and accepting it from fellow team members are welcome and constructive actions. Leadership emerges when people with differing world views use dialogue and collaborative learning to create spaces where a shared common purpose can be achieved while a diversity of perspectives is preserved and valued. This study also suggests that this process can be supported by different kinds of meaning-making and process tools. Leadership, then, does not reside in a person or in a role, but in the social system.

The built framework integrates the different dimensions of shared leadership and describes their relationships. This way, the findings of this study can be seen as a contribution to the understanding of what constitutes essential aspects of shared leadership in the team context that can be of theoretical value in terms of advancing the adoption and development process of shared leadership. In the real world, teams and organizations can create conditions to foster and facilitate the process. We should encourage leaders and team members to approach leadership as a collective effort that the team can be prepared for, so that the response is rapid and efficient.

Keywords: shared leadership, team leadership, relational leadership, self-managing team, team work, case study, grounded theory

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I have spent my entire adult life studying and working with teams. I have learnt about teams as a researcher, a consultant, a team member and a team leader. With this background I have been on a continuous journey of learning and experiencing team work and team leadership in different organizational settings. While working as a researcher and consultant with companies and public organizations, I have noted that despite of the widespread recognition of the need for new, more relational models of leadership, there are a number of paradoxes and contradictions associated with it in practice. To have the possibility to conduct scientific research on subjects which are close to one's heart in the daily work adds a new viewpoint and spices up both.

Combining research and the everyday business life is not an easy journey. The completion of this thesis has required compromises, hard work and constant bad conscience for unfinished things. This work has been in progress for a long time and had not been possible without the help of several people. First of all I wish to thank my supervisor, Professor Asko Miettinen for his valuable guidance and support. In particular, he posed many questions that, when answered, brought the research process a leap closer to its completion. I also wish to thank the external reviewers of my dissertation manuscript, Professors Martin Lindell and Professor Vesa Routamaa for the constructive feedback and valuable advice they have given me. Their feedback and comments have helped me to improve the quality of this thesis.

I would like to thank all my colleagues for inspiring moments and working relationships. We have had the possibility to discuss many leadership and team issues. Together with them I have learnt something valuable about people, leadership, and team work. As an important part of this research process, I highly value their positive and open attitude towards this research process, although for the purposes of anonymity I do not mention any names here. Without my colleagues I would not have had the interesting empirical data, which is an important part of this research. I believe our cooperation has been a mutual learning process, and I am grateful for their time and interest.

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Nastola, October 2011

Jari Mielonen

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1 Introduction

1.1 On the need to revisit team leadership studies

Teams play an increasingly essential role in the functioning of organizations (e.g. Goodwin, Burke, Wildman & Salas 2009; Hills 2007; Kozlowski & Bell 2003), and leadership becomes a crucial factor in the effectiveness of these teams (e.g. O'Reilly, Caldwell, Chatman, Lapiz & Self 2010; Zaccaro, Rittman & Marks 2001). The basic idea behind the use of teams is that team implementations involve some degree of empowerment of members. The team members are provided with increased behavioral discretion and decision-making control as a part of the organizational work system design. Teams typically work on distinct and relatively whole tasks, possess a variety of skills within their membership, and have authority and autonomy to make decisions about how and when work is done, and by whom (e.g. Cohen & Bailey 1997; Katzenbach & Smith 1993; Wellins, Byham & Wilson 1991). Through the decentralization of power, authority and decision-making responsibilities, organizations find flexibility and quick response capabilities necessary to stay competitive in their business (e.g. Ancona & Bresman 2007; Houghton, Neck & Manz 2003; Lipman-Blumen & Leavitt 2000).

Teams tend to reduce the dependence on traditional leader authority figures. Establishing effective influence processes that enable teams to achieve positive outcomes usually requires nontraditional approaches to leadership – involving empowering others and sharing influence. Perhaps more than any other factor associated with work teams, empowerment has created demands for radical evolution of leadership practices (Manz, Pearce & Sims 2009). In particular, the increasing emphasis on team-based knowledge work, or work that involves significant investment of intellectual capital by a group of skilled professionals, makes it necessary to expand the traditional models of leadership (Houghton et al. 2003). Also, the growing complexity, the uncertainty of present business situations, and the speed of response to environmental pressures make the actions of a single leader impracticable and require multi-professional teams with work autonomy and leadership emerging from the team itself (Day, Gronn & Salas 2004). This kind of demands suggest that organizations cannot wait for leadership decisions to be pushed

up to the top for action. Instead, leadership has to be more evenly shared across the organization to ensure faster response times to environmental demands (Pearce, Manz & Sims 2009).

The current forms of teamwork that emphasize knowledge-based work rely on employees who have high levels of expertise and seek autonomy in how they apply their knowledge and skills (DeNisi, Hitt & Jackson 2003; Pearce 2004) and therefore desire more opportunities to shape and participate in the leadership functions for their teams. Individuals down the line are often better informed, and therefore in a better position to provide leadership (Pearce et al. 2009). Also globalization, new communication technologies, and new ways of working, such as virtual teams or distributed teams, modify the traditional relationship of the leader with the collaborators, requiring a new type of leadership with function delegation. While originally virtuality and distribution were often viewed as dichotomies (i.e., virtual or not, fully distributed or face to face), today teams work more commonly with some degree of virtuality and partial distribution (Ancona, Bresman & Caldwell 2009; Schuffler, Wiese, Salas & Burke 2010). It is an increasingly common expectation for employees to be able to work effectively in teams, where there is often no formally appointed leader (e.g. Day et al. 2004; Zaccaro, Heinen & Schuffler 2009). As an example, Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp and Gilson (2008, 462) describe a modern-day team design as follows:

Some of the members of the team may have a long history of working together (both good and bad), whereas others may be complete strangers assigned to the group solely for this task. They might meet face-to-face initially to determine e.g. the project scope, constituencies, resources, and so forth. An external leader may play a prominent role in this early stage, but then “hand off” control to the team members once they get rolling. The team may then break into individual or subgroup work and coordinate their subsequent actions, in part, through virtual means. Some individuals or subgroups are likely to work closely with one another, whereas others might work largely on their own for a while. They may well come together at various times for gateway reviews or checkpoints, and they may reconfigure into different working arrangements as their project develops. Sometimes

feedback may be encouraging and generate positive affect and momentum; at other times the feedback could reveal performance problems and heighten anxieties.

The complexity of current team arrangements is also a new challenge for team and team leadership research (Burke, DiazGranados & Salas 2011; Mathieu et al. 2008; Yukl 2006). As the prevalence of teams has increased, researchers have sought to understand the factors that promote their effectiveness. One factor argued to be critical in determining team effectiveness is team leadership. Compared to traditional leadership, team varies leadership dynamically with the situation, assumes that subordinate roles and linkages are tightly coupled, and highlights coordination demands (Burke et al. 2011). Without leadership, the team members are unlikely to identify e.g. with the team objectives (Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Avolio & Jung 2002). As Zaccaro et al. (2001) maintain, the leadership processes influence also the team's cognitive, motivational, and affective processes. Moreover, the leadership process affects the attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of the team members (Ensley, Pearson & Pearce 2003).

Team leadership can be understood in two different ways (Day et al. 2004): as those attributes (skills, behaviors) that the members bring to the team and that operate as components that influence processes and team performance; and as a result of team processes, facilitating team adaptation and performance throughout the different stages of its development. Both focuses are essential for understanding team leadership. The first focus brings to light the individual contribution of the leader on joint processes and results. The second focus emerges from the distribution of leadership actions among team members, in such a way that the members all lead one another according to the circumstances. Although recognizing that the team members can, and do take on roles that were previously reserved for management and that self-managing practices are popular in team development, leadership has historically been conceived around an individual and his or her relationship to subordinates or followers (e.g. Burke et al. 2011; Morgeson, DeRue & Karam 2010; Yukl 2006; Zaccaro et al. 2009). Researchers have called for work that explicitly examines the formal leadership structures, leadership functions, styles, and behaviors that contribute to promoting the coordinated, integrated and adaptive processes required

for effective team work, even though it has been a long-recognized fact that leadership is often shared or need to be shared within a team (e.g. Manz et al. 2009; Pearce & Conger 2003).

A controversy in the field of leadership research is based on whether leadership should be viewed as a role played by an individual or as a social influence process (Yukl 2006) (see Figure 1). The traditional perspective of a single leader suggests that the leadership function is a specialized role that cannot be shared without jeopardizing group effectiveness. This view represents the more hierarchical leadership where the leader directs all activities (Ensley et al. 2003). In contrast, there has been an increasing acceptance of the idea that leadership does not only stem from an external individual in a top-down process, but can also emerge from within the team itself (e.g. Bligh, Pearce & Kohles 2006; Bradford & Cohen 1998; Perry, Pierce & Simms 1999; Pearce & Conger 2003).

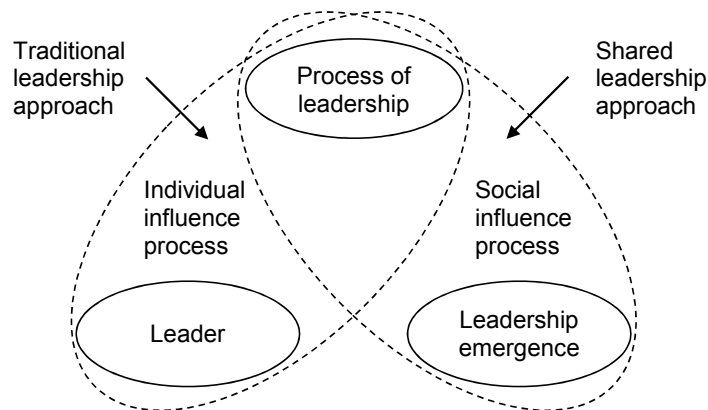


Figure 1. Distinctions between traditional and shared approaches to leadership

Those who view leadership as a shared process argue that “important decisions about what to do and how to do it are made through the use of an interactive process that involves many different people who influence each other, not by a single person” (Yukl 2006, 3). The claimed reason for this seems to be that organizational leadership is a complex and exhausting job that demands too much of single individuals and that internal team leadership is a way to broaden the competence and personality bases of management and relieve the members from time to time (e.g.

Crevani, Lindgren & Packendorff 2007, 2010; Day, Gronn & Salas 2004, 2006). While external leaders are often a critical element of team leadership, a failure to understand the importance of internal team leadership is likely to leave a significant amount of variance in team performance unexplained. The proliferation of self-managing and other forms of autonomous work teams also heightens the value of understanding internal team leadership, as these teams do not always have a formally appointed external leader.

1.2 Purpose of the research

This research concentrates on internal team leadership with the shared leadership perspective, which emphasizes collaboration and relational processes of co-construction as the bases of leadership, pointing at the relational, collectivist and non-authoritarian nature of leadership practices in contemporary organizations (e.g. Lindgren & Packendorff 2009; Uhl-Bien 2006). Leadership is seen as a collective activity rather than as the doings of formal leaders. Thereby, the study seeks to challenge the individualist focus inherent in leadership research, a focus that has actually been strengthened in the contemporary leadership literature (Parry & Bryman 2006). As Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009) indicate, the description of leadership must transcend the traditional enumeration of a set of individual characteristics and focus on e.g. its didactic, shared, and relational character, facing complex social dynamics. From the perspective of a researcher, the shared leadership perspective points to the need to study leadership in terms of activities rather than individuals – i.e., viewing leadership as something that is co-constructed in a team rather than exercised by a single person (Gronn 2002; Parry & Bryman 2006; Uhl-Bien 2006).

However, even when the focus is moved from formal leaders to their coworkers and the team members are recognized as important actors for the emergence of team leadership, there is still little research on the leadership processes or collective acts of leadership that are not performed by formal leaders alone (e.g. Crevani et al. 2007, 2010; Friedrich et al. 2009). Such research would focus not only on individuals' perception of leadership but also on the process itself. Thus, this study builds on a view of shared team leadership as a social construct, as something that is created through dialogue among groups of people in a particular context. The constructionist

perspective presumes that our understanding of leadership is socially constructed overtime, as individuals interact with one another, rather than being something embodied in individuals or possessed by them (e.g. Grint 2005; Gronn 2002; Hosking 2007; Uhl-Bien 2006; Wood 2005). This view gives the opportunity to challenge the previous emphasis in the literature on the person defined as the ‘leader’. It will help to explore the ways people understand and attribute shared leadership and allow to distinguish between the emergence of collective practices that constitute the work of leadership and the individuals involved in those practices.

Thus, the purpose of this research is to advance the understanding of the shared leadership phenomenon in self-managed teams, and especially to enhance understanding of shared leadership in team settings when all team members participate in the leadership process without formal leadership roles.

With this purpose, there are four gaps in the current team and shared leadership literature that is aimed to address with this research.

Focus from individual to team – The literature of self-managed teams has typically not included the role of team in the leadership process. Most empirical and theoretical studies of team leadership implicitly assume a perspective of leadership as synonymous with a single individual: a leader. At the same time, current developments in leadership research emphasize that important knowledge on leadership is to be found in the relation between team members rather than in the leader as an individual.

Focus from competencies to practices – A problem related to the interest in individual team leaders and their personalities is the absence of practice-oriented studies, i.e. research on what actually happens at team sites and how leadership is practiced in everyday interaction. Team leadership is studied in terms of the characteristics that individual leaders bring into these interactions, not in terms of how these interactions unfold and how they are interpreted by the actors.

Focus from shared roles to processes – Most research on shared or distributed leadership takes the approach that it is a static condition where the role behaviors may be explicitly divided or entirely shared. In reality, however, it seems that the sharing of leadership, as an influence process rather than a defined position, is likely

much more dynamic and occurs as the need arises. It is a process of people working together for a common purpose.

Developing focus from formal leader to team – The vertical leader's actions are critical to the implementation process of shared leadership, but interventions using external team leaders in self-managed work teams are not always positive. What, then, is required from individual team members themselves? In order to better understand internal team leadership, it is important to focus also exclusively on teams without a formal internal leader.

Based on the discussion above, a general research problem for this study is defined as follows: **How do team members work together to form and develop leadership in the team context?**

This research problem will be operationalized into a set of research questions after the theoretical discussion in the following main chapter.

1.3 Structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of two parts. The first part creates the theoretical and conceptual basis for the research and the second part consists of empirical research. The structure of the thesis is presented in Figure 2.

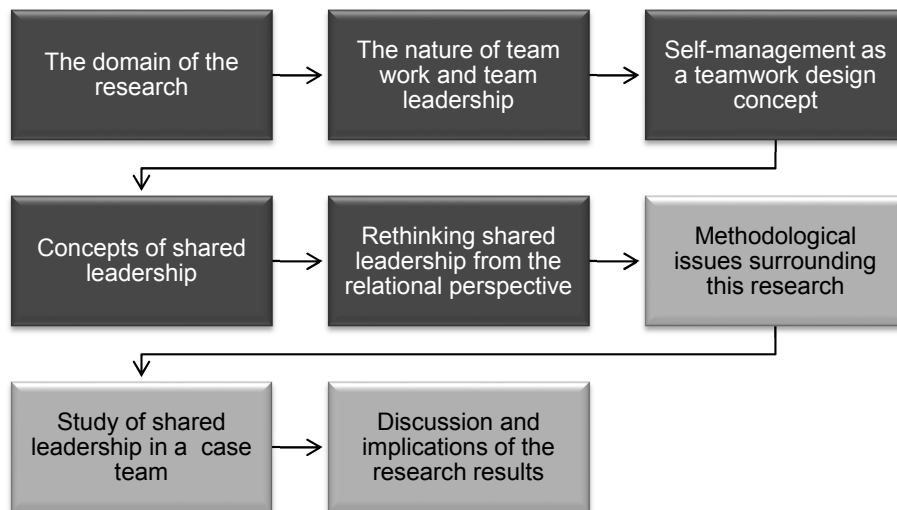


Figure 2. Structure of the research

In the first part, this introductory chapter has presented the domain of the research and the sources of theoretical and practical motivation for the study.

The following chapter discusses the relevant literature related to this study. In order to establish a theoretical foundation for the arguments in the thesis, it is worthwhile to review the literature streams in the area of shared leadership in teams. In research literature, shared leadership and team leadership are commonly viewed as slightly different streams of research. Despite of this, shared leadership has a strong relationship to team design constructs, such as team autonomy or self-management and team empowerment. To that end, this chapter will focus first on the nature of team work and team leadership. In this research, teams are related especially to settings that house knowledge work. The next phase concerns previewing and integrating literature in the area of the development of teamwork design concepts, particularly work that has been done on self-managed teams. After that, the concept of shared leadership with some historical underpinnings and the existing theoretical conceptualizations is presented, and then rethinking shared leadership from the constructive and relational perspective is discussed. After the theoretical discussion, the research problem of this study is operationalized into a set of research questions.

The second part consists of empirical research. The research process of this study is presented in the third chapter, which begins by describing the paradigmatic and methodological issues associated with this study. Then, the case study approach with grounded theory methodology is utilized as the research strategy. After that, the ways the research data were produced and analyzed are discussed and presented. The results of this case study are presented in the fourth chapter. Chapter five discusses the findings of the study, their contribution, and the evaluation of the study. The concluding chapter proposes some practical implications of the study and suggests some areas for further research.

2 Shared leadership in teams as a subject of inquiry

This chapter concerns theoretical frameworks that could support studying shared leadership in the team context. In the research process, where theoretical perspectives and data analysis intersect, three perspectives have been selected that best seem to support studying shared leadership. The building blocks of the theoretical discussion are self-management as a team work design concept, the concept of shared leadership, and the relational nature of leadership as a social construct. Basically the paradigmatic backgrounds of these perspectives are different, but there are interfaces that touch upon each other. They all illuminate some angles of the phenomenon under study.

The first one, self-management as a teamwork design concept has taken the boldest steps toward articulating the concept of shared leadership. Self-management team designs have promoted the development of shared leadership e.g. through increased self-management, heightened trust and autonomy. Such designs in themselves do not necessarily result in widely distributed leadership influence in a team, however, as other factors, e.g. the internal or external team environment, may also influence shared leadership, or there is a need for some kind of a cognitive framework through which leadership might be shared. The second perspective, the concept of shared leadership considers shared leadership as a property of the 'system' and not of a single member. It can be said that "the effectiveness of leadership becomes more a product of those connections or relationships among the parts than the result of any one part of that system" (O'Connor & Quinn 2004, 423). The third one, the relational nature of leadership as a social construct, calls attention to the implications of the idea that leadership belongs to a community, such as a team, rather than to an individual. Instead sharing only some leadership attributes or tasks, the team should work actively together on leadership tasks.

On the basis of these perspectives, this chapter ends by the formulation of points of departure for the empirical inquiry into aspects of leadership interactions, processes and practices.

2.1 The nature of team work

The reawakening of interest in teams is related to wider changes in the world of work and organizations driven by economic, strategic and technological imperatives. The pressures of global competition, the need to consolidate business models in complex and shifting environments, and the pursuit of continuous innovation have led to a reappraisal of the team as a key element of the basic organizational architecture (e.g. Ancona & Bresman 2007; Kozlowski & Bell 2003). In this context, the joint action of individuals working together in a cooperative manner to attain shared goals through the differentiation of roles and functions, and the use of elaborate communication and coordination systems, are now viewed as essential to effectiveness and competitive advantage. This surge of interest in the use of teamwork has focused upon improving the performance outcomes of business processes. Teams are used in organizations for example to reduce costs and to improve such outcomes such as quality, productivity and process dependability as well as psychological benefits for the team members concerning self-belief and intrinsic motivation (for an overview, see e.g. Cohen & Bailey 1997; Kauffeld 2006; Tata & Prasad 2004; Yukl 2006).

The term 'team' typically refers to a group of two or more people who interact interdependently toward some common objectives or goals. For example Kozlowski and Ilgen (2006) define teams as being composed of individuals who to some degree (1) share a social identity as a unit, (2) possess common goals, (3) are interdependent in terms of tasks or outcomes, (4) have distinct roles within the team, and (5) are embedded in a larger organizational or societal context that they influence and are influenced by. As the focus in this research is on knowledge-based work teams, the interdependency of the team members is a critical feature of defining the essence of a team in organizational context (Salas, Rosen, Burke & Goodwin 2009). Key elements are also that the teams are empowered to attain goals that fit with the overall strategy of the organization and conform to goals of the business units within which the teams are nested, and that the teams are empowered to have the knowledge, skills, information, resources, and power to perform in a manner that enables them to make a difference (Mohrman, Cohen and Mohrman Jr (1995).

Katzenbach and Smith (1993) focus on performance in their definition of a team. In addition to team members having a common purpose, performance goals are connected to this purpose, for which everyone in the team is held mutually accountable. Katzenbach and Smith also believe that the concept of a team should be limited to a fairly small number of people with complementary skills, who interact directly. This helps also in distinguishing team from work groups, whose members do the same tasks jointly but do not require integration and coordination to perform the task (e.g. Forsyth 2010; Levi 2007). ‘Group’ is a more inclusive term than ‘team’. A team is not simply people who belong to the same group or who are co-acting in the same place. The term ‘team’ has largely replaced ‘group’ in the literature, but the latter predominates in many studies because ‘group’ is used as the root word in the terminology. Also in this research when referring e.g. to research on group dynamics, the term ‘group’ is used.

Organizations use teams in a variety of ways. Because of this variety, there are many ways of classifying teams (e.g. Levi 2007; Mohrman et al. 1995). Teams vary along a number of dimensions that have implications on how they are designed and managed. Organizations may establish teams for a number of different purposes. The purpose behind a team is related to the challenges of designing it and managing its performance. Teams can be formal units that appear on the organizational chart and report as a unit to the next level of the organization, or they can be “overlay” structures that include individuals who are members of various formal units and who report to various places. For example, work teams are established to perform the work that constitutes the core transformation processes of the organization (e.g. production teams, product development teams, consulting teams, sales and service teams). The outputs of work teams are products or services that are delivered to internal or external customers and their shared goals are phrased in terms of indicators of the effectiveness with which the products and services are delivered. Integrating teams are established to ensure that the work across various parts of the organization is co-ordinated (e.g. management teams), and improvement teams are established to make improvements in the capacity of the organization to deliver its products and services effectively (e.g. process redesign).

Each kind of team presents a set of challenges to those managing the team (e.g. Levi 2007; Mohrman et al. 1995). Work teams, which are accountable for a defined product or service, have a legitimacy that stems from their mission. They have responsibility for the strategies they employ in doing their work. Improvement teams, on the other hand, do work that sets the stage for others in the organization to change the way they do things. They can be successful only to the extent that others accept their ideas. Thus it is important that legitimacy be attributed to these teams by the groups who will be impacted. Their mandate has to come from formal leadership at the level at which the improvements are going to be made. The same matters arise for integrating teams that are not management teams. Their authority to integrate the work of various performing units comes from the formal leadership of a more inclusive unit. Thus, when an organization uses teams rather than individual workers to perform tasks, it gives the team some power and authority to control the operations of its members.

There has recently been an increase in the use of the term 'team' in settings that house knowledge work (e.g. DeNisi et al. 2003; Pearce 2004). The reason is clear. It is ever more difficult for any one person to have all the knowledge, skills, and abilities required for all aspects of knowledge work. This kind of a situation is typical in a wide variety of contexts ranging e.g. from cross-functional tasks in organizations to R&D labs, from education to consulting work. There is a need for knowledge-based resources which include all the intellectual abilities and knowledge possessed by employees, as well as their capacity to learn and acquire more knowledge (DeNisi et al. 2003). Thus, knowledge-based resources include what the employees have mastered, as well as their potential for adapting and acquiring new information.

The shift to team-based knowledge work is a result of both top-down and bottom-up pressures (Pearce 2004). The top-down pressures come from a more competitive and global environment causing firms to seek better ways to compete. This has increased the need for a more flexible workforce, a reduction in organizational response time, and full utilization of organizational knowledge, which can in part be achieved through the synergies of team-based knowledge work. The bottom-up pressures come from the changing nature of the workforce and the changing desires of employees. For example, a more highly educated workforce has greater knowledge

to offer to the organizations. Today's employees also desire more from work than just a 'paycheck'; they want to make a meaningful impact, which is increasingly achieved through team-based knowledge work (Mohrman et al. 1995).

In knowledge-based work settings teams can be seen as structural mechanisms through which task interdependencies can be worked out, issues involving trade-offs between various perspectives can be resolved, and solutions and approaches that build upon the diversity of relevant expertise and perspectives can be determined (Mohrman et al. 1995). In particular, knowledge-based teams differ from typical work teams in that they are comprised of members with different backgrounds (e.g. Uhl-Bien & Graen 1992). The major challenge in knowledge-based work settings is to integrate the work of various contributors. In these settings, teams are essentially established as forums where the various interdependent specialties can integrate their work to accomplish collective goals.

Another challenge with knowledge-work settings is related to the distinction between using teams as integrating mechanisms or as self-contained performing units in organizations (e.g. Levi 2007; Mohrman et al. 1995). The creation of self-contained units is an approach that reduces the need for information processing across the organization, because these teams can operate relatively independently. Teams as integrating mechanisms, on the other hand, enable coordination and integration and thereby increase the amount of information that is handled across the organization. Typically teams are used for either one or the other purpose, but knowledge-based work has often a need for both kinds of teams. The team needs to coordinate the efforts of different parts of the organization and to focus on the accomplishment of a particular segment of the work of the organization. The structural and process design challenges that result from the conflict between the team's efforts to cope with interdependence and their efforts to maximize self-containment are also challenges for leadership.

The organizational members the above type of team design structure are often both members of the discipline section of their own specialty as well as participants in other teams, working like in a matrix structure (e.g. Mathieu et al. 2008; Mohrman et al. 1995; Uhl-Bien & Graen 1992). In these team settings they are expected to work as a self-managed team and often without a formal leadership structure. While these

kinds of teams attend to the problem of dealing with organized complexity, they also present new problems and challenges to leadership. Individuals may be involved in one or more teams at a time, while continuing to report to their discipline section. As a result, the members operating in this design system may have multiple reporting relationships. For example, they may report to the discipline head of their respective section as well as to project leaders in any project they are involved with. Because of this unique structure of the teams, the leadership of these teams should differ from the traditional models used in many typical team-based structures.

2.2 Leadership in teams

2.2.1 The nature of leadership in teams

Effective team functioning is derived from several fundamental characteristics (Zaccaro et al. 2001). Teams need to define future directions and organize themselves to maximize progress along such directions. Thus, team leadership becomes a critical determinant of team performance. The team members need to integrate their individual actions and work with others in their team as they strive to accomplish the goals and objectives. Team dynamics can thus have an important influence on the performance of the team. Teams are also increasingly required to perform in complex environments where leadership and team performance may be dynamically and recursively related. The relationship between team performance and leadership can affect the evolution of the team, and as well as future leadership in the team and its performance (Day et al. 2006). Thus, team leadership can be considered an input to the team that influences mediating variables and leads to outcomes (e.g. performance) that can affect future inputs, such as leadership in subsequent periods (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson & Jundt 2005; Mathieu et al. 2008).

Conceptually, team researchers have converged on a view of teams as complex, adaptive, dynamic systems (McGrath, Arrow & Berdahl 2000). Over time and contexts, teams and their members cycle and recycle continually. They interact among themselves and with other persons in the contexts. These interactions change the teams, team members, and their environments in ways more complex than captured by simple cause-and-effect perspectives. As teams work together over time, they move through two interrelated kinds of performance cycles (Morgeson,

Lindoefer & Loring 2010). The first occurs with the passage of time as the team members gain experience of working with one another, and they move through a set of fairly universal experiences. What matters early in a team's life is likely to differ from what matters later, in part because of the accumulation of experiences and the history of the team. The second kind of performance cycle is episodic. As teams interact, they cycle through distinct planning and action phases (Marks, Mathieu & Zaccaro 2001). Planning phases are times of transition where upcoming work is evaluated and planned. Action phases are times when teams perform tasks in the fulfillment of a goal. As teams work together over time, they cycle repeatedly through planning and action phases, and their need to vary across these phases.

Needs arising during the planning phase include establishing a team charter where overall objectives are outlined, setting goals, developing positive team norms, deciding on a task performance strategy, developing a shared understanding within the team, and becoming clear on the distribution of knowledge within the team (Kozlowski & Ilgen 2006; Marks et al. 2001; Morgeson, DeRue & Karam 2010). Needs arising during the action phase include monitoring the output as the team makes progress toward the goals; monitoring systems inside and outside the team, such as people, resources, key stakeholders, and changing conditions; coordinating team actions; engaging in high-quality communication; monitoring team behavior and coaching to team members; and maintaining boundaries so that teams interface effectively with groups outside the team (Kozlowski & Ilgen 2006; Marks et al. 2001; Morgeson, DeRue & Karam 2010).

During the transition and action phases, interpersonal processes must be managed. Important interpersonal needs include fostering adequate team member motivation, promoting a sense of psychological safety, and managing the emotions and conflicts that can occur within the team (Marks et al. 2001). Given the centrality of these needs for team performance, team leadership can thus be viewed as oriented around team need satisfaction with the ultimate aim of fostering team effectiveness (Morgeson, DeRue & Karam 2010). Salas, Sims and Burke (2005, 560) define team leadership as the "ability to direct and coordinate the activities of other team members, assess team performance, assign tasks, develop team knowledge, skills,

and abilities, motivate team members, plan and organize, and establish a positive atmosphere”.

Zaccaro et al. (2009) have integrated existing frameworks into an overarching model of leadership and team dynamics (see Figure 3). This model rests on two central assumptions. First, the impact of effective team leadership lies on fostering greater interconnectivity, integration, and coherence among team members. Team leadership establishes the direct and indirect conditions that help team members work well together. It contributes to the reduction of process loss. “The focus of analysis resides at the nexuses of team members’ actions, not on how team leadership influences individual attitudes, beliefs, motives, or behaviors” (Zaccaro et al. 2009, 93) The second assumption of the model extends the first one by arguing that the influence of leadership on team performance and effectiveness is mediated mostly by its effects on team interaction dynamics (Zaccaro et al. 2009).

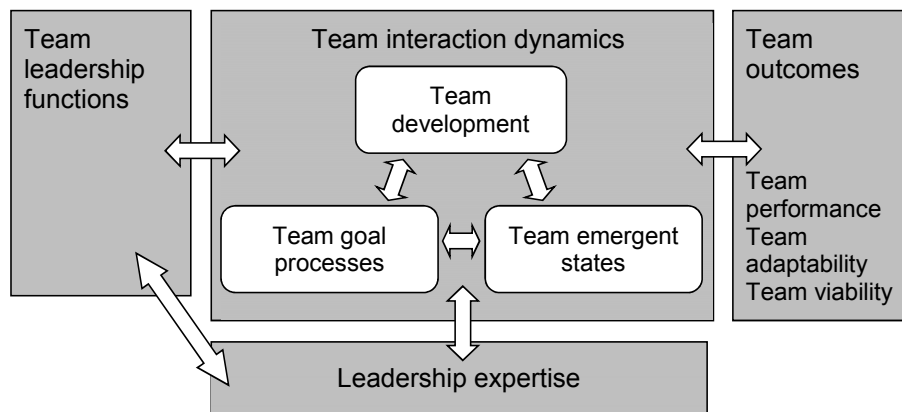


Figure 3. An integrative model of team leadership and team effectiveness

2.2.2 Approaches to leadership research in teams

Early work in the area of team leadership has applied individual- and organizational –level leadership theories to the team. The four historical approaches to research on leadership have different implications for organizations and teams. Reviewing leadership theory, Levi (2007) broke down its history into four main approaches that have dominated at different times: the trait approach (until the late 1940s), the behavioral approach (until the late 1960s), the contingency approach, and the

situational approach (until the late 1980s) (see also e.g. Parry & Bryman 2006; Yukl 2006). Research in these areas seeks to find out what types of leaders are likely to be successful and what factors determine leadership effectiveness. The paradigms of these leadership approaches shift with the progress from the static to the dynamic view of leadership with the trait and behavioral theories reflecting a personal approach, the situational theories an interpersonal approach, and then the contingency theories an approach which places situational factors towards the centre of understanding leadership.

The trait approach is based on the belief that good leaders have certain characteristics. The trait approach seeks to determine the personal qualities and characteristics of leaders (Parry & Bryman 2006). This orientation implies a belief that leaders are born rather than made. The research has tended to be concerned with the qualities that distinguish leaders from non-leaders or followers. For many writers concerned with leadership in organizations, the findings of such research has had implications for their area of interest because of the belief that the traits of leaders would distinguish effective leaders from less effective ones. For example, effective leaders would have more drive, honesty, leadership motivation, self-confidence, intelligence, knowledge of business, creativity, and flexibility (Liu & Liu 2006). The trait approach believes that leadership is mainly a personal attribute, and better leadership results from developing the personal competencies of leaders (Day 2000). The trait approach has drawn attention to the kinds of people who become leaders and in the process had great potential for supplying organizations with information about what should be looked for when selecting individuals for certain positions of leadership (Parry & Bryman 2006).

The emphasis on leadership style has changed the focus from the personal characteristics of leaders to their behavior as leaders. Behavioral theories assume that effective leaders are similar their behavior modes (Parry & Bryman 2006). Since leader behavior is capable of being changed, the focus on the behavior of leaders carries with it emphasis on training rather than selecting leaders, as with the trait approach (Levi 2007). Most behavioral theories describe leadership styles based on two dimensions of initiating structure (concerning jobs and tasks) and considerations (concerning people and interpersonal relationships) (e.g. Parry & Bryman 2006). The

challenge with this approach related to teams is how to see the role of the leader. Is a leader's primary role to organize and manage the task, or should the leader ensure that the social relations are good, the team members feel satisfied and motivated, and the group can maintain itself? The problem with this approach is that it pays too much attention to the leader perspective without considering the followers and situations where leaders exhibit their qualities and behaviors (e.g. Liu & Liu 2006).

The contingency approach attempts to combine behavioral characteristics of leaders with situational characteristics. Typically, this approach seeks to specify the situational variables that will moderate the effectiveness of different leadership approaches (Levi 2007). This development parallels the drift away from universalistic theories of the organization and the gradual adoption of a more particularistic framework which reflects the 'it all depends' style of thinking (Parry & Bryman 2006). For example, Yukl's (1989) multiple linkage model is a contingency theory related to leading teams. The theory states that successful performance of a team depends on the following intervening variables: member effort, member ability, organization of the task, teamwork and cooperativeness, availability of resources, and external conditions. Situational factors both directly influence these variables and determine which variables are most important. The role of the leader is to manage and improve these intervening variables. In the long run, the leader tries to make the situation more favorable by implementing improvement programs, developing new goals and directions, improving relations with the organization, and improving the climate of the team (Levi 2007).

Along the lines of contingency approach the situational approach questions the necessity of leadership (Levi 2007). It attempts to determine when leaders are needed and what factors can substitute for leadership. The situational approach assumes that there is no one best way that is transcendent across all situations, and further, the approach tries to discover the situational moderating variables that influence the effects of leader behaviors. From the teamwork perspective the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard 1993) is one of the most important ones. This theory links the leader's behavior to the characteristics of the group. The situational leadership theory is a developmental theory that assumes that one of the goals of leadership is to develop the group. As such, it is the most team-oriented of leadership

theories. Situational leadership starts with the assumption that there are four basic styles of leadership, based on a combination of task and people orientation. Leaders can be directing, coaching, supporting, or delegating. The appropriate style depends on the readiness level of the group. Group readiness is based on the skills of the group members, their experience with the task, their capacity to set goals, and their ability to assume responsibility. This situational framework demonstrates how both directive and socially centered support functions might vary as the group matures. For example, in the first stages of a group's life, commitment is likely to be high and task competence low. Here, leadership that is high in directiveness and low in supportiveness would probably work best. Conversely, a style high in supportiveness and low in directiveness is probably most effective during the third stage of a group's life when both morale and competence are high.

With the above leadership approaches, several researchers have noted that we know surprisingly little about “how leaders create and handle effective teams” (Zaccaro et al 2001), and there needs to be more focus on the leadership of teams (Hackman & Walton 1986; Zaccaro et al. 2009). Thus, the application, conceptual and empirical work on team leadership has most commonly been done with the approach that suggests that leader behavior should vary with the function being performed (see e.g. Burke et al. 2011; Hackman & Wageman 2005; Hackman & Walton 1986; Morgesson, DeRue & Karam 2010; Zaccaro et al. 2001; Zaccaro et al. 2009). This functional perspective is defined as a normative approach to describing and predicting group performance that focuses on the functions of inputs and/or processes (Wittenbaum et al. 2004). Three core assumptions define the functional perspective: (1) groups are goal-oriented; (2) group performance varies in quality and quantity, and can be evaluated; and (3) internal and external factors influence group performance via the interaction process.

This approach asserts that teams can be more effective as long as they are designed well, are composed of people with the requisite skills and knowledge, and have members who can work well with each other and with others outside the group (Cummings & Ancona 2005). The role of leadership is “to do, or get done, whatever is not being adequately handled for group needs” (McGrath 1962, 5; quoted e.g. in Hackman & Walton 1986). This approach defines team leadership in terms of social

problem-solving processes that advance the team's attainment of its performance goals. These processes include interpreting and diagnosing team problems, generating and valuating team solutions and implementing selected solutions (Zaccaro et al. 2001)

Zaccaro et al. (2001) have noted some distinctions regarding the functional approach. First, team leadership includes significant boundary-spanning and boundary-management activities. Team problems that need to be addressed by the leader will likely have their origins in shifting environmental dynamics. Second, leaders have discretion and choice in their decisions about team directions in problem solving: "Team actions that are completely specified or fully elicited by the situation do not require the intervention of team leaders" (Zaccaro et al. 2001, 454). Third, the perspective does not attempt to specify specific leadership behaviors but rather general behavioral sets that vary considerably across team situations. As Hackman and Wageman (2005, 273) note, "A functional approach to leadership leaves room for an indefinite number of ways to get key group functions accomplished, and avoids the necessity of delineating all the specific behaviors or styles a leader should exhibit in given circumstances – a trap into which it is easy for leadership theorists to fall." Thus, functional leadership models rest on the generic social problem-solving functions of leadership, without specifying particular stylistic ways of leading to solving team problems (Zaccaro et al. 2009).

Team leadership can also be understood with a number of potential sources of leadership. Teams can have various leadership structures (Morgeson, DeRue & Karam 2010), which refer to the existence and position of those occupying leadership roles. The leadership of teams can be seen as existing along two dimensions – formality and location. Formality refers to a continuum between one end where a formal leadership structure exists, consisting of individuals who hold the title, position, and authority of the team leader through appointment, and the other end where leadership is exercised informally by team members without any formal authority vested in them. Location refers to whether a leader occupies a position that is external to the team or internal to the team. Thus, team leadership can be distinguished by whether it falls at the formal or informal end of the spectrum and whether it is external or internal (see Table 1). Appendix 1 presents a representative

sampling (though not exhaustive) of key articles that include various combinations of these two dimensions formality, and locus of leadership.

Table 1. Different sources of team leadership

		Formality of leadership	
		Formal	Informal
Locus of leadership	Internal	Team leader	Shared
		Project manager	Emergent
	External	Coach Team advisor	Mentor Executive coordinator

The leadership field has focused the attention on the behaviors, mindsets, and actions of the leader in a team or organization, as seen in Appendix 1. For example, researchers have explored how leaders can help teams through a variety of coaching-related activities (Manz & Sims 1987; Wageman 2001), the role of leaders in promoting team learning and adaptation (Edmondson 2003; Kozlowski, Gully, Salas & Cannon-Bowers 1996; Wageman 2001), how team leaders manage events that occur in the team context (Druscat & Wheeler 2004; Morgeson 2005; Morgeson & DeRue 2006), the role of team leaders in managing team boundaries (Druskat & Wheeler 2003), how traditional leadership theories such as the transformational leadership theory operate in the team context (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen & Rosen 2007; Eisenbeiss, van Knippenberg & Boerner 2008; Schaubroeck, Lam & Cha 2007), and how leadership roles are shared in teams (Carson, Tesluk & Marrone 2007; Hiller, Day & Vance 2006; Pearce & Sims 2002).

As presented above, team leaders have been argued to engage in many kinds of behaviors to foster team effectiveness. Most of the work has extended traditional leadership theories to the areas of teams, neglecting the unique role of leaders in teams (Burke et al. 2011). Team leaders are heavily engaged in developing and maintaining the issues that facilitate a response to dynamic task and developmental contingencies. Despite this fact, it is important to recognize that e.g. the functional view of team leadership is deliberately inclusive when it comes to who satisfies team needs (Morgesson, DeRue & Karam 2010). Because multiple individuals are often

capable of satisfying team needs, it has been suggested that we “devote attention to the study of leadership rather than leaders,” in part because of the “observation that many every-day groups have different leaders in different situations” (McGrath 1962, 3; quoted in Morgeson, DeRue & Karam 2010). For example, Kozlowski, Watola, Jensen, Kim and Botero (2009) discuss fluid and flexible leadership that adapts to the contingencies of the task, work demands, members’ competencies and the relationships among them. The ‘leader role’ can be transferred to different members and rotated among them according to the circumstances. Team leadership can be thus conceptualized as “the process of team need satisfaction in the service of enhancing team effectiveness” (Morgeson, DeRue & Karam 2010, 8).

2.2.3 Self-management as a teamwork design concept

There are three basic options for organizing people into teams: a traditional work group, a traditional team, or a self-managed team (SMT) (Levi 2007). Traditional work groups are parts of the organization’s hierarchical system. Managers who control the decision-making process lead these work groups. Group members typically work on independent tasks that are linked by the supervisors or systems. Traditional teams are given some power and authority, so they have some independence in the organizational hierarchy. Their leaders are selected by the management and given some managerial power. Team members’ work activities are interdependent and coordinated by the leaders. SMTs are given more power and authority than traditional teams, and they are more independent of the organization’s hierarchy. The work of team members is highly interdependent, and all team members work together to coordinate the activities.

Teams are identified as self-managed when they are able to regulate their behavior on relatively whole tasks for which they have been established, including making decisions about work assignments, work methods, and scheduling activities (Cohen, Ledford & Spreitzer 1996). In addition to self-managed teams, the literature also refers to teams as autonomous (e.g. Herbst 1962), leaderless groups (Barry 1991), self-directed (e.g. Wellins et al. 1991), self-regulating (e.g. Cummings 1978), and empowered (e.g. Kirkman & Rosen 1999). The common attribute of all these teams is that they operate with a degree of autonomy and have responsibility for the entire

task (Mohrman et al. 1995). The main impact of SMTs is to shift responsibilities from the management to the team members.

2.2.3.1 *Autonomy as a group design construct*

The first major wave of writings about teams, that team members can and do take on leadership roles and functions that have been traditionally held by managers outside the team, came from the socio-technical systems approach. The autonomous or self-regulating work group was the central idea of the socio-technical approach. In 1951, Trist conceptualized the sociotechnical systems theory approach during group experiments in the coal-mining industry (see e.g. Cooney 2004; Engeström 2008). Based upon the socio-technical work design theory, the concept of the autonomous work group emphasized the organizational independence of the work unit. Work units were decoupled from organizational systems of monitoring and control (supervision) in order to internally self-regulate work tasks (e.g. Cooney 2004). Much of this self-regulation was based upon the tacit knowledge of group members about work tasks (e.g. Kauffeld 2006; Kontoghiorghes 2005). As Herbst (1962) makes clear in his study of coal mining work groups, autonomous work group members did not have fixed work roles, nor did they have standardized ways of recording and specifying task performance.

The composite work organization may be described as one in which the group takes complete responsibility for the total cycle of operations involved in mining at the coal-face. No member of the group has a fixed work role. Instead, the men deploy themselves, depending upon the requirements of the on-going group task. Within the limits of technological and safety requirements they are free to evolve their own way of organizing and carrying out their task (Herbst 1962, 4).

The socio-technical systems theory is a design process aiming at job satisfaction and improved productivity, focusing “on the interdependencies between and among people, technology, and the work environment” (Torraco 2005, 88). Socio-technical systems promote employee participation and a team-based approach that helps improve or change current processes (Jacobs, Keating & Fernandez 2000) and an environment of self-direction and self-management that fosters “more open and

organizationally transparent processes” (Thamhain 2004, 35). According to Kauffeld (2006), this process-oriented approach found in self-managing workplace practices focuses on knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors of teams that help improve quality in the workplace. Cummings (1978) saw originally the self-regulating work group as a way of improving employee job satisfaction whilst optimizing the performance of a technological system:

Self-regulating work groups are a direct outgrowth of socio-technical systems theory and design . . . The primary aim is to design a work structure that is responsive to the task requirements of the technology and the social and psychological needs of employees: a structure that is both productive and humanly satisfying (Cummings 1978, 626).

The internal control of work methods, job scheduling, job assignments and job supervision that characterized the autonomous work group was later supplemented by attention to the importance of skills formation and training within the group (Blumberg 1980). The multi-skills of group members became a defining characteristic of autonomous work groups alongside the internal control of work tasks (Cummings & Blumberg 1987, quoted in Cooney 2004). Cummings and Blumberg identify ‘autonomous’ group designs as ones that

. . . involve multi-skilled members controlling their own task behaviors around an overall group task. The task forms a relatively self-completing whole, and members are given the necessary autonomy, skills and information to regulate task behaviors and environmental exchanges. The group may help determine production goals, as well as perform such functions as inspection, maintenance, purchasing, and hiring new members (Cummings & Blumberg 1987, 45).

The widespread application of the autonomous work group -concept by the quality of work life -movement resulted in the development of varieties of the autonomous work group concept (see e.g. Cooney 2004). For example, Susman (1976) treated autonomy as a multi-dimensional property and developed a typology of ‘autonomy’ based upon the extent of group decision making. Susman’s typology included autonomy relating to decisions on the self-regulation of the work system within the

group; decisions on the self-determination of the work unit within the enterprise; and decisions on the self-management of the group within the hierarchy of the enterprise. Hackman (1986) identified group decision making regarding the performance of work, the monitoring and management of production processes, the design of the group itself, and the leadership and direction of the group, as being indicators of manager-led, self-managing, self-designing and self-governing groups, respectively. Ulich and Weber (1996) developed a scale of work group autonomy with different group activities and decision making categories.

