
Original Paper

Strategic Management, Leadership and Staff Motivation: Literature Review

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Abstract

The term Leadership is often read and considered as complex phenomenon as it reflects different definitions from various authors and scholars. For the purpose of this paper, I have considered the definition from Lussier (2013) who defined leadership as the process of communicating ideas, gaining acceptance of the vision and motivating followers to support and implement the ideas through others. A leader always has the ability to influence others and there are three types of Managerial Leadership skills, namely: Technical skills, Interpersonal Skills and Decision- Making skills. Technical skills are ideally concerned with the ability to use methods and techniques to perform a task; Interpersonal skills, on the other hand, focus solely on the ability to understand, communicate and work well with individuals and groups through developing effective relationships. Finally, decision-making skills involve the ability to conceptualise situations and select alternatives to solve problems and take advantage of opportunities (Faeth, 2010). The study is conducted in descriptive way and tried to address the approaches of leadership theories with the reinforcement of my own practice at my workplace. It considered the systematic review of the secondary sources including authors previous publications, journals, websites, other scholarly articles and academic research publications.

Keywords: strategic management, leadership, motivation, instructional leadership, motivation wheel

1. Introduction

Leadership plays an important role in an educational establishment as they help to manage the day-to-day activities. The study of leadership has been changed over the time and also been refined and modified based on the application considering various context. The type of leadership applied in functions entailing very high degree of precision, confidence level, sensitivity, care and technical expertise may be different than in simple management-oriented portfolios, as one that does not fit all heads (Dess & Picken, 2000). It means that situations, contexts, culture, working environment, new laws and regulations, information overload, organizational complexities and psycho-socio developments remarkably impact the leadership concept thereby, making it commensurate to the changing organizational dynamics (Amabile et al., 2004).

Leadership allows managers to affect employee behaviour in the organisation. Thus, motivated employees are one of the most important results of effective leadership. According to (Abbas & Asgar 2010), successful managers are also successful leaders because they influence employees to help accomplish organisational goals. Achieving organisational goals, however, is not enough to keep employees motivated but helping employees accomplish their own personal and career goals is an important part of their motivation. Leadership and motivation are interactive. Leadership effectiveness is critically contingent on, and often defined in terms of leaders' ability to motivate followers toward collective goals or a collective mission or vision (Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998). The more motivated the supporters, the more effective the leader; the more effective the leader, the more motivated the followers. Leadership is a "social influence process that is necessary for the attainment of societal and organisational goals; it is both conspicuous in its absence and mysterious in its presence –

familiar and yet hard to” (Faeth, 2010, p. 2).

Leaders understand that they have power and that they understand the source of their power: their position; their ability to reward and to coerce; their expertise; and their personal appeal and charisma. They influence their followers’ behaviour through communication, group dynamics, training, rewards and discipline. There are many types of leadership styles, namely: transformational, situational, autocratic, visionary and charismatic leadership. While this study is to draw and establish the role of leadership style in motivating the teaching staff to be committed to their work. I have considered my role as an instructional leader and will try to focus on the application of instructional leadership in this review paper. I have conducted a small-scale research for my Doctor of Education research paper and the findings from the research work will be used to enrich this review paper too.

Instructional leadership has always played a distinct role in higher education as the role of instructional leadership was always to influence on effective teaching and learning processes (Ersozlu & Saklan, 2016). It was also identified from the authors on institutional engagement that the roles faculty members play is very important especially for a university setting. The purpose of this review is intended to identify the role of instructional leadership (as a leadership model), including the relationship between instructional leadership and the role of module leaders in higher education.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Theories of Leadership

2.1.1 Great-Man Theory

In 1847, Thomas Carlyle stated in the best interests of the heroes that “universal history, the history of what man has accomplished in this world, is at the bottom of the history of the great men who have worked here”. Carlyle claimed in his “great man theory” that leaders are born and that only those men who are endowed with heroic potentials could ever become the leaders. He opined that great men were born, not made. A leader like this will always have the right traits and abilities for leading which includes charisma, intellect, confidence, communication skills and social skills.

