

**LECTURE MATERIALS**

**ON**

**BUS 211: LEADERSHIP, CRISES MANAGEMENT  
AND PEACE BUILDING**

**PREPARED BY**

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## **1. MODULE ONE: LEADERSHIP**

### **1.1 Introduction**

Leaders emerge from within the structure of the informal organization. Their personal qualities, the demands of the situation, or a combination of these and other factors attract followers who accept their leadership within one or several overlay structures. Instead of the authority of position held by an appointed head or chief, the emergent leader wields influence or power. Influence is the ability of a person to gain co-operation from others by means of persuasion or control over rewards. Power is a stronger form of influence because it reflects a person's ability to enforce action through the control of a means of punishment. This lecture will attempt to dwell on the concept of leadership and various theories of leadership which guide the organisation to the path of growth and development.

### **1.2 Learning Objectives**

The objective of the study is to avail students with leadership qualities and styles necessary for effective and efficient management.

### **1.3 Meaning of Leadership**

**Leadership** is one of the most salient aspects of the organizational context. However, defining leadership has been challenging. The following sections discuss several important aspects of leadership including a description of what leadership is and a description of several popular theories and styles of leadership. This page also dives into topics such as the role of emotions and vision, as well leadership effectiveness and performance. Finally, this page discusses leadership in different contexts, how it may differ from related concepts (i.e., management), and some critiques that have been raised about leadership.

Leadership is stated as the "process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support others in the accomplishment of a common task." Definitions more inclusive of followers have also emerged. Alan Keith of Genentech stated that, "Leadership is ultimately about creating a way for people to contribute to making

something extraordinary happen." Tom DeMarco says that leadership needs to be distinguished from posturing.

Leadership remains one of the most relevant aspects of the organizational context. However, defining leadership has been challenging and definitions can vary depending on the situation. According to Ann Marie E. McSwain, Assistant Professor at Lincoln University, "leadership is about capacity: the capacity of leaders to listen and observe, to use their expertise as a starting point to encourage dialogue between all levels of decision-making, to establish processes and transparency in decision-making, to articulate their own value and visions clearly but not impose them. Leadership is about setting and not just reacting to agendas, identifying problems, and initiating change that makes for substantial improvement rather than managing change."

## **1.4 Theories of Leadership**

### **1.4.1 Trait Theory**

The search for the characteristics or traits of leaders has been ongoing for centuries. History's greatest philosophical writings from Plato's Republic to Plutarch's Lives have explored the question of "What qualities distinguish an individual as a leader?" Underlying this search was the early recognition of the importance of leadership and the assumption that leadership is rooted in the characteristics that certain individuals possess. This idea that leadership is based on individual attributes is known as the "trait theory of leadership."

This view of leadership, the trait theory, was explored at length in a number of works in the previous century. Most notable are the writings of Thomas Carlyle and Francis Galton, whose works have prompted decades of research. In *Heroes and Hero Worship* (1841), Carlyle identified the talents, skills, and physical characteristics of men who rose to power. In Galton's (1869) *Hereditary Genius*, he examined leadership qualities in the families of powerful men. After showing that the numbers of eminent relatives dropped off when moving from first degree to second degree relatives, Galton concluded that leadership was inherited. In other words, leaders were born, not developed. Both of

these notable works lent great initial support for the notion that leadership is rooted in characteristics of the leader.

For decades, this trait-based perspective dominated empirical and theoretical work in leadership. Using early research techniques, researchers conducted over a hundred studies proposing a number of characteristics that distinguished leaders from non-leaders: intelligence, dominance, adaptability, persistence, integrity, socioeconomic status, and self-confidence just to name a few.