The early work group designs aimed to produce a psychologically satisfying structure of predominantly manual tasks that complemented the automated equipment available to the work group. Group self-regulation involved the internal regulation of these manual tasks by the group, rather than the allocation of group members to tasks by managers. In this sense, the group members became more independent of direct supervision and control. The findings of studies also suggested that the socio-technical system of an autonomous work group may function well and survive in a stable, almost static environment but not necessarily in a more turbulent and innovative environment (e.g. Engeström 2008; Cooney 2004). Also, teams were no longer solely engaged with technological systems to achieve the team task. They were rather engaged with a raft of management control systems e.g. from production, maintenance and quality managements, through performance management systems, to systems for monitoring innovation and improvement (Cooney 2004). Thus, there was a need to change the concept of using teams and it was these forms of task control that should be the focus of team design rather than any nominal autonomy from direct supervision (Engeström 2008; Cooney 2004).

2.2.3.2 Empowerment as a team design construct

The team concepts of empowerment (Kirkman & Rosen 1999; Wellins et al. 1991) and self-management (Katzenbach & Smith 1993; Manz & Sims 1980, 1987) are often related to performance-oriented team designs. These concepts depart from the concepts of group autonomy in significant ways. The empowerment or self-management concepts focus upon the way the team and team members interpret and self-manage their work role within the organization, whereas the autonomy concepts focus upon the way the group and group members self-regulate their work tasks

(Cooney 2004). The central issue in empowerment is the issue of power (e.g. Conger & Kanungo 1988; Greasley et al. 2008). The rationale behind the empowering individual workers is that as they deal with situations on a daily basis, they are best qualified to make decisions regarding those situations (Pearce & Conger 2003). Thus, there are two distinct perspectives on empowerment: structural, which refers to organizational policies, practices and structures that grant employees greater latitude to make decisions and exert influence regarding their work; and psychological, with the increased task motivation that results from an individual's positive orientation to the work role (Greasley et al. 2008; Lee & Koh 2001).

Manz and Sims (Manz 1992; Manz & Sims 1980, 1987) argue for the efficacy of empowered teamwork concepts, noting that the internal control of work methods which characterizes the varieties of the autonomous work group has limitations. Self-management frequently promises more than it can deliver because whilst employees may exert influence over how things are done, they have no influence over what things are done or why. Despite the promises of self-management, employee influence is in reality frequently limited by power relations outside the group. Manz and Sims (op. cit.) argue that the intrinsic motivation of employees can be enhanced by addressing the extent of team power in the management and control hierarchy of the company. Manz (1992) treats self-management as a motivational property rather than a decision making attribute, with the degree of member 'self-influence' being the defining characteristic of the team.

Bandura's (1977) social learning theory was the theoretical foundation for Manz and Sims' self-management theory (Manz 1986; Manz & Sims 1980, 1987). The essence of the social learning theory lies in its integration of cognitive evaluation with environmental contingencies as the determinants of human behavior (Bandura 1977, see e.g. Cohen et al. 1977; Muthusamy, Wheeler & Simmons 2005). Behavior is caused and maintained not only by the consequences arising from external sources (e.g. control systems, performance standards, evaluation mechanisms), but also by the individual's self-generated evaluative consequences that regulate behavior internally (Cohen et al. 1997). Employees generate their own performance standards, conduct self-evaluation, regulate their behavior accordingly and also possess values, beliefs, and long-term goals (Manz 1986).

Manz (1986) points out that the self-system is the ultimate control for managing behaviors. The basic idea is that recognizing and encouraging employees' self-control systems provides a more viable means for controlling behavior than overreliance on organizational controls. This self-control process is called self-management (Manz 1986). Self-management is the active control by employees over their work environment and themselves that results in productive goal-oriented behavior. SMTs are then responsible for regulating the collective behavior of their members towards productive ends (Cohen et al. 1997; Manz & Sims 1987).

At the heart of the self-management approach is the idea that leaders should develop skills in the followers that promote their capacity to take more responsibility for their own direction and motivation (Lovelace, Manz & Alves 2007). A leader's role in a self-management situation lies in facilitating the development of self-control by employees so that they can successfully manage their work activities with less organizational control. The specific self-managing behaviors that the leader encourages include self-observation, self-goal setting, incentive modification (both self-reinforcement and self-criticism), rehearsal, and self-expectation (Manz 1996; Manz & Sims 1987). Self-observation is the gathering of information regarding the group's activities and performance, so that corrective action can be taken. Self-goal setting is the establishment of specific, challenging yet achievable goals by the work group. Self-reinforcement and self-criticism are the self-administration of rewards and criticism by the group and its members to increase desirable and reduce undesirable behaviors. (e.g. Cohen et al 1997; Manz & Sims 1987).

Wellins et al. (1991) focus on self-management as a defining characteristic of empowered work teams. Along with enlarged job responsibilities for the quantity and quality of production, Wellins et al. see the delegation of management responsibilities to teams as critical for team empowerment. If supervisory and managerial responsibilities are delegated to the team, then the group is said to be an empowered, self-managing, natural work team. Also Manz (1992) adds employee responsibility for strategic planning and direction to the list of new responsibilities. However, these kinds of new responsibilities were regarded as "provocative" e.g. by Ford and Fottler (1995, 23; quoted in Cooney 2004), who suggest that such empowerment may be an "ultimate goal of empowerment" that is rarely achieved.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) have examined the construct of power and empowerment and suggest that “the practice of empowering subordinates is a principle component of managerial and organizational effectiveness” (ibid. 471). They have conceptualized an empowerment model as a way of identifying conditions that foster powerlessness among subordinates so that effective self-efficacy empowerment tactics and strategies can be used to remove these conditions. Their model provides management with supervisory practices to aid in the empowerment of subordinates. They also suggest that “empowerment techniques play a crucial role in group development” (ibid. 471). Conger and Kanungo (1988) claim that empowerment involves a motivational concept of self-efficacy. This notion has been further refined by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) who have developed a cognitive model of empowerment. They define empowerment as increased intrinsic task motivation, and outline four cognitions, which they claim are the basis of worker empowerment: sense of impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice. A very similar definition of empowerment has been outlined by Lee and Koh (2001) who present four dimensions as describing the psychological state of the subordinate:

- Meaningfulness: the meaning of a value of a task goal or purpose judged in relation to an individual’s own ideals or standards.
- Competence: an individual’s belief in his/her capability to perform task activities skillfully.
- Self-determination (or choice): autonomy in the initiation and continuation of work behaviors and processes.
- Impact: the perception of the degree to which an individual can influence certain outcomes at work.

The broad expansion of the work role to enable participation has been seen to be intrinsically motivating for employees. Kirkman and Rosen (1999), for example, define the empowered work team in terms of its enhancement of individual team member motivation. The role efficacy of the team itself within the organization has also been seen to be motivational. The collective self-concept of group members, the perception that the team as a whole is effective, is also an important feature of empowered and self-managed teams. For example, the development of a group self-

concept, such as group potency (Cohen & Bailey 1997; Kirkman & Rosen 1999) is critical for group empowerment.

Despite of the basic idea that self-management could reduce the need for close supervision of individuals and groups while advancing, not sacrificing, organizational effectiveness goals (Manz & Sims 1980; Muthusamy et al. 2005), the role of an external leader has been a central focus in SMT research (e.g. Manz & Sims 1987; Manz, Keating & Donnellon 1990; Stewart and Manz 1995). The research has also examined what external team leaders do and how these intervention actions can impact team functioning positively. This has included e.g. supporting a team's self-management (Cohen et al. 1997), providing performance feedback (Komaki, Desselles & Bowman 1989), communicating with the team (Marks, Zaccaro & Mathieu 2000), and coaching the team (e.g. Edmondson 2003; Kirkman & Rosen 1999; Wageman 2001). The role of external leaders has also been seen at the interface between the teams and the organization (Batt 2004; Druskat & Wheeler 2003, 2004; Morgeson 2005) as building relationships, searching for needed information, gathering resources, and supporting the organization.

The research on SMTs has used a psychological or behavioral approach to understand how group task design, processes, and rewards affect the workers' attitudes and performance. For example, Salas et al. (2009) have updated 30 different teamwork attitudes, behaviors, and cognitions necessary for effective teamwork from different sources. From the point of view of leadership, the research offers some guidelines for empowering SMT development. Yukl (2006) has listed research from several sources (Cohen & Bailey 1997; Hackman 1986; Kirkman & Rosen 1999; Pearce & Ravlin 1987) and suggests that ideally SMTs need: clearly defined objectives; complex and meaningful tasks; small size and stable membership; substantial discretion over work processes; access to relevant information; appropriate recognition and rewards; strong support by top management; a competent external leader, and members with strong interpersonal skills.

Another approach to the development of SMTs is that self-management is not an either-or condition. Instead, it is seen as a continuum, and external leaders should guide and develop their teams constantly so that they become increasingly independent. For example, Kozlowski and colleagues (1999, 2009) have synthesized

the team development literature and integrated different developmental models (e.g. Gersick 1988; Tuckman 1965) with the cyclical nature of team tasks. They argue that teams progress through different developmental stages, during which the leadership requirements change. The team leader functions range from that of a mentor to an inductor, a coach, and finally to a facilitator, depending on the stage of team development. A newly created group, for example, often needs both effective coaching and a champion who can represent its decisions to other executives in the organization. Teams also depend on external leaders for help in acquiring resources.

A variety of studies have shown that the success of an SMT greatly depends on its external leader. However, researchers also agree that the external leader -role is more complex than the traditional manager role. For example, the external leader must absolutely avoid any heavy-handed attempts at managing. Case studies have shown that external leaders who struggle with their role usually end up exerting too much control, which then undermines the SMT's ability to get its work done (e.g. Carson, Mosley & Boyar 2004; Politis 2003). In contrast, Langfred's (2004) study on SMTs found that high levels of individual autonomy can create problems for the external leader, especially when the leader displays too much trust and practices little monitoring. Because of these kinds of issues, various researchers have labeled external leaders as the most common impediment to the success of SMTs, and because of that, many critics continue to question the effectiveness of SMTs and whether they practice true self-management (e.g. Carson et al. 2004; Tata & Prasad 2004). The continued presence of internal team leadership is not always evident in SMTs (Muthusamy et al. 2005; Pearce & Conger 2003), and the literature shows that SMTs have lacked e.g. shared leadership partly because these teams have been too dependent on the external or appointed leader (e.g. Cohen et al. 1997; Druskat & Wheeler 2004; Morgeson 2005; Pearce & Sims 2002).

Some theorists of self-managed work teams have acknowledged the team members' role in the leadership process. Thamhain (2004) found external leadership to be an important influence on performance, but not the only guiding principle for effectiveness. He points out the need for increased involvement of all stakeholders. Carson et al. (2004) suggest that team effectiveness is not simply a function and responsibility of external leaders. They argue that both leaders and individual team

members are responsible parties in performance. Erez, Lepine and Elms (2002) have examined the importance of design for SMTs in the teams' functioning and effectiveness. One of their evaluations concerns the effects of rotated leadership on team effectiveness. Their findings show that rotated leadership is a contributor to higher levels of voice and cooperation, contributing significantly to improved team performance. O'Carroll (2004) presents a high-performance empowerment model in self-managed product design teams. The model identifies true self-management, eliminating the need for supervisors or external leadership; instead, leadership of the team resides with project leaders. The study shows that this new workplace configuration improved communication and collaboration between employees at the lower levels of the organization and improved team productivity and the quality of the team design.

An added problem with self-management design concepts is that most of the existing leadership theories are inadequate for guiding SMT efforts. Currently, most leadership theories adopt a person-centered approach, where leadership is a quality that exists in one person – the leader. In this category, there are trait theories (that interpret characteristics that leaders must have), behavior theories (that describe behavioral leadership styles), situational theories (that suggest that a leader needs different traits or behavior in different situations), and the functional approach (that suggest that leader behavior should vary with the function being performed). Although certainly useful in classic supervisory settings, these theories tend to ignore leadership dynamics in the team context, where the development of the team almost always requires frequent shifts in leadership behavior.

How should leadership then be exercised in the leaderless settings – that is, in settings where differences in formal authority either do not exist or are downplayed? The demand for leadership does not simply disappear once the 'boss' is gone. In many ways, actually, the opposite holds true. It is argued that SMTs typically require even more leadership than conventional organizational units (e.g. Barry 1991). In addition to needing task-based leadership (such as managing performance with processes like defining, developing, reviewing and rewarding), they require leadership around group development processes (such as developing cohesiveness, establishing effective communication patterns). Without the presence of formal

authority, power struggles and conflicts around both task and process issues may surface more often, adding to the overall leadership burden that must be handled by the team (e.g. Mathieu et al. 2008).

2.3 The concept of shared leadership

2.3.1 Development towards the collective leadership approach

Gibb (1954, 884) states that “Leadership is probably best conceived as a group quality, as a set of functions which must be carried out by the group”. While the notion of leadership being shared among individuals in collectives is not new, its focused study is a relatively new phenomenon. The predominant amount of work that has been conducted on the leadership of collectives examines leadership as a vertical influence process, as it has been e.g. with self-managed team concepts. Shared leadership is a type of leadership approach which has come under greater focus with “the new leadership approaches” (House & Aditya 1997; Parry & Bryman 2006). As discussed above in chapter Approaches to leadership research in teams, the main approaches that have dominated leadership research at different times have been the trait approach, the behavioral approach, and the contingency approach (e.g. Levi 2007; Parry & Bryman 2006). The main focus of leadership research has thus shifted during the years, partly due to inconsistency in research results within each approach and the consequent need to find better models.

The term 'new leadership' has been used to describe and categorize a number of approaches to leadership that emerged in the 1980s, and which seemed to exhibit common or at least similar themes (Parry & Bryman 2006). Together these different approaches seemed to signal a new way of conceptualizing and studying leadership. The writers employed a variety of terms to describe the new kinds of leadership they were concerned with: e.g. transformational leadership (Bass 1985), charismatic leadership (Conger 1989), and visionary leadership (Sashkin 1988; Westley & Mintzberg 1989). Parry and Bryman (2006) argue that these streams of thought present a perspective on leadership as the articulation of visions and the management of meaning. It has also been often emphasized that the leader is a member of a group and leadership is actually a series of interaction processes wherein leaders inspire followers by creating common meaningful images of the future. In essence, these

theories posit that leaders motivate their followers to act beyond their own work expectations and help them to achieve high performance levels, inspiring high levels of group involvement through an articulated vision by the leader. It has also been argued that e.g. transformational leaders help followers achieve a higher level of group performance by elevating the needs of group members from self- to collective interests and inspiring higher levels of commitment to a common mission and/or vision (House & Shamir 1993).

Despite the augmentation effects shown for these leadership approaches with their emphasis on collective confidence, identity, and outcomes, the basic approach has been on followers' individual performance and effectiveness rather than examining its effects in group contexts (e.g. Cox, Pearce & Parry 2003; Jung & Sosik 2002). Thus, in recent developments, shared leadership -models has challenged the notion of leader-centricity by re-focusing the leadership issue on a group-level, and there has been an emerging debate in the field of leadership studies on the notions of shared perspectives on leadership (see e.g. Pearce & Conger 2003; Parry & Bryman 2006). This debate has emerged from the practical advantages of sharing leadership duties between two or more persons in suitable situations (Carson et al. 2007; Pearce 2004; Spillane 2006), and advantages that are increasingly becoming the subject of empirical research (e.g. Carson et al. 2007; Ensley, Hmieleski & Pearce 2006; Hiller et al. 2006; Mehra, Smith, Dixon & Robertson 2006; Pearce & Sims 2002; Pearce, Yoo & Alavi 2004; Sivasubramaniam et al. 2002; Solanski 2008; Taggar, Hackett & Saha 1999). Taken as a whole, these studies suggest that shared leadership is an important predictor of team performance, and provides an additional resource to teams beyond the leadership of any single individual.

The studies of shared leadership generally consider leadership to be an influence process that any team member can choose to engage in. The work on shared leadership recognizes the same complexity present within organizational settings as was discussed also as a rationale of empowerment. It relies on underlying tenets that "those who are doing the job are often in best position to improve it" (Jackson 2000, 16). This form of leadership has been argued to be most useful when the tasks are interdependent and complex. Thus, shared leadership is considered more effective

when the team develops complex tasks related to knowledge creation (e.g. research and development, consultancy, decision making) (Pearce 2004).

2.3.2 Defining shared leadership

Metaphorically, the shared leadership perspective emphasizes collaboration and the relational processes of co-construction as the bases of leadership, pointing at the relational, collectivist and non-authoritarian nature of leadership practices in contemporary organizations (Lindgren & Packendorff 2009; Uhl-Bien 2006). In the research literature, shared leadership, collective leadership, and distributed leadership are often used interchangeably, while team leadership is commonly viewed as a slightly different stream of research (Avolio et al. 2009; Harris 2008). This accumulation of allied concepts means that shared or distributed leadership is often used in a shorthand way to describe any form of devolved, shared or dispersed leadership practice in organizations. “It is this ‘catch all’ use of the term that has resulted in both the misuse of the term to mean any form of team or shared leadership practice and the misconception that distributed leadership means that everyone leads” (Harris 2008, 173). While it is certainly the case that all leadership is to some extent distributed or shared, as leadership is essentially organizational influence and direction, it does not mean that everyone in the organization leads simultaneously.

Shared leadership has been conceptualized in many ways (Carson et al. 2007; Friedrich et al. 2009), but the underlying theme in these definitions is that shared leadership involves the distribution of the leadership responsibilities within the team, while not negating the possibility of vertical leadership. Shared leadership is seen as a group process by which leadership is distributed among, and stems from, team members (Pearce & Sims 2000). Shared leadership has also been defined as leadership distributed among organizational units (Rawlings 2000) and a management model based on philosophy of shared governance, where those performing the work are the ones who best know how to improve the process (Jackson 2000). The quest for developing an integrative definition of shared leadership has been elusive. Avolio et al. (2009) declare that the most widely cited definition of shared leadership comes from Pearce & Conger (2003, 1), who define shared leadership as

... a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both. ... This influence process often involves peer, or lateral, influence and at other times involves upward or downward hierarchical influence.

In the team context shared leadership can be seen as a relational, collaborative leadership process or phenomenon involving team members who influence one another mutually and share duties and responsibilities otherwise relegated to a single, central leader. The key is that the team as a whole participates in the leadership process. At the core of the concept of shared leadership is the idea that leadership is not the preserve of an individual but a fluid or emergent property rather than a fixed phenomenon (e.g. Day et al 2004; Harris 2008; Spillane 2006). This conception of leadership moves beyond trying to understand leadership through the actions and beliefs of single leaders to understanding leadership as a dynamic organizational entity.

2.3.3 Historical basis of shared leadership

There are several theoretical contributions that have influenced the current understanding of the concept of shared leadership. As discussed above, shared leadership has a strong relationship with team design constructs, such as team autonomy, self-management and team empowerment, but there are several others as well. Pearce and Conger (2003) describe some historical underpinnings of the concept of shared leadership. They illustrate how the current conceptions of the phenomenon have been shaped by other contributions in the fields of leadership, organizational behavior, psychology, and teamwork.

Despite a strong historical emphasis on the command and control approach to leadership, an alternative perspective appeared in the 1920s. Mary Parker Follett introduced a leadership approach in 1924 that was radically different from command and control ideologies and scientific management (Follett 1924; see e.g. Shapiro 2003). Follett's new paradigm supported a shift from hierarchically-driven organizations to empowered and democratic structures that valued the employee (Martin 2008). This work focused on human relations and the psychology of social

groups and introduced the law of the situation. Follett's law of the situation suggested that rather than simply following the person in charge, one should follow the person with the most knowledge regarding a specific situation (Pearce & Conger 2003). Follett expressed the notion that leadership and a position of authority could be changed or shared, and that knowledge, not power, should be sought (Shapiro 2003). Follett's ideas about authority and leadership have been embedded in today's concept of knowledge-workers and learning organizations (Martin 2008).

The second instance of historical interest in shared leadership type concepts came from Bowers and Seashore. Bowers and Seashore's (1966, 249) research on the four-factor theory of leadership suggested that influence in terms of "support, goal emphasis, work facilitation, and interaction facilitation, may be provided by anyone in a work group for anyone else in that work group". Leadership can originate from supervisors or from peers in groups. According to Pearce and Conger (2003), Bowers and Seashore's research showed that this type of leadership could have a positive effect on organizational effectiveness.

Follett's concept of the law of the situation and Bowers and Seashore's mutual leadership provided the earliest theoretical foundation for the phenomenon of shared leadership (Pearce & Conger 2003). Other theoretical and historical contributions to the emergence of this phenomenon were made from the 1940s to the end of the 1990s. These contributions included e.g. role differentiation in groups, co-leadership, the social exchange theory, management by objectives, and later the research on participative goal setting and the emergent leadership theory (Pearce & Conger 2003). Other foundations related to the conceptualization of shared leadership that emerged in the 1970s and 1980s included e.g. participative decision making, vertical dyad linkage/leader-member exchange, substitutes for leadership, followership, the concept of shared cognition and connective leadership (Pearce & Conger 2003).

Benne and Sheats' research in group development led to a new understanding of groups and group leadership (Benne & Sheats 1948, see e.g. Gronn 2009). In contrast to traditional leadership thinking where one leader directs teams, Benne and Sheats argued that mature groups portray group roles in the form of shared leadership. According to Benne & Sheats (1948, 41)

Groups may operate with various degrees of diffusion of leadership functions among group members or of concentration of such functions in one member or few members. Ideally of course, the concept of leadership emphasized here is that of multilaterally shared responsibility.

This unelaborated observation about diffusion gave these authors a platform for classifying different group member's task and maintenance roles (Gronn 2009). They identified task accomplishments, such as initiator-contributor, information seeker, coordinator, and evaluator-critic. Other team roles focused on group building and maintenance, such as the roles of an encourager, compromiser, standard setter, and group observer (Benne & Sheats 1948). Benne and Sheats' study on role differentiation played a major part in defining the roles of group members, and their research led to the conclusion that some of these roles could be considered leadership roles (Pearce & Conger 2003).

Co-leadership established the possibility of questioning the traditional and formal hierarchy of leadership, suggesting that the leader's role can be shared. Early writings on co-leadership research appeared in the 1950s by Solomon, Loeffler & Frank (1953, cited by Pearce & Conger 2003) and by Bales (1954, cited by House & Aditya 1997). This work focused primarily on situations where two individuals simultaneously share one leadership position. Bales (1954) discussed two separate roles – that of a task leader and that of a social leader. According to Bales, it is rare for one person to be able to hold both roles. There is need for these positions to be held by two different persons, both of whom contribute to the effective performance of the group. The stability of the group is maximized when the two leaders recognize each other's roles and work together (House & Aditya 1997).

Some findings relevant to co-leadership have been reported by Waldersee and Eagleson (2002) with respect to the distribution of the task- and person-oriented leadership functions among top managers. These authors found that the implementation of a major change program was substantially more effective when the task- and person-oriented leadership functions were divided between at least two members. Hennis and Bennis (1999) point out that the co-leaders need to be able to both lead and follow, balancing their use of power. "As someone who knows both the executive experience and the subordinate one, the co-leader is a good model for a

new, more egalitarian hybrid better adapted to the needs of the new millennium - people who can both command and follow, as the situation requires” (Hennan & Bennis 1999, 19).

Social exchange is conceptualized as a joint activity of two or more actors in which each actor has something the other values. Basic assumptions (Homans 1958; cited in Flynn 2005; Pearce & Conger 2003) of the social exchange theory are that individuals engage in social interactions because they believe they could benefit through exchanges of rewards. The implicit or explicit task in exchange is to generate benefit for each individual by exchanging behaviors or goods that the actors cannot achieve alone. In other words, individuals involved in social exchanges are motivated by expectations of some form of reward (Flynn 2005).

Over time, many other theorists have expanded on Homan’s original social exchange concept. Berger, Cohen and Zelditch (1972) built on Homan’s approach and developed the expectation states theory by examining how status characteristics in a group impact social interaction. Seers’ (1989) research on team member exchange theory focused on the quality of the relationship between a member and the team. Blau (1964) introduced the critical component of trust during social exchange relationships. The lack of trust can lead to dysfunctional outcomes, such as cynicism, low commitment, low motivation, and lack of confidence between parties. Lawler (2001) developed an affect theory that explains how and when emotions, produced by social exchange, generate stronger or weaker ties to relations, groups, or networks. The affect theory of social exchange introduces an emoting actor, specifically an actor who responds emotionally to exchange and who attempts to understand the source of their emotions and feelings.

The essence of the social exchange theory, as it relates to shared leadership, is that this theory made a strong argument for the existence of influence in all social interactions. This influence is dependent on the social interaction of each person and on each person’s level of commitment to the relationship (Pearce & Conger 2003). As influence exists, it can be inferred that influence during social interactions is not only limited to the appointed leaders but also is distributed and found in everyone in the team (Pearce & Conger 2003). When team members acquire a high level of status

in the team, they can contribute to the transfer of influence to other team members and across the team.

Drucker (1954) conceptualized the theory of management by objectives as an organizational process that could be used to measure work against defined objectives. The essence of this practice was a process whereby both subordinates and superiors worked together to define organizational objectives and major responsibilities while using these measures to measure performance (Greenwood 1981). Management by objectives is a goal-setting technique for management as a means for leading and motivating organizational teams (e.g. Antoni, 2005; Pearce & Conger 2003). Management by objectives has been a useful process for many self-managed teams, such as product teams and process teams that focus and measure goal attainment. The theoretical contributions of management by objectives to shared leadership established that the appointed leader was no longer the only individual responsible for establishing organizational objectives (Pearce & Conger 2003). Instead, the role of management by objectives is a shared activity. This activity encourages participative decision making through shared goal setting by both the leader and the subordinates. Extensions to management by objectives followed in the participative goal setting research (e.g. Erez & Arad 1986; Locke & Latham 2002).

The concept of emergent leadership provided another conception of serial emergence and the notion that multiple leaders could emerge over the life span of a team (Pearce & Conger 2003). This concept primarily refers to the phenomenon of leader selection, by the members of a leaderless group (e.g. Gleason, Seaman, & Hollander 1978; Hollander 1961). In this concept “leaders are seen to be part of the situation, as ‘definers of reality’ for the group, who structure and organize the group’s activities” (Gleason et al. 1978, 33). While emergent leadership is typically concerned with the ultimate selection of an appointed leader, the concept of shared leadership might be thought of as ‘serial emergence’ of multiple leaders over the life of a team (Pearce & Sims 2002).

Emergent leadership is an interpersonal process through which an individual’s contribution to a team is accepted and recognized by other members of the team (Hollander 1961; Uhl-Bien & Graen 1992). Emergent leadership becomes especially important to team performance when the team faces a stressful situation or a crisis

(e.g. Helmreich & Collins 1967). Kickul and Neuman (2000) suggest that leaders emerge for three reasons: (a) their behaviors and social interactions with the group members, (b) their ability to promote goal commitment and objectives, as well as the members' acceptance, and (c) their influence in creating a cohesive team. An individual's task contributions are also strongly related to emergent leadership. For example, Hollander (1961) found that a team member must gain 'idiosyncrasy credits' from other members by demonstrating competence and by conforming to the expectancies that the members have of him or her; once these credits are gained, it becomes appropriate, in the eyes of the other team members, for the prospective leader to assert influence.

The participative decision-making theory contributed prominently to shared leadership. Originally developed by Vroom and Yetton (1973), the normative model of leadership behavior proposed the possible involvement of subordinates in decision-making processes (Field & Andrews 1998; Pierce & Conger 2003). With this model Vroom and Yetton (1973) tried to specify which of a set of alternative decision making processes, varying in opportunity for subordinate participation, should be used in different situations. The model provided a decision tree consisting of seven factors for managers to follow based on responses to a set of situations. The participative decision making model allowed managers to examine these factors before deciding what level of involvement they should allow the subordinates to have in the decision-making process. The components of this model provided managers with decision styles labeled autocratic, consultative, or group-based (Field & Andrews 1998). The Vroom and Yetton model was revised during the 1980's by Vroom and Jago (1988). This new version expanded the original Vroom and Yetton model with a more specific analysis of the decision situation. The new version contained five situational characteristics in addition to the original seven factors (Field & Andrews, 1998; Vroom & Yago 1988).

Latham, Winters, and Locke's (1994) study on the cognitive benefits of participation in decision-making suggested that participative decision-making improved self-efficacy thereby improving performance. The study suggested that participative decision-making was effective during complex tasks, further supporting "why participative decision-making in quality circles and autonomous teams is effective"

(Latham et al. 1994, 61). The Vroom-Yetton model and the Vroom-Jago model provided organizational leaders with new constructs and formulated a setting where shared leadership could emerge. The new environment promoted shared, quality decision-making for both managers and subordinates. The new decision-making model aided in the collaborative influence practice found in many shared leadership teams.

The Leader Member Exchange (LMX) theory is a theory about the development and effects of separate dyadic relationships between superiors and subordinates (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995). According to Graen and Uhl-Bien, central to the LMX theory is that leadership occurs when leaders and followers are able to develop effective relationships (partnerships) that result in incremental influence (i.e. leadership) and thus gain access to the many benefits these relationships bring. The theory describes how effective leadership relationships develop (Uhl-Bien 2006) among dyad 'partners' (e.g. leaders and members, team mates, peers) to generate bases of leadership influence (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995). A precursor to the LMX theory was the Vertical Dyadic Linkage Theory (VDL) (e.g. Graen & Schiemann 1978). Central to the VDL theory was the notion of differentiated dyadic relationships of followers with the same leader, giving rise to in-groups and out-groups. A shift of theoretical emphasis to LMX was seen by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) as the second stage in the evolution of the VDL model, focusing on the quality of the dyadic relationships and its effects on organizational outcomes.

The LMX theory alluded to shared leadership and the importance of the leader-follower relationship in the workplace. A specification of the attributes of high-quality LMX – trust, respect, openness, latitude of discretion – is as close as the theory comes to describing or prescribing specific leader behaviors. The theory implies that any leader behavior that has a positive effect on LMX quality will be effective (House & Aditya 1997). The LMX theory articulates also that when subordinates form a dyad relationship, they take on some of the leadership roles previously left to the leader. It is suggested that the role of subordinates during the LMX relationship can influence the leaders (Pearce & Conger 2003), indicating that upward influence can be a source of knowledge as it is with shared leadership.

Kerr and Jermier's (1978) substitute for leadership -model questioned the need for hierarchical leadership. The literature on substitutes for leadership suggest that certain conditions, such as highly routinized work or professional standards, may serve as substitutes for a social source of leadership (Pearce & Conger 2003). Substitutes are standard procedures that provide enough information to subordinates about what needs to be accomplished, and therefore reduce the need for formal leadership. Neutralizers, on the other hand, are procedures that focus on the effects of tasks or leaders' relationship-oriented behaviors, preventing leaders from influencing the subordinates' attitudes and effectiveness positively or negatively (Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater & James 2002).

Substitutes for leadership include any characteristics of the subordinates, task, or organization that ensures that the subordinates will clearly understand their roles, know how to do the work, be highly motivated, and be satisfied with their jobs. Kerr and Jermier (1978) suggest that cohesive work groups could serve as substitutes for leadership. If autonomous teams work together effectively, sharing knowledge and achieving their goals, appointed leaders might not be needed for teams to accomplish their mission and required goals. For example, "if team members are actively involved in developing the vision for their team, it may be possible that a strong visionary leader is not necessary for the team to focus its distal goals" (Pearce & Conger 2003, 11).

The followership theory provided the notion that good followership skills are needed in teams and within organizations. If shared leadership is to emerge within a team, "team members need to be able to clearly recognize when they should be leading and when they should be following" (Pearce & Conger 2003, 12). Followership research, consistent with Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) description of 'follower-based' approaches, adopts the follower as the primary focus and explores how followership behaviors are related to organizational outcomes of interest (e.g. leadership, performance). Focus on followership helps increases our understanding of the leadership process by adding to current typologies of leader styles and behaviors, and descriptions of follower styles and followership behaviors (Pearce & Conger 2003).

For example, Kelly (1988) has conceptualized followership with an effective followership model that provides a basis for distinguishing effective followers from

ineffective ones. Kelly's model includes four essential qualities that effective followers acquire: effective followers (a) strive to manage themselves, (b) are committed to the organization and its overall goals, (c) build their own competence and focus their efforts on maximizing their impact to the organization, and (d) are courageous, honest, and credible. Later Kelly (1992) has provided a different conception on followership with a model that categorizes followers according to the dimensions of their thinking and behaviors. In the first dimension, the followers are classified according to their ability to be independent critical thinkers and the second dimension describes the followers' behavioral characteristics.

The theoretical foundation of shared cognition contributed to the conceptualization of shared leadership. With the focus on teams, researchers have taken a strong interest in the role that shared cognition may play in teams as an effort to develop a deeper understanding of team dynamics and team effectiveness (e.g. Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Converse 1990, Ensley & Pearce 2001, Klimoski & Mohammed 1994, Knight et al. 1999). Shared or team cognition refers to the mental models collectively held by a group of individuals that enable them to accomplish tasks by acting as a coordinated unit (Cooke, Gorman & Rowe 2009). Thus "if more than one individual is involved in planning and these individuals depend on each other for different aspect of planning, there is team cognition" (Cooke et al. 2009, 158).

The concept of team cognition was first proposed as a powerful explanatory mechanism for understanding interactions in effective teams (Cannon-Bowers et al. 1990; Cooke, Salas, Cannon-Bowers & Stout 2000; Klimoski & Mohammed 1994). Team cognition enables the members to formulate accurate teamwork and task work predictions, adapt their activities and behaviors in a collaborative way, and thereby increase overall team effectiveness (Cannon-Bowers & Salas 2001). Without well-formed team cognition, team members will not be able to share knowledge and information, coordinate each other's activities, resolve conflicts, or negotiate agreed-upon solutions effectively (e.g. Cannon-Bowers & Salas 2001; Ensley & Pearce 2001; Klimoski & Mohammed 1994; Knight et al. 1999).

The shared cognition theory advances our understanding of shared leadership by providing a cognitive framework through which leadership can be shared (Pearce & Conger 2003). The importance of shared cognition to the development of shared

leadership is that shared cognition is an essential group process of shared understanding and team mental models for individuals to work collectively and achieve a common goal (Klimoski & Mohammed 1994). According to Pearce and Conger (2003, 13) without shared cognition and its cognitive framework, “it seems unlikely that team members would be able to accurately interpret influence attempts within the team, and the potential effectiveness of shared leadership would be seriously limited.”

The concept of connective leadership fosters collaborative work practices among diverse groups of individuals. This work practice allows for sharing of knowledge and ideas to achieve a common goal (Pearce & Conger 2003). The concept of connective leadership (Lipman-Blumen 1996) focuses on the ability of leaders to develop interpersonal connections both internal to the team and in external networks. Connective leaders “engage in many forms of collaboration – even with traditional competitors” (Lipman-Blumen 2000, 40). These types of leaders act as mentors who seek to connect their own vision with others in the organization to help achieve group and organizational goals. Lipman-Blumen’s (1996) connective leadership model consists of three major behavioral domains and nine categories of achieving styles. This model provides a framework that can assist leaders to make use of the “most positive aspects of diversity and interdependence” (Lipman-Blumen 2000, 40).

2.4 Antecedents of shared leadership in teams

Organizational studies investigating shared leadership expose the complexity of issues surrounding the presented models, the conditions which engender successful implementation and practice of shared leadership, the importance of communication, and problems associated with shared leadership. Different studies where shared leadership has been related e.g. to distinct behaviors, competencies, and roles have been carried out.

2.4.1 Components of shared leadership

There are many dimensions, components, and factors which affect shared leadership. During the last decades, researchers have put forth several theoretical models and frameworks in the hope of explaining the shared leadership phenomenon. For example, Perry et al. (1999) have developed a model of shared leadership within the

context of empowered selling teams. They identified transactional, transformational, directive, empowering, and supportive behaviors as being tied to shared leadership. Transactional leadership behaviors involve creating and maintaining reward contingencies (e.g. Bass 1985; Burns 1978). In other words, the leader offers certain material rewards in exchange for compliance and performance. Transformational leadership behaviors entail being charismatic, intellectually stimulating, and inspirational (e.g. Bass 1985). A key aspect of the transformational leadership style is the development and communication of an appealing high-level vision that is capable of eliciting an emotional response from others. Directive leadership behaviors include assigning tasks and roles, issuing commands, and monitoring the work closely (e.g. Pearce & Sims 2002). Empowering leadership behaviors encourage the development of taking responsibility for one's own work behaviors, and supportive behaviors facilitate the social development of the team (e.g. Conger & Kanungo 1988). Further, this model proposes that when teams engage in these behaviors, critical affective (e.g. commitment, satisfaction, potency, cohesiveness), cognitive, and behavioral (e.g. effort, communication, citizenship behavior) outcomes result. These outcomes result in qualitative and quantitative markers for team effectiveness.

Ensley et al. (2003) have examined top management teams when developing a model for the influence of shared leadership on promoting key affective and behavioral components related to team effectiveness, as well as identifying moderating variables of this relationship. Specifically, Ensley et al. argue that shared leadership is related to the development of cohesion and shared vision, which, in turn, is related to team effectiveness. They identify possible contextual moderating variables (e.g. time, resource constraints, risk, and ambiguity) that impact the shared leadership cohesion and shared vision relationships. Cox et al. (2003) propose a shared leadership model as applicable to new product development teams. Cox, Pearce and Perry present independent variables of vertical leadership, team formation, boundaries of the team and its members, leadership support, and the level of empowerment that can support shared leadership.

Wood (2005) explored which factor is the most significant to shared leadership in management teams and found that empowering team behaviors are positively related to shared leadership and that the "development of shared leadership in a management

team depends largely on the increasing behaviors that team members experience” (Wood 2005, 64). Surprisingly, team structure (horizontal) does not have a significant effect on shared leadership. Wood also indicates that shared leadership exhibits four distinct dimensions that contribute to team effectiveness: “joint completion of tasks, mutual skill development, decentralized interaction among personnel, and emotional support” (Wood 2005, 76). In a qualitative study, Jackson (2000, 168) determined that four constructs vital to the understanding of shared leadership highlight the significance of its relational aspects: “accountability, partnership, equity, and ownership”.

Other research has put forth several competencies that are said to foster shared leadership. For example, Lambert (2002) suggests the ability to: negotiate win-win solutions through team learning, to influence follower behavior, problem solving within a systems framework, and to use shared visioning to empower members. Additionally, an examination of the role theory literature by Carson et al. (2007) produced four roles (navigator, engineer, social integrator, and liaison) which yielded utility to team members without a formal title or position of authority, as is often the case with shared leadership. When these roles manifest within a team, there appears to be a clear team direction and purpose (navigator), structuring of team roles, functions, and responsibilities (engineer), development and maintenance of team coherence (social integrator), and development of relationships with key external stakeholders (liaison). In an examination of these roles within teams, Carson et al. found that shared leadership was positively related to performance.

Pearce and Manz (2005) propose five different factors influencing the conditions under which shared leadership may emerge. These factors are the level of urgency, the importance of employee commitment, the need for creativity and innovation, the level of interdependence, and the degree of complexity. Walker, Smither, and Waldman (2008) have identified the following leadership indicators in teams that set them apart from vertical leadership: (a) the work team resolves differences to reach agreement, (b) work is distributed properly to take advantage of the members’ unique skills, (c) information about the company and its strategy is shared, (d) teamwork is promoted with the team itself, and (e) the team works together to identify opportunities to improve productivity and efficiency.

Besides work on the models and frameworks of shared leadership, research has delineated some conditions which may impact the emergence of shared leadership. For example, Conger and Pearce (2003) discuss conditions like geographic dispersion, demographic heterogeneity, team size, skill heterogeneity, and maturity. Geographic dispersion, large team size, and demographic heterogeneity are expected to have a negative impact on the likelihood of shared leadership emerging as coordination and communication. Conversely, skill heterogeneity should facilitate the emergence of shared leadership, as different skills are often needed during the team's life cycle. Teams with breadth in their abilities are more likely to be able to engage effectively in shared leadership, given the right climate and the members being comfortable with and cognizant of the possession of different skills. So, the models generally assume that time is required in team development. In more mature teams, for example, effective relationships are likely to have emerged over time as the members have worked together to negotiate the challenges of proximity, ability, diversity, and other factors (Cox et al. 2003). As a result, it is expected that shared leadership is more likely to emerge among more mature teams

2.4.2 Internal team environment

Carson et al. (2007) propose that shared leadership is facilitated by an overall team environment that consists of three dimensions: shared purpose, social support, and voice. They refer to these dimensions collectively as an internal team environment enabling shared leadership because they work together to produce the kind of team context that encourages team members' willingness both to offer leadership influence and to rely on the leadership of the other team members. Katz and Kahn (1978) argue that for shared leadership to emerge, two sets of activities must occur. First, the members of a team must offer leadership and seek to influence the direction, motivation, and support of the group. Second, the team as a whole must be willing to rely on leadership by multiple team members.

Shared purpose, the first dimension of an internal team environment enabling shared leadership, exists when the team members have similar understanding of their team's primary objectives and take steps to ensure a focus on collective goals (Carson et al. 2007). The importance of defining and establishing a shared purpose for the team can be seen across a variety of studies that have examined leadership processes in

teams (see e.g. Morgeson, DeRue & Karam 2010). This work has demonstrated that team members who have a common sense of purpose and agreed-upon goals are more likely to feel motivated, empowered, and committed to their team and work (e.g. Barry 1991; Cohen et al. 1997; Kirkman & Rosen 1999; Knight, Durham & Locke 2001). These heightened levels of motivation, empowerment, and commitment that individuals experience when their team possesses a shared purpose increase the willingness of the team members to share the team's leadership responsibilities (Avolio, Jung, Murry & Sivasubramaniam 1996).

There are at least three reasons why the leadership function of creating shared purpose or setting common goals are important. First, at the individual level, the goal setting theory (e.g. Locke & Latham 2002) suggests that clear and challenging goals are important for directing individual action and motivating individuals to achieve performance targets. Second, at the team level, the goal setting process can help teams form a common identity among individual members and enhance the team's commitment to team goals (see e.g. Yukl 2006). Third, when team members participate in the goal setting process actively, the team is more committed to its goals and acts as a more cohesive unit (Cohen et al. 1997; Knight et al. 2001).

The second dimension of an internal team environment that supports shared leadership is social support, which is defined as the team members' efforts to provide emotional and psychological strength to one another (see e.g. Carson et al. 2007). The team members support one another through encouraging and recognizing individual and team contributions and accomplishments (Marks et al. 2001). This helps to create an environment where the team members feel that their input is valued and appreciated. When participating in a team actively and feeling supported, the team members are more likely to work cooperatively and develop a sense of shared responsibility for team outcomes (Kirkman & Rosen 1999).

Numerous researchers have discussed the importance of tending to the team's social environment (Fleishman et al. 1991; Hackman & Walton 1986; Marks et al. 2001), with social roles consistently emerging as critical in team contexts (see Morgeson, DeRue & Karam 2010, for a summary). This support function occurs throughout the task cycle when it is particularly important to tend to the team's social environment and to address interpersonal issues within the team that may interfere with the team's

performance. Social support is associated also with group maintenance and culture (Yukl 2006), leader supportive behaviors (e.g. Druskat & Wheeler 2003; Pirola-Merlo, Hartel, Mann & Hirst 2002), and developing and maintaining a team by providing “interpersonal glue” that helps build a strong internal social network (Barry 1991).

The third dimension of the internal team environment is voice. Carson et al. (2007) define it as the degree to which a team’s members have input into how the team carries out its purpose. Voice is associated with “interaction facilitation / participative” behaviors in teams (see e.g. Seers, Keller & Wilkerson 2003), and these types of behaviors can result in higher levels of social influence among the team members through increased engagement and involvement. In addition, voice has been associated with participation in decision making and constructive discussion and debate around alternative approaches to team goals, tasks, and procedures (De Dreu & West 2001), which can improve the amount of collective influence, involvement, and commitment relative to important team decisions. Thus, the presence of high levels of voice in a team should create an environment where people engage in mutual leadership by being committed to and becoming proactively involved in helping the team achieve its goals and objectives, and challenging each other constructively in the pursuit of group goals (Carson et al. 2007).

2.4.3 External conditions

The organization as a whole can also play a significant part when developing shared leadership. There are both structural and cultural aspects that can impact the emergence of shared leadership. Much work has been done on the influence of organizational structure on different processes, such as innovation and organizational strategies (see e.g. Friedrich et al. 2009). There is reason to expect that structural issues, such as hierarchy and work flow processes may also influence shared leadership (Conger & Pearce 2003). For instance, an organization with a highly rigid hierarchy may not functionally allow for the distribution of the leadership role, but may also communicate, via the structure, a culture that is not supportive of diverting from defined leadership roles. Additionally, the channels of information flow may dictate how leaders are able to access information in their network or how a network may be structured to begin with (Friedrich et al. 2009). For instance, organizations

where cross-functional teams and workflow are interdependent among the members, more collective leadership may emerge because the structure forces information exchange and awareness of each other's roles.