2.1.2 Trait Theory

Trait theories ignored the assumptions about whether leadership traits were genetic or acquired. Jenkins identified two traits; emergent traits (those which are heavily dependent upon heredity) as height, intelligence, attractiveness, and self-confidence and effectiveness traits (based on experience or learning), including charisma, as fundamental component of leadership (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991). Max Weber termed charisma as “the greatest revolutionary force, capable of producing a completely new orientation through followers and complete personal devotion to leaders they perceived as endowed with almost magical supernatural, superhuman qualities and powers”. This initial focus on intellectual, physical and personality traits that distinguished non-leaders from leaders portended a research that maintained that only minor variances exist between followers and leaders (Burns, 2003). The failure in detecting the traits which every single effective leader had in common, resulted in development of trait theory, as an inaccessible component, falling into disfavour. In the late 1940s, scholars studied the traits of military and non-military leaders respectively and exposed the significance of certain traits developing at certain times. The theory is used to predict effective leadership. Usually, the identified characteristics are compared to those of potential leaders to determine their likelihood of leading effectively. Scholars researching the trait theory try to identify leadership characteristics from different perspectives. They focus on the physiological attributes such as appearance, weight, and height; demographics such as age, education, and familial background; and intelligence, which encompasses decisiveness, judgment, and knowledge.

2.1.3 Contingency Theories (Situational)

The theories of contingency recommend that no leadership style is precise as a stand-alone as the leadership style used is reliant upon the factors such as the quality, situation of the followers or a number of other variables. “According to this theory, there is no single right way to lead because the internal and external dimensions of the environment require the leader to adapt to that particular situation”. In most cases, leaders do not change only the dynamics and environment, employees within

the organization change. In a common sense, the theories of contingency are a category of behavioural theory that challenges that there is no one finest way of leading/organizing and that the style of leadership that is operative in some circumstances may not be effective in others (Greenleaf, 1977). Contingency theorists assumed that the leader was the focus of leader-subordinate relationship; situational theorists opined that the subordinates played a pivotal role in defining the relationship.

Though, the situational leadership stays to emphasis mostly upon the leader, it creates the significance of the focus into group dynamic. “These studies of the relationships between groups and their leaders have led to some of our modern theories of group dynamics and leadership”. The theory of situational leadership proposes that style of leadership should be accorded with the maturity of the subordinates (Bass, 1997). “The situational leadership model, first introduced in 1969, theorized that there was no unsurpassed way to lead and those leaders, to be effective, must be able to adapt to the situation and transform their leadership style between task-oriented and relationship oriented”.

2.1.4 Style and Behaviour Theory

The style theory acknowledges the significance of certain necessary leadership skills that serve as enabler for a leader who performs an act while drawing its parallel with previous capacity of the leader, prior to that particular act while suggesting that each individual has a distinct style of leadership with which he/she feels most contented. Like one that does not fit all heads, similarly one style cannot be effective in all situations. Yuki (1989) introduced three different leadership styles. The employees serving with democratic leaders displayed high degree of satisfaction, creativity, and motivation; working with great enthusiasm and energy irrespective of the presence or absence of the leader; maintaining better connections with the leader, in terms of productivity whereas, autocratic leaders mainly focused on greater quantity of output. Laissez faire leadership was only considered relevant while leading a team of highly skilled and motivated people who excellent track-record, in the past. Feidler and House (1994) identified two additional leadership styles focusing effectiveness of the leadership. These researchers opined that consideration (concern for people and relationship behaviours) and commencing structure (concern for production and task behaviours) were very vital variables.

The consideration is referred to the amount of confidence and rapport, a leader engenders in his subordinates. Whereas, initiating structure, on the other hand, reflects the extent, to which the leader structures, directs and defines his/her own and the subordinates’ roles as they have the participatory role toward organizational performance, profit and accomplishment of the mission. Different researchers proposed that three types of leaders, they were autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire. Without involving subordinates, the autocratic leader makes decisions, laissez-faire leader lets subordinates make the decision and hence takes no real leadership role other than assuming the position and the democratic leader accesses his subordinates then takes his decision. “He further assumed that all leaders could fit into one of these three categories”.