#### **1.4.1.1 Current Criticisms of the Trait Theory**

While the trait theory of leadership has certainly regained popularity, its reemergence has not been accompanied by a corresponding increase in sophisticated conceptual frameworks. Specifically, Zaccaro (2007) noted that trait theories still:

- Focus on a small set of individual attributes such as Big Five personality traits, to the neglect of cognitive abilities, motives, values, social skills, expertise, and problem-solving skills
- Fail to consider patterns or integrations of multiple attributes
- Do not distinguish between those leader attributes that are generally not malleable over time and those that are shaped by, and bound to, situational influences
- Do not consider how stable leader attributes account for the behavioral diversity necessary for effective leadership

#### **1.4.2 Behavioral and Style Theories**

In response to the early criticisms of the trait approach, theorists began to research leadership as a set of behaviors, evaluating the behavior of 'successful' leaders, determining a behavior taxonomy and identifying broad leadership styles. David McClelland, for example, Leadership takes a strong personality with a well-developed positive ego. Not so much as a pattern of motives, but a set of traits is crucial. To lead;

self-confidence and a high self-esteem is useful, perhaps even essential. Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lipitt, and Ralph White developed in 1939 the seminal work on the influence of leadership styles and performance. The researchers evaluated the performance of groups of eleven-year-old boys under different types of work climate. In each, the leader exercised his influence regarding the type of group decision making, praise and criticism (feedback), and the management of the group tasks (project management) according to three styles: (1) *authoritarian*, (2) *democratic* and (3) *laissez-faire*. Authoritarian climates were characterized by leaders who make decisions alone, demand strict compliance to his orders, and dictate each step taken; future steps were uncertain to a large degree.

The leader is not necessarily hostile but is aloof from participation in work and commonly offers personal praise and criticism for the work done. Democratic climates were characterized by collective decision processes, assisted by the leader. Before accomplishing tasks, perspectives are gained from group discussion and technical advice from a leader. Members are given choices and collectively decide the division of labor. Praise and criticism in such an environment are objective, fact minded and given by a group member without necessarily having participated extensively in the actual work. Laissez faire climates gave freedom to the group for policy determination without any participation from the leader. The leader remains uninvolved in work decisions unless asked, does not participate in the division of labor, and very infrequently gives praise. The results seemed to confirm that the democratic climate was preferred. The managerial grid model is also based on a behavioral theory. The model was developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1964 and suggests five different leadership styles, based on the leaders' concern for people and their concern for goal achievement.

B.F. Skinner is the father of Behavior Modification and developed the concept of positive reinforcement. Positive reinforcement occurs when a positive stimulus is presented in response to a behavior, increasing the likelihood of that behavior in the future. The following is an example of how positive reinforcement can be used in a business setting. Assume praise is a positive reinforcer for a particular employee. This employee does not show up to work on time every day. The manager of this employee

decides to praise the employee for showing up on time every day the employee actually shows up to work on time. As a result, the employee comes to work on time more often because the employee likes to be praised. In this example, praise (i.e. stimulus) is a positive reinforcer for this employee because the employee arrives (i.e. behavior) to work on time more frequently after being praised for showing up to work on time.

The use of positive reinforcement is a successful and growing technique used by leaders to motivate and attain desired behaviors from subordinates. Organizations such as Frito-Lay, 3M, B.F. Goodrich, Michigan Bell, and Emery Air Freight have all used reinforcement to increase productivity. Empirical research covering the last 20 years suggests that reinforcement theory has a 17 percent increase in performance. Additionally, many reinforcement techniques such as the use of praise are inexpensive, providing higher performance for lower costs.

**1.4.3 Situational Theory** also appeared as a reaction to the trait theory of leadership. Social scientists argued that history was more than the result of intervention of great men as Carlyle suggested. Herbert Spencer (1884) said that the times produce the person and not the other way around. This theory assumes that different situations call for different characteristics; according to this group of theories, no single optimal psychographic profile of a leader exists. According to the theory, "what an individual actually does when acting as a leader is in large part dependent upon characteristics of the situation in which he functions."