An organization's culture can play an important role in whether collective leadership occurs. There has been significant work on organizational culture, its many manifestations (e.g. culture for creativity, culture for safety), and the effect that it may have on different processes (Ostroff, Kinicki & Tamkins 2003). An organization's culture consists of a set of assumptions about their shared beliefs and values that are stable and passed down to new members (Schein 1992). The values that are communicated through the organization's culture can, ultimately, have a significant impact on the behavior of individuals within the organization (Ostroff et al. 2003). Therefore, to foster shared leadership, an organization may need to create specific organizational conditions that communicate that different elements of the shared leadership process are valued. For instance, it is important that the organization values collaboration, interacting with one another, sharing information, understanding each other's networks and roles, and understanding that a formal leader may not always be the highest level of authority within a team (Friedrich et al. 2009).

Regarding the external context, support by external leaders is important. The emergence of shared leadership does not negate the possibility of vertical leadership. Scholars studying shared leadership and leadership in self-managing teams have noted the critical role of external team leaders in the development of team members' motivation and capabilities to lead themselves (e.g. Pearce 2004). When discussing the role of an external leader, researchers have frequently stressed the importance of coaching behaviors, which Hackman and Wageman (2005, 269) define as external team leaders' "direct interaction with a team intended to help team members make coordinated and task-appropriate use of their collective resources in accomplishing the team's task". Researchers have identified different types of team coaching, distinguishing between forms that are more supportive and reinforcing of a team's self-leadership and those that focus on identifying team problems and engaging in active task interventions that interfere with the team's autonomy and self-management (Morgeson 2005; Wageman 2001). Supportive coaching is more closely

connected with the development of team self-management, initiative, and autonomy, whereas active coaching is more likely to undermine these team characteristics and possibly inhibit the development of shared leadership. Supportive coaching can also be distinguished from other external team leadership functions, such as designing a team and its task (Wageman 2001) and facilitating boundary management (Druskat & Wheeler 2003).

Through supportive coaching, external team managers can contribute to the development of shared leadership in a variety of ways. First, by engaging in such behaviors as encouraging, reinforcing, and rewarding instances in which the team members demonstrate leadership, supportive coaching fosters a sense of self-competence and team independence among the team members (Manz & Sims 1987). When the team members believe that they have significant autonomy and are confident in their skills for managing the work of their team, they should be more likely to demonstrate leadership. Supporting this assertion, Wageman (2001) found a positive association between supportive coaching by a team manager and self-management by team members. Second, by providing a team with encouragement and support, external coaching can help build a shared commitment to the team and its objectives, which can reduce free riding and increase the likelihood that the team members will demonstrate personal initiative (Hackman & Wageman 2005). Third, by giving the team suggestions about appropriate task strategies that ensure that their activities are well aligned with the work requirements and demands (Hackman & Wageman 2005), supportive coaching offers the team members greater clarity on how to best manage their work and processes. Thus, the team members are more likely to influence each other because they share this understanding.

External leadership has also been hypothesized to play a key role in creating the conditions necessary for the emergence of shared leadership. For example, Perry et al. (1999) suggest that both vertical leadership and team characteristics (i.e. ability, proximity, maturity, diversity, and size) are important in creating the conditions which foster the emergence of shared leadership. They suggest that the vertical leader is responsible for the generation of a team design that fosters the emergence of shared leadership, places and manages appropriate boundary conditions, and enacts facilitative and contingent leadership behaviors. Pearce (2004) extends the research

on conditions that facilitate shared leadership by suggesting that, in addition to vertical leadership, the organizational context can facilitate the emergence of shared leadership. Specifically, organizations need to enact training, development, and reward systems that encourage and reward shared leadership behaviors.

2.4.4 Self-leadership as an individual-level antecedent

Self-leadership (Houghton et al. 2003; Manz 1986; Manz & Sims 1980; Neck & Houghton 2006) is the influence that individuals use to control their own behavior and thoughts. The concept of self-leadership emerged (e.g. Manz 1986) as an expansion of self-management (e.g. Manz & Sims 1980). Self-leadership expands on self-management behaviors, incorporating control and regulation components, as well as emphasizing the importance of intrinsic motivation resulting from the inherent rewards of completing a task. In short, self-management incorporates leadership substitutes addressing how to complete a given task, while self-leadership incorporates what should be done and why, in addition to addressing how the task should be completed (see e.g. Manz & Neck 2004; Neck & Houghton 2006). Self-leadership thus encompasses the processes through which individuals influence themselves to self-direct and self-motivate their own performance. The fundamental idea behind self-leadership is that individuals look first within themselves for the necessary tools and strategies to motivate and control their behavior and thinking (Boss & Sims 2008).

Self-leadership consists of specific behavioral and cognitive strategies designed to influence personal effectiveness positively. Self-leadership strategies are usually grouped into the three primary categories of behavior-focused strategies, natural reward strategies and constructive thought pattern strategies (e.g. Neck & Houghton 2006). Behavior-focused strategies strive to heighten an individual's self-awareness in order to facilitate behavioral management, especially the management of behavior related to necessary but unpleasant tasks (Manz & Neck 2004). Behavior-focused strategies include self-observation, self-goal setting, self-reward, self-punishment and self-cueing. A person must know what it is that he is doing, or has been doing, before attempting to change his/her behavior. Self-observation involves increasing self-awareness and determining how, why, and when one behaves in a certain way (Boss & Sims 2008). After raising self-awareness through observation, self-

evaluation helps to determine the degree to which particular behavior is positive or negative, desirable or undesirable, and necessary or unnecessary.

Self-goal setting creates a deadline for a desired end-state. Rather than having this goal set by someone else, the goal is self-assigned in order to provide influence toward some end. The process of setting challenging and specific goals can increase individual performance levels significantly (Locke & Latham 2002). Boss and Sims (2008) suggest that this particular aspect of self-leadership is likely the most critical. Managers can especially enhance this part of self-leadership by encouraging participative self-goal setting. The rewards set by an individual along with self-set goals, can aid significantly in energizing the effort that is necessary to accomplish the goals (e.g. Manz & Neck 2004). Self-reward is a way of congratulating oneself on accomplishing a goal, no matter how small. The reward must be concrete and of some value to the individual if it is to provide sufficient leverage for action. Self-punishment or self-correcting feedback can consist of a positively framed and introspective examination of failures and undesirable behaviors leading to the reshaping of such behaviors (D'Intino, Goldsby, Houghton & Neck 2007).

Concrete environmental cues can serve as an effective means of encouraging constructive behaviors and reducing or eliminating destructive ones (Manz & Neck 2004). Cueing strategies involve manipulating the external environment to encourage desirable behaviors and to reduce undesirable or ineffective behaviors (Boss & Sims 2008). Cueing can involve changing the physical environment, such as rearranging desk placement to reduce visual distraction, as well as making lists, notes, or other types of reminders to help maintain attention on the achievement of a goal (D'Intino et al. 2007).

Natural reward strategies are intended to create situations where a person is motivated or rewarded by inherently enjoyable aspects of the task or activity (Manz & Neck 2004). There are two primary natural reward strategies. The first involves building more pleasant and enjoyable features into a given activity so that the task itself becomes naturally rewarding (Manz & Neck 2004). The second strategy consists of shaping perceptions by focusing the attention away from the unpleasant aspects of a task and refocusing it on the task's inherently rewarding aspects (Manz & Neck 2004). Both strategies are likely to create feelings of competence and self-

determination, two primary mechanisms of intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan 1985, cited e.g. by D'Intino et al. 2007; Neck & Houghton 2006).

Constructive thought pattern strategies deal with the management of cognitive processes and include three primary tools for shaping thinking patterns: self-analysis and improvement of belief systems, mental imagery of successful performance outcomes, and positive self-talk (Manz & Neck 2004). The effective utilization of these specific cognitive strategies tends to facilitate the formation of constructive thought patterns and habitual ways of thinking, which can impact performance positively (Manz & Neck 2004). More specifically, individuals can examine their thinking patterns in order to identify, confront and replace dysfunctional beliefs and assumptions with more rational ones to facilitate more constructive thought patterns (Manz & Neck 2004). Through mental imagery, it may be possible to experience behavioral outcomes symbolically prior to actual performance, and individuals who envision successful performance of an activity in advance are much more likely to perform successfully when faced with the actual task (Manz & Neck 2004). Finally, self-talk has been defined as what we covertly tell ourselves (Neck & Manz 1996), and it generally involves cognitive evaluations and reactions to oneself and one's environment. Through a careful analysis of self-talk patterns, individuals can learn to suppress or eliminate negative and pessimistic self-talk while fostering and encouraging optimistic self-dialogues (Manz & Neck 2004).

The self-leadership literature has suggested a number of predictable outcomes or dependent variables thought to be associated with the application of self-leadership strategies (see e.g. Neck & Houghton 2006). These include e.g. commitment, independence, creativity/innovation, trust, potency, psychological empowerment, and self-efficacy. These outcomes may serve as the mechanisms that affect individual, team and organizational performance.

Commitment and independence are two of the more commonly suggested outcome variables in the self-leadership literature (e.g. Houghton & Yoho 2005). Individuals engaging in self-leadership often develop a sense of ownership over their tasks and work processes. As a result, self-leading individuals may demonstrate higher levels of commitment to their tasks, goals, teams or organizations than individuals who are not engaging in self-leadership (e.g. Bligh et al. 2006; Houghton et al. 2003;

Houghton & Yoho 2005). Likewise, individuals practicing self-leadership may experience greater feelings of control and autonomy, leading to heightened levels of independence in behavior and decision making (e.g. Houghton et al. 2003). Neck and Houghton (2006) also point out by citing DiLiello and Houghton's (2006) research that autonomy and self-determination are seen also as key components of creativity and self-leadership. They suggest that many critical concepts from the creativity literature may be related to self-leadership.

Self-leadership has often been presented as a critical component for facilitating team effectiveness (e.g. Houghton et al. 2003; Manz & Sims 1987). Of a particular note, trust and team potency have been suggested as two possible self-leadership outcomes that may have important implications for team effectiveness (Bligh et al. 2006). Trust generally refers to the belief that the others will be honest, upholding commitments and declining to take unfair advantage when given an opportunity (Cummings & Bromiley 1996, cited e.g. by Bligh et al. 2006). Team potency is a belief held jointly among team members that the team can be effective in accomplishing its goals and objectives (Guzzo, Yost, Campbell & Shea 1993).

Psychological empowerment is another commonly predicted outcome of self-leadership. Indeed, self-leadership has often been proclaimed as a primary mechanism for facilitating empowerment (e.g. Houghton & Yoho 2005; Lee & Koh 2001; Manz 1992). Self-leadership may enhance feelings of empowerment by creating perceptions of meaningfulness, purpose, self-determination, and competence. More precisely, the behavior-focused strategies of self-observation, self-goal setting and self-reward can foster feelings of self-determination and competence, while natural reward strategies are aimed at increasing feelings of competence, self-control and purpose (Manz & Neck 2004).

Self-efficacy is perhaps the single most commonly mentioned self-leadership outcome variable (for a review see e.g. Manz & Neck 2004; Neck & Houghton 2006). Self-efficacy is a key construct within the social cognitive theory. Self-efficacy describes a person's self-assessment of the capabilities necessary to perform a specific task (Bandura 1977). Self-efficacy can influence aspirations, effort, persistence and thought-patterns (Neck & Houghton 2006). Empirical research (e.g.

Neck & Manz 1996) has provided significant evidence in support of self-efficacy as the primary mechanism through which self-leadership affects performance.

Houghton et al. (2003) describe self-leadership as ‘the heart’ of shared leadership. They believe that self-leadership is a prime ingredient in the facilitation of shared leadership. Their belief is based on the concept that the team members must first learn to lead themselves before they can effectively influence and lead their fellow team members. They also present a model that explains the role of self-leadership in facilitating shared leadership in teams. In short, this model suggests that an empowering leadership approach from the external vertical leader will encourage the team members’ self-leadership, which in turn will enhance self-efficacy perceptions among the team members for sharing leadership roles. Pearce and Manz (2005) have further elaborated on the importance of self- and shared leadership operating in combination, particularly in the context of knowledge work. Bligh et al. (2006) go even further in this direction to examine the relationships between self- and shared leadership in the context of team-based knowledge work, presenting a model that links self- and shared leadership as important antecedents to knowledge creation in team-based environments.

Bligh et al. (2006) propose that the development of an individual-level construct, self-leadership, will, through meso-level effects, result in higher levels of team trust, potency, and commitment, which in turn will facilitate a team environment where potentially novel and even risky forms of shared leadership may emerge. These assertions are further bolstered by previous research that suggests that the increase in duties, responsibility, autonomy and authority associated with self-leadership is linked to other positive team outcomes, such as intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction and increased effort (Bligh et al. 2006). It is also important to notice that self-leadership will not always have positive qualities for team building. Given that self-leadership is so individualistic in orientation, the development of extremely high self-leadership skills could potentially inhibit an employee’s ability to interact with others effectively (Bligh et al. 2006).

2.5 Rethinking shared leadership from the relational perspective

2.5.1 Towards processes, practices and interactions

Shared leadership enables social processes involving relative levels of empowerment and engagement in leadership by more than one person. Essentially, these concepts are all linked to the idea that, rather than solely resting with one individual or a small group, usually at the top of the positional hierarchy, leadership responsibility is delegated, more or less effectively and completely, to other individuals who may be formal and/or informal leaders. Thus, leadership is seen as a complex, dynamic process in which the behavioral roles that often fall under the leadership umbrella may be taken up by multiple individuals (Gronn 2002) and exchanged across the leader and team level (Day et al. 2004). It is this exchange, and the selective and dynamic emergence of individuals whose skills and expertise are most appropriate to a given leadership situation (Friedrich et al. 2009).

Given the shift towards the perspective of team leadership, there has been significant advancement in the work on the sharing or distribution of the leadership role (Gronn 2002; Hiller et al. 2006; Pearce & Sims 2002) and the interaction between leaders and team processes – recognizing that there is an important interplay between the leader and the members of a team (Day et al. 2004; Taggar et al. 1999). The development of these theories has been an important step in understanding the complexities of leadership. Shared leadership from a team's perspective has provided a new definition of leadership as a set of practices that can be distributed by all members of the team, not only by the appointed leader (Pearce & Manz 2005; Pearce & Sims 2002). This level of team interaction is highly interdependent and focuses on collective and shared responsibility. As Crevani et al. (2010, 78) argue, “the conceptualizations of shared leadership have their merits as conveyors of new practical trends in work life and – if they are not merely used as rhetorical tools while old patterns persist – thus as re-shapers of institutionalized expectations of leadership practices”. The problem has been that this focus on shared leadership research has been on new possible practical arrangements rather than on formulating new basic perspectives in leadership (e.g. Crevani et al. 2010; Lindgren & Packendorff 2009).

The recent leadership and team research has debated on the concept of shared leadership, acknowledging that this idea is still relatively novel, despite the fact that, on the basis of self-management teams and shared leadership issues, the research has offered some basic continuum elements for the development of shared leadership (Figure 4).

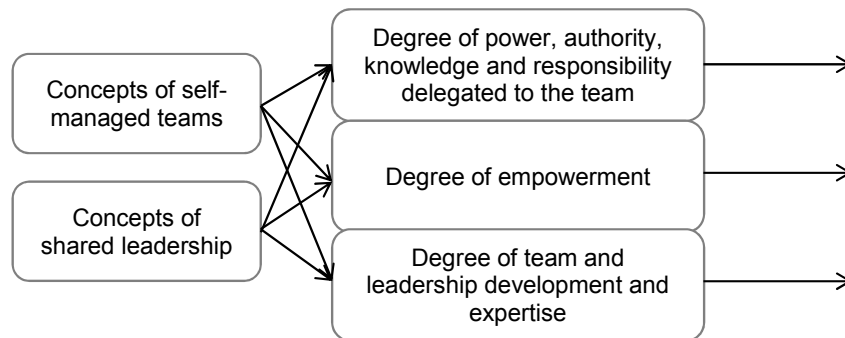


Figure 4. Continuum of shared leadership

The current shared leadership models do not go far along the continuum towards fuller team engagement in leadership. Most research on shared leadership takes the approach that it is a static condition where the role behaviors may be explicitly divided or entirely shared (Yukl 2006). Individuals generally share some leadership attributes or tasks but this may be controlled by top-down leaders, or a range of leadership tasks are actively distributed but power and authority are not and distribution is ineffective. Much of the work on the interaction between leaders and teams also appears to make the assumption that the members that the leader is acting on are a homogenous unit in which the individuals are assumed to have similar characteristics and respond to the leader in the same way (Zaccaro et al. 2001). However, this is not the case in the real situation. Rather, the team members typically bring diverse skills and expertise to the table, which is an important precondition for the selective emergence of different individuals into the leadership role. Like Friedrich et al. (2009, 934) argue “rather than a defined set of two or more leaders sharing the leadership role, it may be more like a ‘whack-a-mole’ game in which the person with the most relevant skills and expertise ‘pops up’ at any given time”. This selective emergence of individuals can arise through informal channels but may be explicitly activated by a leader or a set of leaders.

Team performance is not simply a matter of having more leaders. It also matters whether or not the leaders see each other as leaders (Mehra et al. 2006). Effective shared leadership has been seen as distributed-coordinated team leadership operating ideally for team performance, which is less effective in distributed-fragmented situations (see Mehra et al. 2006). Shared leadership should signify a process of working together, which requires sharing e.g. power, authority, knowledge and responsibility (e.g. Jameson 2007). And a more mature team is observed to be better prepared for this process of working together (e.g. Cox et al. 2003; Barry 1991). A greater degree of active, equal participation in leadership tasks is implied than merely ‘sharing’ or ‘distributing’ power. Thus, shared leadership is the type of leadership that questions rigid command and control ideologies for shared work practices, and provides a new philosophy that recognizes that organizational effectiveness is less dependent on one individual and more on the effective collaborative work practices and social processes of the whole organization (Pearce & Conger 2003). This collective view suggests that leadership does not emerge from individual influence but derives from “the process of people working together for a common purpose” (Raelin 2006, 156).

So, there are clearly both theoretical and practical needs to understand shared leadership better, and there is a growing ambition to study leadership from a perspective where leadership as such is the level of analysis (e.g. Gronn 2002), and where the empirical focus is on leadership processes, practices and interactions (e.g. Carroll, Levy & Richmond 2008; Crevani et al. 2007, 2010; Koivunen 2007; Uhl-Bien 2006; Wood 2005). Of course, the developing of such a perspective is not a straightforward task, and it can meet with several objections. However, if leadership research is taken beyond the leader-centered tradition, there is also a need to challenge the deep-rooted tendency to make the abstract notion of leadership concrete in the guise of individual managers (Drath et al. 2008; Gronn 2009; Wood 2005). Leadership needs to be defined in terms of processes and practices organized by people in interaction, and that interaction studied without becoming preoccupied with what formal leaders do and think (Crevani et al. 2010). Like Parry and Bryman (2006, 455) argue, there is a need for

an alternative perspective that emphasizes the importance of recognizing the need for leadership to be viewed as a widely dispersed activity which is not necessarily lodged in formally designated leaders.

2.5.2 The relational nature of leadership as a social construct

If leadership is seen as existing only when heroic individuals act on the national stage, then much of the leadership that exists e.g. in communities, across fields, in teams, and through collaboration is missing. Several authors argue that the traditional approach to leadership studies is becoming less useful for understanding leadership in contexts that are increasingly peer-like and collaborative (e.g. Crevani et al. 2007, 2010; Drath et al. 2008; Ford & Lawler 2007; Gronn 2002, 2009; Wood 2005). For example, one problem of the practical aspects of shared leadership is that it views shared leadership as an exception to ‘usual’ leadership, an exception to be practiced in extraordinary situations or organizational arrangements (Pearce 2004). It is not enough to say that leadership can be successfully shared between two or more co-leaders, or that it is about interaction between leaders and followers. Thus, there is a need not only to view shared leadership as a source of practical solutions to leadership problems, but also to apply a basic perspective of leadership as something that individuals construct together in social interaction (Collinson 2006; Gronn 2002; Kùpers 2007).

The constructionist view suggests that leadership happens when a community develops and uses, over time, shared agreements to create results that have collective value (Ospina & Sorenson 2006). Grounded in culture and embedded in social structures, these agreements influence and give meaning to the members’ action, interaction and relationships, and help people to get mobilized to make things happen. This perspective presumes that the understanding of leadership is socially constructed over time, as individuals interact with one another, rather than being something embodied in individuals or possessed by them (e.g. Grint 2005; Gronn 2002; Hosking 2007; Uhl-Bien 2006; Wood 2005).

This perspective is not entirely new in the leadership literature. Organizational scholars like Drath and Palus (1994), Pfeffer (1977), and Smircich and Morgan (1982) have pursued the idea that leadership emerges from the constructions and

actions of people in organizations. They have also pointed out the potential advantages of a constructionist perspective to leadership. For example, Smircich and Morgan (1982, 261) posed an invitation to look deeper into the leadership phenomenon and to “focus on the way meaning in organized settings is created, sustained, and changed to provide a powerful means of understanding the fundamental nature of leadership as a social process”. According to this perspective, leadership becomes a reality when one or more individuals in a social system succeed in framing and defining how the demands of the group will be taken up, and who will address the need for direction in collective action. Through a process of attribution, people agree to assign each other different roles and functions, including the role of a leader, to help move the work forward, or to satisfy other social needs (Meindl 1995).

In the constructionist view leadership happens when people construct meaning in action. In other words, leadership can be considered to be a shared act of making meaning in the context of a group’s work to accomplish a common purpose (Drath & Palus 1994). It is “a social process in which everyone in the community participates” (Drath & Palus 1994, 13). This process is shaped by what Drath and Palus call the “knowledge principle,” or dominant, underlying, and taken-for-granted set of assumptions a community holds about how best to approach the work of leadership. Thus, leadership is not just a mental construct. When this process of social construction goes on, as people develop a shared understanding of the work and the roles assigned to the members in pursuing it, leadership takes on an independent life that continues to be enacted over time (Ospina & Schall 2001). In this sense, as it emerges, leadership becomes the property of the social system, rather than being just a shared idea in people’s minds.

The constructionist view in leadership rests on the assumption that leadership is intrinsically relational and social by nature. The social and relational approach to leadership highlights the idea that these meaning-making processes and the attributions of leadership do not just occur in people’s minds, but instead, they are always social, rooted in social interaction (Uhl-Bien 2006). Relational orientation can be understood in terms of the context and relational dynamics, something that Russell (2003, 152) calls relational purpose: “Relational purpose is found in both

leaders and followers and in both individuals and groups. It is generally implicit, is influenced by individual and group history, and may change with time, context, and group membership". Relational leadership is also a collective process involving mutual influence (Murrell 1997), and it can be shared (Drath 2001; Uhl-Bien 2006)

In traditional management discourse, the term relational means that "an individual likes people and thrives on relationships" (Uhl-Bien 2006, 655). Traditional research on leadership examines behavioral styles that are relationship-oriented, meaning considerate and supportive or leadership behaviors focused on developing high quality and trusting work relationships (e.g. Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995). In the recently developed discourse (e.g. Drath 2001; Hosking 2007), however, the term relational has been used to describe something quite different for leadership – a view of leadership and organization as human social constructions that emanate from the rich connections and interdependencies of organizations and their members (Uhl-Bien 2006). In contrast to a more traditional orientation, which considers relationships from the standpoint of individuals as independent, the relational orientation starts with processes and not persons, and views leadership and other relational realities as made in processes (Hosking 2007).

An important contribution of the relational approach to leadership is calling attention to the implications of the idea that leadership belongs to a community rather than to an individual. According to Drath (2001), leadership is not personal dominance (the more traditional leader-centric models) or interpersonal influence (the two-way influence process described by the LMX theory), but rather a process of relational dialogue in which organizational members engage and interact to construct knowledge systems together. Murrell (1997, 35) sees leadership as shared responsibility: "Leadership is a social act, a construction of a 'ship' as a collective vehicle to help take us where we as a group, organization or society desire to go".

The relational leadership approach is offered as an overarching framework for the study of the relational dynamics that are involved in the generation and functioning of leadership. Contrary to other studies of leadership, which have focused primarily on the study of leadership effectiveness, the relational leadership approach focuses on the relational processes by which leadership is produced and enabled. It does not define leadership as holding a managerial position, nor does it use the terms manager

and leader interchangeably (Uhl-Bien 2006). From the relational leadership perspective, “it is possible to see relationships other than those built from hierarchy ... and to envision transformational phenomenon where the social change process occurs well outside the normal assumptions of command and control” (Murrell 1997, 39). Non-hierarchical relationships that are nurturing and supporting could be legitimized as a means of influence, and thus forms of leadership (e.g. Fletcher 2004; Gronn 2002; Murrell 1997; Pearce & Conger 2003). As Hosking (2011) argues, the relational approach to leadership offers a framework to

- a) work through multiple dialogues, rather than through top-down leadership edicts and the avoidance of dialogue;
- b) work with many different self-other relations, rather than a single hierarchy of knowledge and expertise;
- c) work with what is already (potentially) available and with what the participants believe to be relevant, rather than imposing mono-logical constructions of leaders or outside experts; and
- d) inviting and supporting many lines of action, rather than requiring or imposing consensus.

In the present research, the leadership perspective is conceptualized as relational leadership. The term relational leadership is here used to label a perspective that enables to see new aspects of leadership in empirical inquiry. It should not be conflated with the growing literature emphasizing relational leadership as a new prescriptive leadership model extending existing leader-member exchange (LMX) models (see e.g. Uhl-Bien 2006). In this research, an approach of relational leadership as a social influence process is adopted, through which emergent coordination (i.e. evolving social order) and change (i.e. new values, attitudes, approaches, behaviors, ideologies, etc.) are constructed and produced (Uhl-Bien 2006). In this definition relating is a dynamic social process that can be seen as acts of individuals (operating in a context) or as social constructions of interacting relationships and contexts; it can be seen as either creating (i.e. “organizing” condition) or shifting (i.e. “organized” condition) organizational processes (i.e. social order and action). The relational leadership approach sees leadership as the process

by which social systems change through the structuring of roles and relationships (Fletcher 2004; Uhl-Bien 2006), for example, as described by Murrell (1997, 40):

As leadership is shared and created jointly, so is the responsibility for structuring the organization... What this means is that people work together to define and develop their relationships not just as questions of influence and leadership, but also as questions of how to keep all of this moving and working together. How to...[work] becomes a question of how we relate to each other and work together. In answering this we lay out a structure...this structure becomes a product of the leadership relationships we envision as appropriate to our condition...[This way] we become more consciously influencing the structure rather than only it influencing us.

2.5.3 Research questions

Attention to ideas like shared leadership is critical, not just because it allows more people to get in the picture, but because the focus of the picture shifts – away from actions of two or three people, to the work the team undertakes together and the way the team authorizes individuals to act on its behalf. Given the perspective outlined above, it may be asked what empirical circumstances could form the basis for a developed understanding of shared leadership. There are some suggestions to be found in the literature. Gronn (2002) proposes the study of ‘concertive actions’ such as spontaneous collaboration patterns, intuitive understandings that emerge between colleagues, and institutional arrangements supporting self-managed teams and other formal practices. Drath et al. (2008) claim the need for an ‘integrative ontology’ of leadership, in which the three basic concrete entities of traditional leadership research (leaders, followers and shared goals) need to be replaced by an alternative ‘DAC ontology’ where empirical inquiry is focused on the outcomes of leadership – direction, alignment and commitment. The contributions by Gronn (2002) and Drath et al. (2008) point to important aspects of what is to be studied as leadership processes, practices and interactions, such as the co-construction of a sense of common direction in social interaction. These contributions offer concrete suggestions on how to discern leadership from general organizational processes.

The DAC framework is adopted in this study. The framework offers a new way of thinking about leadership and leadership practices that focuses more on shared and relational perspectives on leadership rather than traditional leader-follower practices. The DAC framework identifies leadership as a process where individuals with shared work establish direction, alignment and commitment. It focuses on outcomes and how outcomes are accomplished in an organization, e.g. within a team. In the DAC framework, leadership is a necessary but not sufficient pre-condition for achieving the longer-term purposes and goals of a collective, such as adaptation, sustainability, the flourishing of certain values, the achievement of certain outcomes, or simply success (Drath et al. 2008). The production of DAC is therefore a shorter-term criterion for effective leadership. Because DAC is not an end in itself, but a means to longer-term outcomes, “producing DAC should be understood to mean not just producing DAC once and for all but also reproducing DAC, developing DAC, and re-creating DAC in ways that contribute to longer-term outcomes” (Drath et al. 2008, 26). Crevani et al. (2010) remark that notions of ‘outcomes’ are problematic given that leadership is analyzed in terms of interactions and processes. “Outcomes may well be interpreted as results of completed temporary leadership processes rather than as continuously evolving modes of interaction – thus falling back on a ‘projectified’ understanding of what a process is” (Crevani et al. 2010, 5).

The direction component suggests that there is a reasonable level of collective agreement about the mission or goal of the team’s shared work. It refers to a level of conformity or shared direction among the members as it relates to the organization’s vision, mission and the goals it seeks to accomplish. The direction component also suggests that the members of the team not only understand and agree with the team’s direction, but they find value particularly in adhering to the direction to accomplish overall success for the organization (Drath et al. 2008). Direction can also mean direction in organizing processes (Crevani et al 2010). Agreement on goals may be one type of constructing direction, but direction does not need to be ‘one direction’; rather, it is the situated, moment by moment, construction of direction that becomes interesting. Therefore, leadership interaction and practices will also have to include the possibly diverging processes and instances of unresolved conflicts, ambiguities and debates – situations very well-known in any organization or team, anywhere.

The alignment issue refers to structure and the various aspects of management, for example, planning, budgeting, supervisory controls, reward systems and performance management. The processes used to share knowledge and coordinate work within the organization encompass the alignment aspect of the DAC model. The model suggests that in large organizations, formal structure and shared work is particularly necessary to achieve alignment. In smaller organizations, alignment may be achieved through informal one-on-one interaction with colleagues (Drath et al. 2008). Finally, the commitment component describes mutual commitment to a cause among individual members of a team. This element suggests that the team members are willing to merge their own efforts to the cause, within the overall efforts of the organization. If a team or organization has established or produced commitment, the team members are able to make demands of one another's time and energy (Drath et al. 2008). Crevani et al. (2010) take a wider perspective to these elements, proposing the concepts of co-orientation (enhanced understandings of possibly diverging arguments, interpretations and decisions of all involved parties) and action-spacing (construction of possibilities, potentials, opportunities and limitations for individual and collective action within the local-cultural organizational context).

Paying attention to the way a community addresses these three tasks represents a helpful way to explore how leadership happens. In line with the above argumentation, the empirical illustration of this study will therefore focus on interactions in which direction, alignment and commitment are produced and constructed. In this case, several people construct a space for action in interaction. This perspective of leadership seeks to expand the focus to include ways that leadership is drawn from teams as a function of the team processes associated with people working together to accomplish shared work.

The empirical work in this study has been done through a case study, where the aim has been to explore critical incidents from a phenomenological viewpoint, i.e. from the level of lived experience that facilitates leadership development in the team context. The empirical focus is on leadership processes, practices and interactions.

For the empirical part of this research the main research question: **How do team members work together to form and develop leadership in the team context** is divided into the following sub-questions:

- How do leadership and leadership practices emerge? What are the key processes in team by which leadership emerges and operates?
- How do leadership practices come into being and widely used in the team context?
- How do leadership practices change and develop over time? What are the developmental interventions?



Figure 5. Framework for the empirical research

In this research, shared leadership development is examined in context. The use of the term context is meant to be multifaceted by nature, and implies that leadership development occurs in various circumstances. One specific context is that of developing leadership instead of leaders (i.e. conceptual context). The second context is that of the work itself, and the development work conducted in the context of ongoing team work (i.e. practice context). The third context is related to research that has direct and indirect implications for shared leadership development (i.e. research context).

3 Research methodology

In this chapter the philosophical underpinnings of this study are discussed first. This discussion includes the ontological and epistemological viewpoints as well as the overall research setting in this case study. Secondly, the views and limitations of the researcher are described. The third part will focus on the methodology and data gathering methods. This chapter ends with discussing the analysis of the data.

3.1 Paradigmatic issues associated with the research

All research work is based on a certain vision of the world, employs a methodology, and proposes results aimed at predicting, prescribing, understanding or explaining (Creswell 2003). The net that contains the researcher's epistemological, ontological and methodological premises may be termed a paradigm, or an interpretive framework, a basic set of beliefs that guides action (Denzin & Lincoln 2003). The paradigm also determines how the researcher creates new knowledge and thus guides the selecting of methods that comply with the paradigm. Klenke (2008) suggests that it is not possible to conduct rigorous research without understanding its philosophical underpinnings. The researcher's philosophical assumptions about ontology, epistemology, methodology, and axiology are critical in framing the research process and require transparency. Each paradigm makes assumptions about the nature of reality (ontology), how knowledge is constructed (epistemology) and assumes that the values (axiology) the researcher brings to the selection of the method, participants, analysis, and interpretation influence the research process.

How then to study an abstract phenomenon called shared leadership? Traditionally, leadership research has solved the question by studying individual leaders. Traditional approaches to leadership research are characterized by the positivist perspective that seeks to distil the essence of leadership – to identify the composite qualities/behaviors/competencies, which together constitute leadership (Ford & Lawler 2007; Girod-Séville & Perret 2001; Gummesson 2000; Klenke 2008). From an ontological perspective, positivist frameworks view reality as something 'out there' to be apprehended (Lincoln & Guba 2003). The essential assumptions according to positivism are that the reality is external and objective and knowledge is

significant only if it is based on observations of this external reality (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson 2008). The ontology is thus realistic with the aim of producing context-free generalizations and cause-effect laws by discovering the 'true state of affairs' (Girod-Séville & Perret 2001). From an epistemological stance, the positivist tradition sees a duality between the object of inquiry and the inquirer. The object (reality) and the subject that is observing or testing it are independent of each other (Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). This independence between the object and the subject has allowed positivists to propound the principle of objectivity. This principle is defined by Popper (1977; cited by Girod-Séville & Perret 2001, 15-16) as: "Knowledge in this objective sense is totally independent of anybody's claim to know; it is also independent of anybody's belief, or disposition to assent; or to act. Knowledge in the objective sense is knowledge without a knowing subject." Methodologically, specific methods are utilized to try to ensure the absence of the investigator's influence or bias, as this is perceived as a threat to the validity of the results. Consequently, benchmarks of internal/external validity, reliability and objectivity have been developed to facilitate this process (Lincoln & Guba 2003).

Like Creswell (2007) argues, different approaches have legitimated their own rights and they do not need to be compared to achieve respectability. From an epistemological point of view, the paradigmatic convergence described in the traditional leadership literature (e.g. Ford & Lawler 2007; Ospina & Sorenson 2006) rests on the use of a behaviorist approach, which has helped advance the research agenda, but has limited our capacity to think about leadership creatively. Indeed, despite its recognition of social processes, it has been argued that empirical work in the leadership literature continues to be too leader-centered in its approach (e.g. Crevani et al. 2007, 2010). It is more helpful to explore leadership using a different view from the one used traditionally. The emergent constructionist approach offers alternative ways of theorizing a post-heroic perspective that heighten the relational and collective dimensions of leadership (e.g. Crevani et al. 2010; Drath et al. 2008; Fletcher 2004) and suggests the need for different methodology that will lead to a deeper understanding of leadership as a group achievement.

In this research, shared leadership is explored as a social construct, as something whose meaning is created through dialogue among groups of people in a particular

context. This perspective helps to explore the ways people understand and attribute leadership. It also makes it possible distinguish between the emergence of the collective practices that constitute the work of leadership and the individuals involved in these practices. The constructionist view states that knowledge about reality is constructed in social processes. The idea of social constructionism, as developed by such authors as Berger and Luckman (2003), focuses on ways that people make sense of the world, especially through sharing their experiences with others. There is no one school of social constructionism (e.g. Creswell 2007; Dachler & Hosking 1995; Easterby-Smith et al. 2008), but there are some expansive tenets that hold it together. First, it is concerned with meaning and understanding as the central features of human activities. Second is the view that meaning and understanding have their beginning in social interaction. Third, the ways of meaning-making, being inherently embedded in socio-cultural processes, are specific to particular times and places. Thus, the meanings of particular events, and our ways of understanding them, vary over different situations.

Constructionism is one of the groups of approaches that have been referred to as interpretive approaches (e.g. Easterby-Smith et al. 2008; Girod-Séville & Perret 2001). The constructivist-interpretative framework of inquiry supports the ontological perspective of belief in the existence of not just one reality, but of multiple realities that are constructed and can be altered by the knower (Denzin & Lincoln 2000). Reality is no longer viewed as a singular fact but as multiple facts. Multiple realities, multiple meanings or knowledge claims are part of this approach. However, this does not mean that everything goes. Like Cresswell (2007, 20-21) describes:

In this worldview, individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. They develop subjective meanings of their experiences. ... These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views. ... Often these subjective meanings are negotiated socially and historically. In other words, they are not simply imprinted on individuals but are formed through interaction with others and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals' lives.

Epistemologically, this framework sees a relationship between the knower and the known. Knowledge is based on abstract descriptions of meanings and constituted through a person's lived experience. With this view the researcher assumes that knowledge and meaning are acts of interpretation, hence there is no objective knowledge that can be independent of thinking (Klenke 2008). Denzin and Lincoln (2003) view the investigator and the investigated as interactively linked in the creation of findings, with the investigator as a passionate participant. The research process is not directed by an external knowledge goal, but consists of developing an understanding of the social reality experienced by the subjects of the study (Allard-Poesi & Maréchal 2001) (Figure 6). Therefore, the research problem does not involve examining facts to discover their underlying structure, but understanding a phenomenon from the viewpoint of the individuals involved in its creation.

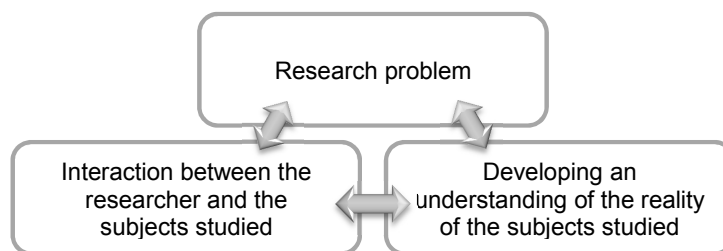


Figure 6. The constructivist-interpretative approach to the research problem

Thus, the process of creating knowledge involves understanding the meaning the actors give to reality – rather than explaining reality, we “try to understand it through actors’ interpretations. This process must take account of actors’ intentions, motivation, expectations, motives and beliefs – which all relate more to practice than to facts” (Girod-Séville & Perret 2001, 22). From this perspective, knowing is always a process of relating; relating is a constructive, ongoing process of meaning-making – an actively relational process of creating (common) understandings on the basis of language; meaning can never be finalized, nor has it any ultimate origin, it is always in the process of making, and meanings are limited by socio-cultural contexts (Dachler & Hosking 1995).

The choice of view has clear implications for both the focus (what to study) and the stance (who defines what is important and does the research). In terms of focus, the

constructionist view leads to paying attention to the collective work of leadership in context, more than to the behaviors of people called leaders or team members. If leadership is about meaning-making, then it is inevitably relational and collective, and therefore, more about the experience people have as they try to make sense of their work and less about individual traits or behaviors. In terms of stance, once a researcher has decided to focus on the experiences associated with the work of leadership, not on the leader as an individual, it becomes compelling to invite the people engaged in the work to stand with the researcher and inquire together about its meaning, thus studying the work of leadership from the inside out.

Starting from a viewpoint that does not assume any pre-existing reality aims to understand how people invent structures to help them make sense of what is going on around them. Consequently, much attention needs to be paid to the use of communication between people as they create their own meanings. Furthermore, the recognition that a researcher as an observer can never be separated from the sense-making process means that the researcher needs to recognize that theories which apply to the subjects of the work must also be relevant to the researcher (Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). The researcher should be aware that his perspective will influence his decisions about where and to what he pays attention. Making explicit the perspective will also prepare the researcher to be open and respectful as he encounters other views of leadership in the field, and as the researcher engages in dialogue with the participants of the study to try to capture together their leadership experience using the proposed research design.

3.2 Methodological issues surrounding this research

When viewing leadership as a social construct, as something that is relational, something that emerges out of a meaning-making process in a particular context, the attention needs to be refocused away from the individual leader to the experience and work of leadership. To inquire into the nature of leadership and how it happens in the team context requires an approach to research that makes it possible to understand e.g. the particular processes, practices and principles a team uses as it engages in the work of leadership. The approach that is proposed here rests on three principles. First, it could be seen that a phenomenological form of inquiry where it is possible to regard those engaged in the work of leadership as ‘co-inquirers’ will allow for the

richest understanding of experience. Second, a broad understanding of shared leadership in a team will come from eliciting a range of perspectives within this community. Thus, a qualitative approach to research, one that engages diverse methodologies, is best suited to this task. Third, because context is a central concept in understanding leadership as a social construct, this research approach must be grounded in a community, a case.

3.2.1 Phenomenological form of inquiry

A desire to understand the experiences of developing shared leadership thoroughly have led to choosing a phenomenological view under the umbrella label of the constructivist-interpretative approach. The phenomenological form of inquiry as the research approach offered a framework of rational inquiry for accessing the phenomenon of shared leadership development. Phenomenology, as both a philosophy and a methodology has been used in organizational research in order to develop an understanding of complex issues that may not be immediately implicit in surface responses (e.g. Cope 2005; Enrich 2005; Goulding 2005; Klenke 2008; Olivares, Peterson & Hess 2007). Phenomenology, by its very nature, seemed to be a logical approach for helping to understand the essence of shared leadership development experiences better.

The term ‘phenomenological inquiry’ is often employed to describe a research perspective that is distinct from, and set in opposition to, more positivistic forms of inquiry. Phenomenology is firmly located within a broad interpretive paradigm (see e.g. Creswell 2007; Merriam 2009). Patton (2002, 104) asserts that “sometimes phenomenology is viewed as a paradigm, sometimes as a philosophy or as a perspective, and it is sometimes even viewed as synonymous with qualitative methods or naturalistic inquiry”. Phenomenology draws heavily on the writings of the German mathematician Edmund Husserl and those who have expanded on his views, such as Heidegger, Sartre and Merleau-Ponty (see e.g. Creswell 2007). Patton (2002, 105) explains that “by phenomenology Husserl meant the study how people describe things and experience them through their senses. His basic philosophical assumption was that we only know what we experience by attending to perceptions and meanings.” There is no ‘objective’ experience that stands outside its interpretation. Varying forms like transcendental, existential and hermeneutic

phenomenology offer different nuances of the focus – the essential meanings of individual experience, the social construction of group reality, and the language and structure of communication (e.g. Creswell 2007; Patton 2002). What these various phenomenological approaches share in common is a focus on exploring how human beings make sense of experience into consciousness, both individually and as shared meanings (Patton 2002). It is consequently the meanings things have for us, not the things for themselves that affect our thoughts and behaviors, and therefore these become a relevant focus of investigations (Berglund 2007).

A phenomenological study describes the meaning for several individuals of their lived experiences of a concept or a phenomenon (Creswell 2007). The goal of phenomenological methods is to study the meanings of phenomena and human experiences in specific situations, and to try to capture and communicate these meanings (Berglund 2007). The focus is on describing what all participants have in common as they experience a phenomenon. Phenomenology offers a number of concepts which can be helpful in illuminating aspects of leadership territory which are often ignored (Ladkin 2010). These include the notion of the ‘life world’, the distinction between ‘sides’, ‘aspects’, and ‘identity’, and the distinction between ‘wholes’, ‘pieces’ and ‘moments’.

Phenomenology is essentially the study of lived experience or the life world. Its emphasis is on the world as lived by a person, not the world or reality as something separate from the person. The ‘life world’ is understood as what we experience pre-reflectively, without resorting to categorization or conceptualization, and quite often includes what is taken for granted or those things that are common sense (see e.g. Lavery 2003). The ‘life world’ represents the world of ordinary, immediate experience and is the background for all human endeavors, the concrete context of all experience (Cope 2005). Küpers (2005, 115) argues that we find the ‘life world’ meaningful primarily in terms of the ways in which we act within it and which act upon us. Everyday experience and being inherently connected to our environment have an ongoing interrelation.

The ‘life world’ reasserts the importance of meaning in human systems and ways of operating. Although meaning is not an objective, scientifically verifiable thing, phenomenology recognizes its central role in the day-to-day way in which humans

live their lives and interact with others (e.g. Berglund 2007; Ladkin 2010). This does not deny the existence of an external physical world independent of our perceptions, but it does imply that the only way things exist to us is through the way we interpret and give meaning to them. Like Berglund (2007) describes, things such as books, business partners or risks may in this sense exist as more or less independent entities, bombarding us with sense data of different kinds. However, this is not how we know and experience them. Instead, we live in a world filled with books, business partners and risks because we stretch forth into the world and interpret it in terms of those familiar objects. Shared meanings are not given entities, but they are created together (Ladkin 2010). In this way they are socially constructed, developed over time through culture, historical events and meaning-making systems of interpretation. This interpretative way of relating to the world should form the basis for statements about reality (Berglund 2007).

The notion of the 'life world' suggests that in order to understand leadership as a lived experience, it is important to study it within the particular worlds in which it operates (Ladkin 2010), as a phenomenon which arises from constructed social realities, and the meanings it has for those engaged with it. The words impact significantly on how the phenomenon is experienced or viewed. An underlying thrust of the phenomenological approach is the assertion that the lived world of human beings is where the truth of how to operate best can be found, rather than in abstracted scientific principles (Ladkin 2010). Within the 'life world', the way things are used and the meanings they hold for the humans who interact with them are vital aspects of their nature. With regard to the process of inquiry, the key source of data is thus the views and experiences of the participants themselves (Goulding 2005). This in itself assumes that the participant's view is taken as a 'fact'. Furthermore, the participants are selected only if they have lived the experience under study, and the sampling is therefore purposive and prescribed from the start.