2.1.5 Process Leadership Theory

Additional leadership theories with a process focus include servant leadership, learning organizations, principal centered leadership and charismatic leadership, with others emerging every year. Greenleaf introduced servant leadership in the early 1970s. A resurgence of the discussion of servant leadership was noted in the early 1990s. Servant leaders were encouraged to be focused to the anxieties of the followers and the leader should sympathize with them take-care of and nurture them. The leadership was imparted on a person who was by nature a servant. “The servant leader focuses on the needs of the follower and helps them to become more autonomous freer and knowledgeable”. The servant leader is also more concerned with the “have-nots” and recognizes them as equal (Greenleaf, 1996).

2.1.6 Transactional Theory

The transactional leadership was described as that in which leader-follower associations were grounded upon a series of agreements between followers and leaders (House & Shamir, 1993). The transactional theory was “based on reciprocity where leaders not only influence followers but are under their influence as well”. Some studies revealed that transactional leadership show a discrepancy with regard to the level of leaders’ action and the nature of the relations with the followers. Bass and Avolio (1994) observed transactional leadership “as a type of contingent-reward leadership that had active and

positive exchange between leaders and followers whereby followers were rewarded or recognized for accomplishing agreed upon objectives". From the leader, these rewards might implicate gratitude for merit increases, bonuses and work achievement. For good work, positive support could be exchanged, merit pay for promotions, increased performance and cooperation for collegiality.

2.1.7 Transformational Theory

Transformational leadership distinguishes itself from the rest of the previous and contemporary theories, on the basis of its alignment to a greater good as it entails involvement of the followers in processes or activities related to personal factor towards the organization and a course that will yield certain superior social dividend. The transformational leaders raise the motivation and morality of both the follower and the leader (House & Shamir, 1993). It is considered that the transformational leaders "engage in interactions with followers based on common values, beliefs and goals". This impacts the performance leading to the attainment of goal. As per Bass, transformational leader, "attempts to induce followers to reorder their needs by transcending self-interests and strive for higher order needs". This theory conforms the Maslow (1954) higher order needs theory. Transformational leadership is a course that changes and approach targets on beliefs, values and attitudes that enlighten leaders' practices and the capacity to lead change.

The transformational leaders are considered by their capability to identify the need for change, gain the agreement and commitment of others, create a vision that guides change and embed the change (MacGregor Burns, 2003). These types of leaders treat subordinates individually and pursue to develop their consciousness, morals and skills by providing significance to their work and challenge. These leaders produce an appearance of convincing and encouraged vision of the future. They are "visionary leaders who seek to appeal to their followers' better nature and move them toward higher and more universal needs and purposes" (MacGregor Burns, 2003).

2.2 Motivating People (Staffs and Colleagues)

In many ways, Adair's (John Adair) ideas in the area of motivating people are in line with those of the classic motivational theorists, such as Maslow, McGregor and Herzberg which I also support and applied in my own professional practice.

The 50:50 rule: just as the Pareto principle (or 80:20 rule) is the ratio of the vital few and the trivial many, the Adair 50:50 rule (from his book *Effective motivation*) states that "50% of motivation comes from within a person, and 50% from his or her environment, especially from the leadership encountered therein". Adair's view is that people are motivated by a complex and varied number of different factors. So, for example, the carrot and stick approach are not dismissed by Adair but is seen as one of the stimulus-response approaches that can be one factor among many others in motivating or influencing people's actions. For Adair, an individual's strength of motivation is affected by the expectations of outcomes from certain actions, but it is also strengthened by other factors such as the individual's preferred outcome (as demonstrated by Victor Vroom in the 1960s); conditions in the working environment; and the individual's own perceptions and fears. Adair emphasises the importance of a motivating environment and a motivated individual. In *Effective motivation*, eight basic rules are outlined to guide leaders in motivating people to act: (*presented on the motivation wheel*).



Figure 1. Motivation Wheel

Source: Concept adopted from John Adair and created by the Author, 2020.