Some theorists started to synthesize the trait and situational approaches. Building upon the research of Lewin et al., academics began to normalize the descriptive models of leadership climates, defining three leadership styles and identifying which situations each style works better in. The authoritarian leadership style, for example, is approved in periods of crisis but fails to win the "hearts and minds" of their followers in the day-to-day management; the democratic leadership style is more adequate in situations that require consensus building; finally, the laissez faire leadership style is appreciated by the degree of freedom it provides, but as the leader does not "take charge", he can be

perceived as a failure in protracted or thorny organizational problems. Thus, theorists defined the style of leadership as contingent to the situation, which is sometimes, classified as contingency theory. Four contingency leadership theories appear more prominently in the recent years: Fiedler contingency model, Vroom-Yetton decision model, the path-goal theory, and the Hersey-Blanchard situational theory.

**1.4.4 The Fiedler Contingency Model** bases the leader's effectiveness on what Fred Fiedler called situational contingency. This results from the interaction of leadership style and situational favorableness (later called "situational control"). The theory defined two types of leader: those who tend to accomplish the task by developing good-relationships with the group (relationship-oriented), and those who have as their prime concern carrying out the task itself (task-oriented). According to Fiedler, there is no ideal leader. Both task-oriented and relationship-oriented leaders can be effective if their leadership orientation fits the situation. When there is a good leader-member relation, a highly structured task, and high leader position power, the situation is considered a "favorable situation". Fiedler found that task-oriented leaders are more effective in extremely favourable or unfavourable situations, whereas relationship-oriented leaders perform best in situations with intermediate favourability.

Victor Vroom, in collaboration with Phillip Yetton (1973) and later with Arthur Jago (1988), developed a taxonomy for describing leadership situations, taxonomy that was used in a normative decision model where leadership styles were connected to situational variables, defining which approach was more suitable to which situation.[38] This approach was novel because it supported the idea that the same manager could rely on different group decision making approaches depending on the attributes of each situation. This model was later referred as situational contingency theory.

**1.4.5 The Path-goal Theory of Leadership** was developed by Robert House (1971) and was based on the expectancy theory of Victor Vroom. According to House, the essence of the theory is "the meta proposition that leaders, to be effective, engage in behaviors that complement subordinates' environments and abilities in a manner that

compensates for deficiencies and is instrumental to subordinate satisfaction and individual and work unit performance. The theory identifies four leader behaviors, achievement-oriented, directive, participative, and supportive, that is contingent to the environment factors and follower characteristics. In contrast to the Fiedler contingency model, the path-goal model states that the four leadership behaviors are fluid, and that leaders can adopt any of the four depending on what the situation demands. The path-goal model can be classified both as a contingency theory, as it depends on the circumstances, but also as a transactional leadership theory, as the theory emphasizes the reciprocity behavior between the leader and the followers. The situational leadership model proposed by Hersey and Blanchard suggests four leadership-styles and four levels of follower-development. For effectiveness, the model posits that the leadership-style must match the appropriate level of followership-development. In this model, leadership behavior becomes a function not only of the characteristics of the leader, but of the characteristics of followers as well.

#### **1.4.6 Functional Theory**

Functional leadership theory (Hackman & Walton, 1986; McGrath, 1962) is a particularly useful theory for addressing specific leader behaviors expected to contribute to organizational or unit effectiveness. This theory argues that the leader's main job is to see that whatever is necessary to group needs is taken care of; thus, a leader can be said to have done their job well when they have contributed to group effectiveness and cohesion (Fleishman et al., 1991; Hackman & Wageman, 2005; Hackman & Walton, 1986). While functional leadership theory has most often been applied to team leadership (Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001), it has also been effectively applied to broader organizational leadership as well (Zaccaro, 2001). In summarizing literature on functional leadership (see Kozlowski et al. (1996), Zaccaro et al. (2001), Hackman and Walton (1986), Hackman & Wageman (2005), Morgeson (2005)), Klein, Zeigert, Knight, and Xiao (2006) observed five broad functions a leader performs when promoting organization's effectiveness. These functions include:

- (1) Environmental monitoring,
- (2) Organizing subordinate activities,

- (3) Teaching and coaching subordinates,
- (4) Motivating others, and
- (5) Intervening actively in the group's work.