Phenomenology points out that every 'thing' has different 'sides' and that at any one point in time we can only view one of them with the others implied (Ladkin 2010; Sokolowski 2000). Similarly there are different 'sides' to the phenomenon of leadership. For example, the leader role can be seen as one side of leadership. However, the followers or colleagues provide another essential side, and the

community or organizational context in which leadership happens constitutes another side, as will the historical situation which has brought all these factors together at a given point of time. All these dimensions can be seen as different sides of leadership and its description would depend on the side which is being perceived.

Additionally, a side will always be viewed from a particular 'aspect'. The phenomenological notion of aspects builds on that of sides (Sokolowski 2000). Aspects are the specific angles or orientations through which something is perceived (Ladkin 2010). Also leadership can be viewed from a variety of aspects. People in different roles will perceive the leadership of the company differently. A person interacts in different roles with different people daily. For example, as a member of the management team one interacts with other director-level people, and through those interactions one would form different perceptions of the company's leadership than e.g. team members in the company's production. Interviewing a management team member and then one team member in production would probably elicit very different accounts. Which version is 'correct'? Sokolowski (2000) discusses the identity of a 'thing' that is more than a collection of its sides and aspects. It includes such factors as who made it, what purpose it serves and the meanings it holds for those who use it. From each perspective, a different aspect of the identity of leadership is potentially revealed. From the phenomenological perspective, the identity of an entity always remains elusive. "As much as we can perceive the sides which make it up, as much we can be aware of different aspects from it can be viewed, as much as we can know about its internal workings, its history and its significance with human 'life worlds', we can never know the totality of something which could constitute a definitive identity" (Ladkin 2010, 24). This ontological assumption underpins the research that the identity of a 'thing' will always be beyond the reach of human apprehension.

When considering the nature of a particular phenomenon, the distinction between 'wholes', 'pieces' and 'moments' by Sokolowski (2000) offers philosophical justification for the intertwining of leadership and context. Sokolowski (2000) describes that 'wholes' are clearly distinguishable, independent, and separate things, and 'wholes' are comprised of 'pieces'. 'Moments' are not a time-related concept, it indicates that a phenomena is wholly dependent on other phenomena for its

expression in the world. What kind of a phenomenon is then leadership? Ladkin (2010) argues that leadership cannot exist apart from the particular individuals who are engaged and involved in any leadership dynamics. Leadership does not exist without people who are in some way identified as leaders or people who are identified as people who they will lead. Neither can it exist outside a particular community or organizational culture or history. As such, Ladkin (2010) describes leadership as a moment of social relations.

There could also be as many descriptions of leadership as there are situations in which they arise, because a description will always be subtly different depending on the pieces and wholes from which it emerges. For example, leadership in crisis situations will look very different from a leadership situation where someone generates a business plan. Phenomenological research is thus firmly located in a particular context at a particular time. A key aspect of phenomenological inquiry, which differentiates it from more positivistic methods, is the explicit recognition that any explanations given of a phenomenon are at best 'here and now' accounts. It is important to realize that e.g. a team member may well interpret things differently at different times and in different contexts. An individual's perspective on an event or experience can therefore change over time (e.g. Cope 2005; Ladkin 2010).

3.2.2 The characteristics of qualitative research

The phenomenological form of inquiry is inherently qualitative by nature (Creswell 2007; Denzin & Lincoln 2003; Klenke 2008). Van Maanen (1983, 9) provides a description of the qualitative method that resonates clearly with the objectives of phenomenological inquiry: "It is at best an umbrella term covering an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world."

To understand what this kind of research as qualitative research is all about, different writers have emphasized different characteristics (e.g. Creswell 2007; Merriam 2009). The following four characteristics are identified by most as a key to understanding the nature of qualitative research: the focus is on the process – understanding and meaning; the researcher is the primary instrument of data

collection and analysis; the process of inductive; and the product is richly descriptive.

Qualitative researchers tend to collect data in the field at the site where the participants' experience the issue or problem under study (Creswell 2007). This information is gathered by actually talking directly to people and seeing them to behave and act within their context. Basically, qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed, that is, how people make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world (Merriam 2009). Patton (2002, 1) explains:

Qualitative research is an effort to understand situations in their uniqueness as a particular context and the interactions there. This understanding is an end itself, so that it is not attempting to predict what may happen in the future necessarily, but to understand the nature of that setting – what it means for participants to be in that setting, what their lives are like, what's going on for them, what their meanings are, what the world looks like in that particular setting – and in the analysis to be able to communicate that faithfully to others who are interested in that setting ... The analysis strives for depth of understanding.

The key concern is to understand the phenomenon from the participants' perspectives, not the researcher's. This is sometimes referred to as the insider's perspective, versus the outsider's perspective (Merriam 2009). Inquiring into the world of lived experience brings its own complexity, and a significant issue when conducting phenomenological inquiry is the ability to translate the interpretive accounts that individuals give of their experiences.

Subjects, or individuals are seldom able to give full explanations of their actions or intentions; all they can offer are accounts, or stories, about what they did and why. No single method can grasp the subtle variations in ongoing human experience. (Denzin & Lincoln 2003, 31)

A second characteristic of all forms of qualitative research is that the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. Qualitative researchers collect data themselves through examining e.g. documents, observing behavior, and

interviewing participants (Creswell 2007). Since understanding is the goal of this research, the human instrument, which is able to be immediately responsive and adaptive, would seem to be ideal means of collecting and analyzing data. Other advantages are that the researcher can expand his understanding through nonverbal as well as verbal communication, process information, clarify and summarize material, check for accuracy of interpretation with respondents, or explore unusual responses (Merriam 2009). However, the human instrument has shortcomings and biases that might have an impact on the study. Rather than trying to eliminate these biases, it is important to identify them and monitor them for how they may be shaping the collection and interpretation of data.

A third characteristic of qualitative research is that the process of inductive. In this kind of process, the researcher gathers data to build concepts, hypotheses, or theories rather than testing hypothesis deductively. In this inductive process the researcher builds his patterns, categories, and themes from the 'bottom up', by organizing the data into increasingly more abstract units of information (Creswell 2007). This kind of process requires researchers to work back and forth between the themes and the database until they establish a comprehensive set of themes. This is not to say that the qualitative researcher has a blank mind bereft of any thoughts about the phenomenon under study (Merriam 2009). All researches are informed by some theoretical framework that enables them to focus the inquiry and interpret the data. However, this framework is not tested deductively as it might be in an experiment; rather the framework is informed by what we inductively learn in the field (Merriam 2009).

Finally, the product of a qualitative inquiry is richly descriptive. Words and pictures rather than numbers are used to convey what the researcher has learned about a phenomenon (Merriam 2009). There are likely to be descriptions of the context, the participants involved, and the activities of interest. In addition, data in the form of quotes from documents, field notes, and participant interviews are always included in support of the findings of the study. These quotes contribute to the descriptive nature of qualitative research.

When selecting to work with the constructionist paradigm, and especially associated with qualitative methods, there are, as noted by Easterby-Smith et al. (2008), both

strengths and weaknesses in working with this kind of an approach. The strengths are its ability to look how change processes over time, to understand people's meanings, to adjust to new issues and ideas as they emerge, and to contribute to the evolution of new theories. This approach also provides a way of gathering data, which is seen as natural rather than artificial. But there are also weaknesses. The data collection can take up a great deal of time and resources, the analysis and interpretation of the data may be very difficult, and it depends on the intimate, tacit knowledge of the researchers. Qualitative studies often feel untidy because it is harder to control their pace, progress, and end points. There is also the problem that many people may give low credibility to studies based on apparently subjective opinions.

3.2.3 Utilizing the case study approach with grounded theory as the research strategy

The research strategy describes the logic of answering the research questions (Creswell 2003; Easterby-Smith et al. 2008; Yin 1994). It is the basic approach of creating new knowledge and theories in this research. It serves also as a basis through which a researcher may confirm the validity of his findings. Methodologically, this study rests on two qualitative traditions: case study and grounded theory.

This study utilizes the case study approach as the primary research strategy (Eisenhardt 1989; Hartley 2004; Stake 1995, 2005; Yin 1994). Case study is a somewhat ambiguous term, as it has been regarded as a research method, as a study utilizing qualitative data, as a study focusing on a certain kind of object to be studied, or as a research strategy (see e.g. Creswell 2007). In this study, the case study is considered more as a research strategy than a commitment to a certain type of analysis method or data. To define a case study, it "is a research strategy which focuses on understanding the dynamics present within single settings" (Eisenhardt, 1989, 534). Yin (1994, 59) states that case study as a research strategy "attempts to examine a contemporary phenomenon in its real-world context, especially when boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident". Harley (2004, 323) describes a case study as "a detailed investigation, often with data collected over a period of time, of phenomena, within their context". The aim is to provide an analysis of the context and processes which illuminate the theoretical

issues being studied. The phenomenon “is not isolated from its context like e.g. in laboratory research but is of interest precisely because the aim is to understand how behavior and processes are influenced by, and influence context” (ibid., 323). The unit of analysis, not the topic of investigation, characterizes a case study.

When selecting this kind of research strategy, there are two main aspects to be taken into account: the objectives or the research questions and the availability of research data (Yin 1994). The case study approach was chosen for this research predominantly for three reasons. First, when using the interactive and context-dependent nature of leadership as a basic perspective to study shared leadership, the case study offers a context to understand and describe the issue using the case as a specific illustration. This approach involves extensive and long-term observation of the team in their natural settings. Secondly, the research question of this research is exploratory by nature and requires the researcher to acquire in-depth contextual understanding in order to provide an answer to the research question. The case study offers also a context to understand everyday practices and their meanings to those involved, which would not be revealed in brief contacts. Thirdly, because of the complexity of the phenomenon and the youth of the field, the selected strategy can enable understanding of the phenomenon to increase during the study, and can support the selection of the inductive theory building logic. The case study is particularly suited for research questions which require detailed understanding of social or organizational processes, because of the rich data collected in context (Hartley 2004).

Yin (1994) and Stakes (1995, 2005) present some important theoretical and practical issues to consider in research design with a case study. It is helpful to consider whether the case is exploratory, explanatory or descriptive (Yin 1994). This will affect the focus of the research questions and the degree to which the aim of the case study is to analyze particular, unique circumstances or to focus on generalization. In exploratory case studies like this study, fieldwork and data collection may be undertaken prior to the definition of the research questions. This approach is particularly useful if little previous research exists on the phenomenon under investigation. The cases can also be exploratory by nature or intentionally designed to build theory using inductive methods to generate hypotheses about new research

questions. Explanatory cases are suitable for conducting causal studies, while descriptive cases are theory-driven. Yin (1994) also suggests that all case studies should have a clear design produced before any data is collected, and these designs should cover the main questions or propositions, the unit of analysis, links between data and propositions, and procedures for interpretation of the data. Yin's main concern is to demonstrate that case studies may contain the same degree of validity as more positivist studies and therefore his explosion of the method contains both rigour and the application of careful logic about comparisons (Yin 1994).

A case study, which is informed more by a constructionist epistemology, is much less concerned with issues of validity, and more concerned with providing a rich picture of life and behavior in organizations or groups (Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). Within the constructionist approach, Stake (2005) writes about qualitative case studies, and distinguishes between intrinsic, instrumental and collective studies. An intrinsic case study is undertaken when the researcher is interested in the particular case itself. "The purpose is not to come to understand some abstract construct or generic phenomenon ... Rather, the study is undertaken because of intrinsic interest in ..." (ibid., 445). An instrumental case study like this study "is examined mainly to provide insight into an issue or to redraw a generalization. The case is of secondary interest, it plays a supportive role, and it facilitates our understanding of something else" (ibid., 437). Finally, in a collective or multiple case study a number of cases are studied "to investigate a phenomenon, population, or general condition" (ibid., 445). Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) add some important practical issues concerning constructionist case studies. First, they are based on direct observation and personal contacts, generally through interviews. Second, they take place within single organizations, but then involve sampling from numbers of individuals. Third, the collection of data takes place over a period of time and may include both live observations and retrospective accounts of what has happened.

A case study, therefore, cannot be defined through its research methods. Rather, it has to be defined on terms of its theoretical orientation (Hartley 2004). The value of theory is one of the key issues. Eisenhardt (1989) identifies three distinct uses of theory in case studies in the context of organizational research: (1) as an initial guide to design and data collection; (2) as part of an iterative process of data collection and

analysis; and (3) as a final product of the research. The motivation of the use of theory in the earlier stages of case study is to create an initial theoretical framework which takes into account previous knowledge and which creates a theoretical basis to inform about the topics and approach to the early empirical work. Although theory can provide a valuable initial guide, it limits the researcher to focusing on the concepts embedded in the theory, which stifles potential new issues and avenues of exploration (Klenke 2008). A more iterative process can encourage the qualitative researcher to preserve a considerable degree of openness to the field data and willingness to modify initial assumptions and theories. When discussing the final product of the research, Eisenhardt (1989) notes that the output of a case may be e.g. a conceptual framework, propositions, or mid-range theory. The present work is undertaken not only to understand the particular features of the case but also to draw out an analysis that may be applicable on a wider basis. Thus, the approach is similar to Eisenhardt's (1989) position of beginning as close as possible to the ideal of no theory under consideration and no hypotheses to test, and regarding the research question and possible constructs as tentative in the beginning.

Whatever a researcher's position between theory-derived and theory-free positions, a case researcher, explicitly or implicitly, brings some kind of a conceptual framework to the research process. "It acts as a filter for data collection and interpretations that are partially determined by this filter" (Klenke 2008, 61). It would be unrealistic to suggest that a researcher could or should enter the field devoid of frameworks or ideas about relevant concepts in his/her areas of interest. We all interpret the world through some sort of conceptual lenses formed by our beliefs, previous experience, existing knowledge, assumptions about the world, and theories about knowledge and how it is accrued (Cepeda & Martin 2005, cited by Klenke 2008). Because the case study strategy is ideally suited for exploration of issues in depth and following leads into new areas or new constructions of theory, the theoretical framework at the beginning may not be the same one that survives to the end (Hartley 2004).

How to work with the case in practice? Having an extensive qualitative data set to start with a case, as well as a research aim of exploring, conceptualizing and understanding development of shared leadership in the team context, the Grounded Theory (GT) approach seemed to fit the methodological purposes of this research

and support the practical research design. The intent of the GT study is to move beyond description and to generate or discover a theory, an abstract analytical schema of a process, action or interaction (Strauss & Corbin 1998). The participants in this case study would all have experienced the process of shared leadership, and the theory might help explain practices and provide e.g. a framework for future research. The key idea is that this theory-development does not come “off the self”, but rather is generated or “grounded” in data from participants who have experienced the process (Strauss & Corbin 1998). Thus, the GT is a qualitative research design where the researcher generates a general explanation e.g. of a process shaped by the views of the participants in the study (Creswell 2007).

Developed by Glaser and Strauss in the 1960s, the GT is a methodology for generating theory inductively (Glaser & Strauss 1967). The GT comprises a systematic, inductive, and comparative approach for conducting inquiry for the purpose of constructing theory (e.g. Charmaz 2006; Patton 2002; Strauss & Corbin 1998). The method is designed to encourage researchers’ persistent interaction with their data, while remaining constantly involved with their emerging analysis. The data collection and analysis proceed simultaneously, and each informs and streamlines the other. The GT builds empirical checks into the analytic process and leads the researchers to examine possible theoretical explanations for their empirical findings. The iterative process of moving back and forth between empirical data and emerging analysis makes the collected data progressively more focused and the analysis successively more theoretical (Bryant & Charmaz 2007). The emerging result is typically presented either as a hypothesis, a model or as an abstract conceptual theory. In Glaser’s words, the aim of the GT is to “generate a theory that accounts for a pattern of behavior which is relevant and significant for those involved” (Glaser 1978, 93). Conceptualization is a core process in GT, which thereby is a theory generating rather than a descriptive method.

It is important to note, as Easterby-Smith et al. (2008, 101) argue that the GT should not be used as “a justification for doing some vaguely qualitative research without any clear view of where it supposed to lead”. The GT contains precisely articulated methods and presuppositions which have evolved and developed since Glaser and Strauss’s initial presentation (e.g. Charmaz 2006; Creswell 2007; Easterby-Smith et

al. 2008). Later, Glaser (1992) has emphasized the necessity for the researcher to be more creative and less processual in his/her methodological approach. Glaser believes that a researcher should start with no presuppositions, and should allow the ideas to ‘emerge’ from data, whereas Strauss (Strauss & Corbin 1998) recommends familiarizing oneself with prior research and using structured, and somewhat mechanistic processes to make sense of the data.

The debate is extended further by Charmaz (2006), who characterizes the methods of both Glaser and Strauss as ‘objectivist’. Her complaint is that both authors separate the researcher from the experiences of the subjects of the study. She has advocated for a constructivist grounded theory, thus introducing yet another perspective into the conversation about procedures. The constructive grounded theory, according to Charmaz (2006), lies squarely within the interpretive approach to qualitative research with flexible guidelines. In the constructivist grounded theory, it is stressed that data is constructed through an on-going interaction between the researcher and the participants. The researcher takes a reflexive stance and studies how, and sometimes why, the participants construct meanings and actions in specific situations (Charmaz 2006). The analysis, which is related to time, culture, and context, reflects both the participant’s and the researcher’s way of thinking. The researcher’s interpretative understanding, rather than the researcher’s explanation, of how the participant creates his/her understanding, and the meaning of reality is the result of the analysis.

As consistent with the stance of this study, the constructivist approach places priority on the phenomena of study and sees both the data and the analysis as created from shared experiences and relationships with participants and other sources of data. Thus, Charmaz’s constructivist approach to the GT has many attractive elements, e.g. being flexible in structure, reflexivity and also offering some practices of gathering data, memoing, and using theoretical sampling (Charmaz 2006). In this study, the GT methods are seen as a set of principles and practices, not as prescriptions or packages. The GT guidelines describe the steps of the research process and provide a path through it, like Glaser and Strauss (1967) in their original statement of the method invited researchers to use GT strategies flexibly in their own way.

As a conclusion, Figure 7 compiles the background orientation and commitments made in this study.

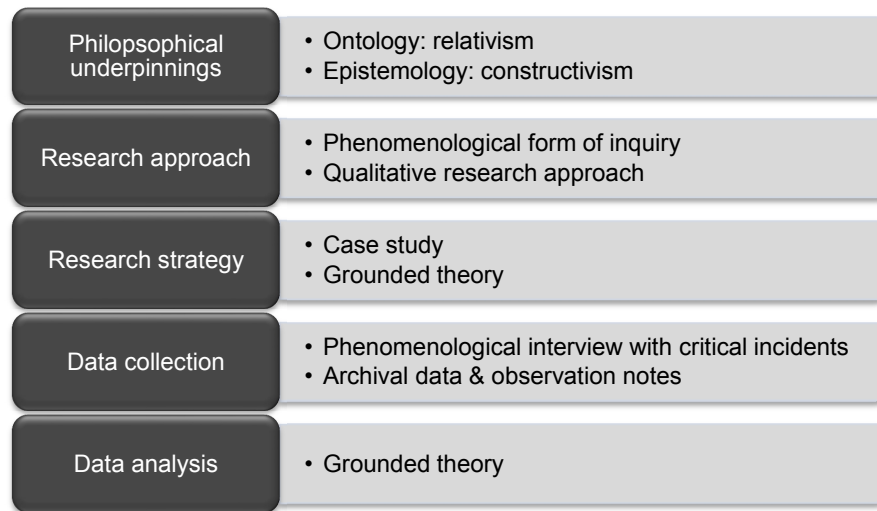


Figure 7. Background orientation and commitments in this study

3.3 Data collection process

The research design is the argument for logical steps which will be taken to link the research questions and issues to data collection, analysis and interpretation in a coherent way (Hartley 2004). One central idea in the grounded theory is that generating a theory, collection, coding, and analysis of data are done together as much as possible. These activities should blend and intertwine continually, from the beginning of the investigation to its end (Glaser & Strauss 1967). With the GT, the researcher also shapes and reshapes the data collection (Charmaz 2006). This section describes the process of case selection, as well as the process and methods used to collect the empirical data examined in this study.

3.3.1 Case study design

In case research, every case should serve some specific purpose within the overall study. Yin (1994) emphasizes the importance of case selection being consistent with the research question. Eisenhardt (1989) argues that the selection of an appropriate case population is crucial, as it controls extraneous variation and helps to define the limits for generalizing the findings. The selection of cases should also be congruent with the epistemological assumptions the researcher makes about the phenomenon he/she is studying (Klenke 2008). An investigator working within the constructionist

paradigm, for example, will select a different case or cases than a colleague who bases the choice on assumptions governing positivism (Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). A related principle in the grounded theory is theoretical sampling, the idea that the process of data collection is controlled by the emerging theory, so that the researcher decides what data to collect next and where to find them (Charmaz 2006; Glaser & Strauss 1967). A closely related concept is purposeful sampling: selecting information-rich cases for in-depth study, that is, cases from which one can best learn about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research (Patton 2002; Stake 2005). Thus, it is the theoretical issues and the purpose of this research that have guided the sampling procedures.

The criteria for case selection should be specific (Klenke 2008). A key decision to be made is whether the research will be based on a single case study or on multiple cases. In this research, one team is used as the case. Patton (2002) states that single case studies are appropriate if they present unique situations or cases such as specific organizations which have experienced e.g. unusual examples of leadership successes or failures. Single case studies may be used to confirm or challenge a theory, or to represent a unique or extreme case (Yin 1994). Single case studies are also useful in pilot studies or exploratory research where they serve as a first step to later, more comprehensive studies (Klenke 2008). Many scholars have argued that the major problem with the case study approach is the lack of generalizability, especially from single cases (see e.g. Hartley 2004; Klenke 2008; Yin 1994). However, although single case studies are not as strong as a base for generalizing as some other research designs, much that is general can be learned from a single case (Klenke 2008). Thus, there are benefits to gathering data about individual cases, as well as to aiming at thorough interpretation and analysis on them.

Both the constructionist perspective and the approach that highlights the relational nature of leadership have guided the sampling procedure. These approaches give priority to the collective experience of sense-making as the work evolves. The focus should be less on individuals and more in the work of individuals collectively engaged in giving meaning to their leadership actions. This approach suggests the need to look at different kinds of contexts and pay greater attention to the nature and content of work in these contexts. When selecting the case, it was noticed that

despite the presented promising premises, there are not many organizations explicitly implementing forms of shared leadership today. It has also been noted that the most extreme form of shared leadership occurs when there is no authority hierarchy. Thus, teams with much autonomy are most likely to be found in small employee-owned businesses, cooperatives and communes (see e.g. Yukl 2006). Few large corporations allow teams to determine their own mission, scope of activities, membership, and when to form or disband. However, there is evidence that this form of leadership is already informally in use in many companies, also in large organizations (e.g. Döös et al. 2005).

With this reality in mind and looking for possibilities to study shared leadership in the team context, several team organizations were examined. Within the working background of the researcher (discussed in chapter 3.4), ten different team organizations were analyzed as possible cases. Within this process it was asserted that it was best to explore the nature of shared leadership today in certain organizational contexts outside the mainstream management domains. After that process a case team where the author has worked for five years as a team member, was selected. This team has seven team members working as consultants in the knowledge-based service business. The case team and organization are presented in chapter 4. The following reasons explain the selection of this case:

- Because shared leadership is a more complex and time-consuming process than relying only on traditional vertical leadership from above, shared leadership should be developed only for certain types of knowledge work that require team-based approaches. Three characteristics of knowledge work (also related to the case team) that are particularly related to the need for shared leadership include: (1) interdependence; (2) creativity; and (3) complexity (Pearce 2004).
- The external leader's role is seen critical to the implementation of shared leadership (e.g. Houghton et al. 2003; Pearce 2004), but it has also been a challenge to find a balance between formal leadership roles and a team concerning team leadership. In this case, there are no formal leadership roles. In order to understand internal team leadership better, it is important to focus also exclusively on teams without a formal leader.

- Organization-wide systems can also facilitate or impede the development of shared leadership. At least three broad organizational systems can be used to pave the way for shared leadership (also related to the case team): (1) training and development systems; (2) reward systems; and (3) cultural systems (Pearce 2004).
- Pearce and Conger (2003) assume that we are more likely to see expressions of vertical leadership at the start of a group's life and more likely to observe shared leadership at the later stages. The team selected for this study has worked as a team for the last five years.

After the case selection, the research process focused on understanding how the team members experience the process of developing shared leadership in their team and identifying the steps or themes in the process. The process was guided by the following questions: what was central to the process (the core phenomenon), what influenced or caused this phenomenon to occur (causal conditions), what strategies were employed during the process (strategies), and what effects occurred (consequences). Generally, the case study and grounded theory approaches favor the use of different data sources which give the analyst different views to understand the phenomenon (e.g. Charmaz 2006; Creswell 2007; Klenke 2008). The empirical data with the selected case team was collected during a five-year period by the author. The data consists of unstructured interviews, the case team's documentation, and observation notes made by the author. Figure 8 illustrates the process of collecting the research data.

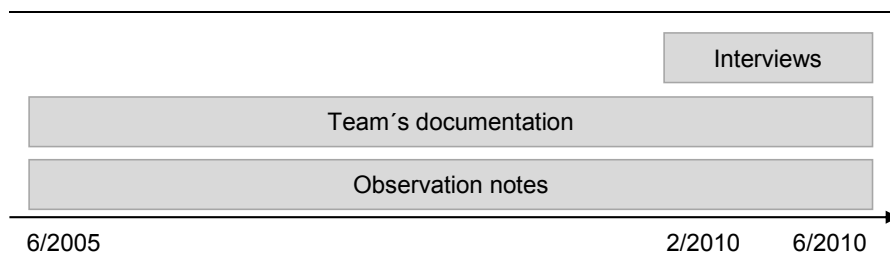


Figure 8. Collection of research data

3.3.2 Conducting phenomenological interviews with critical incidents

To find the core phenomena of the development process of shared leadership in the case team, the research process started with interviews. As Patton (2002, 104) explains, a phenomenological research approach “requires methodologically, carefully and thoroughly capturing and describing how people experience some phenomenon – how they perceive it, describe it, feel about it, judge it, remember it, make sense of it, and talk about it with others. To gather such data, one must undertake in-depth interviews with people who have directly experienced the phenomenon of interest; that is, they have lived experience as opposed to secondhand experience.” Thus, the researcher has to talk to people whose experience is relevant to the research questions.

One method of getting information that is often used alongside interviews is the critical incident technique (CIT). CIT is a methodology that has been adapted for research purposes. It allowed targeting at what was found important – the perceptions of the team members about what worked for them – in a systematic way. The CIT offered an opportunity to go straight to the heart of the issue and collect information about what was really sought, rather than collecting large quantities of data that might or might not be directly relevant to what was wanted to be understood.

The CIT is a well proven qualitative research approach that offers a practical step-by-step approach to collecting and analyzing information about human activities and their significance to the people involved. It is capable of yielding rich, contextualized data that reflect real-life experiences. The traditional critical incident technique has its origins in the technique used by Flanagan (1954). Flanagan first described his technique as

A set of procedures for collecting direct observations of human behavior in such a way as to facilitate their potential usefulness in solving practical problems and developing broad psychological principles. The critical incident technique outlines procedures for collecting observed incidents having special significance and meeting systematically defined criteria (Flanagan 1954, 327).

As its name suggests, the critical incident technique involves the study of critical incidents – or significant instances of a specific activity – as experienced or observed by the research participants. Detailed analysis of critical incidents enables the researchers to identify similarities, differences and patterns and to seek insight into how and why people engage in the activity.

People assign meanings to their experiences, and when we group together collections of such meanings in order to make sense of the world, we engage in a kind of research, a seeking of understanding. The critical incident technique provides a systematic means for gathering the significances others attach to events, analyzing the emerging patterns, and laying out tentative conclusions for the reader's consideration (Kain 2004, 85).

Bitner, Booms and Tetreault (1990) define an incident as an observable human activity that is complete enough to allow inferences and predictions to be made about the person performing the act. A critical incident is described as one that makes a significant contribution, either positively or negatively, to an activity or phenomenon. According to Flanagan (1954, 338) “an incident is critical if it makes a ‘significant’ contribution, either positively or negatively to the general aim of the activity’ and it should be capable of being critiqued or analyzed”.

Over the fifty years since its inception, the CIT has proved responsive to changing research approaches. Researchers have modified the CIT in various ways, extending beyond ‘scientific’ behavioral analysis to more holistic investigation of aspects of human experience and meaning that people attach to activities (Chell 2004; Edwardson & Roos 2001; Kain 2004). Researchers are tending away from previous concerns about objectivity and generalization towards individual perspectives and significance (Chell 2004; Kain 2004). It is important to note that the entire premise of critical incident research is handing over to the research participants the power to deem whatever they choose as “critical”. Kain (2004, 81) cites Tripp (1993) when arguing that

Critical incidents are not “things” which exist independently of an observer and are awaiting discovery like gold nuggets or desert islands, but like all data, critical incidents are created. Incidents happen, but critical incidents

are produced by the way we look at a situation: a critical incident is an interpretation of the significance of an event. To take something as a critical incident is a value judgment we make, and the basis of that judgment is the significance we attach to the meaning of the incident. (Tripp 1993, 8)

Kain (2004) points out that critical incidents are not observed, because viewing from the outside cannot reveal the criticalness of an incident. Critical incidents are created by the person to whom they are critical. Of course, the collection, analysis, and interpretation of the body of incidents are performed by the researcher or researchers. However, the focus is still on the meanings that the research participants attach to events. The nature of the technique – drawing on multiple incidents, created by multiple sources, and brought together by the researcher to derive patterns – argues for a shared reality as opposed to a completely unique reality (Kain 2004). At the same time, this shared reality is tentatively constructed and leaves the responsibility of determining its applicability to the researcher. Thus, the CIT is an attractive method of investigation because it does not restrict observations to a limited set of variables or activities (Gremler 2004).

The CIT method offers a number of benefits. First, the collected data are from the respondent's perspective and in his or her own words (Edvardsson & Roos 2001). The CIT method therefore provides a rich source of data by allowing the respondents to determine which incidents are the most relevant to them for the phenomenon being investigated. In so doing, the CIT is a research method that allows the respondents as free a range of responses as possible within an overall research framework. With the CIT method, there is no preconception of what will be important to the respondent; that is, the context is developed entirely from the respondent's perspective (Chell 2004). During an interview, the respondents are simply asked to recall specific events; they can use their own terms and language. Second, this type of research is inductive by nature (Edvardsson & Roos 2001). Consequently, the CIT method is e.g. useful as an exploratory method to increase knowledge about a little-known phenomenon (Bitner et al. 1990) and when used in developing conceptual structure (i.e. hypotheses). Third, the critical incident technique is useful in the early stages of understanding a phenomenon. Critical incident studies are particularly useful in the early stages of research because they generate both exploratory information and

theory or model-building. The critical incident technique can thus identify issues that may deserve further attention and research (Gremler 2004; Kain 2004).

Although the benefits of using the CIT method are considerable, the method has also received some criticism from scholars. For example, the CIT method has been criticized on issues of reliability and validity (Chell 2004). In particular, respondent stories reported in incidents can be misinterpreted or misunderstood (Edvardsson & Roos 2001). Similarly, problems may also arise as a result of ambiguity associated with category labels and coding rules within a particular study. The CIT is naturally a retrospective research method. Thus, the CIT method has been criticized as having a design that may be flawed by recall bias (see e.g. Kain 2004). Similarly, the CIT method may result in other undesirable biases, such as consistency factors or memory lapses. Indeed, the CIT method relies on events being remembered by the respondents and requires accurate and truthful reporting of them. An incident may have taken place some time before the collection of the data; thus, the subsequent description may lead the respondent to reinterpret the incident (Gremler 2004). The nature of the CIT data collection process requires the respondents to provide a detailed description of what they consider to be critical incidents (Edvarsson & Roos 2001). On the other hand, phenomenological reflection is retrospective. Like Patton (2002, 104) argue by citing van Manen (1997), “a person cannot reflect on lived experience while living through the experience ... Reflection on lived experience is always re-collective, it is reflection in expression that is already passed or lived through”.

The first empirical part of this study was based upon the CIT developed with a focus upon an investigation of critical incidents the team members in the case team had faced in their work of developing shared leadership. It was intended, through the process of a largely unstructured interview to capture the thought processes, the frame of reference and the feelings about an incident or a set of incidents, which had meaning for the respondent. This research followed the CIT method developed by Chell (2004).

The critical interview technique is a qualitative interview procedure, which facilitates the investigation of significant occurrences (events, incidents, processes or issues), identified by the respondent, the way they managed,

and outcomes in terms of perceived effects. The objective is to gain an understanding of the incident from the perspective of the individual, taking into account cognitive, affective and behavioral elements. (Chell 2004, 48)

This method assumes a phenomenological approach (Chell 2004), and with this CIT procedure, the phenomenological interview approach presented by Thompson et al. (1989) was followed. Thompson et al. (1989) specify that the goal of the phenomenological interview is to gain a first-person description of some specified domain of experience, where the course of the dialogue is set largely by the participant. Within this framework, eight interviews (one with each of the eight participants) were conducted (overview in Table 2).

Table 2. Overview of conducted interviews

Team member	Date	Type of interview	Length of time
1	February 2010	Unstructured face-to-face interview	0:52
2	February 2010	Unstructured face-to-face interview	0:57
3	March 2010	Unstructured face-to-face interview	0:50
4	April 2010	Unstructured face-to-face interview	0:58
5	May 2010	Unstructured face-to-face interview	0:54
6	May 2010	Unstructured face-to-face interview	0:51
7	June 2010	Unstructured face-to-face interview	0:55
8	June 2010	Unstructured telephone interview	1:30

Seven of the interviews were conducted face to face, and with one team member over telephone. The telephone interview was used because of synchronous communication within the time period, and there was no need to synchronous communication in a certain place (e.g. Klenke 2008). Thus, the telephone interview was an alternative to access a hard-to-reach participant during the spring time 2010. In each interview, the goal was to identify and document critical incidents that had occurred during the work of developing shared leadership in the case team.

The interviews were not pre-structured, and they were highly flexible. In the beginning of each interview, the purposes of the research and the interview were briefly explained. The rules and ethical issues concerning the interview, such as the

fact that the interview would be audio recorded and assurance of anonymity, were also discussed. The participants were informed that the focus of the research was on their personal recollections of how shared leadership had been developed in their team and what had been the critical events, activities, practices or working processes during this development. The term 'critical incident' was defined for the informants as "any significant event from the viewpoint of the informant that occurred during the adoption and development phase of shared leadership". The participants were also informed that they may indicate negative as well as positive incidents.

With the exception of an opening question, the interviewer had no primary questions concerning the topic. The basic idea with the opening question was to focus on the theme. As an opening question, the informants were asked to describe the term shared leadership – how they understood it, and after that they were asked to describe it in the case team. The conversations then followed a loose chronological structure. The wish to explore critical incidents 'at some point' during the interview was also made explicit, but this request was phrased in more familiar terms. The participants were asked to focus on the leadership processes, practices, events and activities that they had experienced as they emerged within the wider story of how the shared leadership developed in the team. Of significance, without prompting, the conversation tended to focus on memorable events and episodes within the team. This only reinforced the author's commitment to studying the critical incidents.

Throughout the interview, the discussion focused on what experiences the informant had and then, on reflection, what lasting impression or effect these experiences had had. It was hoped that by focusing both on what a lived experience was like but also, through reflection, what significance the experience had for the team member, as this would give some indication of what the participant had 'learned' from the experience or critical incident. The dialogue during the interviews tended to be circular rather than linear; the descriptive or controlling questions employed by the interviewer flowed from the course of the dialogue and not from a predetermined path. The descriptive or controlling questions were like: tell more about it; why was it important; what happened next; how did it happen; describe the process; you mentioned that ..., what do you mean by that? Like Mallak et al. (2003, cited in Gremler 2004) suggest, there are three fundamental questions: (1) what events led up

to the critical incident, (2) what were the actions of the focal person/people to make it a critical incident, and (3) what were the outcomes of the critical incident? Similarly, Edvardsson and Roos (2001) talk of “cause, course and result”.

To ensure clarity of the questions, theoretical language was avoided and more everyday terms like the team’s own terms (as they call their processes or activities) were used (Patton 2002). Also, when a specific theme arose during one interview, the same concrete examples about events, practices or processes were then used with the other interviews as well. Within this kind of process, more control of the data collection could be taken, as the grounded theory process required. Interviewing with the GT differs from typical in-depth interviews because there is a need to narrow the range of interview topics to gather specific data for developing theoretical frameworks as the interviews proceed (Charmaz 2006).

3.3.3 Archival data as supporting material

In this research, the archival data were used to support the interviews in identifying and describing leadership processes, practices and activities as a part of the data analysis process, and especially during the theoretical sampling process of the GT (Charmaz 2006; Strauss & Corbin 1998). The archival data were also used to deepen the understanding of the history of the case team (Yin 1994). This material provided a useful reference source for constructing a chronology of key events and provide a useful insight into the team processes – how the team had worked together with a critical incident mentioned during the interviews and other key issues related to shared leadership. This kind of data source triangulation, that is, a combination of multiple sources of evidence in a study of the same phenomenon, is generally used to enhance the quality of analysis (Miles & Huberman 1994, Patton 2002; Yin 1994).

Collecting and examining documentation is often a basic element in qualitative studies (e.g. Merriam 2009). Archival data refers to documentation and archival records (Yin 1994) or to so-called non-technical literature, which comprises letters, biographies, diaries, proposals, organizational charts, budgets, various reports, agendas, memoranda, correspondence, videotapes, newspaper clippings, studies or evaluations of the organization, and a variety of other materials (Miles & Huberman 1994). In most qualitative studies archival data are used as supplementary data to

corroborate and augment evidence from other sources such as interviews and observations, in order to learn about an organization, its structure, and how it functions (Yin 1994). The literal material during the years 2005 – 2010 of this study consists of descriptions of team processes, description of working methods the team has used, minutes of team meetings, notes of self-evaluation discussions, and some other literal sources like team agreements and written rules of conduct. There are altogether 954 pages of literal material (an overview of the literal material is presented in Table 3 and in Appendix 2).

Table 3. Overview of the literal material

Type of material	Number of documents	Number of pages
Team meeting minutes	47	183
Team's agreements and playing rules	7	46
Team's practices	23	146
Team's development processes	15	200
Team's working methods and processes	16	360
Researcher's notes	6	19
Total	114	954

This documentation provided a starting point rich in detail to continue the empirical part of this study. By reviewing the various documents, it was possible to develop an understanding of several important characteristics of the team events, processes and practices as well as the developmental nature of the team's work. One function of analyzing documentation was that it provided a different level of analysis from other methods, such as the gap between the official policy (described e.g. in material concerning the team's agreement, rules of conduct and practices) and practice (described during interviews or in my one notes).

The minutes of team meetings held between the years 2005 - 2010 were particularly helpful in shedding light on the progress of leadership practices. These minutes together with different process descriptions provided further insight into the team's working processes and methods, including the successes as well as difficulties experienced during the different phases of the team's life cycle. As the documentation included a considerable amount of detailed information concerning

the case team, it was of help already in the interview phase of the study. Less time needed to be allocated for discussing various kinds of background information with the informants, leaving more time to focus on the key topics of primary interest: critical incidents in developing shared leadership in the case team.

3.3.4 Memoing

‘Memoing’ (Miles & Huberman 1994) is the third important data source in qualitative research that has been used in this study. Memo-writing constitutes also a crucial method in the GT process, because memos are written to serve analytical purposes (Charmaz 2006). A memo is the researcher’s field notes recording what the researcher hears, sees, experiences and thinks in the course of collecting and reflecting on the process. Like Miles and Huberman (1994, 72) notes: “You are writing memos to yourself, secondary to colleagues”. Researchers are easily absorbed in the data-collection process and may fail to reflect on what is happening. However, it is important that the researcher maintains a balance between descriptive notes and reflective notes, such as hunches, impressions, and feelings (Merriam 2009). These comments are over and above factual descriptions of what is going on; they are comments on and thoughts about the setting, people, and activities.

Miles and Huberman (1994) emphasize that the memos (or field notes) must be dated so that the researcher can later correlate them with the data. Memoing helps the analyst to move easily from empirical data to a conceptual level, refining and expanding codes further, developing key categories and showing their relationships, and building toward a more integrated understanding of events, processes, and interactions in the case (Charmaz 2006). In the inductive approach, memos often serve a ‘clustering’ function; they pull together incidents that appear to have commonalities (Miles & Huberman 1994). It is important to note that field notes are already a step toward data analysis (Merriam 2009), because field notes involve interpretation. During this study four different types of field notes were made: (1) observational notes: ‘what happened -notes’ deemed important enough for the researcher to make; (2) theoretical notes: ‘attempts to derive meaning’ as the researcher think or reflect on the experiences; (3) methodological notes: ‘reminders, instructions or critique’ to oneself on the process; and (4) analytical memos: ‘end-of-a-day summary or progress reviews.

3.4 The role of the researcher

The qualitative researcher is interested in how people make sense of their lives, what they experience, how they interpret these experiences, and how they structure their social worlds. The researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. The researcher can adapt his or her techniques to the circumstances, which makes the research process flexible to new emerging issues. For the same reason, it may be demanding to the researcher as well. The more intensive and open the interaction between the researcher and the research subject, as well as between the researcher and the participants is, the more credible the results will be. The researcher is an active person with his or her own personality, values and history that give shape to the research setting and choices he or she makes (e.g. Creswell 2007; Easterby-Smith et al. 2008; Patton 2002).

Describing the role of the researcher has been considered important in qualitative research (e.g. Patton 2002; Creswell 2007). For example Patton (2002) argues that because the researcher is the instrument in a qualitative inquiry, a qualitative report must include information about the researcher. The principle is to report any personal and professional information that may have affected the data collection, analysis, and interpretation. Strauss and Corbin (1998) discuss about theoretical sensitivity which reflects the researcher's ability to use personal and professional experiences as well as methodological knowledge and thereby see the data in new ways and think abstractly about the data in the process of developing theory. Theoretical sensitivity can also be seen as the researcher's manipulation in order to explain data in a way that best reflects the reality. Therefore, this theoretical sensitivity should be complemented by reflexivity, concerning for example, how the researcher-participant interaction and the researcher's perspective affect the analysis and the results.

Concerning this study the author is relatively closely involved in the case organization and the case team as a team member. As a consequence, the author has his personal inside perspectives and understanding of the case team. He has been involved in the kind of work situations under investigation, which has also been one of the basic originating impulses in the choice of the subject. This can be partly considered an advantage by giving insight into the case, making it easier to formulate the research questions, methods and techniques and to access appropriate data.

Another advantage is being able to understand to a certain extent the common language and concepts used within the case team. Thus, e.g. in the interview phase less time is needed for discussing various kinds of background information with the informants. However, it can also be regarded as a disadvantage if the researcher cannot take sufficient distance from the case, especially during the analysis phase. One problematic area can also be the interpersonal dynamics inside the team. Against this background, the author is responsible for the progress, validity, credibility and results of this study.

The perspectives through which the author has approached the research topic, research questions, analysis frame and interpretation are have been colored by his past experiences. His perspectives have developed e.g. through past experiences that contain at least the following perspectives on the subject matter in this study. In this case it is a question of the author's multiple roles and views through which he has seen the research topic. The author is and has been engaged in various roles that need to be taken into account. He has been and still is a team member in the case team. His pre-understanding of team-based work arrangements, team working and leadership is mainly based on work as a consultant during the last 15 years, but also work in different leadership roles before that. Another perspective is that of his background education that has focused on technical, economical, and educational studies.

There is also the role as a researcher. In this role the author's view is multidisciplinary. It has been easy to adopt a multidisciplinary view, which is also connected to the author's work role as a consultant. This perspective as a researcher unites the perspectives of organizational science, team and leadership studies, cognitive and social perspectives. In the role of the researcher it has been important to be able to temporarily detach completely from the work-related roles and to concentrate exclusive on the research perspectives. This took place four times during the research process; the first and second periods were when gathering the data (2009, 2010), the third when analyzing the data (2010), and the fourth time when writing the main part of the research report (2011).

3.5 Data analysis process

3.5.1 Making sense of data with the grounded theory

In this research, an inductive analysis of the data was conducted following the basic principles of the grounded theory methodology. The GT provides a procedure for developing categories of information, interconnecting the categories, building a ‘story’ that connects the categories, ending with e.g. a discursive set of theoretical propositions (Charmaz 2006; Strauss & Corbin 1998). The GT is an iterative process in which concepts, categories, and propositions are constantly refined by comparing sampled data with emergent theory until conceptual saturation is achieved (Klenke 2008). At the general level, the analysis process has followed the main stages of the constant comparative process: 1) inductive category coding based on “units of meaning” of interview data, 2) refinement of categories with archival and observation data, and 3) exploration of patterns and relationships across categories leading to an integration of data. The GT process of this research is presented in Figure 9 (based on the GT procedure presented by Charmaz 2006).