2.3 Instructional Leadership

Some literature from international educational contexts suggests that students' learnings are primarily influenced by classroom practice and leadership approach (OECD, 2005 and Hallinger & Heck, 2011). These studies show that leadership influence is very crucial characteristics of an instructional Leadership (IL), which mainly focuses on improving teaching and learning. On a contrarily, Dimmock and Walker (2000) see educational policy and practice as a very important element of instructional leadership (IL) by analysing the impact of globalisation on educational leadership and management. Also, Hallinger and Heck (1997) identified IL as one of the most significant leadership concepts, especially in English speaking countries. Yet, the authors agreed that IL is technical. For example, Leithwood et al. (1999) believe that "*IL typically assumes that the critical focus for attention by leaders is the behaviour of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of students*" (Leithwood et al., 1999, p. 8). On the other hand, Elmore (2000) suggested, teaching improvement as a focal point as it helps improve the learning outcome. The contribution to leadership in management has its immense impact, which also was addressed high-quality professional development, which alternatively requires IL approach or orientation (Sammons et al., 2011). Hallinger (2009) also identified and agreed that the instructional leadership reached its global phenomenon and created a distinct form of leadership of learning (LfL). As a result, the development of this new concept of leadership of learning was encouraged (Barth, 1990; Day et al., 2001).

It seems the development of IL can be promoted through instructional leadership framework. Instructional leadership framework was defined by involving the leadership activities to create an effective departmental head (*in a school setting, the principal*)-teacher interaction to improve the quality of teaching and learning (Murphy, 1985). The framework captured the understanding of the knowledge settings, curriculum, professional development and also the strategy followed by the vision of the institution. Southworth (2002) believed that this factor has a powerful influence on creating an inclusive learning environment and have suggested a three-point strategy those are: learning-centred leadership, Modelling and monitoring and mentoring. Within this instructional perspective, learning refers to the student's academic progress and teacher's professional growth while the educational

leaders contribute to the hallmark of improvement.

2.4 My role as an Instructional Leader

It is believed to be true that the instructional leadership can raise the standard of teaching and learning and allocating the module leader responsibility on the subject specialist help raise the academic standards within the curriculum area (Schleicher, Andreas, 2012). Instructional leadership enables the module/subject leaders to establish a shared belief around the learning and can improve the learner's achievement (Day et al., 2011). The literature of the paper suggests that there is an immense need of the module leaders to develop their leadership skills to increase the job satisfaction experience within the roles. Instructional leadership practice for the module leaders could also be important to drive an innovative evidence-based practice at the workplace.

My role as an instructional leader will be playing in the higher educational institutions or departmental achievement is to increase and transform all educational components to encourage faculty members gaining various knowledge and skills. I have evidenced the presence of instructional leadership at this university which supports and encourages accomplishment, knowledge management and help implement the instructional process. This was supported by the Leithwood et al. (2004) research which was directed to school setting but simultaneously can also be used in the higher educational settings. It was evidenced by my own university practice that leadership is one of the important steps for providing the educational reforms and organizational development. The model also supports encouraging the instructional leaders to develop the faculty members skills through continuous professional development, building strong interpersonal communication skills, create an effective communication network and also help to build a democratic environment.

I also have evidenced from everyday practice that; the institution strongly supports Weber instructional leadership model (1996). Weber (1996) believed that effective leadership largely depends on the approach of leadership sharing, especially sharing the duties between the department managers (for instance, currently the university equally shares the programme managers roles between weekdays and weekend programme coordinators) and the individuals who demonstrate and can perform the duties collaboratively. On the other hand, the five domains of the model also can be evidenced by the university practice. At the university, we currently allocating the module leaders the responsibility of managing the curriculum and instruction, promoting a positive learning environment, observing and improving instruction, assessing the instructional programme.

3. Conclusion

I believe that the instructional leadership can raise the standard of teaching and learning and allocating the module leader responsibility on the subject specialist help raise the academic standards within the curriculum area. The literature and research findings also suggested that instructional leadership enables the programme/module leaders to establish a shared belief around the learning and can improve the learner's achievement. It can also be added on concluding remarks that there is an immense need of the module leaders to develop their leadership skills to increase the job satisfaction experience within the roles. Instructional leadership practice for the module leaders could also be important to drive an innovative evidence-based practice at the workplace. Analysing the end of module evaluation feedback (from my university year group) and also after careful review of the programme/module leader role descriptions it is evidenced that the university largely relies on the programme/module leaders in the development, delivery and management of their provisions. The role is high in workload and low in recognition and reward, high is a responsibility but low in authority. While exploring different branches of the leadership and leadership approach the author identified significant areas for the university to address in terms of ensuring the equality and balance. This alternatively means that the university requires to promote the collegiality and teamwork on an institutional level where all academic members expected to take a fair chance of responsibility to ensure overall programme quality.

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