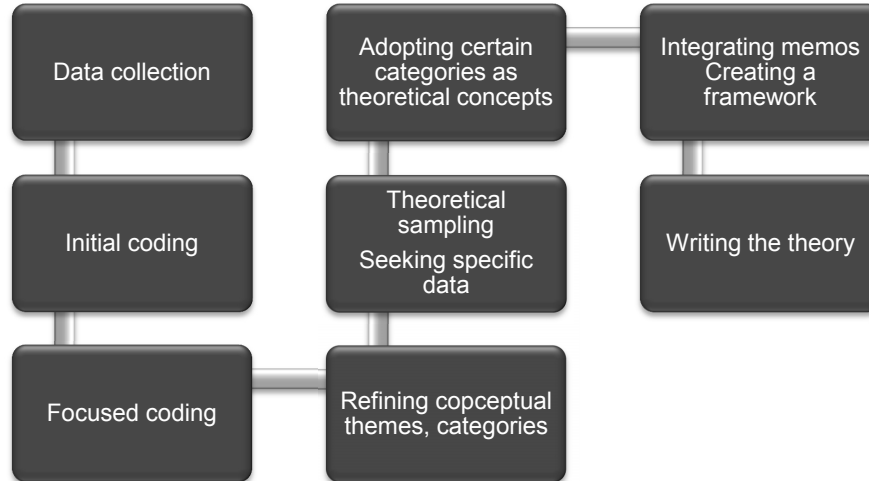


Figure 9. The grounded theory process

The coding for emerging concepts (from the data) was done by close scrutiny, with the intention of developing core categories that would account for most of the variance in the data. During this analysis process, categories and their qualities /

properties were generated from the data rather than directed by the researcher's own hypotheses and preconceptions. The aim of the coding was to arrive at systematically derived core categories that became the focal concepts that contributed towards theoretical development. Part of this analysis process was detailed memo-writing: writing down ideas, assumed associations, and theoretical reflections related to each of the emerging categories. In practice, however, the research was not so linear. In the GT process the area of original intent may change as ideas and unexpected actions emerge from the data. The researcher should be willing to adapt to these and remain flexible with respect to the evolving conceptual nature of the emerging theory (Charmaz 2006; Strauss & Corbin 1998). The data analysis involved an iterative approach of moving back and forth between the data, relevant literature, and emerging theory (Charmaz 2006; Glaser & Strauss 1967; Eisenhardt 1989; Miles & Huberman 1994). This can be illustrated as consisting of three concurrent flows of supporting activity: data reduction, data display, and conclusion-drawing and verification.

Data reduction refers to a process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the empirical data (Miles & Huberman 1994). The data reduction involved the coding and categorizing of empirical data. Information that was more or less scattered in dozens of interview transcripts and other documents had to be extracted and arranged into more easily manageable formats. The data reduction consisted primarily of coding specific elements contained in the documents into a spreadsheet with standardized columns to facilitate further categorization and comparison.

Data display represents an organized assembly of information that enables drawing conclusions from the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In addition, displays are often highly efficient in communicating research results to others. Qualitative research typically involves the collection of a substantial amount of field data. As a result, in studies such as this one, displays have a central role in verifying that the conclusions that are drawn are based on a systematic analysis of the collected data. The central displays used during the analysis of the data for this study were tables, charts, visual timelines, and direct quotations. Tables were used for condensing information to a compact and more manageable form. The use of charts was also particularly helpful

during the analysis of data concerning critical incidents. The charts also functioned as a valuable tool when comparing the data obtained in the interviews to the data obtained in the archival data. Visual timelines were created to develop an understanding of what had occurred in the studied case team over time. Finally, direct quotations were used to highlight issues raised by the case team members.

Drawing and verifying conclusions refers to giving meaning to the findings, and it happens through noting regularities, patterns, explanations, possible configurations and causal flows (Miles & Huberman 1994). Drawing conclusions is an iterative process that continues for the duration of the entire study and is tightly coupled with the process of verification. In this study, tables highlighting the central features of critical incidents, combined with quotes from the interview transcripts were particularly important for identifying regularities in the empirical data. Another key part of the process was linking the critical incidents with other documents. Initial conclusions were verified as the analysis proceeded. The verification was based on rigorous re-examination of the empirical data, testing it and any related findings for inconsistencies or flaws, comparing the findings to existing theories, and discussing the findings with the case team members.

3.5.2 Phase one: constructing the case study database

To begin the more intensive phase of data analysis in this case study, all the information about the case were brought together – the interview records and transcripts, meeting minutes, process and practice descriptions, field notes, and so on. All this material needed to be organized in some fashion so that the data were easily retrievable. Yin (1994) calls this organized material the case study database, which he differentiates from the case study report. In a similar fashion, Patton (2002) differentiates the case record from the final case study. “The case record pulls together and organizes the voluminous data into a comprehensive, primary source package. The case record includes all the major information that will be used in doing the case analysis and case study. Information is edited, redundancies are sorted out, parts are fitted together, and the case record is organized for ready access either chronically and/or topically. The case record must be complete but manageable” (Patton 2002, 449). Figure 10 describes the case study database organized for this study.

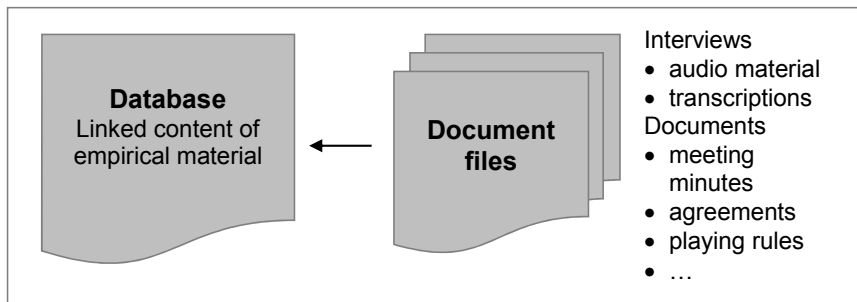


Figure 10. The case study database and different information sources

In this phase the case data were organized, classified, and edited into manageable and accessible Excel files. The basic idea behind using the Excel- files was that the data were ordinary mainly in MS Word, Excel or PowerPoint files, and Excel as a program offered a possibility to sort the organized data. As a result, there were two organized Excel- documents – one for the interview data and another for the archival data.

The data analysis process began by preparing the interview data for the process. In other words, the eight interviews were listened to and transcribed. Each interview was recorded with a digital voice recorder. After each interview, the voice data was transmitted to the hard disk of the author’s computer and also to an external hard disk as a safety copy. Each interview was assigned a code, for example “interview 01, 20100222”. As soon as possible after each interview the interview material was transcribed into Word documents. These eight interviews resulted in 78 pages of text. In this database phase, the interview documents were exported to Excel and saved as an Excel file, each interview as its own worksheet. These worksheets were also organized and coded for the next analysis phases (see the structure in Table 4).

Table 4. Structure of an interview worksheet

Interview 01 date 22.2.2010						
#	time	quotation	critical incident	sub-category	category	theme
1	03:40	It means that ...				

For constructing the other database file, multiple archival data were utilized: meeting minutes, process and practice descriptions, agreements, and so on. Because the documents were not produced for research purposes, finding relevant material was the first step in the process. Then all the events, processes, decisions and other actions made in the team during the five-year period from 2005 to 2010 were coded chronologically. Each year was documented and coded in its own Excel- worksheet (see the structure in Table 5). A total of 386 events, decisions or other actions were coded.

Table 5. Structure of an archival data worksheet

Archival data year 2005						
#	code	date	description	working process	leadership notes	own notes
1	tmm 1	21.6.2005	team's playing rules

3.5.3 Phase two: categorization of critical incidents

During the GT process, coding generates the backbone of the analysis. Like Charmaz (2006) argues, coding is the pivotal link between collecting data and developing an emergent theory to explain these data. The GT coding consists of at least two phases: initial and focused coding (Charmaz 2006; Strauss & Corbin 1998). During initial coding, fragments of data are studied – words, lines, segments, and incidents – closely for their analytic import. While engaging in focused coding, what seem to be the most useful initial codes are selected and tested against extensive data. Throughout the process, the data is compared with data and then data with codes. In these initial and focused coding phases to analyze the phenomenological interview data, a procedure based on the methods introduced by Giorgi (1985, see also Berglund 2007) was applied. The ambition of this process was to collect the respondents' lived experiences as critical incidents of a phenomenon, and from those experiences to approach the general aspects of the phenomenon.

All the interview texts were read through before beginning any analysis, which gave a general idea of the entire data. At this phase there was no attempt to find any

thematic aspects in the texts. The reading phase was important for determining how the parts were constituted, and therefore the phase provided a foundation for the next step, the discrimination of meaning units (Giorgi 1985). At this phase it was also paid attention to how the interviewees used the language: the use of dialects and metaphors, ability and willingness to express themselves, as well as to what kind of narratives the interviewees told. However, getting a general sense of the whole was possible only after reading the interview texts several times.

After that all interview protocols were read in order to establish interpretative flexibility and common meaning. This way the interpretation of the general narratives, as well as of specific quotations, was decided upon. The individual protocols were then re-read line by line and broken down into discrete parts, not according to syntactic rules such as sentences but with respect to visible changes in meaning, i.e. meaning units (e.g. Berglund 2007; Giorgi 1985). A meaning unit is a purely descriptive term that contains a specific critical incident relevant for the study (code in initial coding). When naming the meaning unit the researcher uses his 'disciplinary intuition' to translate the subject's everyday language into the researcher's more narrow disciplinary language (Berglund 2007). Giorgi (1985) emphasizes that this step does not entail any interpretation but is purely a matter of describing the essence of the meaning unit in disciplinary language. Each meaning unit as a critical incident was also coded with an identifying number. Table 6 illustrates how the interview texts were divided into meaning units.

Table 6. Extract of critical incidents

#	Quotation: It started moving ahead in the first team meeting we had five years ago, when we started talking it out together. I guess we have had the very good starting point in our team that all members of the team have pretty much understood as individuals what shared leadership is about.						
	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>discrete part of quotation</th> <th>meaning unit</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>235 The team started to work with leadership issues in their first meeting.</td> <td>Taking leadership as one of a common working issues</td> </tr> <tr> <td>236 The starting point of the team's operation was that everyone had some kind of basic understanding of shared leadership.</td> <td>Need for basic understanding about shared leadership</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	discrete part of quotation	meaning unit	235 The team started to work with leadership issues in their first meeting.	Taking leadership as one of a common working issues	236 The starting point of the team's operation was that everyone had some kind of basic understanding of shared leadership.	Need for basic understanding about shared leadership
discrete part of quotation	meaning unit						
235 The team started to work with leadership issues in their first meeting.	Taking leadership as one of a common working issues						
236 The starting point of the team's operation was that everyone had some kind of basic understanding of shared leadership.	Need for basic understanding about shared leadership						

When the whole text had been broken down this way, the resulting list of critical incidents was re-read and the process of focused coding started. These codes are more directed, selective, and conceptual than in the initial coding phase (Charmaz 2006). When working through the list, critical incidents with similar meanings were cut out of the original Excel- worksheet and pasted into a new worksheet with a tentative sub-category heading. Each new critical incident on the list was similarly either put in an existing sub-category or given its own new sub-category heading. This process generated a great number of sub-categories, and during the process some sub-categories that were found to be similar were merged and others split up until all critical incidents had been clustered into sub-categories that were considered to capture specific homogeneous qualities of what was said by the participants. The sub-categories and their interrelationships were then focused on in more detail and similar themes were clustered into categories and overarching themes, as shown as an example in Table 7, and all themes with categories and sub-categories in Appendix 3. After that, all the 613 critical incidents had been categorized into sub-categories, categories and themes.

Table 7. Themes, categories and sub-categories of the coding process

Theme	Category	Sub-category
Developing shared understanding	Collective leadership beliefs	Common understanding about leadership in teams
		Common understanding about leadership model
		Common understanding about responsibility and roles
	Guiding principles	...
	Facilitation of empowerment	...

Working with focused coding was not a linear process. Some respondents or events made explicit what was implicit in earlier statements or events. “Now I understand” experiences prompted to study the earlier data afresh. Then there were situations, where it was necessary to return to earlier respondents and explore topics that had been glossed over. To overcome these kinds of shortcomings, e.g. the development of an improved categorization structure was considered necessary, which highlighted

the iterative and somewhat intuitive nature of analyzing qualitative data discussed in several case study articles and textbooks (see e.g. Eisenhardt 1989; Miles & Huberman 1994). The strength of the GT coding derives from this concentrated, active involvement in the process. You act upon your data rather than passively read them (Charmaz 2006).

By re-reading the original protocol and questioning the bases of categorizations, it was actively sought to minimize the use of pre-existing theoretical categories and be true to the participants' original expressions. If the meaning unit clearly coincides with existing theoretical categories, such categories may be used (e.g. Berglund 2007). For the reliability of the analysis, the procedure was repeated from scratch after some time. The interviews were gone through again, and the earlier interpretations evaluated. The revised and final categorization structure consisted of four themes of critical incidents. These four themes then characterized the process of adopting certain categories as theoretical concepts.

3.5.4 Phase three: linking critical incidents between team processes and episodes

In this phase of the analysis process, the smaller pieces were connected with each other, on the road towards a big picture. More data focusing on the identified themes in the previous phase were gathered. This strategy in the GT process is theoretical sampling, which means seeking and collecting pertinent data to elaborate and refine categories in the emerging theory (Charmaz 2006). The GT uses 'theoretical sampling' to sample events that are indicative of categories, their properties and dimensions, so that they can be developed and conceptually related (Strauss & Corbin 1998). Theoretical sampling is the process of sampling events, situations, populations, and responses; and making comparisons between the samples of responses, descriptions, and behaviors in generating theory inductively. It is also important to note that theoretical sampling pertains only to conceptual and theoretical development, not e.g. to increasing the statistical generalizability of the results (Charmaz 2006). This analysis phase included: (1) collecting data about the team members' actions, inactions and interactions; (2) analyzing antecedent and consequent conditions; (3) determining the stability of the phenomena over time, and also (4) identifying any causal effects.

Writing the case description took place partly simultaneously with this analysis phase. The motivation for writing the case description stemmed from the need to understand the processes, practices and working methods in the case team more thoroughly than just as a set of critical incidents. The basic idea was also to organize the material for this phase of analysis. The aim was to become familiar with the case as a stand-alone entity (Eisenhardt 1989) and to understand the case as a specific, complex, and functioning thing (Stake 1995). So, in this phase the view from the critical incidents was expanded e.g. to the key episodes in the team's history, chosen team processes, leadership practices, and the general nature and context of the case team as well.

The underlying logic of this phase was that the database was reviewed and new data were collected to provide insight into specific themes or to explain the central phenomenon. The matrices were useful tools where the logics of action and practices were connected and analyzed accordingly. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), matrices (as tools for cross-tabulation) are useful in various phases of the qualitative analysis process. A functional matrix gives the researcher reasonable answers to the questions he is asking, or suggests promising new ways of laying out the data to get answers (Miles & Huberman 1994). A conceptually clustered matrix has its rows and columns arranged to bring together items that belong together. This outcome can happen in two ways: conceptual – the analyst may have some a priori ideas about items that derive e.g. from some theory or relate to some overarching theme; or empirical – during early analysis the researcher may find some patterns or themes (Miles & Huberman 1994). A time-ordered matrix was also used. The matrix building process started by identifying how the different critical incidents were related to different processes, actions, practices and working procedures. A type of matrix used in this study is presented in Table 8.

Table 8. A matrix for data analysis

#	Time	Team process or episode	Working procedures notes	Leadership notes	Team practice notes	Theme/ critical incident
10	21.6. 2005	Boundary spanners	Opening the expectations of the roles	Team leader facilitated the process	Permanent leadership practice	Working with leadership practices

Concretely, the procedure of connecting was done with the assistance of Excel and its sorting features. With the coded critical incidents and other process material, it was possible e.g. to locate the kind of practices that were related to certain team processes as well as working procedures. Using the features of Excel it was possible to cross-tabulate these different elements. It was also possible to arrange the team processes by the time period. This process of theoretical sampling was emergent. It was not possible to know which ideas would be needed to sample before the analysis started. The specific reason to conduct theoretical sampling depended on the analytic problems and e.g. what ideas, gaps and questions arose. The aim of this process was theoretical saturation. Saturation forms the foundation for treating theoretical concepts in the GT. As argued by Charmaz (2006), categories are saturated when gathering fresh data no longer sparks new theoretical insight.

3.5.5 Phase four: formulation of a framework and propositions

During this phase, the process to formulate and write a theory started. According to Strauss and Corbin (1998) a theory is a set of relationships that offer a plausible explanation of the phenomenon under study. According to Charmaz (2006), theorizing is the process of constructing alternative explanations until a ‘best fit’ that explains the phenomenon most simply is obtained. This involves asking questions of the data that will create links to the established theory. With the interpretive approach, according to Charmaz (2006), the theory aims to: (a) conceptualize the studied phenomenon to understand it in abstract terms; (b) articulate theoretical claims pertaining to scope, depth, power, and relevance; (c) acknowledge subjectivity in theorizing and hence the role of dialogue and understanding; and (d) offer an imaginative interpretation.

The focus in this highly iterative phase of analysis was on formulating a theoretical framework based on the combined results of the prior phases of analysis. As Charmaz (2006, 169) argues, in this phase “you put your sensitizing concepts and theoretical codes to work in the theoretical framework”. The information from the previous coding and analysis phases was organized into a ‘figure’ that presented a theoretical model of the process under study (Strauss & Corbin 1998). The conceptual framework linked various concepts and issues that arose during theoretical sampling and served as an impetus for the formulation of theory. In case

study terminology, this final phase was about determining the relationships between the constructs – the key dimensions of adoption and development of shared leadership, and the performance mechanism between these key dimensions – and verifying them with case evidence and theoretical discussion (Eisenhardt 1989).

In this phase, writing theoretical memos was an integral part of forming grounded theory. According to Charmaz (2006), as well as Strauss and Corbin (1998), memoing is the core stage of grounded theory methodology, as memos are the theorizing write-ups of ideas of substantive codes and their theoretically coded relationships as they emerge during collecting, coding and analyzing data. As the ‘theory’ became more elaborated and integrated, so did the memos. Memoing continued until the end of this research, and continued also into the writing itself. Memoing was an important ‘tool’ for developing conceptual ideas during this research.

As a result of this analysis phase:

- the conceptual logic and directions were explicated with a framework;
- leading ideas were engaged;
- prior theoretical works concerning self-managed teams, team leadership and shared leadership were acknowledged; and
- a ‘new grounded theory’ was positioned in relation to these theories.

4 Results: shared leadership in the case team

This chapter presents the empirical results of this study. First, the case team and the case organization are described. Section 4.2 approaches the results at a fine-grained level, focusing on the critical incidents from the level of lived experience that have facilitated shared leadership development in the case team. Section 4.3 presents the results of the empirical study at a more holistic level. This section concentrates on how the case team members have worked together in practice to form and develop leadership in their team. Finally, as a conclusion, a framework resulting from the analysis is presented in section 4.4.

4.1 Case description

The data collection was conducted in one case team. The case team is one of the business teams in the case organization, which has since 1984 facilitated the people side of change and development processes with different organizations. The main business area of the case team is to offer consulting in team-based organizational work arrangements with teamwork and leadership training and coaching. The case team also takes care of product development in these areas. The team was formed specifically for that purpose in spring 2005. The team was created as part of a new strategy developed in the case organization to improve consulting services in growing markets. Nowadays the case organization is a part of a group which is composed of 130 experienced management consultants in 15 European countries.

In this team-based case organization, the teams are the core performing units. The teams were adopted in this organization because they were seen as the best way to enact the organization's strategy and because they fitted with the nature of the work. The teams in this case organization are responsible for the whole work process or segment that delivers a product or service to an external customer. Determining the extent to which the teams should assume management responsibilities and what the basic leadership model for the teams is, is a design choice of the organization, not the choice of a team. The structure of the case organization is presented in Figure 11.

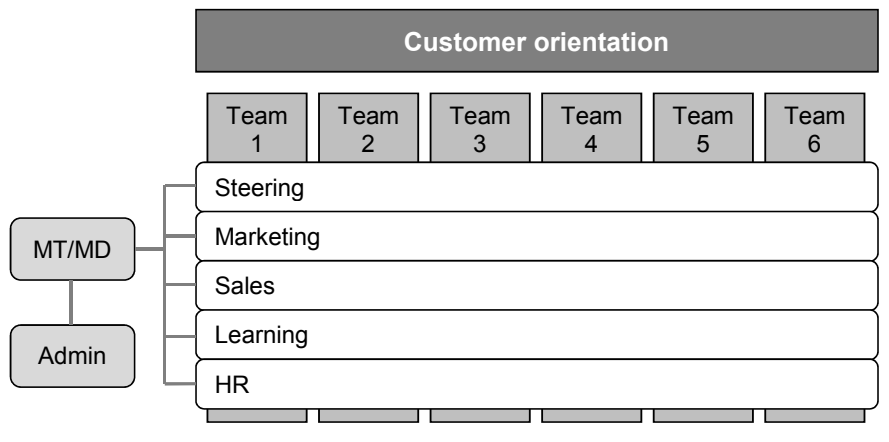


Figure 11. The case organization

The second design element of the case organization is the nature of leadership and the use of a rotated leadership model since 1998. The roles of the managing director, process owners and team leaders have been in rotation in three-year periods. With this background, a climate of shared leadership is fostered and this promotes the overall capacity of the team to function and perform effectively. The third design element of the case organization is to work as a networking organization as presented in Figure 12. For example in client projects, internal strategy work and development work projects are organized across different teams.

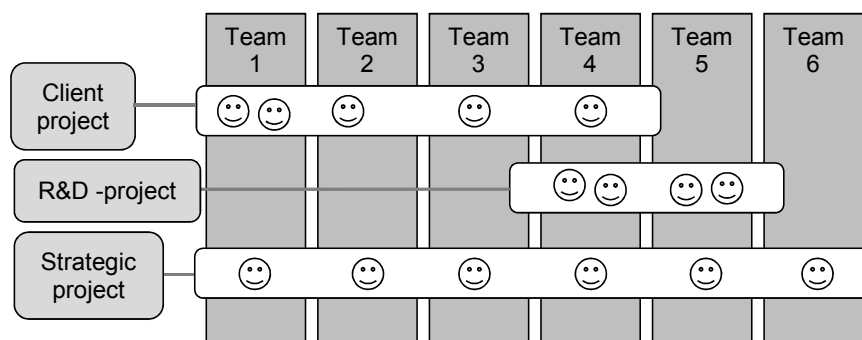


Figure 12. Project teams around specific topics

The study was undertaken during the five-year period 2005 – 2010. In the beginning the team consisted of six people. As mentioned above, the author of this research is a

member of this team. In the end of the data collection period in 2010, the team consisted of seven people. Four team members had been working in the team from the beginning. One new team member started in January 2006, another in May 2007 and the third one in December 2008. The participants in this study were six current team members and two ex-team members. For the sake of anonymity, the team members' names are labeled with tags "TM1, TM2, TM3, TM4, TM5, TM6, TM7 and TM8". The team members' pre-understanding of team-based work arrangements, team working and leadership is based on their work as consultants from 1 year to over 20 years, but also on work in different leadership roles in different kinds of organizations in industry and services, in the private as well as the public sector.

When doing their consulting, training or coaching work in customer projects, the team members work typically alone, in pairs or in small groups. Together as a team they meet each other on about 30 days per year. In these meetings they do planning work with customer and development projects, strategy work, and learning. The team members are located in different towns in Finland, and the meetings are typically organized in the office of the case organization. Also other working environments are used yearly. The basic working model is presented in Figure 13.

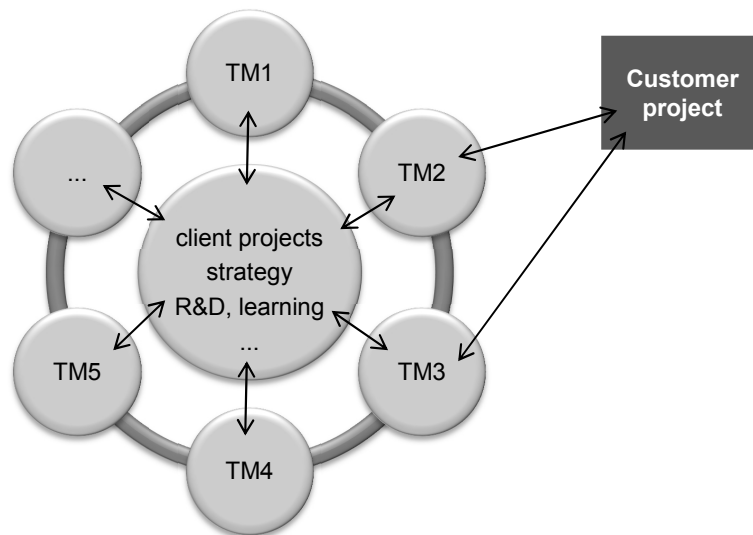


Figure 13. Working model of the case team

4.2 Critical incidents in developing shared leadership

This section presents a categorization of critical incidents in developing shared leadership in the case team in this study. This categorization is, essentially, a description of both the nature and frequency of critical incidents that occurred during the research interviews. The categorization was formed in the initial and focused coding processes described in the data analysis section.

4.2.1 Frequency of critical incidents

In all, the respondents identified a total of 613 critical incidents in developing shared leadership. These incidents as meaning units were grouped into 29 sub-categories based upon similarities in the issues they had addressed. These sub-categories were then clustered into 12 categories and were then related to four (4) themes: *developing shared understanding*, *working with leadership practices*, *applying self-leadership*, and *taking care of supportive team culture*. The frequency distribution on the identified critical incidents is shown in Figure 14.

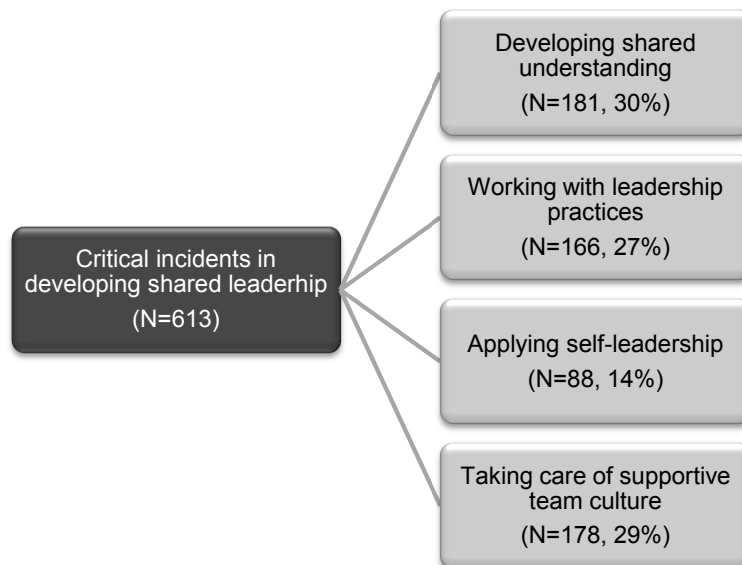


Figure 14. Frequency of critical incidents

This organized main and subcategory structure describes the basic elements of developing shared leadership in the case team. These identified themes illustrate also the areas of key activities of every-day team leadership. These themes are presented and discussed in the next sections.

4.2.2 Developing shared understanding

The theme of developing shared understanding compiles tasks or processes carried out before the leadership practices can emerge. These incidents have an impact on shared leadership in the team because they allow the team members to operate under a common set of assumptions. These assumptions or expectations serve to guide how both the team members and the team as a whole respond to environmental cues, as well as what aspects of the situation or task receive their attention. These incidents also serve to guide the coordinated action needed for the leadership functions among the team members. The focus with these incidents is not the shared understanding itself but the process of developing shared understanding and interaction between the team members. It is also a question of a common process of meaningfulness, e.g. the value of common goals and purpose. This refers to congruence between the requirements of a role as a team member and an individual's beliefs, values and behaviors. The theme of developing shared understanding includes the categories *collective leadership beliefs*, *guiding principles* and *facilitation of empowerment* (Figure 15).

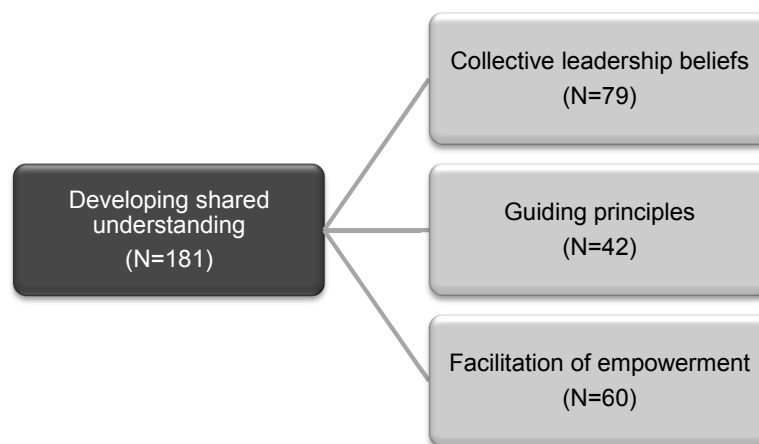


Figure 15. The theme of Developing shared understanding

Collective leadership beliefs

The category of collective leadership beliefs includes beliefs about how to work with the shared leadership approach in the team context. These beliefs can be seen as a behavioral disposition. For example, there can be beliefs about the value or possibilities of shared leadership in the team, such as the belief that a shared goal is essential to team effectiveness; beliefs about the characteristics and behaviors of individuals in the team, such as the belief that people in a team need to be unselfish or the belief that a team leader is a person who can take charge in a crisis; and beliefs about the practices or models of shared leadership, such as the belief that everyone takes part in the leadership process, the belief that decisions affecting everyone should be made by a consensus, or the belief that the team's strategy should be set by a common process at the team level, not by the management team of the whole organization. The category of collective leadership beliefs was divided into three overlapping sub-categories: *common understanding about leadership in teams*, *common understanding about the leadership model*, and *common understanding about responsibility and roles* (Table 9).

Table 9. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Collective leadership beliefs

Category	Sub-category	N=79
Collective leadership beliefs	Common understanding about leadership in teams	20
	Common understanding about the leadership model	38
	Common understanding about responsibility and roles	21

The starting point of the team's operation was that everyone had some kind of basic understanding of shared leadership. Leadership in a team includes different elements and points of focus that should be discussed together as a team before going to the factual contents. It was not only team level discussion that was mentioned as important, but also the fact that a team member must give up his or her traditional notion of leadership and have the courage to think in a new way. The following

meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of common understanding about leadership in teams:

- We need open discussion about internal leadership.
- We need a sufficiently uniform picture of leadership.
- Shared understanding of leadership enables us to accomplish things together.
- Shared leadership can only work if the members of the team have a sufficiently uniform notion of what leadership is.
- Understanding of human sociology and group dynamics is required for leading the team.
- Shared leadership requires that the team understands the essence of leadership.

Shared leadership needs circumstances where it can function. The organisation provides the structural and strategic framework that the team has used independently to shape its operations. A shared understanding of the operational model in leadership situations creates the foundation the team needs to be able to complete the tasks it is responsible for without external control. The operational model enables tasks to be completed without anyone actively looking after them. It is also important to note that working with this operational leadership model is a continuous process that creates the work culture in the team. The team needs continuous discussion about its ways of operation and the operational model makes it also possible to evaluate how well the leadership works. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of common understanding about the leadership model:

- For leadership to work, all team members are required to internalize the operational model.
- A jointly agreed operational model is required for shared leadership.
- All members share an understanding of responsibilities and factual contents.
- Shared leadership requires that the actual operational model, how we work in practice, has been developed together.
- Leadership must be analyzed and translated to policies.

Some of the critical incidents under this sub-category were described also as developmental issues concerning the common leadership model:

- The current structure creates challenges for the team's growth and leadership.
- The role of strategy in the team's operational model has to be made clearer.
- The team's challenge is to develop a team-based operational model for financial control, because financial control within the team is in conflict with shared leadership.

It is important that the leadership in the team is shared in an organized way among the team members, and all team members have some leadership responsibilities. However, sharing responsibilities is not enough. There has been a need to open discussion and to create a shared vision of the responsibility roles. The team members have different notions about assuming responsibility and following agreed roles. Everyone fulfils the responsibility roles in his or her own style in the team. Specifying the content of responsibility roles would make shared evaluation and equal development of leadership possible. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of common understanding about responsibility and roles. The issues under this sub-category were mostly described as developmental needs.

- We should make the role of the process owner clearer together.
- The role of the team leader has not become clear.
- We have different notions of the role of the team leader. We have not defined it together.
- There is a need to make the team leader's role clearer within the team.
- We have no shared rules for fulfilling responsibility roles.

Guiding principles

The category of guiding principles deals with incidents where team members shape their future together. These incidents can be seen as a set of processes that have to be done in order to make sure that what the team members do and work at in the team will produce the expected results. Defining the team's mission and ensuring that all team members have a common understanding of this mission is important for

directing the team toward goal accomplishment. Moreover, defining the team's mission ensures that the team has aligned its purpose, goals, and tactical plans with the broader organization's expectations, strategy, and values. This work offers then the platform for the team members to work with leadership issues and with the common processes of shared values and norms the team formed as the basis of a team-oriented leadership culture. These processes also form a common identity and develop cohesive relationships among the team members. The category of guiding principles was divided into two overlapping sub-categories: *common value base* and *common purpose* (Table 10).

Table 10. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Guiding principles

Category	Sub-category	N=42
Guiding principles	Common value base	27
	Common purpose	15

Shared values were understood as the key factor that shapes and changes the community's essential character and self-directedness. For example, in the beginning of the team's lifecycle, the lack of discussion about fundamental values caused conflicts and wasted energy. Because the team members had not discussed the team's fundamental values they ended up in a confrontation when interpreting their rules of operation or playing rules. Later, working with the team agreement and playing rules has created a framework for the team members' expectations concerning their operations and behaviour. The playing rules are a strong guiding force in the team's activities. During this process the underlying norms of the playing rules are made visible and something the team members are conscious of (how they want to act). Agreeing about things (such as values and playing rules) together creates justification for shared leadership. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of the common value base:

- The team agreement has made our operations more resilient.
- Shared values form one of the cornerstones of the team's operation.
- Stopping as a team to think about value-based matters has improved the team's processes.

- The team agreement has been a very important process for the team's development.
- Shared operational frameworks create safety and make the work of the team easier.
- The environment and the norms the team works in are important for the self-directedness of the team.

The team's work together is guided by a common vision. A shared vision, shared objectives and a shared strategy make it easier for each team member to go along and agree to be led. The team members exercise decision-making power from the perspective of the team's fundamental mission and objectives, not from their individual perspectives. When things come from the direction the team has agreed on together, the team's vision, they move forward much easier. When there are conflicting powers of control within the team, like for example in terms of financial control in the case team, it is not so easy to go along and agree to be led. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of a common purpose:

- Our tasks must be linked to the team's fundamental mission.
- A common objective is required for shared leadership in the team.
- Shared leadership is about reaching that shared objective, not individual advantage.
- When leading the team one must be sure the team is moving towards an objective everyone understands and agrees on.
- Shared cause and shared objectives improve the team's operation.

Facilitation of empowerment

The category of facilitation of empowerment is comprised of incidents concerning the ways of working when developing shared understanding e.g. about leadership beliefs and guiding principles. With common processes, the team members develop a sense of ownership over their tasks and work processes. As a result, the team members may demonstrate higher levels of commitment to their tasks in the team. To the extent that the team members truly accept the values, beliefs, and goals of the

team, they may also be more open to alternative, non-traditional, and perhaps even at times slightly uncomfortable forms of achieving the goals.

The incidents give also insights into the importance of the ability to reflect on and find meaning in team events. This reflection includes making sense of how these events relate to what an individual as a team member finds important and meaningful. The ability to create common meaning and link everyday events to a framework of a common mission, vision, goals and values, is positively related to a willingness to work with the team's issues. The category of facilitation of empowerment was divided into two overlapping sub-categories: *a real participative process* and *meaning-making process* (Table 11).

Table 11. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Facilitation of empowerment

Category	Sub-category	N=60
Facilitation of empowerment	A real participative process	21
	Meaning-making process	39

Shared leadership depends on the approval of all members of the team. Implementing something to actual practice requires that the entire team participates in the process. Understanding the importance of participation and commitment during the leadership processes is an important cornerstone of self-directedness. With sufficient processing skills things tend to become less dependent on one person and get done more easily. Like mentioned by the case team members, process ownership must not turn into somebody's private thing. Ready-made solutions do not work at the team level and things cannot be 'hammered' through in the team, but one can shape the shared processes. When working with these processes, it is important to note that the team processes must be genuine and thoroughly honest situations where the participants are empowered. It is important to remember that there is a big difference between involvement in the decision process and true influence and empowerment. Involving the team in the so-called decision process seems transparently manipulative to other team members, and makes team members feel disempowered and unmotivated. The

following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of a real participative process:

- Shared processing and the skills needed for that are important for reaching the shared objectives.
- Open dialogue and agreeing about things together are important for leadership.
- Processing skills are essential in teamwork, because leading people and managing processes make commitment to a shared whole possible.
- Inner motivation requires that things have been discussed together and a conscious effort has been made to build up the team.
- When we discuss matters, everyone must have an equal opportunity to contribute.
- Involving other participants in the processes is important.

Things will not move ahead within the team if they become somebody's private property. Moving things ahead requires a shared feeling of the importance and benefit of the matter to the team as a whole. Accepting things requires a shared process and shared creation of meaning. Formal agreements can be made in the team, but they do not work in practice. The team members can say that things are important, but without a shared process they will not move ahead. All matters of the team are not equally important to everyone. The team members must also be able to accommodate the visions of individual members of the team. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of a meaning-making process:

- Some processes do not move ahead because no shared feeling of importance is linked with them.
- We value development-related matters high as a team, so they move ahead.
- There are things and processes within the team that are important to some members of the team, but not all, so they do not move ahead very well.
- Some of the team's processes can be "liturgical", making them something that is forced on us.
- Things originating within the team are more easily adapted and moved ahead.

- Things given and controlled from the outside do not move ahead very easily within the team.

4.2.3 Working with leadership practices

The theme of working with leadership practices refers to the actual leadership work and team activities, which are constructed through practices. The leadership practices can be understood as collective enactments such as team routines, ways of working and tools that include individual behavior. It is the overall pattern of behavior that matters, not just the behavior of certain individuals. The critical incidents in this theme deal with questions like how leadership and organizing work is actually done, who does the formal work of leadership and how they get to do it. The leadership practices concern the processes and practices which constitute the day-to-day activities of team life and are related to expected outcomes in team. The theme includes the categories *planned leadership processes*, *using different leadership roles* and *creating common practices* (Figure 16).

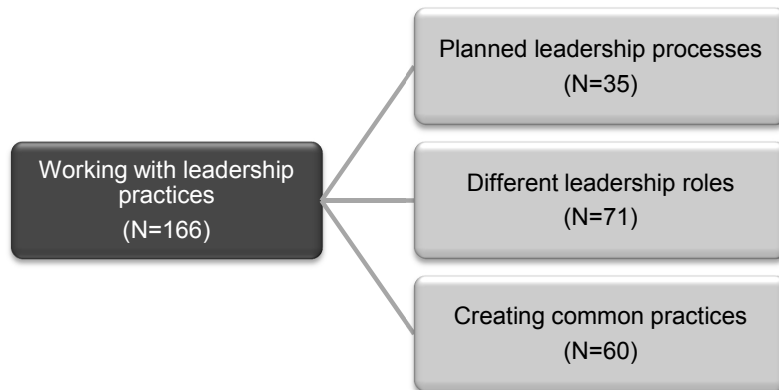


Figure 16. The theme of Working with leadership practices

Planned leadership processes

The category of planned leadership processes describes the importance of working with a team leadership structure. These leadership processes are used to direct, align, and monitor the team's task work. The team focuses on activities related to structuring the team, planning the team's work, and evaluating the team's performance, so that the team will ultimately be able to achieve its goals or

objectives. In this sense, the primary focus of the team is not on direct task work per se, but rather on activities that establish the structures and processes that will enable future effectiveness. The category of planned leadership processes was divided into two overlapping sub-categories: *identified leadership processes* and *processes divided into areas of responsibility* (Table 12).

Table 12. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Planned leadership processes

Category	Sub-category	N=35
Planned leadership processes	Identified leadership processes	14
	Processes divided into areas of responsibility	21

An important initial step in the team was the establishment of an acceptable leadership pattern. Since there was no single designated leader to guide this process, the shared processes had to be built within the team. Shared leadership was implemented in the team using fixed processes. To identify relevant team leadership functions the team's leadership processes require not only an internal focus but also a focus on events and activities beyond the team's boundaries. The team operates within larger organizational systems and with other teams in the organization. The team leadership processes consists of those that were central to the transition phase of team performance but have also become important during the team's action phase. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of identified leadership processes:

- The importance of a conscious process in shared leadership is enormous.
- It has been important that shared processes have been built within the team.
- One of the most important processes of the team is the strategy process, without which we could only grope about.
- The team agreement is a very important process in terms of mutual collaboration.
- Analysis of different processes has been a good policy.

In practice, leadership is implemented through different responsibility roles. Persons in charge are appointed for all processes. The team is managed through responsibilities that together form the whole. The big processes of the team generate smaller processes and responsibilities. For example, the strategy process is a very typical process for the team: a whole is analysed into different elements and responsibilities, and both the whole and the parts are analysed and examined. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of processes divided into areas of responsibility:

- Shared leadership requires clear-cut sharing of responsibilities.
- Leadership is implemented with responsibility roles.
- Processes are divided into responsibilities and roles.
- Process-related assignment of roles has been a good policy.
- Responsibility is shared with a conscious process.

Different leadership roles

The category of different leadership roles comprises incidents concerning the key leadership roles that have been used in the case team. Shared leadership can adopt multiple forms. In any case, the team members always share leadership responsibilities. The basic idea behind these different leadership roles have been that the team's leadership is based on a horizontal process, not a vertical position. The category of different leadership roles was divided into three overlapping sub-categories: *the role of the team leader*, *the role of the process owner*, and *roles occurring in a situation* (Table 13).

Table 13. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Different leadership roles

Category	Sub-category	N=71
Different leadership roles	Role of team leader	35
	Role of process owner	23
	Roles occurring in a situation	13

How the role of the team leader is defined is an important matter in terms of internal leadership. The team leader's role was more important in the initial stage of the team's life. The first team leader assumed a role where he would push things to the "pipeline", and shared processes were formed around them. The team leader initiated processes that supported the team's development and growth. Later, the membership of the organisation's executive board has been an important part of the team leader's role. It was also important that the role of the team leader was from the start a rotating role. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of the role of the team leader:

- The team leader's role has been the role of someone who can make fast interventions.
- It is good to analyse and discuss what the members of the team expect from the team leader.
- In the team's conflict process the team leader had a special role.
- Team leaders have had different areas of focus in their roles.
- The team leader has had a special role with responsibilities the others have not had.
- I am not sure we have a team leader anymore because there is no associated role in the organisation's executive board.

The process owners have taken responsibility for managing their own processes. The leader's responsibility is linked to initiating and maintaining the process; not performing it. The process owner is responsible for planning the process, arranging meetings, making certain that the process moves ahead, and producing materials. One important realisation has been that the process owner assumes responsibility for the process and completing it with the team, not for performing the actual task. In the role of the process owner the person in charge is not left alone with the matter. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of the role of the process owner:

- The person in charge brings the issue up for joint discussion, takes care of process management and materials, maintains the process, and communicates.

- The role of the person in charge is to move the issue forward by doing something himself/herself or organising matters so that something is done.
- The person in charge moves the matter ahead and challenges the others to participate.
- The role of the person in charge includes taking care of the circumstances that influence that particular sphere of responsibility.
- The role of the person in charge requires thinking about the processes that must be initiated in the team to make the matter move ahead. One must also think about the domain of one's own activities.
- Assigning responsibility to a work pair has been a good policy.

Shared leadership is also performed in ad hoc situations and may be born in a specific situation in the team. When somebody in the team notices something that must be started, moved forward, fixed or changed, he or she is permitted to take that space. Depending on the situation, a member of the team will assume responsibility and manage the process until a certain stage is reached. The process of leadership may change along the way, as required by each situation. The same process may continue under someone else's control. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of roles occurring in a situation:

- Someone can assume leadership in a given situation that emerges.
- In terms of leadership, the conflict process went through more than one person.
- In the conflict process the team leader handled the issue more through personal assuming of responsibility and situation-specific leadership instead of acting as a formally appointed team leader.
- A team member assumed responsibility of the team agreement process as the situation required.
- Team leadership is also shared as required by each situation.

Creating common practices

The category of creating common practices comprises incidents concerning important routines, common ways of working, and tools that have been used in the case team. The incidents in this category were generally expressed as important

steppingstones to obtaining – or not obtaining – a successful leadership process. The category of creating common practices was divided into three overlapping sub-categories: *planned way of working with processes*, *team meeting practices*, and *working methods* (Table 14).

Table 14. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Creating common practices

Category	Sub-category	N=60
Creating common practices	Planned way of working with processes	32
	Team meeting practices	15
	Working methods	13

Shared leadership requires a systematic and disciplined model of operation. Purposeful and planned work makes processes move forward. For example, the team's strategy process has been developed using the procedure agreed on earlier. The splitting of strategy to "pulses" has made it easier to adapt the strategy to actual practice. Also the team agreement has been a planned and purposeful process that is renewed and complemented in joint discussions. An important issue has also been the notions that some common processes do not necessarily work very well under the present models or that a too systematic approach is not good for all things in the team's culture. The following meaning-units from the quotes describe the sub-category of the planned way of working with processes:

- Joint negotiation of time frames has been a good policy.
- Development projects have moved ahead purposefully in the form of projects.
- "Development fists" have been a good way of moving projects ahead.
- Work moves ahead when everyone follows the procedures that have been agreed on.
- The team's self-directedness is well managed and under control. Things are monitored in an organised manner and it is done regularly.
- It is possible to participate in processes under various roles: e.g. as the process owner, a participant or an external innovator.

Having team meetings regularly has been a good policy in the team. When doing their consulting work in customer projects or common development work, the team members work alone, in pairs or in small groups. Team meetings are the place where the work is done together as a team. In these meetings it is possible to do common planning work concerning e.g. customer or development projects, strategy work, and learning. It is important to note that in the team meetings, different kinds of settings create different atmospheres for work. For example, meetings in different surroundings alter the normative and emotional structures of the team. The team meetings also offer a platform for different kinds of shared leadership practices. From the beginning it has been the policy that e.g. the different roles in meetings have been rotated. The following meaning-units from the quotes describe the sub-category of team meeting practices:

- Looking at things together in meetings and making sure they move ahead has been a good policy.
- Appointing persons to be in charge for different matters in meetings was adapted as the house policy right from the start.
- It has been house policy in team meetings to rotate the roles constantly.
- The procedures followed in team meetings have worked well and they are developed all the time.
- Different surroundings have been used for team meetings, and that has made things such as open discussions possible.
- We have learned to utilise different types of meetings in the team.

The team must be able to work with group processes and participatory methods to make the processes run properly. The ability to manage processes has been one of the team's strong points. With sufficient command of processing tools, the actual work process moves forward smoothly, enabling the team to focus on the actual contents. From the process point of view these tools have both technical, object-focused uses and psychological, subject-focused uses. The team has been able to complement process management with the skills the different members of the team have. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of working methods:

- The team members have good skills for conducting meetings.

- All members of the team know how to manage processes.
- Processing skills have made things move forward faster and easier.
- Processes stay alive better when more than one person controls them.
- Processing tools have supported process management.
- The processing skills of different team members have a great importance in our operations.

4.2.4 Applying self-leadership

The theme of Applying self-leadership refers to important individual level antecedents of shared leadership in a team. The incidents under this theme were shown to be an important criterion in the selection of responsibility areas and were described as crucial to the final go or no-go decision. This issue contains also such incidents that enhance, and give motivation and energy to work with different leadership roles. These issues were considered important because of the potential benefits that can result from them, including e.g. increased commitment, better decisions, improved quality, more innovation, and increased job satisfaction. The theme of applying self-leadership includes the categories *intrinsic motivation* and *self-control* (Figure 17).

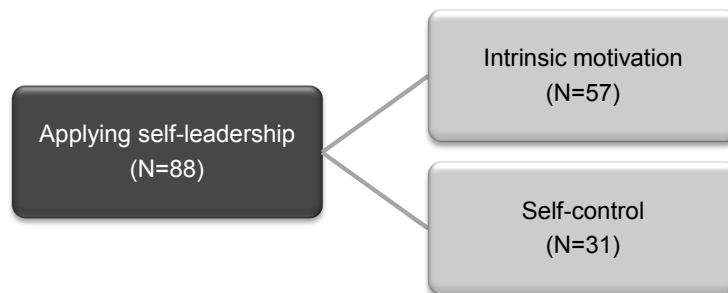


Figure 17. The theme of Applying self-leadership

Intrinsic motivation

The category of intrinsic motivation focuses on the “natural rewards” that result from performing the task or activity itself. The core of self-directedness lies in enthusiasm, motivation and the assuming of responsibility. The principle of self-directedness works best when people can be given assignments they are genuinely

enthusiastic about. In terms of leadership it takes certain sensitivity to find the challenges that inspire the entire team, not just some of its members. The category of intrinsic motivation was divided into two overlapping sub-categories: *working with inspiring tasks* and *meaningfulness* (Table 15).

Table 15. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Intrinsic motivation

Category	Sub-category	N=57
Intrinsic motivation	Working with inspiring tasks	39
	Meaningfulness	18

Assuming responsibility in the team is principally based on personal interest. The person in charge must have personal passion for the matter. Personal passion for the matter is very important for moving things ahead. Without genuine interest, the responsibilities someone has assumed fade away easily. The lack of a team member's personal motivation may slow down the team's overall development. It is good to examine the team members' motivational factors together. The team members have to have the opportunity to say which spheres of responsibility they are interested in. It is also important that the members of the team should have the opportunity to switch leadership roles to maintain interest. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of working with the inspiring tasks:

- Making a matter important requires true interest in the matter one has assumed responsibility for.
- Owners of processes that move ahead very well are personally enthusiastic about the matter.
- Inner motivation is very important for the assuming of responsibility.
- Not all team members have found roles that are personally interesting.
- Assuming responsibility starts with one's own interest in a matter.
- Lack of personal areas of interest is a sign of a lack of initiative.

Things start moving forward when somebody finds the matter important. In terms of their progress, matters are often viewed from selfish perspectives. Since individuals have many different spheres of responsibility, some things are bound to have second

priority and stand still. The development of shared leadership is sometimes held back by a conflict between personal and team interest, like e.g. in the case team between an entrepreneur model and teamwork – which one is really in control? Meaningfulness was described as the “engine” of empowerment, as meaning energizes individuals to work with some specific issues. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of meaningfulness:

- Self-directedness happens from the perspective of the individual.
- Assuming personal responsibility starts with a feeling about the importance of the matter and understanding what can be gained from it.
- Personal situations lead to balancing between one’s own activities and team effort.
- My principal idea in situations that have called for leadership has been that I personally do not have anything to lose, but I can gain something.
- Development is held back by the fact that the effort required for bringing a matter up and discussing it in the team exceeds the gain I can expect from it.

Self-control

The category of self-control focuses on a person’s own decision making process. Critical incidents in this category strive to heighten an individual’s self-awareness in order to facilitate behavioral management, especially the management of behaviors related to necessary but unpleasant tasks. According to self-leadership, to the extent that activities and tasks can be chosen, structured or perceived in ways that lead to e.g. increased feelings of competence and self-determination, task performance will be enhanced. The category of self-control was divided into two overlapping sub-categories: *voluntary-based leadership roles and feeling of competence* (Table 16).

Table 16. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Self-control

Category	Sub-category	N=31
Self-control	Voluntary-based leadership roles	17
	Feeling of competence	14

An important issue in assuming responsibility is whether I want to do something or whether I am forced to do something. In the team it has been important that assuming responsibility is based on volunteering. "Forced" processes have not moved ahead very well in the team. With increasing tasks, there was some pressure to assume responsibility, and when the workload increased, the number of "forced" and routine elements that interfered with natural assuming of a role also increased. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples the sub-category of voluntary-based leadership roles:

- If a role feels "forced" it rarely moves ahead.
- Some role assignments entail a degree of social pressure.
- Assuming responsibility also entails certain social pressure of everyone pulling their own weight.
- Responsibility is sometimes also assumed by "sacrificing oneself".
- Assuming responsibility is first and foremost based on volunteering.

Competence captures the idea that the team member feels capable of performing a particular task or activity successfully. Shared leadership requires self-confidence that one can carry out one's tasks. With some members of the team, their fear of failure may sometimes overcome their desire to succeed. Trust in one's own abilities makes it easier to assume responsibility. Many of the team members take their own skills and expertise into consideration when assuming a responsibility role. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of the feeling of competence:

- I have assumed a responsibility role through my own expertise.
- I have assumed responsibility about things that belong to my personal strengths and fields of expertise.
- The person in charge should be familiar with the actual content of his or her sphere of responsibility and have the communication skills required to make the issue move ahead.
- The person in charge of something must have substantial expertise in the matter.
- The strengths and natural tendencies of individuals are taken into account when sharing responsibilities.

4.2.5 Taking care of supportive team culture

The theme of taking care of supportive team culture has enabled shared leadership because the team members work together to produce the kind of team context that encourages the team members' willingness to both offer leadership influence and rely on the leadership of other the team members. A team's culture can be seen as a shared perception of how the team should operate to accomplish its goal. For example, team norms, member roles, and patterns of interaction are part of it. A team does not develop their culture from 'scratch'. It can be seen more as an internal process. The theme of taking care of supportive team culture includes the categories of *discipline as a common way of working*, *managing conflicts*, *taking care of team building*, and *team affective climate* (Figure 18).

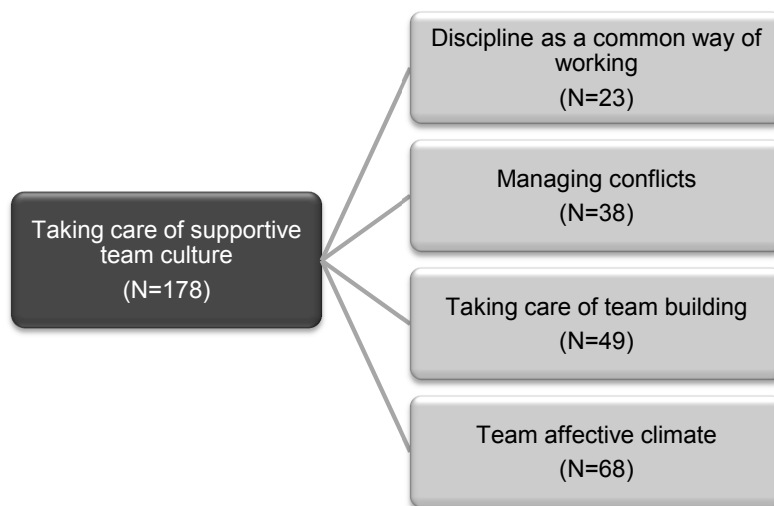


Figure 18. The theme of Taking care of supportive team culture

Discipline as a common way of working

The category of discipline as a common way of working was described as a key topic in maintaining shared leadership practices. The team has developed norms, common processes and practices and made decisions about leadership issues. How to take care of these common agreements? Most critical have been the situations where the team members have needed to take care of these common agreements e.g. agreed playing rules. The category of discipline as a common way of working was divided into two

overlapping sub-categories: *opening the expectations* and *taking care of promises* (Table 17).

Table 17. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Discipline as a common way of working

Category	Sub-category	N=23
Discipline as a common way of working	Opening the expectations	11
	Taking care of promises	12

Building shared team leadership requires discipline. The rules of operation must be discussed openly so that everyone understands them. Agreeing on matters together forms the foundation of discipline. Discipline is created through shared processes and discussions. For example, the discussions that have taken place around the team's playing rules have improved the discipline. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of opening the expectations:

- Discussions about time and respecting it have taken place in the team.
- Internal standards have been created for product expertise.
- Shared processes have improved the discipline of our activities.
- Expectations about our operations have been spoken out loud.
- Strict requirements were specified for our rules of operation.

The team needs to work in a very disciplined way within the framework formed by the matters they have agreed on. If things do not work, something must be done about it. When necessary, the team must intervene with a team member's performance or the way a team member fulfils his or her responsibilities. The team must also revise and interpret their rules of operation together when the situation calls for that, and make certain that the rules are observed. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of taking care of promises:

- We must make sure our rules of operation work properly.
- I have been given feedback when I have violated our rules of operation.

- Taking care of our rules of operation has been one of the most difficult processes.
- The team has been strict about following the agreements we have made.
- We have taken care that the team's rules of operation work properly.
- The person in charge must remind people and intervene if things are not done.

Managing conflicts

The category of managing conflicts focuses on the processes by which a team member or members perceive that others have taken some action that has a negative effect on the team’s work. Conflicts are a normal part of a team’s activity. In this category, the question is how to handle the conflicts. A conflict may have either a positive or a negative effect on a team. It can help the team operate better by exploring issues more fully, but it can also lead to emotional problems that damage communication. The category of managing conflicts was divided into two overlapping sub-categories: *discussing difficult issues* and *managing the process together* (Table 18).

Table 18. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Managing conflicts

Category	Sub-category	N=38
Managing conflicts	Discussing difficult issues	17
	Managing the process together	21

Agreeing to be led requires that the team has the ability to process and resolve things despite a lack of agreement. In a difficult situation it is the team that can stop the problem from escalating and fix it. In the case team, when the team has not worked fairly and equally, a member of the team has acted in the situation. Somebody has had to assume the role of the initiator in a difficult situation, and others have come along after that. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of discussing difficult issues:

- Issues that are related to the roles and expertise of a team member and connected to his or her own frustration have not been processed properly in the team.
- Issues should be brought up more bravely when (for example) our distribution of workload is not fair.
- We must also be able to discuss embarrassing matters in the team.
- Bringing up difficult matters is an important thing to learn for the team.
- Confronting and taking care of difficult situations together have created a foundation of trust.
- The value conflict was stopped by one member of the team in a team meeting.

The team must be able to manage group situations, such as disturbances, surprises, conflicts and unexpected events that emerge. The team must confront them and be able to process them. Development also entails coincidence, such as a conflict in the team. An uncomfortable situation has occurred, but it has also been an infinitely valuable experience for the way the team has developed. The conflict process has developed the way the team members assume responsibility on both the individual level and the team level. The conflict process has highlighted the importance of shared rules of operation and taking care of them. The conflict process in the team has also proved that the team is able to manage a process that is nobody's responsibility. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of managing the process together:

- Not processing negative things in the team leads to a destructive process.
- The conflict was an emotional process that welded people together.
- The conflict process made us confront fundamental questions, such as principles, values and what we can and cannot accept.
- The individuals involved in the conflict process had different attitudes towards the assuming of responsibility and internal leadership within the team.
- The conflict process was important and significant in terms of the team's development.

- The conflict process built commitment and improved our courage to tackle difficult things.
- Our conflict process did not leave any negative sentiments to relations between individuals.

Taking care of team building

The category of taking care of team building describes developmental interventions that focus on improving the operations of the team and team work. This means e.g. taking time regularly to evaluate the performance of the team to identify obstacles and to develop more productive patterns of work. Team building must be viewed as an ongoing activity. The category of taking care of team building was divided into four overlapping sub-categories: *working with different people*, *newcomers*, *managing internal structures*, and *evaluating and improving* (Table 19).

Table 19. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Taking care of team building

Category	Sub-category	N=49
Taking care of team building	Working with different people	10
	Newcomers	13
	Managing internal structures	15
	Evaluating and improving	11

The team can support its leadership culture with other working arrangements. To improve collaboration, a conscious choice of working with different people was made in the initial stage. Individuals have learned to respect the different ways of handling personal matters that different members of the team have. Learning to cope with different opinions and ways of working is required for moving ahead. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of working with different people:

- Working with all other members of the team has been important.
- Increasing pair work improved the team’s development.

- Working more in pairs in customer projects made collaboration easier.
- In the initial stage the fact that we did not know each other and were shy slowed down the development of leadership.
- I can learn from processes managed by others.
- When working together one notices the different ways of processing professional and personal matters that the members of our team have.

The arrival of a new team member generates turbulence. Breaking in new team members has taken a lot of time. As no clear new member introduction program has been created, there have been various difficulties with newcomers. The team has not been very successful in breaking in the new members. The following meaning-units from the quotes describe the sub-category of newcomers:

- When I came to the team my own expectations and expertise did not meet those of the team, which made me feel like an outsider.
- Changes in team line-up have resulted in the forming of cliques.
- The team has not properly introduced its ways of working to new people.
- We trusted in the 'godfather' system with new members, but it did not work.
- The arrival of a new member in the team led to a value conflict.
- New members of the team have been left outside the team.

It is useful to recognise the group roles and group structures that influence the team's activities. In addition to the professional organisation, it is useful to recognize the power relations, emotions, interactions and normative structures hidden under the surface. The team members must accept the fact that leadership changes and different people are in charge. Hidden power structures are reflected in the interaction between the team members in positive and negative ways. For example, we can have different effects on each other in different matters in the team. In development issues, for example, the opinions of some members of the team have more weight, in other issues it is other individuals. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of managing internal structures:

- Whether we want it or not, we all influence everyone else in the team.
- Some members of the team regard differences of opinion as conflicts and something inherently negative.

- The precondition for agreeing to be led is that no concealed power struggles are going on within the team.
- Leadership may also become a burden when individuals get used to certain roles and unspoken expectations come to the surface.
- On the surface level, leadership within the team appears different from the actual reality of concealed power relations working under the surface.
- The conflict situation resulted in the forming of different groups (different sides of the conflict) within the team.

It has been good that the team has kept its development as a team a part of the process from the very beginning. Awareness of the team's current situation and potential in terms of the team “development stages” has taken the development forward. During these processes the team has had to work with its own working methods concerning e.g. evaluation and feedback. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of evaluating and improving:

- The operations have been evaluated and discussed from many perspectives.
- Testing team-related issues within the team created its own dimension and also brought its own set of problems into the team.
- One part of being a team is the team-forming process and growing together.
- The feedback processes that we have gone through as a team have welded the people together.
- Feedback processes enable us to reach areas we usually do not talk about.

Team affective climate

The category of team affective climate is related to shared leadership with issues like justice perceptions, or the overall impression of fairness among the team members. The critical incidents in this category affect the team in a number of ways. The team members are more likely to accept the team’s decisions and norms. It also affects the team’s social interaction, and this affects performance and decision making. An important aspect of these incidents is related to conflict resolution and problem solving. Problems with team climate limit a team’s ability to work together. The category of team affective climate was divided into three overlapping sub-categories: *safety climate*, *equality in co-operation*, and *feeling of reciprocity* (Table 20).

Table 20. Frequency of occurrence of critical incidents under Team affective climate

Category	Sub-category	N=68
Team affective climate	Safety climate	29
	Equality in co-operation	20
	Feeling of reciprocity	19

The key to shared leadership is the ability to discuss and process everything together and agree about things together. Shared leadership requires a very open culture of interaction, and bringing things up within the team requires mutual trust. In leadership situations, e.g. when assuming certain leadership roles, open discussion is needed to be able to say yes or no when necessary. A permissive team atmosphere also makes it possible to say no. The team allows different people to accomplish things, assume responsibility and move things ahead. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of safety climate:

- Shared leadership requires a genuine atmosphere of caring, where individuals receive help and support.
- Agreeing to be led requires trust.
- Team members must have a sense of security to be able to bring up their own failures within the team.
- The permissive and supportive atmosphere has enabled us to reach new areas.
- The team's internal atmosphere has supported the development of leadership.
- Team members have a freedom to talk about and bring up different matters.

Leadership must be felt as something equal. The team's leadership was first mostly in the hands of the most active three or four individuals, but during the past few years it has been distributed more evenly. Fairness, equality and the workloads of different individuals have been taken into account when distributing the roles in the team. All members of the team are involved in the team's operations. One result of the change of the team leader's role and the team's growth as a team has been that the internal leadership processes have been given more space in the team. The following

meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of equality in co-operation:

- The team has employed a principle of equal responsibility and equal sharing.
- The way responsibility is shared is also a result of some pressure, which is often related to the workload and the principle of equality.
- Equal distribution of work is taken into account when distributing responsibilities.
- Responsibility is distributed according to our principle of equality.
- Analysing our tasks makes it easier to establish an inspiring division of work within the team and makes it also easier to distribute routine and "forced" tasks in an appropriate way.

Agreeing to be led and enter another individual's sphere of influence must be done in a voluntary way and it must be mutual. From the perspective of leadership, different individuals have different things they can give. Some elements that are influential under the surface may become unattractive, such as being overactive. Strong domination by some team members may slow down the development of leadership within the team. We have the capability of coping with not becoming listened to or not having the opportunity to influence the matter in some things, if we also have some positive experiences. The members of the team must find the right balance of becoming heard and taken into account. The following meaning-units from the quotes are examples of the sub-category of feeling of reciprocity:

- In the initial stage the behaviour of some strong personalities affected how active I was personally and sometimes made me keep my opinions to myself.
- In the conflict situation, for example, it was suddenly no longer easy to agree to be led, resulting in a counter-reaction and an opposing reaction instead.
- An individual's happiness within the team is formed by his or her comprehensive experience: there should be more feelings that I am being listened to than I am not being listened to.
- A sense of negative influence within the team leads to frustration and becoming withdrawn.
- Working together is based on a sense of mutuality: it is about giving and taking.

4.3 Two different kinds of development process

This second result chapter is the result of the theoretical sampling phase and writing the case description (presented in the data analysis section). These processes provided insight into selected core themes and critical incidents, like conditions that influence the themes, the strategies for addressing the phenomenon, the context and intervening conditions that shape the strategies, and the consequences of undertaking the strategies. Thus, this chapter answers the research sub-questions: How do leadership and leadership practices emerge? What are the key processes in a team by which leadership emerges and operates? How do leadership practices change and develop over time? What are the developmental interventions?

During the period 2005 - 2010 of the case team, episodes occurred both within and outside the team that impacted the team's experience. During this analyzing phase, a variety of different types of episodes that impacted team functioning were investigated. To the extent that an episode is critical to team success, requires immediate attention, and requires sustained attention over time, the episode can be quite disruptive to team functioning and impact team performance negatively, unless the team has the ability to adapt.

To understand how the team works with leadership issues, the review will focus on team leadership functions or the things that needed to be done for the team to meet its needs and function effectively. Typically, group development tends to combine both task and process characteristics. During this analysis phase it was noticed that a team may be subject to different contextual influences and require different types of interventions. Thus a team actually progresses along two dimensions: how they work, or task behavior (content issues), and how they work together, or relationship behavior (process issues).

4.3.1 Development of task behavior

Orientation (spring 2005 - autumn 2005)

This first phase is labeled as orientation. This phase is a period of time when the team focused on activities related to structuring the team and planning the team's work. In the beginning the members of the team needed to learn what is required of

them as a team and what they would have to work with. In this sense, the primary focus of the team in this phase was not on direct task work per se, but rather on activities that would establish the structures and processes enabling future effectiveness. During the first six months, the team worked with leadership functions like defining the purpose, defining the leadership processes, allocating roles, setting norms, and establishing long-term goals with the strategy process.

Once the team was created and its composition established, the next team leadership function was to define the team's purpose. This involved determining and communicating the role of the team in the case organization in such a way that it was broken down into tangible, comprehensible pieces. These "big lines" gave the ground for organizing the leadership processes and team's work. In the first official meeting in June 2005, the team started organizing its work by identifying the leadership processes as a structure for the team's work. The team's goals and performance expectations provided a target for team performance, but to achieve these performance targets, the team members needed to develop a shared understanding of how best to coordinate their action and work together to accomplish the goals of the team. The structuring and planning team leadership processes involved determining how the work will be accomplished (i.e. method) and who will do which aspects of the work (i.e. role clarification). These behaviors resulted in an integrated work plan that would direct the team's performance, coordinate team efforts, develop task performance strategies, and standardize team processes. The team identified processes around issues like the team's marketing, product development, boundary spanning, and personal renewal. The following quotation describes the starting point to the team's leadership work.

I think it is the fact that our entire leadership is pretty much there in the team. I have never felt that there was any actual leadership outside the team. In that sense we are a special case. It is about distributing the full scope of leadership between different members of the team. 100% internal leadership is our fundamental principle. We distribute it, and have always distributed it. When I was in the role of the leader I tried to guide the process and the discussions towards distribution of leadership to different elements. And in that sense it has then been distributed through those roles.

Around identified leadership processes, the team allocated the role of the process owner. The process owner was the person responsible for the process approach. In this first phase, the process owner was mostly responsible for the design of the process. The leadership processes were divided between the team members so that everyone in the team took a role as a process owner. Boundary spanners as process owners worked with particular outside groups. The role of the team leader was also defined as one boundary spanner, because the team leader worked as a member of the management team of the case organization. The team leader's role was also to take care of team building as described in the following quotation:

When I was selected as the first leader I got the impression that there was an expectation of managing our growth towards a top team, that the team leader had special responsibility about that. ... Then there was this thing with fast intervention. It has been one of the things that have depended on the leader.

The team continued its work by setting norms, or as labeled in the team "playing rules". These norms referred to expectations about acceptable behavior. They were written rules that guided the team members' behavior. All norms that were set during the orientation phase were initial guesses about the best way for the team to operate. The team started by setting some basic norms about how to organize and distribute work, how to make decisions, how often to meet, and how to handle the information.

The team meeting practices were established as a result of the discussions of norms. The first design element of the meetings was that there would be two types of meetings: meetings concerning the team's operational issues and meetings concerning the team's developmental and learning issues. The second design element was the rotation of roles of the chairman and secretary in the meetings. The role of the chairman was defined to involve some preparation tasks and taking care of the wholeness. In the meetings, working with different issues and processes was carried out by the process owners. The third design element was the time scheduling. The meetings were organized and scheduled for the whole next year. This made it possible to prioritize meetings as a high-level team practice.

The team took a strategy process in its program in autumn 2005. This process started by visioning about creating a compelling picture of the future. Visioning in the team was more than a vision statement. It was a process of articulating what the team members might be able to create in the future. The work continued with designing the ways of working together to realize the vision. The team adopted a modified version of the Balanced Score Card (BSC) as a tool for its strategic planning. The chosen perspectives were financial, customer, as the process perspective product concepts, and as the human perspective knowledge and wellbeing. The strategy was presented in the form of descriptive or numerical objectives and measures. The development work under the chosen strategic objectives was divided into different strategic impulses (strategic projects) with selected process owners.

After the strategy process was started, it was possible to co-ordinate and manage together the realization of the team's activities in order to meet its business goal. The team built a kind of "leadership system" for itself (see Figure 19).



Figure 19. Elements of the team's leadership systems

Action phase (autumn 2005 – autumn 2007)

The next set of the team leadership functions consists of those that became important during the team's action phase. The action phase can be described as a phase where the team focused on planned leadership processes and practices on activities that would directly contribute to accomplishing its goals. During the action phase,

important team leadership functions included monitoring the team and its performance environment, taking care of planned processes and practices, challenging the team to improve its practices continually, solving problems that the team encounters, and acquiring resources for the team. The next quotations describe this action phase.

Each stage of operation brought new features to the team. ... It became more consistent and logical, and we started going into these dimensions of really making business. There were new elements, our operations diversified and there were more dimensions in our activities that came through a business angle. The team encountered expectations from the operating environment and was assigned tasks by the management team, like do your own part, create strategies and take things forward. New elements created new expectations for leadership.

Responsibilities have been shared using certain fixed principles, but also in ad hoc and project-like situations. I feel it pretty much happens automatically in our team. We always make the decision whose responsibility something is. It is not difficult.

In the initial stage we were all taking responsibility, and later responsibilities were being assigned, sometimes forced, in a way, when the organization started assigning more workload for the team to resolve and manage. It had a decisive effect on the dynamics of catching things and assuming responsibility. More and more elements of traditional business management started coming in, and nothing could be done about that. It interfered with the natural assuming of roles and accepting inspiring challenges. We started having quite a bit of forced tasks and routine elements.

An important team leadership function during the action phase was monitoring the team. To ensure that the team performed up to its potential and was aware of external contingencies that may impact its functioning, the team started to monitor its work e.g. with a reporting model and feedback processes. These included monitoring and evaluating the team's performance, the resources available to the team, the team's

external environment, and how to work as a team. Such monitoring was a critical team leadership function because it provided the key data that told about many of the other leadership functions in the team.

When I was the leader I consciously tried to reflect the team's activities against the team 'ladders' and launch processes that would take us up on the 'ladder'.

This action phase, which involved a lot of work, revealed also some potential problems in the team. There was a gap between perceptions of what is and what individuals want. This included team members' beliefs about what the team should be like, what their role and status ought to be, how the task should be defined and managed, and so on.

The chances are much lower compared to a person with genuine interest. I can say for myself that they tended to fade away or be left with very little attention. I guess this is related to the ability to say no. These are the things where it would be important to say no if one is not genuinely interested.

What also slowed down our progress was that we never really discussed those fundamental values. We assumed we shared the same set of values, the values of the organisation. But then we had team members who had not been in the organisation for a very long time. Then a new member came in at a critical moment, a person who has always tried to bring in a businesslike attitude and stance and systematic principles in a way that has been quite visible. From the perspective of values, he brought his own dimension into it. We should have been wise enough to discuss the thing then and there. But we never discussed it until that value conflict eventually came to the surface.

This conflict process started the work with team agreement. The purpose of the team agreement was to process together the key guiding principles for the team's work. The basic idea was to build a long-term process. The team agreement was seen as a living, evolving context in which the team members work together. The elements of the team agreement were the team's mission and vision, values, norms (playing rules), key working principles, and the process descriptions of joining and leaving

the team. The team's leadership system was modified with this team agreement process (Figure 20).

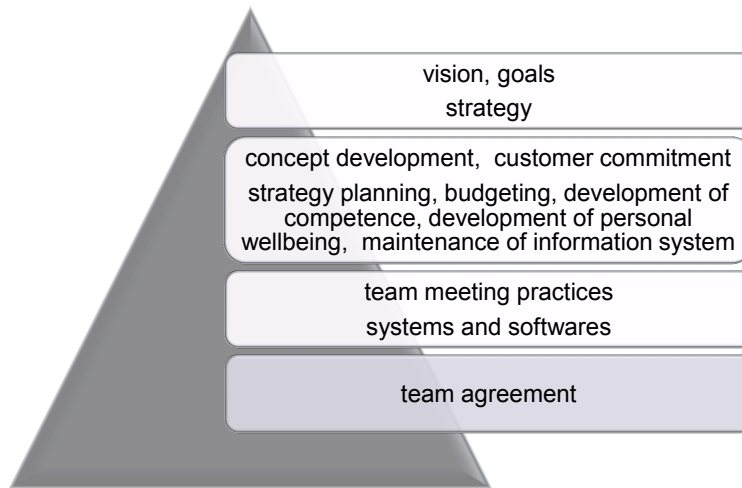


Figure 20. The team's leadership system after the team agreement process

Working with a common structure (autumn 2007 – autumn 2009)

After the team agreement process, the nature of the team processes changed. The team members were now compliant with their norms and values, as described in the following quotations:

The conflict situation made us confront fundamental questions: what our principles and values are, what we can accept as a team and what we cannot accept. It was hard work. I don't think we would have developed such sense of responsibility on both individual and team level without it. I feel those members of the team who went through it have a different attitude towards the assuming of responsibility, about internal leadership and about the responsibility of the team.

This phase was the target for task completion. The team members all knew what the task requirements and goals were, they followed an agreed-upon work arrangement for accomplishing the team's objectives, they were exchanging data freely, and they managed collectively the implementation of the decisions they had made. The characteristic tasks of the case team included team maintenance functions, work

allocation, and problem solving. The maintenance functions included such activities as conflict resolution with team and individual level feedback. For example, the team built a model for rewarding the team leader, took evaluation as a one part of its meeting agendas and made the first evaluation with team agreement. The other functions, work allocation and problem solving were mostly task-oriented behaviors exhibited by process owners with common processes and projects.

One problem solving area concerned the team's processes. The team tried to find new ways of working with planned processes. The situation in this phase was that the team had its operational tasks and 15 to 18 different strategic impulses in its program. In practice the team worked with 3 to 5 strategic impulses during the years 2007 - 2010. As a result, the team developed e.g. a strategy process with action plans, started to use pairs as process owners and built developmental "fists" (small cells or groups) for organizing development work with clear tasks. The following quotations describe the situation:

It was an end in itself that a good team had to have certain processes. The team wanted to test the concept of a good team, which resulted in problems because we had not discussed what we really wanted. Reinventing ourselves might have been an inspiring challenge to some of us, but not everybody. Something might be an inspiring challenge to somebody, but not everyone. We failed to recognise this dimension of being different individuals on the team level. We failed to recognise our own relationship to these challenges. It was probably the most important reason why things did not turn out like we wanted.

If we think about the development of expertise, which has been postponed further and further by the team, I don't think creating a process that takes maybe one hour or 90 minutes is enough, because it might be something that requires a day or two days or three days, or very determined work for two or three hours each day for two weeks. What I mean is that we should be able to allocate a lot of time for something over a short period of time, and our current structure makes it impossible. And we have not given any thought to asking why we cannot do that.

One factor might be that people have so many different processes they are responsible for that some processes are bound to have second priority. There is simply not enough time and energy. Another clear reason might be that the process lacks that certain common feeling of importance, or perhaps a definition of what we want to accomplish with it, what the significance of this thing is and what kind of steps it might contain.

In this phase and with the processes the team actually worked with, the team started to manage more active the relationships between the team and the larger organizational context by communicating and coordinating with key constituents or units outside of the team e.g., other teams and partners. The team also worked by buffering the team from external forces and events to integrate the team's work into the rest of the organization or outside the organization. On one hand, the team needed to have a fairly tight boundary around itself. On the other hand, the team recognized that it needed to have a fairly loose boundary so that it is not isolated and maintains an ongoing information exchange with the environment where it resides.

There were at least three related activities falling under this kind of leadership function. The first included selling the team's ideas to others in the organization, such as the management team, to get "buy-in" within the organization. The second aspect of managing team boundaries involved coordinating external team activities. This meant actions with the team's three concept development processes that coordinate development work between teams or clients and include discussing problems with others, obtaining feedback on product designs and requirements, and developing with outsiders. The third aspect was working with a partner concerning the team's selling process.

Developing (2010 -)

In this phase the team members started to challenge the team with regard to their task performance and confronting the team's assumptions, methods, and processes in an effort to find the best ways of accomplishing the team's work. In this phase, it was important that the team members continually question the ongoing usefulness of the team's established ways of thinking and that they explore alternative ways of working. This mode of operating, where the team members challenge the team's

assumptions, methods, and processes, was part of a continual cycle of seeking new, optimal ways of completing work.

I would personally like to clarify what we want to accomplish as a team. The fact is that we have a clearly defined mission and vision, but we don't live up to them. We have sometimes talked of a strategy. What bloody strategy! That strategy has never been a practical tool for moving our daily business ahead. Product development projects based on strategy are something that works. But they work fine. Philosophy and everyday operation are on two different levels.

The challenging process led to a new vision and strategy. During spring 2010 the team started the process to creating a new vision and to define a new strategy process. After this process the team had a more concrete vision, and in connection with that, a more clear strategy process. With this new strategy the team had now three main development themes, when a couple of years earlier there were almost 20. One of the most difficult themes in the case team and its leadership has been performance management from the economical point of view. The team started to build a performance management model from economical point of view in 2010.

Sharing the income together is a challenge. Let's say somebody sells, for example, €180,000 a year, and someone else €50,000 a year, and they are all put to the common pool to be distributed for everyone. How long do you think you have it in you to keep putting in those €180,000 years? We are asking quite a lot from our distribution model. We all have our subjective opinions about what is right. It is one of the weak points of this shared leadership: the fact that we don't have that authority of a position. But its strong point is that we can talk about everything and agree about matters.

All businesses are there, after all, to make money. To make a result that can be counted in euros. Taking that matter determinedly to our team's control – that is really the most important thing, for all businesses... that is what they are there for. Everything else is, in principle, subservient to that. We have been doing a little bit of everything but not building that point of view as a team. I think that is the thing we should have brought up much, much

earlier. ... and I'm not sure it can be turned into any kind of team model. I believe some of us like the current model and would like to keep it. This issue should have been brought up much earlier.

4.3.2 Development of process behavior

Dependency (spring 2005 – autumn 2006)

Here, the team's pre-existing cohesion supports its activities in structuring the tasks and working out systems and procedures. In the beginning, the team members were not dependent on the team leader for direction. When typically in teams the leader must explain the task requirements and generate a common commitment to shared goals, in the case team this process started at once together. This background of the team can be described with the following quote:

The history of this team is interesting. As we know it started up as a product development thing. It had people from all over. In addition to the core members there were people who were more or less involved, and then at some point some new members came in. Those meetings we had together were milestones in the process, and we could build and develop the concept. At that point it was like a product development project. Then it became a team with a slightly changed line-up when the organization started building these business teams.

With this product development background, the team members discussed a lot about themes like team work, team building, and leadership in the team. The shared understanding about shared leadership in the team context was on some basic level, so the team could start to build its own leadership model at once.

It started moving ahead in the first team meeting we had five years ago, when we started talking it out together. I guess we have had the very good starting point in our team that all members of the team have pretty much understood as individuals what shared leadership is about. If we think back to the situation when the team started, I guess all members of the team understood this shared leadership on some level.

The team members were used to participatory and transparent decision making, which gave the members a say and kept them informed about the reasons behind the choices. Common processes were good for building common understanding and for nudging everyone in the same direction, but also for maintaining motivation. One of the key benefits of the team was their ability to bring together multiple skills and perspectives in planning and making decisions. Using a participatory way of working requires typically a trained facilitator to conduct it. One advantage in the case team was that every team member could work as a facilitator. The team members described the role of the participatory way of working as follows:

The processing skills we have in the team have made a tremendous impact on how we take care of things and our processes together. We have brought things up and made the team think about them. I'm not sure exactly how important it has been, but it certainly has been significant. I'm sure we would have made progress without it, but much slower and probably with less results to show.

I would say processing skills have been very, very important for our operation. But it does not mean that someone's lack of process management skills would have prevented a process from moving forward. Because we have always been able to ask a friend, like hey, could you possibly manage this? And we have done that. This is what we have – could you take this part of this process and I'll take this? Just to be able to do something else every once in a while. I have certainly done it this way. It makes the process stay more alive. But it would probably be more productive if the process owner had all the required expertise.

This is how I summarize it: leading people is an attempt to make the people being led to be able to commit themselves to the things that are important for the entity that is formed by those being led. In this case to the things that are important and significant for the team. It is about making commitment possible from the perspective of succeeding together. What it means is that when commitment is formed in each individual's mind we have to shape our processes so that this commitment can be born. Which means that you have

to start up processes of shared reflection and thinking. I think that is the thing.

For the case team, it was typical to use different group techniques to help them at each stage of planning, problem-solving, or decision making processes. These techniques structure the group process and enable the team to focus better on e.g. the problem. Two basic techniques in this phase the team used were OPERA[®] and different kinds of group memories. The OPERA[®] technique is a group creative, problem solving, and decision-making technique that allows a group of people to focus on the task of making a common decision without developing any social relations. When using this technique, the process owner states the problem to the group as a guiding question. In the first phase, called 'Own thoughts', everyone starts thinking, focusing, brainstorming, and writing down their own original views and alternatives. All the group members are involved in the process without disturbance from others. In the second phase called 'Pair's thoughts', the group is divided into pairs or smaller groups. Now everyone discusses their own ideas in pairs or in small groups. They choose together their most important thoughts. In the third phase, called 'Explaining', every pair or small group presents their thoughts. The facilitator puts up suggestions in group memory, like a flip chart. In this phase no comments or critique are allowed from others. The facilitator may ask questions to clarify ideas and thoughts. The next phase is 'Ranking', and the participants as pairs or small groups then use a rank-ordering procedure to rate the value of the solutions. In the last phase, called 'Arranging', the facilitator arranges the chosen thoughts with the guidance of the group. This kind of working combines the best sides on individual, pair, and group work. It allows for quiet work alone and very active communication with attentive listeners. This kind of systematic process is relatively quick and effective.

When the team used group discussion for their communication, some elements from the OPERA[®] process were adopted. The discussion might start with the 'Own thought' or 'Pair's thought' phases to involve everyone and to create "raw material" for the discussion. With group discussions, the team often used some kind of group memory, like flipcharts, in face-to-face meetings. With group memory the team could maintain the awareness of issues they are handling. When writing all aspects or

thoughts for everyone to see, the team members know where they are going and what they have achieved. The issues do not disappear and will be handled. From the team member and communication perspectives, when one's aspect is written down, he or she does not have to defend it and bring it up again and again. He or she can feel that "I was heard". To find a common way of working is also learning by doing as described with the following quote:

We have learned pretty well how to conduct meetings. One of the reasons for that may be that our individual leadership skills in that field are pretty good. On the other hand because everyone assumes the role of the leader in turn they also know how to behave in the other role. Understanding the leadership role helps understanding the role of the member.

Despite of using participative techniques in the team's communication, in the beginning there was some mistrust present in the first meetings. A team member may detach him- or herself and said minimum of what he or she had to say, as argued in the following quote:

In the initial stage it was about being shy and not knowing the other members of the team very well. We had less openness then, early on. Also in the sense of what one can do and what one dares to do. Some of us probably also thought like what is he or she going to think about me if I do this or that. On the other hand, we have some very strong personalities in the team who sometimes express things in a very strong way. I know it has made me keep quiet in some situations and not participate so much. One has felt in a way that this thing was said so strongly and I disagree, but I don't want to get into an argument now. So one has taken the choice of not speaking out one's opinion.

There were also silent moments in some common situations like when the team was dividing responsibility areas.

Something comes up and we see we have to do something. We talk about it and then somebody takes it. Or we talk about who would take it if nobody volunteers to take it right then and there. The individual or individuals who take it are decided on in the discussion. Or then we have a long brooding

silence that eventually makes someone sacrifice himself. Or maybe sacrifice is not the right word. But somebody decides that this thing has to be done and okay, I can do it.

Little by little that environment started to break down and the team members were able to have all sorts of things come out, and obviously the members had to work with it. For example, in the beginning, to get to know each other, the team made a decision that everyone should work with everyone in client cases during the next years.

Sometime early on we talked about it and agreed about starting to work with someone we had not worked with before during the next year, if I remember right.

Another team building aspect was that the team learnt to use different kinds of meetings and meeting environments in their work.

Then the processes we went through at Jussi's summer place were very important, not only for the development of that particular product but also our growth as a team. The other sessions were more or less routine team meetings. But those things that happened in the summer villas were something special. Their power comes from the completely different environment. The surroundings have a special effect on you, the way nature is so close, and the situation is very different. I have a feeling or an impression that the different environment changes the normative and emotional structure beneath the group's surface. Those group structures change for the duration of that thing. Then when we go back to the office and the usual team meetings, the structure reverts back to its earlier form. It changes the character of the team when we are out there. We see things that are perhaps familiar from experiential pedagogics. Those structures also change immediately if we have an external visitor in a meeting.

There were also events and learning points that supported team development, like the safety net. The safety net was a model of how to support the team members in difficult economical situations. The need to handle this kind of a situation as a team

came up for the first time in autumn 2005, when one team member who was also a newcomer in the consulting business had difficulties with his starting phase.

But we have had those points of mutual trust. Like the building of a safety net, where we succeeded in taking our discussions to such a level that a foundation of trust now exists there.

In June 2006 the team members took time to reflect on their actions, strategies, and objectives for the first time. A process where everyone reflected on the first year was organized in the team. The idea was to focus on both positive and negative feedback. Despite of this positive and negative approach to discussion, the quite cohesive team in this phase concentrated mostly on positive performance instances.

Another reflection process was in September 2006 with a framework developed by Lencione. In this process, each team member evaluated with a pre-specified framework how to discuss their performance. The framework contained five dysfunctions of a team: absence of trust, fear of conflict, lack of commitment, avoidance of accountability and inattention to results. In this process, the team members held dissimilar views to the team's work for the first time.

Conflict (autumn 2006 – spring 2007)

During this phase the team had to go through a period of internal strife. This was centered on a struggle for leadership and influence within the group. Unless the team faced this conflict, it would go "off-track." A team conflict can be broadly defined as a process in which one party perceives that its interests are opposed or negatively affected by another party.

During the summer and autumn 2006 the team faced difficult discussion themes, like what the disciplined way of working means in the team context; how to divide work and money and with whom in the biggest client project so far; and what are the demands and how to build a learning path with one key product concept inside the team. With all these issues, it was difficult to communicate one's own observations to the others and to negotiate collectively mutually satisfying solutions to the problems.

The team faced the question of what the disciplined way of working meant in the team again in autumn 2006. The team needed to handle a situation where teammates held dissimilar approaches to the team's playing rules. This internal conflict arose from disharmony between incompatible personal values and team principles. The behaviors in this phase were more interpersonal than task-oriented and the process was focused on interpersonal interactions, rather than on actual performance of the task at hand. The struggles in this situation, often unconscious, happened constantly e.g. in the team meetings. The team members clashed when opposing expectations surfaced during an event or episode.

Agreeing to be led is an interesting thing. Am I doing it voluntarily and genuinely entering another person's sphere of influence? Am I blocking the signals or am I receiving them? The team clearly entered this stage when the conflict was approaching. I have always linked very well with other members of the team. I started getting irritated about all that pressure and how another member of the team was not taking in anything from me, just kind of blocked all my signals. Agreeing to be led by him was no longer so easy, resulting in a counter-reaction or an opposing reaction. Like hey, we are no longer going in the same direction and have a clear conflict of opinions about this thing. We came into a Y-shaped intersection where the wedge kept growing and growing, and then we parted ways.

Leadership took many forms during this process. There were expectations for the team leader to handle this situation, but there were also for the first time important acts of personal leadership that the situation called for.

Then we sort of lost control of the whole matter, and this is the only thing where I think the team's leadership did not work: the leader of the team was too passive in this group situation, did not intervene but let it go on. The first person who intervened was another team member. He said in that team meeting that we have unprocessed issues in the team and that we need to stop now and talk about them.

When we were resolving the conflict, the team leader's role as the one opening the discussions and participating in them was quite strong. But that

has more to do with the role he assumed, not so much as the leader of the team, but as someone who was personally responsible for it. He talked about it very much with all other members of the team. The way I see it is that it was an act of personal leadership that the situation called for, although he performed it in the role of the team's leader. We as a team authorised him to undertake those discussions.

I think that was something we were able to do right. We were even able to call for outside help when it was not possible to do that through internal leadership. ... In terms of leadership it meant that we had the courage to bring up difficult issues in some situations. But I would not jump to the conclusion that we have that courage in all things. We now know how to control a process that was in fact nobody's responsibility in our responsibility system. I think it was one of those shared things. The team leader of course probably had the greatest responsibility. But I feel that in terms of leadership the process was sometimes on ways that had not been decided by the team leader.

The team made a common decision to start to manage this conflict in December 2006, and went through a common process with a facilitator from outside the team. The idea that the team managed their conflicts effectively required that the team members openly discussed and attempted to solve their differences actively. Despite of this process, one team member left the team in March 2007. However, at a high level of conflict, teams may start to see the benefits of such a conflict and appreciate the diverse opinions among themselves, which may in turn raise the level of team cohesion.

For our development as a team that process was absolutely crucial. That we succeeded in going through such a painful conflict process without leaving any hard feelings for the one going out or those staying in. Nobody was left with a fist in his pocket.

For me this was a valuable experience in the sense that I understood the importance of discussing the fundamental values of a community like this, and how it is a key factor that controls and changes our self-directedness. It

is not enough for the leader to know his or her stuff and it is not enough for us just to know our processes. It just does not work if we have not discussed our fundamental values. It only ends up in conflict and wasting of energy.

I feel that reaching agreement requires that this kind of culture of differing opinions is okay. That we can talk about things and reach solutions even though we might disagree about them. It requires that there are no hidden power plays or struggles going on in the team. You will not agree to be led if there are any hidden power games going on. It takes sufficient knowledge of the thing called leadership and that set of skills called leading people. And enough interaction skills so that you know how to exert influence but in an equal and adult way with the others.

What you see is different from what is really going on below the surface. Trust and respect are, however, born exactly from what goes on below the surface, and things like mutuality and a kind of closeness. Those things can become attractive or unattractive. Some element in visible leadership may, for example, be a distancing factor beneath the surface. There are things where you get your voice heard and have influence, and things where you don't have that. Happiness in a group is, in a way, a sum total of this experience. If you are never listened to in any matter or given any respect in any matter you'll be through and fed up with it quite soon. There have to be some things where you get your voice heard and get respect. I can stand not being listened to in some things if there are some other things where I do get my voice heard. I would say the sum total of this experience should be on the plus side.

Cohesion (spring 2007 – spring 2009)

Surviving the difficulties of the conflict phase resulted in feelings of relief, increased trust in each other, and a sense that “we are all together in this.” It was also important that the team noticed that this was not the optimal phase, however; it just felt better. Thus, this phase has been labeled as cohesion.

In this phase it was easier to accept the team’s goals, tasks, decisions and playing rules. The increased interpersonal bonds among the team members increased the

pressure to conform to the team norms. A cohesive team is better able to communicate and coordinate its actions. When working with the common leadership or developmental processes, the team members started more to trust the process itself, the role of process owners or pairs or small groups. There was no need to discuss everything together. The processes were easier to divide into small projects. In those smaller groups the team worked with strategic impulses and product development projects. It was now possible for the team members to work more in their interest areas.

Involving people and making them participate was a “pitfall” in the beginning. Involving people is important, but there must be some limit to it that one should be able to sense. You must come up against a wall at some point. You cannot just keep involving and making people participate on and on. At some point you have to speak out or decide on a process. Like these are our options, which one do we take? And when the choice is made then we work according to that and that is it.

It is a good policy that the leader's responsibility is linked to initiating and maintaining the process; not completing it. That way a team member who assumes responsibility about something takes responsibility of the project and the process goes through the team. So the person is not left alone with the matter.

One excellent model we have used in many places is assigning responsibility to a pair, meaning that we have not made the matter somebody's personal responsibility alone. The things that have been assigned to a pair who have then taken it ahead have probably been the ones that have produced the best results in the end. In that case shared leadership has been a solution involving a pair of colleagues. It is about peer pressure, in a way. Forgetting things becomes much harder. At some point one of the two starts getting anxious that hey we promised to take care of this thing and we are not doing it now, so what shall we do about it?

This cohesion also held the team together, but this high level of cohesion limited the team's ability to work with newcomers.

Why not on the same line? I think everyone should look in the mirror here. I felt one reason was that we were so heavily in the team-forming stage when the newest member came along. It probably was not easy to join the team at that point. We were not able to embrace the new member with open arms. Or build a proper introductory programme. We just did not get it done during that first year.

What was difficult in the initial stage was that the thing I represented did not become a part of the team's field of operation. It was told very clearly and I felt a bit like an outsider. Before I learned to accept certain things it felt pretty bad. I felt like I was a satellite, in a way.

We have not been very successful in making new members a part of the team. That has been a challenge to us. If we look at the two latest recruits we have had. The first of them needed some time before he got a grip on the work and had the courage and the ability to assume responsibility for the team's operation. For the other one I haven't really seen any assuming of responsibility yet, he has been very much in the sidelines of the team, its operations, activities and responsibilities. It is something that has me worried at the moment.

Although the process of joining the team was difficult in this phase, the social nature of the team constitutes an adaptive learning opportunity that involves new forms of practice. Through the entry and exit of members, the team was exposed to generative practice. New participants learn from continuing members how to interpret the social infrastructure of the team, in the process re-socializing the continuing players and reinforcing existing practice. However, due to their low socialization to the team, new members also question the infrastructure, so creating the potential for its re-evaluation and adaptation.

It was typical for the team to use different group techniques to help them at each stage of planning, problem-solving, or decision making processes, as discussed already in the orientation phase. When these techniques were earlier used typically to build a common decision or to open different perspectives and ideas in this phase the team started to use the techniques more in the analysis phase. The idea was not to

analyze the common issue itself but the understanding, attitudes and feelings the team members had for that common issue. The team members started to build importance for common agreements.

Working with this kind of issues the team used a technique they called 'scale'. With scales the team was able to make visible, to process and to weigh the whole group's thoughts about the matter in question, as well as its pluses and minuses. A facilitator asks questions concerning both sides: e.g. what are the pluses and minuses in the present situation; what pleases and what worries you in this idea; what works and what does not; what pleases and what annoys you. Scales as a tool is one way of processing change resistance. During the process the team can make both passive and active change resistance visible and to handle them in a positive way. For example in the process where the team developed its feedback culture the process questions were: "if we had an open and good working feedback culture in our team, what pluses and benefits would we achieve with it and what worries and obstacles do we have concerning it?" After that process the team started to work with the question: how do they would do it in practice and then practiced that model.

Interdependence (spring 2009 -)

In this phase the team's trust level was so well established that it could organize and reorganize itself any way it wished. It could operate in the absence of leading members. The work tasks could be knitted together because the members were confident with each other. The team members were characterized by a high level of reflection on often asked questions and seeking feedback, and made adjustments in response to that feedback. In this phase the team had an orientation toward learning. Whenever possible, the team members did this together and face-to-face as a team, not offline.

As the team was characterized by high levels of reflection, it was likely to have highly effective debriefings. Specially, the team members met to debrief after the completion of a task e.g. in the end of a team meeting, or at key milestones along the way to talk about what worked and what did not, and to analyze the role that e.g. each person played. But the truly reflective team went well beyond debriefings. The members set aside time to think about the big picture, where the team is going, and

how things can be done better. This meant asking deeper question like: What does the team want to achieve, really? Is the team moving in that direction? Are the members truly working on the things that they have pegged as the highest priorities? Are the members working well together as a team, or do things need to change? If so, how? Some interventions are described in the following quotations.

Then there are some individual situations that sometimes become quite strong emotional experiences to me. If I have felt we are not acting fairly now from the team perspective I have been able to open my mouth in the team meeting and say that this thing is not working right now and could we please stop here for a moment. One isolated thing that came to my mind is the distributing of sales contacts, which started at some point to look like I was only the person who was interested and happened to have space in his or her schedule that day who was getting to take charge of that. That process was stopped, rethought, and a new distribution system was created. That kind of stopping to consider things that might even touch our values have, in my opinion, been the things that have made our processes work better.

We still have a strong culture of putting our heads into the sand in our team culture. We think we make things important by saying they are important, when things in reality become important or visible through what we do. Time after time we say that this thing is important and something must be done about the processes. And nobody does anything. Let's take the strategy process for example. If I asked the members of the team right now whether creating a strategy that guides the team's operations was important, every one of them would say yes. But when we updated our action plans for 2010 based on our strategy, less than half of the members of the team sent their plans in by deadline. After the first reminder maybe one or two more, but still not everyone. It is what we do that shows how important something is. The important things are the things we do. This is the self-deception we have in the team.

What we don't have is evaluation and tracking of how successful some things are. If we look, for example, what our value process was like in the

team agreement. It was brilliant when it started, but now it has stalled. Not once after those value statements were created have we examined whether we are actually following those values like we decided to do. We have started it a little, but we have not performed any systematic evaluation one value at a time. The more we put content in there the more we run the risk of turning it into so many dead letters.

In this phase the team worked using the reflective dialogue e.g. with issues like evaluation of team agreement, discussion about the team value of working together, the first feedback discussion on personal level, follow-up and new feedback discussion on personal level, critical approach to start new processes or tasks, the role of the team leader and process owners, discussion about vision and strategy process, and starting the process with difficult themes. For example, in June 2010 the team made a common process where the result was a list of issues or questions of what the team had tried to avoid during several years, and made a plan on how to continue with these issues.

4.4 Successful adoption and development of shared leadership

The previous result chapter described how the adoption and development of shared leadership was manifested in the activities and processes of the case team. Some evident links could be found, and in this section they are put together to build a framework of successful shared leadership adoption. Each component of this framework is followed by a discussion of its rationale and theoretical implications.

4.4.1 Key dimensions of shared leadership

The objective of this study was to explore how the team members work together to form and develop leadership in the team context, especially in team settings when all team members participate in the leadership process without formal leadership roles. This work has been done with the grounded theory process by exploring critical incidents from a phenomenological viewpoint, i.e. from the level of lived experience, of what facilitates leadership development in the team context and by making processual analysis of how the team has worked with these critical incidents.

The relational and constructionist approaches to leadership invited to look anew at the focus and insights of existing empirical research and normative approaches to leadership. Attention to for example processes, activities, and practices can add to our understanding of how things happen when a team with a purpose tries to achieve it. However, these dimensions by themselves do not constitute the essence of leadership. The approach adopted in this study suggests that we are better off if we focus also on the gestalt of the interaction and the context within which leadership happens. This approach invited such questions as how people who work together make leadership happen, what roles individuals and groups play in bringing leadership into being, and how contexts affect the actual work of leadership in a team. With this kind of questions, the findings have been used to elaborate on the framework presented in Figure 21.

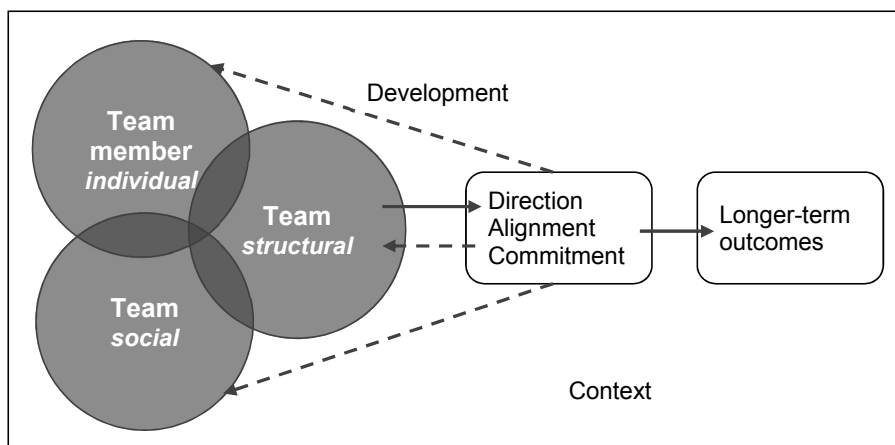


Figure 21. Dimensions of shared leadership

Four different dimensions for a successful adoption of shared leadership in the team context were found in this study. These dimensions were named as individual, social, structural, and developmental dimension. The individual dimension refers to individual team members and especially their motivation. The social dimension concerns the social and relational aspects of team life. The structural dimension refers to the organized processes and practices where leadership occurs. The final dimension, developmental dimension, refers to the ongoing and changing developmental needs of the individual, the team and the organization. The context is represented by a ground that subtends the entire figure, representing the way in

which the context is a constituting element of these dimensions. The context plays a constitutive role in leadership. Aspects of the context, such as organizational design, technology, values, competition, and the historically situated moment are constitutive sources of the beliefs and practices by which people work together (Drath et al. 2008). These identified dimensions illustrate also the areas of working with when developing shared leadership in the team context. The individual, social, structural and developmental dimensions are presented and discussed in the next sections.

Individual dimension

Working with the individual dimension in the team refers to working with a motivational process. To be motivated means to be moved to do something. A team member who feels no inspiration to act is thus characterized as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energized or activated toward an end is considered motivated. Motivation was shown to be an important criterion in the selection of responsibility areas in this study, and it was described as crucial to the final go or no-go decision. Motivation was also shown in situations where a person took a role of leadership because he or she felt that they had to take it. In this kind of situations, most projects were not finished. The challenge was not the situations and behaviors that were volitional and accompanied by the experience of freedom and autonomy – those that emanated from one's sense of self – but those that were accompanied by the experience of pressure and control and were not representative of one's self.

Self-leadership and shared leadership are highly interrelated. In fact, self-leadership has been identified as the core of shared leadership because individuals must first be able to lead themselves before they can share leadership roles with others (e.g. Bligh et al. 2006; Houghton et al. 2003). Self-leadership strategies have also been significantly affected by the concept of intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable (Deci & Ryan 1985). Self-leadership focuses on the natural rewards that result from the performance of the task or the activity itself (Manz 1986; Manz & Neck 2004). The conceptualization of natural rewards in self-leadership is based primarily on the intrinsic motivation literature (e.g. Deci & Ryan 1985). The need for competence and the need for self-determination are the primary mechanisms that drive intrinsic motivation. The need for competence involves the need to exercise and extend one's capabilities, while the

need for self-determination involves the need to feel free from pressures, such as contingent rewards (Deci & Ryan 1985). Individuals will seek to find and overcome challenges in an effort to increase feelings of competence and self-determination.

Feelings of competence and self-control (i.e. self-determination) are a central part of the conceptualization of natural rewards in self-leadership (Manz & Neck 2004). According to the ideas of self-leadership, task performance will be enhanced when activities and tasks can be chosen, structured or perceived in ways that lead to increased feelings of competence and self-determination. That is to say, given a task that is inherently unpleasant or tedious (i.e. a task lacking intrinsically motivating aspects), external self-reward contingencies become particularly appropriate and effective. However, most tasks have at least some potential to be naturally rewarding. Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that the research has shown that the quality of experience and performance can be very different when one is behaving for intrinsic versus extrinsic reasons. Thus, for most tasks or activities, natural reward strategies will be more effective and generally preferable.

There are some specified factors in social contexts that produce variability in intrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that interpersonal events and structures (e.g. rewards, communications and feedback) that conduce toward feelings of competence during action can enhance intrinsic motivation. Also the significance of autonomy versus control for the maintenance of intrinsic motivation has been clearly observed in previous studies. In one sense, intrinsic motivation exists within individuals, and in another sense it exists in the relation between individuals and activities. People are intrinsically motivated for some activities and not others, and not everyone is intrinsically motivated for any particular task. What is important on the team level is opening this motivational structure. It is critical to remember that intrinsic motivation will occur only for activities that hold intrinsic interest for an individual - those that have the appeal of novelty, challenge, or aesthetic value for that individual (Ryan & Deci 2000).

To understand the motivation for activities that are not experienced as inherently interesting, it is important also to look more deeply into the nature and dynamics of extrinsic motivation. Although intrinsic motivation is clearly an important type of motivation, most of the activities people do are not intrinsically motivated, as noted

also in this study. Extrinsic motivation is a construct that appears whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome (Deci & Ryan 1985). Extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value.

It is proposed that extrinsic motivation can vary greatly in the degree to which it is autonomous (Deci & Ryan 1985). For example, a team member who does his work inside the team only because he fears parental sanctions for not doing it is extrinsically motivated because he is doing the work in order to attain the separable outcome of avoiding sanctions. Similarly, a team member who does the work because he personally believes it is valuable for his career is also extrinsically motivated because he is doing it for its instrumental value rather than because he finds it interesting. Both examples involve instrumentalities (a term used by Deci & Ryan 1985), yet the latter case entails personal endorsement and a feeling of choice, whereas the former involves mere compliance with an external control. Both represent intentional behavior, but the two types of extrinsic motivation vary in their relative autonomy. Deci and Ryan (1985) define the concept of internalization by describing how ones motivation for behavior can range from unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment. Figure 22 illustrates the taxonomy of different types of motivation (Deci & Ryan 1985).

Extrinsic motivation				Intrinsic motivation
External regulation <i>Salience of extrinsic rewards or punishments</i>	Introjection <i>Ego involvement Focus on approval from self or others</i>	Identification <i>Conscious valuing of activity Self-endorsement of goals</i>	Integration <i>Hierarchical synthesis of goals Congruence</i>	<i>Interest / enjoyment Inherent satisfaction</i>
External	Somewhat external	Somewhat internal	Internal	Internal

Figure 22. Taxonomy of different kinds of motivation

The category that represents the least autonomous forms of extrinsic motivation is labeled external regulation. Such behaviors are performed to satisfy an external demand or to obtain an externally imposed reward contingency. Individuals typically experience externally regulated behavior as controlled or alienated. The second type of extrinsic motivation is introjected regulation. Introjection describes a type of internal regulation that is still quite controlling because people perform such actions with the feeling of pressure in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancement or pride. A more autonomous, or self-determined, form of extrinsic motivation is regulation through identification. Here, the person has identified with the personal importance of a behavior and has thus accepted its regulation as his or her own.

Finally, the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation is integrated regulation. Integration occurs when identified regulations have been fully assimilated to the self. This occurs through self-examination and bringing new regulations into congruence with one's other values and needs. The more one internalizes the reasons for an action and assimilates them to the self, the more one's extrinsically motivated actions become self-determined. Integrated forms of motivation share many qualities with intrinsic motivation, being both autonomous and un-conflicted. However, they are still extrinsic because behavior motivated by integrated regulation is done for its presumed instrumental value with respect to some outcome that is separate from the behavior, even though it is volitional and valued by the self.

On the far right hand of the figure is intrinsic motivation. This placement emphasizes that intrinsic motivation is a prototype of self-determined activity. This does not mean that when extrinsic regulations become more internalized they are transformed into intrinsic motivation. The process of internalization is developmentally important, as social values and regulations are continually internalized over the life span. A person does not have to progress through each stage of internalization with respect to a particular regulation; indeed, he or she can initially adopt a new behavioral regulation at any point along this continuum depending upon prior experiences and situational factors.

Given that some of the leadership activities prescribed in a team are not designed to be intrinsically interesting, a central question is how team members can be motivated

to value and self-regulate such activities, and without external pressure, to carry them out on their own. Ryan and Deci (2000) describe this kind of a problem in terms of fostering the internalization and integration of values and behavioral regulations. Internalization is the process of taking in a value or regulation, and integration is the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it will emanate from their sense of self. In the case team, the people talked about the importance of a common value base and also the processes where to build common importance for certain issues. Because extrinsically motivated behaviors are not inherently interesting and thus must initially be externally prompted, the primary reason people are likely to be willing to do the behaviors is that they are valued by significant others to whom they feel connected, in this case their own team. This suggests that the groundwork for facilitating internalization provides a sense of belongingness and connectedness to the team. Ryan and Deci (2000) call this situation a sense of relatedness.

Intrinsically motivated behaviors, which are performed out of interest and satisfy the innate psychological needs for competence and autonomy are the prototype of self-determined behavior. Also in the case team, intrinsically motivated tasks were the key mechanism through which shared leadership practices came into being and became widely used in the team context. To support this way of working it was also important to offer optimal challenges and relevant feedback to the team members. On the other hand, there are always extrinsically motivated behaviors – those that are executed because they are instrumental to some separable consequence. These can vary in the extent to which they represent self-determination. In those cases internalization and integration are the important processes through which extrinsically motivated behaviors become more self-determined. The task is to create a conducive participative environment that fosters motivation, commitment and independence.

Social dimension

An important assumption of this research has been that the team members are strongly influenced by the interactions that they have with one another within the team environment, which can potentially impact the team members' collective thoughts, behaviors, beliefs, and attitudes. The key role of the social dimension is

that first the members of a team must offer leadership and seek to influence the direction, motivation, and support of the team. Second, the team as a whole must be willing to rely on leadership by multiple team members. For these individual and collective behaviors to occur, the team members must believe that offering influence to and accepting it from fellow team members are welcome and constructive actions. Working with this dimension is working with the team's social processes. This research has indicated that especially one team leadership issue related to the team's social climate and the development of shared leadership practices is managing conflict. Like the case team members argued, in this kind of situations the team works with value-based questions: what is important, and what is not when working together.

The climate is a set of shared attitudes or expectations that a team has with regard to a specific context (e.g., climate for creativity, climate for safety) and thus, an affective climate refers to a team's shared affective experience or tone (Pirola-Merlo et al. 2002). It is important to note that the affective climate can be influenced directly by leadership (Pirola-Merlo et al. 2002). Specifically, it has been argued in literature that leaders can create organizational norms, especially for emotional expression, that create conditions for fostering a positive affective climate (e.g. Barsade & Gibson 2007; Morgeson, DeRue & Karam 2010). In a situation where a team is forming and developing its leadership without formal external leader, the team members themselves should learn to do this work.

Team development theories (e.g. Gersick 1988; Tuckman 1965) have suggested that team conflict and cohesion have important influences on the ability of team members to interact effectively over time. By successfully managing conflict, teams develop cohesion around their revised task strategies and forge a stronger team identity. Both Gersick's (1988) and Tuckman's (1965) models note that conflict and cohesion work together to shape a team's effectiveness. These models also imply that conflict management may be an important developmental process for teams. These models discuss the role of conflict management in maintaining cohesion. Similarly, Marks et al. (2001) with their episodic model of team processes suggest that such processes as conflict and conflict management may result in emergent states, such as cohesion, that in turn would shape future processes. Once a team has successfully overcome

this conflict, trust develops between the team members, leading to higher levels of team cohesion and greater team effectiveness (Teakleab, Quigley & Tesluk 2009).

Team conflict is broadly defined as “a process in which one party perceives that its interests are being opposed or negatively affected by another party” (Wall & Callister 1995, 517). As demonstrated in prior research, conflict is multidimensional. Task conflict refers to “disagreement among group members about the content of the tasks being performed, including differences in viewpoints, ideas, and opinions,” relationship conflict refers to the “interpersonal incompatibility among members, which typically includes tension, animosity, and annoyance among members within a group” (Jehn 1995, 258). Conflict and cohesion are clearly conceptually related and are part of the same nomological network (Teakleab et al. 2009). Teakleab et al. define cohesion as the tendency for a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of its instrumental objectives.

Conflict is a normal part of a team’s activity and is a healthy sign. However, teams do not always handle their conflicts well. Rather than trying to manage their conflicts, they try to ignore or avoid them. To avoid a conflict, everyone becomes quiet when a controversy occurs. They might have decision making problems for the desire to avoid controversy. The team members accept what a certain team member says in order to avoid conflict. The causes of team conflict can change also during the team’s development (e.g. Gersick 1988; Tuckman 1965). In the earlier stages there is little conflict because the team members are being polite and try to understand everyone’s position. Notable evidence indicates that cohesive groups tend to create internal pressures towards conformity that interfere with constructive critical analysis and ultimately lead to dysfunctional decisions (e.g. Manz & Neck 1997). The term ‘groupthink’ has been coined for this process that threatens effective group decision making (Janis 1987). Groupthink focuses on negative aspects of team decision making. It refers to the tendency for group members striving to agree with one another to interfere with rational constructive decision-making processes. Groups that become contaminated by groupthink fail to analyze alternative courses of action critically and discuss them adequately. This tends to result in defective decision making, increasing the probability of an unsuccessful outcome. The consequences are poor decision making and more problems later in the team’s life.

Conflicts are caused by a variety of factors. Differences in the values and objectives of the team members, differing beliefs about the motives and actions of others, and different expectations about the results of decisions can all lead to conflicts about what the team should do. These differences create conflicts like in the case team, but from these conflicts come better decisions. In this research case, the team members talked about the importance of managing conflicts together. The resolution of a conflict depends on what type of a conflict it is. If it is about task issues, the solution is e.g. an 'agreement'. If the conflict is about relationship issues, then an agreement, periodic checks on how well the agreement is working, and opportunities to redefine the agreement are needed. Teams need to be able to address openly an arising relationship conflict as early as possible in the development process; otherwise, interpersonal conflicts might escalate and hinder task completion over time. Edmondson and Smith (2006, 19) explain that resolving a relationship conflict, particularly when it involves important issues facing the team, "served the decision-making process – helping to deepen the team's understanding of each other and of the issues, and helping the team make progress."

A conflict may have both positive and negative effects on a team. It can help the team operate better by exploring issues more fully, but it can lead to emotional problems that damage communication. A team can benefit from a conflict when there is a high degree of trust and psychological safety in the team (De Dreu & Weingart 2003). To use conflict constructively, the team needs to cultivate an environment that is open and tolerant of diverse viewpoints, where the team members feel free to express their opinions and have the ability to resist pressure to conform to the group (Ilgen et al. 2005). They need to develop cooperative work relationship so that disagreements are not misinterpreted as personal attacks.

When developing cooperative work relationships, the case team members talked about the feeling of reciprocity or justice perceptions, the overall impression of fairness, among the team members. Distributive justice refers to whether individuals perceive that the distribution of outcomes is fair. Friedrich et al. (2009) discuss procedural, interactional and informational justice. Perceptions of procedural justice refer to impressions that the processes used to determine outcomes or distributions of rewards are fair. Perceptions of interactional justice refer to the impression that I and

others are treated fairly in a more relational sense. Informational justice refers to the perceptions of fair distribution of information and resources among individuals within the team.

Perceptions of injustice can lead to negative outcomes, as happened in the conflict situation in the case team. Specifically, research indicates that perceptions of injustice at the individual level of analysis result in negative motivational reactions, stress, and negative affective reactions (for an overview see Friedrich et al. 2009). Given that judgments of fairness are often made in relation to others, the team context is one that would likely spark comparison and judgments of the fairness applied to oneself compared to other team members. Perceptions of injustice may lead to resentment and interactional stress among the team members, which would have a negative impact on the team's affective climate. In this study, it was found that if individuals felt that the team members were treated fairly, they were more likely to take part in common leadership processes and take responsible roles that were not at first in their intrinsic motivational area. This is a condition that would be beneficial to shared leadership. Additionally, as individuals are exposed to their network of team members and become familiar with one another, they may be less likely to perceive injustice, because they will likely have a more complete set of information with regard to their teammates and their contributions. This will reduce feelings of injustice and have a positive effect on the team's affective climate.

The idea that teams manage their conflicts effectively implies that they discuss openly, and attempt to solve their differences actively. Building a feedback culture and using organized team briefings have been an important part of developing cooperative work relationships in the case team. For example, this research shows what an integral part of a well-functioning leadership processes feedback is. In modern types of organizations, the perspective of who should give feedback has changed. Traditionally it has been a manager's feedback through vertical feedback channels, but working in SMTs it comes or should come more and more often from one's colleagues.

Team briefings and debriefings, or after-event reviews, have been commonly used as a means of team building in the case team. When organizing this kind of evaluation, it has been expected that these briefings will enable the members to make sense of

their work collectively as a team and to develop a shared vision for how to proceed in the future. This process has also shaped the members' cognitions about norms and role expectations. Without a pre-specified framework from which to discuss their performance, teammates holding dissimilar mental models (even high-quality ones) may find it difficult to communicate about their observations to one another or to negotiate collectively a mutually satisfying solution to problems. Instead, the team debriefing may be filled with unproductive conflicts and process loss, as teammates will attempt to explain their perspectives and convince others of their positions. This may be particularly true when the team members hold dissimilar mental models of high quality, given that these are likely to be the most resistant to change.

Smith-Jentsch et al. (2008) discuss guided team self-correction, which is a team debriefing strategy where the members are given the responsibility for diagnosing and solving their team's performance problems with guidance as to what topics they should discuss and how to do so constructively. For example, a recent meta-analysis (Salas, Nichols & Driskell 2007) found several studies that tested the impact of team training programs where guided team self-correction was a component. The results indicated that teams that received this guidance developed greater shared task expectations and demonstrated more efficient teamwork processes than teams that engaged in unguided team self-correction. Team performance is a function of both task-work and teamwork processes, and guided team self-correction has the potential to improve both.

In a team, an external leader or team leader is typically used as a facilitator when working with common processes. In the case team, all team members can work as facilitators with different kinds of techniques. This kind of a situation gives more potential for the work as a process owner of different leadership processes. In the case team it has also been possible to choose several useful techniques to help e.g. during decision-making, problem solving, conflict, and innovation processes. As argued in the case team, these techniques can help a lot during different leadership processes. The techniques structure the group process and help the team focus on the problem better. During common processes, the techniques help in the problem analysis stage, assist in selection a solution, and improve implementation in solutions. The team members are satisfied with their level of participation.

Teams that are able to address conflicts directly should be better able to develop an open, healthy, and constructive atmosphere in the long run. Conflict management research findings have shown that effective handling of conflicts that arise during team interactions may produce direct benefits (e.g. Dion 2000).

Structural dimension

Leadership in a team should be formulated, organized and controlled through explicit, predefined, and predictable practices and mechanisms. Structural orientation of shared leadership leans toward the practices of leadership embedded in a specific organizational context. The leadership practices have had an important role in the case team. Framing this in a relational way, all leadership practices are seen as collective enactments, such as patterns of conversation or organizational routines that include and transcend individual behavior (Drath et al. 2008). Drath et al. assume that leadership beliefs are the major determinant and justification for practices: practices are beliefs put into action. It is the overall pattern of behavior that matters, not just the behavior of certain individuals.

Much of what has fuelled the strategy-as-practice research momentum and energy would appear equally valid to the discipline of leadership (see e.g. Carroll et al. 2008). Jarzabkowski (2004, 454) makes a distinction between practice and practices: “Practice is the actual activity, events, or work of strategy, while practices are those traditions, norms, rules, and routines through which the work of strategy is constructed”. Whittington (2003) proposes a series of six questions to consider for the strategy-as-practice agenda. These questions are presented verbatim here except for the substitution of ‘leadership’ for ‘strategizing’: Where and how is the work of leadership actually done; who does this leadership work; what are the common tools and techniques of leadership; how is the work of leadership organized, communicated and consumed?

One way to understand leadership in a team is to uncover what Drath (2001) calls the knowledge principle the community is using as it engages in the work of leadership. Knowledge principle refers to the dominant, underlying, and taken-for-granted set of ideas and rules about how to best deal with the tasks of leadership, which give social meaning to particular manifestations of leadership. Drath (2001) calls these shared

understandings about leadership “knowledge principles” because they represent successful formulas people have found to address the demands of collective work. Using these principles gives content to the way leadership tasks are interpreted and approached in a given community, and each knowledge principle represents distinct and qualitatively different shared meanings of what constitutes leadership. As discussed above concerning the DAC framework, Drath et al. (2008) argue that any group of persons involved in accomplishing something collectively face three crucial tasks: setting direction to the work, creating and maintaining commitment to the work, and adapting to the challenges that appear on the way (see also Drath 2001). If a group does not respond to these demands, it will not survive to serve its purpose. These are thus the tasks that call for leadership. Paying attention to the way a team addresses these three tasks is a way of organizing how to work with leadership issues in the team.

For the case team, the direction has meant a widespread collective agreement on overall goals, aims, and mission. Agreement on goals may be a way of constructing direction, but the direction does not need to be ‘one direction’; rather, it is the situated, moment-by-moment, construction of direction that becomes interesting. Setting the direction meant articulating the destination and path to achieve the team's goals, as well as framing the work and practices. This task has helped the team members know roughly where they are going, why they are doing it and how it will happen. The direction has had its meaning also in organizing processes. It has also explained and reminded the team of its origin and kept a sense of purpose alive in the team.

In the case team, leadership practices are concerned with the detailed processes and practices which constitute the day-to-day activities of team life. During the forming and developing of shared leadership, the team has identified its key leadership processes, decided to use different kinds of leadership roles as process owners, worked with predefined working processes using different management tools and participative working techniques. Thus, leadership in the case team has been formulated, organized and controlled through explicit, predefined, and predictable practices and mechanisms. The need for this kind of formulation of practices is based on the basic team structure without formal leadership roles. A typical situation in the

team context with external leaders is that the leader has the main role as a process owner of all leadership processes and uses the team members as a resource to operate with these leadership issues.

To some people, this kind of leadership work that it is formulated, organized and controlled together ensures a sense of ontological security, while some consider it to be restricting and limiting by nature. On the other hand, in an adaptively driven process, the leadership practices are more decentralized and unpredictable by nature, drawing on the mutual improvisation and adaptation of individuals. This kind of leadership mode means more control for individuals over common leadership practices. Although this always leaves some people insecure, it increases individual ownership of leadership practices. The case team's way of organizing its leadership work is presented in Figure 23.

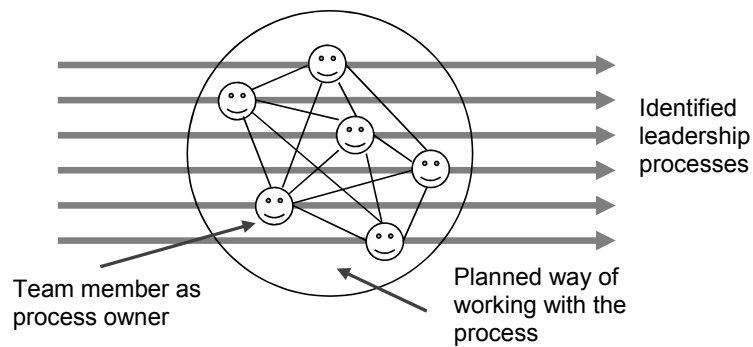


Figure 23. The case team's way of organizing its leadership work.

Another part of this structural work has been to find ways of working with the process of commitment. As Drath (2001) argues, being committed helps people find the cohesion, coordination, and investment needed to keep going, and stay aligned when obstacles appear. It also provides sustainability, continuity and unity over time. In many situations, commitment has helped to find ways around problems that have been hard to define or have not had pre-fixed solutions, and allowed team members to adapt creatively to move forward. Agreed ways of working together, selected roles of process owners in one's own interest area and the use of participative techniques have been ways to ensure commitment and adaption in the long term. Understanding the importance of participation and commitment and the character of the leadership that is linked to these qualities has been an important cornerstone of working with

shared leadership practices. With sufficient processing skills, things tend to become less dependent on one person and get done more easily. The team has been able to complement leadership issues with the skills the different members of the team have.

One part of practices are different kinds of tools. Jarzabkowski (2004) has developed the concept of “management practices-in-use”, in which she refers to management tools and techniques that are present in macro-institutional and competitive contexts, arising from communities such as industry, academia, and consultancy, and which are diffused by business schools, consultants, and management fashions. These social structures set established practices and conventions for practitioners to use. These tools can be identified as the frameworks, techniques and practices that are the basis of e.g. many strategy textbooks and participative ways of working. These tools have both technical, object-focused and psychological, subject-focused uses. The practices are open to interpretation and improvisation, depending on the use which they are put to. The recursive use follows the spirit and intent that is originally implied in the practice and is routinized by nature. The adaptive use, on the other hand, is more creative and appropriative by nature, thus leading more often to unanticipated outcomes. Jarzabkowski (2004) labels this activity as “artisan-like inventiveness”, in which actors produce their own purposeful activities and meanings for the socially legitimized practices that they use.

Understanding leadership practices as the overall pattern of behavior makes it possible to conceive leadership practices as independent of the conception of individual roles, such as leader and follower. A leadership practice may or may not involve individuals in such roles. For example, if a collective is able to produce a new business strategy through peer collaboration, then the overall pattern of the behavior that comprises such collaboration in that collective is a leadership practice. Thus, processes broadly characterized as organizational learning, teaming, and dialogue can be described and understood as leadership practices (Drath et al. 2008). According to Drath (2001), the meaning and content of the tasks of direction, commitment and adaptation differ from community to community, and this difference is related to the knowledge principle underlying the community's agreements about how to address their collective challenges, as they make sense of their work.

Developmental dimension

During the formation and development of shared leadership, there are ongoing and changing developmental needs of the team members as individuals, the team as a social dimension, and the team as a structural dimension. Specifically within this field there is an overlap between individual, team and structural development whereby, in order to be effective, interventions must endeavor to avoid returning changed individuals to an unchanged system or vice versa. Thus 'leadership development' is necessarily broader than the development of people in the team, and 'organizational' development addresses the human as well as nonhuman aspects of the system (see e.g. Day 2001).

Sometimes, development just happens. When an individual or the team as a collective has faced a challenge for which current beliefs and practices have offered an inadequate response, the individual or the team have adopted new beliefs and practices reflexively, often as an experiment, until something has clicked. The resulting new belief and practice has then become more likely to be repeated under similar conditions in the future, and the emergence of new beliefs and practices will be under way. With this kind of developmental path, the beliefs and practices that will emerge may be hard to predict, much less to control. However, development in the team has also been often intentional. An individual or the team as a collective have made an assessment of its leadership beliefs and practices, identifying those that have imposed limitations on effective behavior or performance, followed by designing a process for supporting developmental transformation of those beliefs and practices.

In a team with a shared leadership model, leadership is not a formal task for any team member, like the situation is in the traditional team structure. There is the team leader's responsibility to build the team, delegate and apportion task, solve team problems, including resolving conflicts among the team members, and to make certain that the team is aligned with and delivers organizational requirements. In SMTs team members are typically more responsible for these aspects of the job. This is even more the case for teams without a formal leadership structure, which have no designed leader to set the direction, prompt course corrections, or intervene to solve problems and resolve disputes. The members of the team must be willing and able to

develop it so succeed. Thus, leadership itself should be a subject to 'strategic' planning and development, not left as a default to whatever processes already exist. The team members work in teams for client projects but they must handle their leadership issues as well. Success depends on the team members' ability to self-lead and to collaborate effectively. This implies that they must possess or develop quickly a set of skills, practices and attitudes that support collaborative work.

The focus on leadership practices and their development draws upon notions of communities of practice. The literature on communities of practice provides two important components of a theory of practice: that practice is local and that local contexts provide opportunity for adaptive practice. Practice is local and situated, arising from the moment-by-moment interactions between actors and between the actors and the environments of their action (see e.g. Jarzabowski 2004). New knowledge about specific situations may arise from the social activities of dialogue and interaction (Wenger, McDermott & Snyder 2002), often about a problem or failure. For example, when in the case there were problems in working with the planned strategy process, the team members engaged in adaptive social interaction. They discussed the problem, which generated new methods for its solution. New practice does not come from external sources but from participating in the social process of problem-solving within the team. In this process, existing frameworks take on new meanings that are highly contextual. Local practice may thus deviate from institutionally established practice.

Originating from the work of Lave and Wenger (1991), the model of a community of practice (CoP) recognizes and develops the socio-situational learning that occurs amongst a group of people who share a passion for developing and refining a particular 'practice'. This 'practice' can be linked to a professional role, body of knowledge, topic of interest, issue, or a series of processes or problems. CoPs regularly come together to interact, sharing their knowledge and expertise to develop a 'practice' relating to the subject of interest on a long-term basis. The area or 'domain' of knowledge that is the focus for the community is shared, although membership can be geographically or culturally dispersed. The CoP therefore consists of the three elements of 'community', 'domain' and 'practice' (Wenger et al. 2002). CoPs can be either tightly or loosely structured, but they routinely involve

voluntary social networking, longer-term interaction and a shared area of passion. The shared learning and interest of the members is what keeps the CoP together.

A CoP is different from a functional unit like a team in that it defines itself in the doing, as the members develop among themselves their own understanding of what their practice is about. This living process results in a much richer definition than a mere institutional charter. As a consequence, the boundaries of a CoP are more flexible than those of a typical organizational unit. The membership involves whoever participates in and contributes to the practice. People can participate in different ways and to different degrees. This permeable periphery creates many opportunities for learning, as outsiders and newcomers learn the practice in concrete terms, and the core members gain new insights from contacts with less-engaged participants.

A team and a CoP may co-exist, and the leadership of a team can e.g. evolve into forms much like CoP (see e.g. Hays 2008). The team members belong to a CoP at the same time as they belong to other organizational structures. In their business unit, in their team, they take care of projects. In their networks, they form relationships, and in their CoP, they develop the knowledge that helps them perform these other tasks. In the team, there is a need to plan for the successful team leadership which forms part of an intentional CoP. The team performance in leadership issues is affected by the degree to which the team has high levels of social and project management skills and is capable of fostering reflexivity among the team members (Hoegl & Parboteeah 2006). Teamwork, social and project management skills can be facilitated and enhanced through collaborative leadership development linked to the criteria outlined for the development of a CoP (Jameson 2008).

A CoP develops around things that matter to people. As a result, the practices reflect the members' own understanding of what is important. Obviously, outside constraints or directives can influence this understanding, but even then, the members develop practices that are their own response to these external influences. Even when a community's actions conform to an external mandate, it is the community – not the mandate – that produces the practice. In this sense, CoPs are fundamentally self-organizing systems (Wenger et al 2002). In the present research, the development of leadership practices are described with two dimensions (Figure 24).

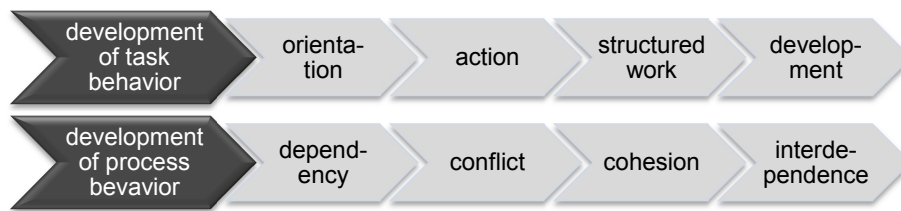


Figure 24. Development of task and process behavior

The development of leadership in the case team did not ‘just happen’ without conscious effort. In each phase, the leadership practices and working processes reflected the team member’s own understanding of important issues. The team, as well as the leadership practices, took time to develop: the process requires trust which requires time; it requires a shared passion, and commitment by all parties; it can stimulate and inspire to give confidence to instigate changes in practice. A willingness to engage in honest critical reflection to improve leadership practice formed part of this work.

On a general level, groups tend to grow one stage at a time e.g. in a four-stage process starting with forming, storming, norming, and then performing (Tuckman 1965). This means that before the team can progress to the next stage of development, they need to master and resolve the issues of their current stage. It is also important to understand that the team development process is not as neat as suggested by this simple model. It can be difficult to determine when a team has completely transitioned from one stage to another, or when a team has progressed along the path of development. The team may appear to lose some ground as it revisits previous stages in its struggle to adjust to and accommodate new demands such as the addition or loss of team members, new work processes or demands, or other changes that influence the dynamics of the team.

What is important is that a team should assess its level of development in order to determine where is on the two paths of development: the set of behaviors that help the group to clarify, organize, and perform their tasks; and the behaviors that facilitate the process of working together. A CoP can accelerate leadership development by encouraging meaningful dialogue and diverse perspectives to enable

the team members to achieve higher levels of mutual learning regarding the multiple challenges faced by leadership e.g.

- Developing collaborative skills, and especially skills and behaviors that support team work.
- Enhancing facilitating skills, deepening awareness of what facilitators do and how they do it, and the vital role of facilitation in team work.
- Developing leadership skills and new leadership paradigms.
- Deepening appreciation for and developing skills and discipline in reflection. Becoming aware of the role of reflection in learning and especially in collective learning.
- Providing the impetus to initiate or reinvigorate various projects related to practice improvement or enhancing community.

4.4.2 Performance mechanisms in developing shared leadership

In this research a number of predictable outcomes or dependent variables are suggested, thought to be associated with the application of shared leadership development dimensions. These include team cognition between all the dimensions, trust between the individual and social dimensions, self-efficacy between the individual and structural dimensions, and leadership culture between the social and structural dimensions. These outcomes may serve as the mechanisms that affect individual and team level performance when forming and developing shared leadership within a team. These performance mechanisms are presented in Figure 25.

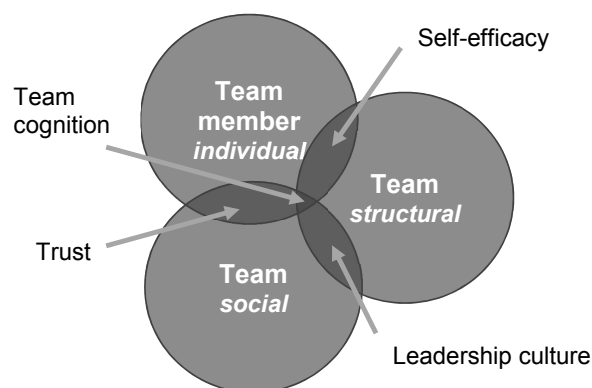


Figure 25. Performance mechanisms in developing shared leadership

Team cognition

Team cognition is an important part of basic team functioning. Without well-formed team cognition, the team members will not be able to share knowledge and information, coordinate each other's activities, resolve conflicts, or negotiate agreed-upon solutions efficiently. The essential task interdependency demands that the team members work effectively together, introducing cognitive requirements beyond the individual level (Cooke et al. 2000). Team cognition refers to the mental models collectively held by a group of individuals that enable them to accomplish tasks by acting as a coordinated unit. This team-level integration of mental models functions as mental templates that are imposed on information environments to give them form and meaning, providing a cognitive foundation for action. For example, team cognition is related to the processes that acquire, store, manipulate, and use information for the purpose of creating a group-level intellectual product (Klimoski & Mohammed 1994). Cognitions generally require the team to develop shared maps and models of incoming data that will aid meaningful interpretation and reduce both information overload and uncertainty (Klimoski & Mohammed 1994). That is, the team develops a shared or common way of thinking about themselves and their activities.

The concept of team cognition was first proposed as a powerful explanatory mechanism for understanding interaction in effective teams (Cannon-Bowers et al. 1990; Klimoski & Mohammed 1994). Team cognition enables the members to formulate accurate teamwork and taskwork predictions, adapt their activities and behaviors in a collaborative way, and thereby increase the overall team effectiveness (Cannon-Bowers & Salas 2001). Team cognition helps teams manage their members' knowledge, expertise, and skills as integrated assets, assign tasks to people with the most capability, and coordinate their actions and adapt their behavior to the demands of the project and the expectations of other members (He, Butler & King 2007).

Based on its explanatory power, team cognition has been argued as a potential variable to predict the likely effectiveness of teams (Cannon-Bowers & Salas 2001). Team cognition has been studied in a variety of disciplines with different approaches and perspectives (see e.g. Burke, Fiore & Salas. 2003), and it has been described in terms of shared cognition, metacognition, team mental models, collective cognition,

transactive memory, and shared mental models. The traditional view of team cognition portrays a team as an information processor, consisting of a collection of information processors (Cooke et al. 2009). Shared mental and team situation awareness are considered the two key constructs relevant to team cognition.

Cannon-Bowers et al. (1990) suggested originally four distinct mental models in teams, including (a) equipment models, (b) task models, (c) team interaction models, and (d) team models. Equipment models refer to knowledge about the equipment used by the team, such as equipment functioning, operating procedures, equipment limitations, and likely failures of equipment. Task models refer to knowledge about the specific tasks that the team needs to complete, such as task procedures, likely contingencies, likely scenarios, task strategies, and environmental constraints. Team interaction models refer to knowledge about the way the team members interact with one another, such as the roles and responsibilities of each member, which members are information sources, common interaction patterns, appropriate communication channels, and role interdependencies. Finally, team models refer to knowledge and specific information about other members of the team, such as the knowledge, skills, abilities, preferences, and tendencies of other members. Although these models are all distinct, they can coexist and are often not independent of each other.

The possession of compatible mental models has an impact on shared team leadership because they allow the members to operate under a common set of assumptions. These assumptions or expectations serve to guide how both individuals and the team as a whole respond to environmental cues, as well as what aspects of the situation or task elicit their attention. More specially, shared mental models serve to guide the coordinated action needed for the smooth transference of leadership functions among the team members. In order for shared mental models to be functional in terms of promoting shared leadership, at least two prerequisites need to be met (Burke et al 2003). First, the team members must be aware that the expectations arising from mental models are shared or else they may not act on these expectations (Klimoski & Mohammed 1994). Second, flexible shared mental models need to be possessed by the team so that the members do not fall into a trap of conformity norms where they feel there is only one right way to do things, possibly blocking using new strategies or the updating of existing mental models. The

individual knowledge structures of the team need to be flexible enough to account for this, which means that the team members must be aware of standard procedures, and yet also be aware of which member could act as a substitute if the team has to adapt appropriately.

Another individual knowledge -focused construct is team situation awareness. A situation model is developed when a team is actively engaged in a task, it is context-specific and changes as the situation changes (Cooke et al. 2000). A situational model represents the team's collective understanding of the situation at any given point in time, and makes use of preexisting mental models (Cooke et al. 2009). Given that the team mental model contains knowledge related to team member characteristics, it serves as a key resource for the team members to determine to whom the leadership function needs to be transferred. For example, the situation may demand immediate boundary spanning – on the basis of the team mental models, the team should know which member is best suited to handle this function. As a situational model represents the team's collective understanding of a specific situation at a given point of time, its role in the implementation of effective shared leadership is that it guides the determination of when the leadership function should be transferred (Burke et al. 2003).

Whereas the information-processing perspective considers the locus of team cognition to be within the individual team member, Cooke et al. (2009) offers another perspective called the ecological approach which views team cognition as an emergent feature that results from a history of interactions between team members. Thus the focus should be on team activity and interaction dynamics rather than on individual knowledge. Of the various interactive activities that the team members may perform, such as working together, observing, and monitoring, communication can be described as the “heart of team behavior” and can be viewed as the primary means for team members to work toward performance ends. It is through communication that the team members interact with each other, share views and concerns, clarify team roles, assign subtasks, and coordinate their activities. Team cognition requires communication in order for the team to build and maintain mental models to facilitate team performance (Cooke et al. 2009). Through frequent communication, the team members may quickly develop knowledge and

understanding of each other, foster an awareness of the situation or context in which the team is functioning, and adjust their behavior accordingly. Thus, dynamic changes in team cognition occur as a natural result of these information- and knowledge-processing activities (see also e.g. Klimoski & Mohammed 1994).

The perspective on team cognition has interesting implications for design as well. What kind of design would help the team to enhance team cognition and, thus team performance? The shared mental model view advocates a design that facilitates the convergence of knowledge. For instance, cross-training where the team members are indoctrinated into the tasks and roles of other team members has been thought to induce a shared mental model (Cannon-Bowers & Salas 2001). Likewise, shared or common displays where the team members can view information used primarily by other team members might also promote knowledge sharing (e.g. Gutwin & Greenberg 2001). Alternatively, an ecological perspective would focus more on the interaction (Cooke et al. 2009). Team performance would be improved according to this perspective by focusing on communication, interaction, or coordination variation in situ. This ecological approach to team cognition offers an alternative way of thinking about it.

Trust

Trust is a critical condition for the kind of mutual influence that characterizes shared leadership. Because influence involves power, the ability to share influence necessitates some level of basic trust in other team members' motives and abilities. An individual who does not feel that the other team members uphold commitments, are honest, or that he or she might be taken advantage of if he or she allows peer influence, is unlikely to accept others' influence; to do so would involve an unacceptable level of risk. Trust is defined as an individual's or group's belief that another individual or group will make an effort to uphold commitments, will be honest, and will not take advantage given the opportunity (see e.g. Bligh et al. 2006). Trust has been cited as the variable with the strongest potential influence on interpersonal and group behavior (see e.g. Burke, Sims, Lazzara & Salas 2007). As a result, understanding the determinants of trust in teams can be an important key to fostering team level functioning.

Trust has been conceptualized as an emergent state. Emergent states refer to cognitive, motivational, or affective states that are dynamic and vary as a function of contextual factors as well as inputs, processes, and outcomes (Marks et al. 2001). From this perspective, trust has primarily been described as an attitude which can develop over time or very quickly, according to contextual factors and need. As an emergent state, trust can be considered as both an input and a proximal outcome, depending on the context (see Marks et al. 2001). For example, trust in leadership may be viewed as an input to communication, but it may also be viewed as a proximal outcome of the interaction a team member has with other team members. From the perspective of an emergent state, the above suggests that trust can be developed or broken due to specific interactions and be linked to specific situations (Burke et al. 2007). For instance, a team member may be trusted to give credit for others' work but may not be trusted to meet deadlines. This is an example of trust that emerges due to past behaviors which is very specific to certain situations and may be more tenuous over time.

It is important to distinguish between two relatively different types of trust that may develop between team members: affective-based trust and cognitive-based trust (McAllister 1995). Affective-based trust is based on high levels of citizenship behaviors and frequent social interactions, and leads to open exchange of information and an increased tendency to reveal sensitive personal information, knowledge, and ideas. In contrast, cognitive-based trust develops when e.g. a team member perceives that another team member has demonstrated reliable role performance in the past and possesses satisfactory professional credentials (McAllister, 1995). Therefore, mutual cognitive-based trust may develop as the team members succeed in performing complex roles, bringing excellent educational qualifications to the team, applying relevant special training, or revealing prior experiences that they can bring to bear on team tasks (Bligh et al. 2006). According to Chowdhury (2005, 313), high levels of cognitive-based trust allow the evaluating team member to more readily "engage in collaborative work and seek knowledge from those he or she trusts".

The two types of trust may have varying effects on team-level functioning. With affective-based trust, individuals develop strong links of personal values and emotional ties toward each other. This improves their understanding of each other as

individual team members and creates a climate of emotional openness, where the individuals are less concerned about their own vulnerabilities or fears that other members may exploit them for individual outcomes. The resulting social intimacy also helps them develop shared values, perceptions and mental models. With cognitive-based trust, on the other hand, the team members are more likely to experience improved professional relationships and enhanced collaboration concerning team tasks and activities (Chowdhury 2005).

Trust develops through frequent and meaningful ongoing interaction, where the team members become comfortable and open in sharing their individual experiences and contributions, where ideas and assumptions can be challenged without fear or risk of repercussion, and where diversity of opinion is valued over cohesion (Holton 2001). According to Quinn, Anderson and Finkelstein (1996), encouraging shared interests, commonly held values, and collectively satisfying solutions are essential to leveraging the potential of knowledge workers. Shared leadership involves the ability to engage in constructive lateral influence, to give and receive feedback, and be at times both an effective leader and an effective follower. These behaviors will likely be facilitated to the extent that the team has reached a level of mutual cognitive-based trust that allows the team members to engage in these behaviors within an environment of mutual respect and understanding for one another's professional capabilities (Holton 2001). Establishing trust has been argued to be a fundamental aspect of the successful formation and growth of any team.

Self-efficacy

One of the critical components in the development of shared leadership is self-leadership, and individual leadership self-efficacy is an important first step on the avenue through which leadership occurs in practice. While team self-leadership involves a greater collective responsibility for decision making and behavioral control at the workgroup level (Manz & Sims 1987), individual self-managing activities include the organization of and a high responsibility for one's own work. The team members' proactive work behaviors are crucial to success of working with a shared leadership model. Proactive individuals take self-directed action to anticipate or initiate change in the work system or work roles (Grant & Ashford 2008). Of particular importance is what the team members think about their ability to

accomplish the leadership task at hand. These beliefs determine how much task-related effort the team members will expend and how long that effort will be sustained in the face of challenging situations (Bandura 1986; DeRue, Barnes & Morgeson 2010). Moreover, the team members may have difficulties in focusing e.g. on the leadership role and developing appropriate ways of working with the leadership issue, until they are certain that they can play their own roles effectively. Self-efficacy embodies beliefs relevant to these issues. Self-efficacy is defined as people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance (Bandura 1986).

Of the various motivational concepts, the social-cognitive theory (Bandura 1997) identifies self-efficacy as the most powerful self-regulatory mechanism in affecting behaviors. According to Bandura, self-efficacy is a major determinant of people's choice of activities, how much effort they will expend in those activities, and how long they will sustain effort in dealing with stressful situations, obstacles, or setbacks. People with high self-efficacy for a given task are more likely to choose to engage in the task, will expend a greater amount of effort in accomplishing the task, and will sustain that effort for a longer period of time. In addition, people with high self-efficacy for a task perceive less stress when attempting to accomplish the task, set higher personal goals, and are more apt to visualize success at the task than those with lower self-efficacy (for an overview see Bligh et al. 2006).

Self-efficacy has proven to be extraordinarily useful as a motivation concept in numerous domains of human functioning. Given that personality research has highlighted the importance of motivational processes and that self-efficacy is a central motivational construct for the prediction of behaviors, leadership self-efficacy it is posited here, referring to the perceived capabilities of the individual to perform functions necessary to accomplish specific leadership roles effectively (see e.g. Ng, Ang & Chan 2008). Consistent with the theoretical and empirical distinction made between task-specific versus general self-efficacy, leadership self-efficacy is a specific form of efficacy beliefs targeted at e.g. leadership behaviors. In general, self-efficacy increases an individual's sense of control and his or her belief that he or she can be successful. Role-breadth self-efficacy specifically describes individuals' confidence in their ability to take on proactive, integrative and interpersonal tasks,

such as implementing new work procedures (Parker 1998). Individuals with high role-breadth self-efficacy have the confidence that they can take on new roles within the team and contribute to the wider goals of the organization.

The team members need to feel confident in their ability to engage in proactive behavior. As proactive work behavior can involve questioning the status quo, it is not always perceived as a positive behavior, and can involve high social costs (Crant 2000). With proactive behaviors requiring both risk taking and effort, individuals' role-breadth self-efficacy is particularly important for these behaviors (Parker 1998). Role-breadth self-efficacy refers to employees' confidence in taking on new roles and challenging tasks and to carry out a range of integrative and interpersonal tasks (Parker 1998). It has repeatedly been shown to be a proximal predictor of proactive behavior (e.g. Strauss, Griffin & Rafferty 2009).

Efficacy beliefs are derived from experience, and Bandura (1986) has identified four major categories of experiences that influence the efficacy estimate. The first and most influential are personal performance accomplishments. Research has shown that succeeding in a challenging activity provides the strongest information for changing efficacy beliefs. The second category influencing the efficacy estimate is vicarious experiences, that is, exposure to models. By observing new skills and strategies in others, people enhance their task capabilities. For example, by watching another person performing a task successfully tends to raise the efficacy beliefs of the observer. Efficacy is also affected by the third category, positive feedback or the encouragement of a credible person, such as a coach, mentor, teacher, or parent. It is easier to build and sustain a sense of confidence if those we admire and respect express confidence in us as well. The fourth category is physiological condition and mood states; hence, the better one feels physically and emotionally, the more efficacious one will feel.

While any of the four categories of experiences described above can affect the efficacy estimate, it is important to recognize that the actual influence of any one of these sources on a person's judgment of self-efficacy depends upon how the individual evaluates the information. It is not just the "objective" character of the information that matters, it is also the "subjective" interpretation of what has been experienced. The estimation of personal efficacy is a cognitive process. Thus, for

example, performing a task successfully will not necessarily produce a positive change in the performer's self-efficacy. As Bandura (1997) points out, a number of personal, social and situational variables affect what performance experiences are selected and how they are interpreted and combined to form the efficacy estimate.

Feelings of efficaciousness develop gradually through life experiences, and it is during these many experiences that the four determinants of self-efficacy are encountered and interpreted. As noted above, the most potent determinant of the self-efficacy estimate is past performance accomplishments in relevant tasks (Bandura 1997). It is by doing and succeeding at doing that the individual builds the skills, coping strategies, and task knowledge necessary for proficient performance. As team members with high self-leadership skills interact with one another longitudinally, they communicate their individual beliefs that they are interested in the task, willing to expend large amounts of effort to accomplish that task, and will persevere in the face of setbacks and obstacles (Bligh et al. 2006).

Leadership culture

Within the team's leadership culture, leadership practices come into being and become widely used in the team context. The efficacy of the leadership practices in working with team's issues shapes and reshapes current and future beliefs about leadership. Drath et al. (2008) describe a process where the web of belief interacts with the web of practice, with time producing a relatively stable system of belief-and-practice. This system of beliefs about how to work with common leadership processes and the linked practices can be thought of as the leadership culture of a collective (Drath et al. 2008). A leadership culture is a more or less stable pattern in a collective's approach to leadership.

The concept of leadership culture fits with the concept of group culture. Group culture has been used with different meanings (for an overview see Sánchez & Yurrebaso 2009). Some of them refer to group culture as an interpretive scheme, historically developed and socially maintained, which the subjects use to give meaning to and to structure their own actions and those of others. Others maintain that group culture is defined by people's understanding of the social system to which they belong. In any case, two components emerge from the conceptions of culture

that are related to each other: socially shared knowledge and a set of customs. Schein (1992, 12) defines the culture of a group as follows: a culture comprises the “pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems”.

Sanchez and Yurrebaso (2009, 98) synthesize multiple views of group culture when defining it as “the set of suppositions, values and norms whose meanings are collectively shared in a particular social unit (work team or group) at a specific time”. According to Schein (1992), the most visible, but at the same time, most superficial level is considering culture as a pattern of behaviors e.g. the norms, stories, symbols as expressions of shared beliefs. This behavioral pattern reflects a second, deeper, level of culture, which is the team’s system of shared values. Shared values are, in turn, driven by the third and most fundamental level of culture: shared assumptions. Norms define the accepted and expected behavior. They do not need to be written but exert influence on the behavior and attitudes of group members. Individual and group perceptions are what constitute acceptable or unacceptable behavior in the work place. Norms are seen as the standards that regulate group members’ behaviors (e.g. Levi 2007). In other words, they are perceptions of the way we do things around here. The set of these shared norms shapes the group culture.

When discussing cohesion in a team Sánchez and Yurrebaso (2009) use the term attraction. An attraction has its basis in values, in shared assumptions. For example Levi (2007) points out that group dynamics are influenced by individual perceptions of cohesion and conflict that are grounded in shared cultural values and backgrounds. As Sánchez and Yurrebaso (2009) continue, these values find their way of expression in behavioral norms. That is to say, the more the group members share values, beliefs, and cultural norms, the more they will feel attracted, and thus the greater the group cohesion level will become. Sánchez and Yurrebaso (2009) argue that it is not the interaction itself, but rather the content, meanings and topics of interaction which are grounded in shared beliefs, in other words, these elements are what they call actual group culture.

Teams do not develop their culture from scratch. They incorporate their cultural norms and values from their organization and society, and these norms often develop through precedents (Levi 2007)). Behavior patterns that emerge early in a team's life define how the team will operate in the future. Agreement about norms, values, and roles reduces anxiety and improves communication in a team. It is reasonable that the group members will seek to share the norms, behaviors and basic assumptions that they feel would improve their group's performance and job satisfaction. The search for these norms, values or ideal behaviors that the group members think will improve performance and satisfaction constitutes what we call ideal group culture. The differences between the actual and desired norms create 'culture gaps'. Culture gaps take the form of lack of disposition to adopt new work methods and innovation, and lack of support for programs of improvement of quality and productivity. The bigger these gaps are, the greater the probability of deterioration of group morale, lack of commitment and performance (Sánchez & Yurrebaso 2009).

5 Discussion

The purpose of this thesis was to advance the understanding of the phenomenon of shared leadership in self-managed work teams, and especially to create understanding of shared leadership in team settings when all team members participate in the leadership process without formal leadership roles. The aim was to explore critical incidents from a phenomenological viewpoint, i.e. from the level of lived experience that facilitates leadership development in the team context. This chapter presents the theoretical contributions of the study and the central results related to the research questions. The chapter also evaluates the quality of the research process and its outcomes and describes how quality criteria were taken into account when carrying out the research.

5.1 Contribution of this study

There is much discussion by leadership scholars about the emergence of alternative models of leadership that go beyond the heroic, charismatic individual as a leader, for example leadership conceived as a process, leadership as a role, or leadership as a discourse (e.g. Grint 2005; Gronn 2002; Hosking 2007; Uhl-Bien 2006; Wood 2005). An important and developing aspect of the leadership theory has in recent years been the effort to conceptualize shared leadership, where the team members are empowered and leadership responsibilities are shared. Shared leadership from a team's perspective has provided a new definition of leadership as a set of practices that can be distributed by all members of the team, not only by the appointed leader.

The problem has been that the focus of shared leadership research has been on possible new practical arrangements rather than on formulating new basic perspectives on leadership. Most research on shared leadership has taken the approach that it is a static condition where the role behaviors may be explicitly divided or entirely shared. A commonsense view is that shared leadership implies more than one person exercising some degree of joint leadership. The concept of shared leadership does not necessarily encompass more than this, but it does not always mean people working together and sharing knowledge/authority, or the sharing may be more or less minimal. The concept does not necessarily include real

sharing of power, authority and responsibility at different hierarchical levels. The concept also does not imply that sharing leadership is more than temporary. Locke's definition of shared leadership is simply "the process of inducing others to take action toward a common goal" (Locke 2003, 271). Until its meaning becomes settled, shared leadership is likely to continue to be debated on. As Jameson (2007) argues, shared leadership in undeveloped forms may be tokenistic.

Instead of seeing shared leadership just as a new practical arrangement, in this research shared leadership signified a process of working together, which requires sharing power, authority, knowledge and responsibility. A greater degree of active, equal participation in consensus-building was implied than merely 'sharing' or 'distributing' power. If people are to work together genuinely, they need to engage fully in the realities of problem-solving and decision-making in leadership tasks and to be empowered to act with some authority. In this study, shared leadership was more fully engaged with group processes than shared or distributed leadership in recent research in general. By identifying the team itself as a key source of influence, this study pointed to a system of inter-relating individuals as a source of leadership; it is not only a leader or leaders, but also group interaction and negotiation of shared understanding that create leadership influence. Shared leadership was here conceived not as the parsing out or alternation of leader-based influence, where the leader role passes from one individual to another, but as a qualitatively different social process: interactive, collective influence. It is a social process that requires its own competencies, distinct from vertical leader competencies, including engaging in lateral influence as an expectation of performance; accepting responsibility for providing and responding to leadership (influence) from peers; and therefore developing skills in both leader and follower roles.

Key aspects of significance were the emphasis on social, contextual, processual and relational aspects of leadership. A recent (re)conceptualization of leadership through a relational view e.g. by Uhl-Bien (2006) captures these dynamics. She suggests that a relational orientation starts with processes and not persons, and views persons, leadership and other relational realities as made in a process. Her argument is to establish an overarching framework that can embrace two sets of competing ontological and epistemological positions on leadership: the individual or entity

perspective; or the socially constructed relational perspective. Thus, shared leadership can be seen as a relational, collaborative leadership process or phenomenon involving team members who influence one another mutually and share duties and responsibilities. Sharing duties and responsibilities does not mean an equal share, nor does it mean delegating, but rather understanding how the tasks of the team are completed together. It therefore includes an understanding and responsibility for the whole process, not just for a part of it or one's own task. The key is that the team as a whole participates in the leadership process.

This approach is helpful in the sense that it allows the discussion of understanding leadership as contextualized, not restricted to a single or small set of formal or informal leaders, but rather embracing a dynamic system embedding leadership within a particular context. This interpretation of leadership resonates with discussions in team leadership research where the notion of leadership as an individualistic phenomenon is seen as restricted in terms of understanding the phenomenon (see e.g. Yukl 2006). The relational and constructionist approaches to leadership invited to look anew at the focus and insights of existing empirical research and normative approaches to leadership. Attention to processes, relationships, and activities, for example, added to the understanding of how things happened when a team with a purpose tried to achieve shared leadership.

The main research question of this study was: *How do team members work together to form and develop leadership in the team context?* This main research question was answered with the help of three sub questions: *How do leadership and leadership practices emerge? How do leadership practices come into being and become widely used in the team context? How do leadership practices change and develop over time?*

The framework built in this research integrates the different dimensions (individual, social, structural and developmental) of shared leadership to work with, describes their relationships, and unfolds the central themes in experiencing leadership in the case team. The findings of this study can be seen as a contribution to the understanding of what constitutes essential aspects of shared leadership in the team context that can be of theoretical value in terms of advancing the adoption and development process of shared leadership.

Through self-leadership processes people influence themselves to achieve the self-direction and self-motivation needed to perform.

The findings of this study showed that self-leadership should play an important role in the facilitation of shared leadership. This research supported the notion of the role of self-leadership as one of the key individual-level antecedents of shared leadership. Proactivity by a team member was an important source of capability for the shared leadership in the team. Proactive behavior depends on individuals who are motivated and self-starting. Motivation was shown to be an important criterion e.g. in the selection of leadership responsibility areas and was described as crucial to the final go or no-go decision. The results also suggested that the team can play an important role in developing these attributes, e.g. by working with processes called internalization and integration.

An integral part of the success of shared team leadership is a cohesive team, and therefore the leadership functions of supporting the social climate were critical to team's effectiveness.

The team members must offer leadership and seek to influence the direction, motivation, and support of the team. The team as a whole must be willing to rely on leadership by multiple team members. For these individual and collective behaviors to occur, the team members must believe that offering influence to and accepting it from fellow team members are welcome and constructive actions. Trust is a critical condition for the kind of mutual influence that characterizes shared leadership. This research indicated that especially one team leadership issue related to the team's social climate and the development of shared leadership practices is managing conflict. The idea that teams manage their conflicts effectively implies that they discuss openly, and attempt to solve their differences actively. For example, building a feedback culture and using organized team briefings can be an important part of developing cooperative work relationships in the team.

Leadership in a team should be formulated, organized and controlled through explicit, predefined, and predictable practices and mechanisms.

In the team context, leadership processes are typically organized with the help of external leaders. Based on the results, in the situation without formal leadership roles

it was important that the team identified its key leadership processes, decided to use different kinds of leadership roles, worked with predefined working processes using different management tools and participative working techniques. Developing leadership meant developing the beliefs and practices by which the team worked with key leadership issues. Leadership practices were seen as collective enactments, such as patterns of conversation or organizational routines that included and transcended individual behavior. It was the overall pattern of behavior that mattered, not just the behavior of certain individuals.

Leadership itself should be a subject to 'strategic' planning and development, not left as a default to whatever processes already exist.

In a team with a shared leadership model, leadership is not a formal task for any team member. The findings showed that the development of shared leadership included and often required ongoing development of the team member and the team. In a situation without a formal leader, the focus on leadership development can draw upon notions of communities of practice and the learning capability embedded therein, which leads to the development of tacit knowledge of team leadership practice bespoke to particular situations. The development of leadership does not 'just happen' without conscious effort. Communities of practice develop around things that matter to people. As a result, the practices in the team reflect the members' own understanding of what is important. Willingness to engage in honest critical reflection to improve the leadership practice should form part of this work.

Team cognition is an essential group process of shared understanding for the team members to work collectively and achieve common goals.

Without well-formed team cognition, the team members will not be able to share knowledge and information, coordinate each other's activities, resolve conflicts, or negotiate agreed-upon solutions efficiently. The findings of this study extended previous research by suggesting that working with leadership issues requires common meaning-making tools, a common process to produce team cognition. When selecting and hiring practices in the team there is a need to pay attention to mental models and cognitive complexity. A collective perspective of leadership forces us to recognize the centrality of participation and the immersion in dynamic

social contexts, including the systems, structures and practices that emerge from such participative settings, which shape leadership agency and influence leadership outcomes. This way, multiple conversations, dialogues and interpersonal communications shape the leadership practices, and leadership can be seen to emerge from pragmatic settings of everyday activities.

Particular emphasis was placed on notions of leadership as a process of sense-making in the broadest perspective, where leadership is sense-making of the past, the present and the future and making sense of purpose – connecting assumptions and values and aligning them to objectives for action. Sense-making as practical action focuses on problem solving and creative innovative solution generation. The work of leadership requires different meaning-making tools and a relational dialogue. Leadership emerges when people with differing world views use dialogue and collaborative learning to create spaces where a shared common purpose can be achieved while the diversity of perspectives is preserved and valued. Different people can participate differently in the process of leadership, which happens when collaborative forms of thought and action become the predominant model to accomplish the team's purpose.

Within the team's leadership culture, leadership practices come into being and become widely used in the team context.

Attention to ideas like shared leadership is critical, not just because it allows more people to get in the picture, but because the focus of the picture shifts – away from actions of two or three people to the work the team undertakes together and the way the team authorizes individuals to act on its behalf. The efficacy of leadership practices in working with the team's issues shapes and reshapes current and future beliefs about leadership. In this research it was found that when a team has an internal environment characterized by a common value base and norms that are well understood within the team, a disciplined way of working with common agreements supported by an ability to manage conflict, as well as a high level of involvement within the team with the feeling of equality and reciprocity, it is able to develop a leadership structure characterized by high levels of mutual influence and sharing of leadership responsibilities. Discipline is not seen as a process of control, it is created through shared processes and discussions instead.

5.2 Evaluation of the study

As we evaluate where we have been and what we have gained, we look back into our journey and forward to imagining how our endpoint appears to our readers (Charmaz 2006). The quality of a study can be evaluated from a number of viewpoints. According to Miles & Huberman (1994), the goodness of the conclusions of a study can mean that they are, for instance, possibly or probably true, reliable, valid, dependable, reasonable, confirmable, credible, useful, compelling, significant, and empowering. In addition to the conclusions – the output of the study – the evaluation has been suggested to cover the effect of the researcher, the research process and the procedures, and the documentation of the study (Miles & Huberman 1994; Patton 2002). It has also been argued that qualitative research, which is based on different assumptions about reality and different worldview, should consider validity and reliability from a perspective congruent with the philosophical assumptions underlying the paradigm (e.g. Easterby-Smith et al. 2008; Merriam 2009).

There is no established definition or notion for the evaluation of reliability or validity within qualitative research (see. e.g. Creswell 2007; Merriam 2009). Whether one wants to use the traditional terms of reliability and validity, or the criteria proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985): credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability, the question remains the same: to what extent can the researcher trust the findings of a qualitative study (Merriam 2009). The evaluation of these concepts should be an integral part of the whole research process.

The first criterion, credibility, is about showing that reconstructions of the realities of the participants correspond to the original constructions. In the light of qualitative research it is not possible to show the realities as such, only the reconstructions of them. The second criterion, transferability, concerns the generalizability of the research findings. The third one, confirmability, is about ensuring the truthfulness and applicability of the research using various techniques. The fourth criterion, dependability, is about evaluating the context. It is important to open up any contextual factors in order to improve the evaluation of the reliability and validity of the study. In a case study, contextuality is the starting point of the whole approach.

Several procedures were conducted to ensure sufficient visibility of what credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability were in this study. Describing the research data, research process and analysis was endeavored to be done so that a reader can evaluate how and in what terms it would be possible to transfer the findings or parts of them of this study to other settings. The detailed description of the whole research process in chapter 3 was intended to provide a possibility to assess the process from the reader's own perspective and to consider possible cases for generalization. It was also endeavored to explicate the author's own ontological and epistemological standpoints in section 3.1 and the author's own perspectives and limitations in section 3.4. This was done in order to enable the reader to evaluate and consider the reliability and trustworthiness of the research. The usability of the research results through generalizing is thus partly left to the readers.

Different methods were used to gather information concerning the research phenomenon so as to triangulate or cross-validate the results. It was also attempted to assess the strengths and limitations of each method during the research process. The data for the study were gathered via qualitative methods like interviews, archival data and observation. In case studies, it is actually recommended to collect different types of data by different methods from different sources in order to produce a wider scope of coverage and a fuller picture of the phenomenon under study (e.g. Merriam 2009). During the research process, a reflective approach as a researcher was also maintained in all phases of the study. When analyzing the data, the grounded theory - methods of constant comparison, different coding procedures, theoretical sampling and memo writing were used systematically (Charmaz 2006; Strauss & Corbin 1998). As Charmaz (2006) points out, in the grounded theory approach validation is built into the research process, with continual checks of the credibility, plausibility and trustworthiness of the actual strategies used for collecting, coding, analyzing and presenting the data. The aim was also to present as context-rich and meaningful descriptions of the case as possible. For, example, direct quotations from the interviewees, as well as different kinds of tables and illustrations on the data and its analysis procedures were amply used throughout the text to convey the credibility of the theory to the reader, to make the account 'ring true', make sense, seem convincing and plausible, and enable a 'vicarious presence' for the reader (Miles & Huberman 1994).

Some question marks or weak points were identified with this research, and special attention was paid to them during the whole research process. The first was related to the process of interpretation. As the findings are grounded on participants' life-world experiences, one main question is the reliance of the method on interpretation. There was admittedly a fair amount of interpretation in this, as well as most other qualitative studies. The interpretation becomes also inevitably doubled as the participants first interpret and express their own experiences, after which the researcher interprets these interpretations. The process of working with own ontological and epistemological standpoints and the review of the phenomenological approach (in chapter 3) made clear that interpretation is not so much a problem as a basic condition for understanding meaningful experiences. Such understanding is always grounded on individual experiences and framed in a social and cultural context, so while interpretations may seem more or less plausible, the interpretative element is unavoidable in human sciences. It also provided a constructive and accessible methodology for exploring and revisiting different topics deeply from the perspective of the participants' meaningful lived experiences.

The second question mark is related to the author as a researcher. Excessive identification with the case team did possibly not allow an objective analysis of the data. The author may have been biased in his own preferences for selecting relevant issues from the research data based on his own experiences of working in the team. The author's own perspectives (e.g. a team member, a consultant, a researcher with experience of R&D in a team and leadership issues) are a prevailing fact and certainly affected the way the research was conducted. It is usually beneficial if the researcher has experience in the everyday life of his research environment. Knowing the case team was useful when conducting e.g. the interviews and discussing the findings because it was easy to build trust with the participants. It was useful when one knew the background of the team and team members, the processes the team had had and the language that was used. Thus, e.g. in the interview phase less time was needed for discussing various kinds of background information. The whole research process was also discussed and adopted in the case team.

On the other hand, the researcher may have become so familiar with the features of the everyday life of the research participants that they may become invisible

(Merriam 2009). To avoid this, it was essential to let the people working in the case team read the report, discussed the key findings, and comment on how they depict the reality from their perspective. This is member checking (Lincoln & Guba 1985) or getting feedback from the informants (Miles & Huberman 1994). Another important thing was that there were some research leave periods when it was possible for the author to detach himself from everyday reality in the case team. The main focus during the first and second period was on gathering the data. The focus in the third was on analyzing the data, and in the fourth on writing the report.

The third question mark is related to the factors affecting possible generalization. The issue of generalization has been considered problematic in the context of qualitative research, and the opinions on the usefulness of the whole concept diverge (e.g. Merriam 2009; Patton 2002). In this research, the standpoint of analytic generalization was taken. According to Yin (1994), it is possible to generalize the findings of the case study analytically but not statistically. In analytic generalization, the findings are generalized to theories that may reflect the findings of other studies (Yin 1994). Grounded theorists refer to the same idea by highlighting the representativeness of concepts in grounded theory studies as opposed to the representativeness of sample in quantitative research (Strauss & Corbin 1998).

Hence, the aim of this study was not to generalize the findings to any population, but the case team was used to build a framework of successful development of shared leadership. This way, this case was generalized to a set of theoretical concepts (Yin 1994). Three possible areas of analytic generalization can be identified in the findings of this study. First, the case analysis produced a theoretical framework to which the findings of the individual case organization can be generalized. Second, there are research results of previous studies to which the findings of the present study can be generalized. Third, there are broader theories to which the findings of the present study can be generalized. Another methodological issue enhancing generalizability is related to the description of the findings. It has been suggested that reporting the findings with a 'thick description' will help readers assess the potential transferability and appropriateness of the findings for their own settings (Miles & Huberman 1994, 279).

6 Conclusions

In this concluding chapter, some practical implications of the study are briefly described, and some ideas for future research are presented.

6.1 Practical implications

If undertaken genuinely and effectively, shared leadership will tend to transform organizations to become more inclusive places through synergistic, dynamic processes of active engagement in the vision and values of leadership while being empowered with knowledge, authority, responsibility and goal-directed problem-solving to find flexibility and quick response capabilities necessary to stay competitive in their business. Shared leadership can, if done effectively, change the entire organization by enabling everyone to be seen as a leader of a particular domain of work. This study has explicitly focused on the development process of shared leadership in the team context, and some practical implications for managers and other practitioners can be put forward.

The first implication concerns the basic structure of team work. Typically the members in a team represent functions, specialties, and professions. Boundaries define independent domains and provide sources of identity for independent individuals. In this kind of work structure, work is often pursued in a boundary-crossing mode to get everyone involved represented ‘at the table’. The value of team-based projects that deliver tangible products is easily recognized, but it is also easy to overlook the potential cost of their short-term focus. The value of using shared leadership practices in a team is not only in ‘projects’ but also in its ‘strategic’ work. Organizations must therefore develop a clear sense of how the role of a team is linked to business strategies and use this understanding to help teams articulate their strategic value. The purpose of crossing boundaries goes beyond “inclusiveness”; teams aim at creating emergent, new ideas using the various existing perspectives as tools toward this end (rather than as ends in themselves). Holding teams, in addition to individuals, accountable for outcomes supports the development of shared work, emergent roles, mutual inquiry, and the integration of differences.

The second implication concerns the use of the shared leadership -model in settings that house knowledge work. Because of the unique structure of teams in knowledge-based work settings, leadership of these teams differs from traditional models used in many single discipline team structures. The organizational members of knowledge-based team design structure are often both members of the discipline section of their own specialty as well as participants in other teams, working like in a matrix structure. In these team settings they are expected to work as a self-managed team and often without a formal leadership structure. Because of this, coordination and facilitation of these teams and their “projects” requires the use of “shared leadership”, where teamwork effectiveness is based on a system of inter-relating individuals as a source of leadership.

The third implication concerns the processes for creating and sustaining a leadership strategy. In a team with a shared leadership model, leadership itself should be a subject to strategic planning, not left as a default to whatever processes already exist. A leadership strategy is a collective’s explicit intent with respect to how it will produce common direction, alignment and commitment (e.g. common value base, norms, processes, practices). The leadership strategy is crafted to support the successful pursuit of the collective work strategy (business strategy, mission, vision). A leadership strategy is not only a strategy for people in positions of authority, but includes the beliefs and practices that everyone in the organization will need to participate in.

The fourth implication concerns the intentional use of dialogue. In the case team of this study, the practice of “putting it in the center” supported people in dealing with difference and conflicts productively. Dialogue means conversational practices that allow independent individuals (with perhaps strong opinions and perspectives) to hold differing points of view and values in balance. It includes advocacy and transcends it. The various advocacies of independent individuals are taken as elements that interact as people engage in mutual inquiry.

The fifth implication concerns the support for inter-systemic decision-making. In a typical team structure, many decisions are pushed down to local autonomous units (which represents a significant change over dependent practices that rely mostly on decisions from the highest sources of authority). A shared leadership culture includes

the practice of making decisions close to the work, but also transcends such decision making by supporting local decision makers in taking an inter-systemic view – seeing their local concerns both as local and as an aspect of a larger whole. Dialogue is an essential practice for local decision makers as they work to advocate for their independent concerns while simultaneously inquiring mutually with other parts of the whole.

The sixth implication concerns the selection and hiring practices that pay attention to mental models and cognitive complexity. Working in a collective using a common leadership strategy calls for individuals who can navigate in the complexities and ambiguities of holding opposing perspectives in productive balance (a prerequisite for engaging in mutual inquiry). Traditional screening, interviewing, and assessment practices take little if any account of an individual's mental processing and do not provide an assessment of how well an individual is likely to fit into an interdependent leadership culture. In the case team participative working processes with different working methods were used to assure that newcomers would be able to work effectively.

Finally, the last implication concerns the use of action learning to do real work. Action learning is an approach to leadership development, where the participants learn and grow together by working in strategic projects. The development of a shared leadership culture requires more than classroom learning: hands-on learning is needed to introduce people to the complexities of interdependent beliefs and practices. For this, teams must accomplish real, strategic work, not just study and report. This means taking on a project in an area of strategic importance to the collective, doing the background research, making recommendations, and, most important, being involved in the implementation of those recommendations. This approach to action learning means that the team will be required to work across boundaries as well as working up and down the hierarchy, influencing peers and superiors, as they go. Working in a project such as this creates a practice field where the team members actually work interdependently with one another and with others in the collective. As more and more teams are constituted and empowered to do real work, the use of interdependent practices grows, and more and more individuals experience interdependent approaches to leadership.

6.2 Suggestions for future research

One of the things that is interesting in an exploratory setting such as this is that many possible paths lie open, and many questions are left unanswered. This was an exploratory study and should be followed and complemented by other analyses. In terms of the theory of shared leadership, there is a clear need for a deeper empirical understanding of everyday leadership practices and interactions (in contrast to the current preoccupation with individual leader competences), and it is hoped to have contributed to ongoing and future empirical endeavors through this research.

The most extreme form of shared leadership occurs when there is no authority hierarchy, all important decisions are made collectively, and all leadership responsibilities are shared among the team members. Teams with this much autonomy are most likely to be found in small employee-owned businesses, cooperatives and communes. Shared leadership is seen more complicated in a larger organization. So, we still have much to learn about the teams and organizational processes needed for success with the radical form of shared leadership.

For example, shared leadership enables us to start with what is going on in organizations rather than from abstract performative ideals, and to take into consideration both the micro and the macro aspects of organizing rather than being limited to the study of a few individuals. The mundane, everyday processes in which the members of organizations construct notions of direction, co-orientation and action space are in one sense local (i.e. situated in a specific social setting, time and place), but also instances of reproduction of organizational and societal norms. Future studies could be based on longitudinal case designs and focus on the concrete causal processes and mechanisms linking some specific discourses and shared leadership.

Shared leadership signifies a process of working together which requires sharing power, authority, knowledge and responsibility. We may thus develop understandings of shared leadership as continuous processes where performative norms meet the specifics of everyday muddling along, where people both enable and circumscribe themselves and others, where perceptions of emerging structure and emerging ambiguity are constantly handled in interaction. The notion of

performativity and leadership is thus one important aspect that can be developed with the suggested perspective.

Another aspect is the notion of power, where simple analyses of how individual managers exercise power may be replaced by far more detailed accounts of how people produce and reproduce power relations in organizations when 'doing leadership'. For example, strategy discourses tend to endow strategy work with a special status. Typically, strategy is understood as a secretive activity, led by the top management, in which others could participate in very limited terms only. The research to date has confirmed that distributed influence facilitates the sharing of tasks, consideration, and activity roles. It would be possible to look at this power issue in terms of shared leadership.

One promising area for researchers lies at the intersection of leadership and team dynamics, and especially issues surrounding the life-cycle dynamics of groups. Are we more likely to see expression of vertical leadership at the start of the group's life? Are we more likely to observe shared leadership at later stages? Will shared leadership assume different forms at the various life stages of a team? We have little knowledge about whether shared leadership can be a long-term and a stable phenomenon within a team.

Finally, the development of an understanding of how to conceptualize and study leadership when organizations are considered as processes rather than entities is of utmost importance. One possibility would be the ethnographic approach. This approach involves extensive, long-term observation of a team in its natural settings. It is not solely focused on the group when it is in a meeting and thereby provides a more naturalistic feeling for the team in its various tasks. The strength of this approach is that it provides the richest possible understanding of ongoing group dynamics. Its weakness is that it requires an extensive time commitment on the part of the researcher onsite for data collection on a single team.

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8 Appendices

8.1 Appendix 1: Different sources of team leadership and some key citations

		Formality of leadership	
		Formal	Informal
Locus of leadership	Internal	Team leader, Project manager Manz & Sims (1987) Steward & Manz (1995) Durham, Knight & Locke (1997) Tesluk & Mathieu (1999) Pearce & Sims (2002)	Shared, Emergent Pearce & Sims (2002) Day, Gronn & Salas (2004) Carson, Tesluk & Marrone (2007)
	External	Coach, Team advisor Hackman & Walton (1986) Manz & Sims (1987) Steward & Manz (1995) Kozlowski, Gully, Salas & Cannon-Bowers (1996) Cohen, Chang & Ledford (1997) Tesluk & Mathieu (1999) Zaccaro, Rittman & Marks (2001) Wageman (2001) Pearce & Sims (2002) Druskat & Wheeler (2003, 2004) Salas, Burke & Stagl (2004) Hackman & Wageman (2005) Morgeson (2005)	Mentor, Executive coordinator

8.2 Appendix 2: Literal material

		Name of the document	Datum of the document	Pages
Playing rules and agreements	1	Playing rules, version 1	17.1.2006	2
	2	Playing rules, version 2	15.11.2006	1
	3	Key principles	5.11.2006	1
	4	Ways of working	15.11.2006	7
	5	Team agreement, version 2007	17.8.2008	16
	6	Team agreement, version 2008	14.1.2008	16
	7	Guidelines for consulting work	17.7.2006	3
Operational models	1	Strategic process, version 2006	4.9.2006	11
	2	Strategic process, version 2007	16.1.2007	4
	3	Strategic process, version 2008	7.11.2007	4
	4	Strategic process, version 2009	3.12.2008	6
	5	Strategic process, version 2010	24.2.2010	18
	6	Joining and leaving process	7.2.2007	6
	7	Renewal process	5.11.2008	5
	8	Renewal process, learning practice	23.8.2005	1
	9	Renewal process, learning practice	9.9.2006	2
	10	Competence matrix	27.10.2009	2
	11	Team meeting practices	5.11.2007	6
	12	Team meeting practices, year clock	3.11.2008	1
	13	Team meeting practices, 2008	5.5.2008	1
	14	Team meeting practices, 2010	18.6.2010	1
	15	Sales report, version 2005	23.9.2005	4
	16	Sales report, version 2010	24.8.2010	10
	17	Annual report	21.6.2010	9
	18	CRM, version 2005	9.9.2005	6
	19	CRM, version 2006	7.6.2006	2
	20	Working list	23.6.2005	1
	21	Product report	25.5.2007	1
	22	Process of customer "cold calls"	3.5.2007	44
	23	Process of dividing customer meetings	3.2.2010	1

Working processes	1	Elevator story – process of basic tasks	2.4.2007	2
	2	Innovation process with future issues	11.8.2006	16
	3	Conflict process	16.1.2007	5
	4	Reflection process by Lencione	11.9.2008	1
	5	Feedback process	26.1.2009	1
	6	Wellbeing process	6.11.2006	4
	7	Wellbeing, report 2008	11.12.2008	14
	8	Wellbeing, report 2009	9.12.2009	14
	9	Working process with strategy	15.1.2008	16
	10	Working process with strategy	22.6.2010	1
	11	Process of team agreement	14.11.2008	1
	12	Process with difficult issues	23.6.2010	1
	13	Marketing project	1.6.2009	5
	14	Marketing planning	26.6.2005	6
	15	Marketing planning	4.9.2009	1
	16	Working with participative working tools and methods	20.5.2010	256
Meeting minutes	1 - 4	R&D: Processive leadership approach	7.6.2009 – 10.8.2010	33
	5 - 13	R&D: Processive team approach	4.2.2008 – 6.9.2010	147
	14	R&D: Project teams	11.2.2009	5
	15	R&D: Measurement tools	5.10.2009	15
	1 - 42	Team meetings, meeting minutes	29.3.2005 – 21.6.2010	179
	1 - 2	Virtual team meetings, meeting minutes	7.1.2008 – 7.1.2009	4
Researcher's notes	1	Notes 2005		2
	2	Notes 2006		3
	3	Notes 2007		4
	4	Notes 2008		4
	5	Notes 2009		4
	6	Notes 2010		2

8.3 Appendix 3: Themes, categories and sub-categories

Developing shared understanding	Collective leadership beliefs	Common understanding about leadership in teams
		Common understanding about the leadership model
		Common understanding about responsibility and roles
	Guiding principles	Common value base
		Common purpose
	Facilitation of empowerment	A real participative process
		Meaning-making process
Working with leadership practices	Planned leadership processes	Identified leadership processes
		Processes divided into areas of responsibility
	Different leadership roles	Role of team leader
		Role of process owner
		Roles occurring in a situation
	Creating common practices	Planned way of working with processes
		Team meeting practices
		Working methods

Applying self-leadership	Intrinsic motivation	Working with inspiring tasks
		Meaningfulness
	Self-control	Voluntary-based leadership roles
		Feeling of competence
Taking care of supportive team culture	Discipline as a common way of working	Opening the expectations
		Taking care of promises
	Managing conflicts	Discussing difficult issues
		Managing process together
	Taking care of team building	Working with different people
		Newcomers
		Managing internal structures
		Evaluating and improving
	Team affective climate	Safety climate
		Equality in co-operation
		Feeling of reciprocity

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