A variety of leadership behaviors are expected to facilitate these functions. In initial work identifying leader behavior, Fleishman (1953) observed that subordinates perceived their supervisors' behavior in terms of two broad categories referred to as consideration and initiating structure. Consideration includes behavior involved in fostering effective relationships. Examples of such behavior would include showing concern for a subordinate or acting in a supportive manner towards others. Initiating structure involves the actions of the leader focused specifically on task accomplishment. This could include role clarification, setting performance standards, and holding subordinates accountable to those standards.

#### **1.4.7 Transactional and Transformational Theories**

***The Transactional leader*** (Burns, 1978) is given power to perform certain tasks and reward or punish for the team's performance. It gives the opportunity to the manager to lead the group and the group agrees to follow his lead to accomplish a predetermined goal in exchange for something else. Power is given to the leader to evaluate, correct and train subordinates when productivity is not up to the desired level and reward effectiveness when expected outcome is reached.

***The Transformational Leader*** (Burns, 1978) motivates its team to be effective and efficient. Communication is the base for goal achievement focusing the group on the final desired outcome or goal attainment. This leader is highly visible and uses chain of command to get the job done. Transformational leaders focus on the big picture, needing to be surrounded by people who take care of the details. The leader is always looking for ideas that move the organization to reach the company's vision.

#### **1.4.8 Neo-emergent Theory**

The Neo-emergent leadership theory (from the Oxford school of leadership) espouses that leadership is created through the emergence of information by the leader or other

stakeholders, not through the true actions of the leader himself. In other words, the reproduction of information or stories, form the basis of the perception of leadership by the majority. It is well known that the great naval hero Lord Nelson often wrote his own versions of battles he was involved in, so that when he arrived home in England he would receive a true hero's welcome. In modern society, the press, blogs and other sources report their own views of a leader, which may be based on reality, but may also be based on a political command, a payment, or an inherent interest of the author, media or leader. Therefore, it can be contended that the perception of all leaders is created and in fact does not reflect their true leadership qualities at all.

#### **1.4.9 Environmental Leadership Theory**

The Environmental leadership model (Carmazzi) describes leadership from a Group dynamics perspective incorporating group psychology and self-awareness to nurture "Environments" that promote self-sustaining group leadership based on personal emotional gratification from the activities of the group. The Environmental Leader creates the psychological structure by which employees can find and attain this gratification through work or activity. It stems from the idea that each individual has various environments that bring out different facets from their own Identity, and each facet is driven by emotionally charged perceptions within each environment. The Environmental Leader creates a platform through education and awareness where individuals fill each other's emotional needs and become more conscious of when and how they affect personal and team emotional gratifications. This is accomplished by knowing why people "react" to their environment instead of act intelligently.

"Environmental Leadership is not about changing the mindset of the group or individual, but in the cultivation of an environment that brings out the best and inspires the individuals in that group. It is not the ability to influence others to do something they are not committed to, but rather to nurture a culture that motivates and even excites individuals to do what is required for the benefit of all. It is not carrying others to the end result, but setting the surrounding for developing qualities in them to so they may carry each other. The role of an Environmental Leader is to instill passion and direction to a

group and the dynamics of that group. This leader implements a psychological support system within a group that fills the emotional and developmental needs of the group.

## **1.5 Leadership Styles**

Leadership style refers to a leader's behaviour. It is the result of the philosophy, personality and experience of the leader.

### **1.5.1 Kurt Lewin's Leadership Styles**

- *Autocratic*
- *Participative*
- *Laissez-Faire*

#### ***Autocratic or Authoritarian Leaders***

Under the autocratic leadership style, all decision-making powers are centralized in the leader, as with dictator leaders. They do not entertain any suggestions or initiatives from subordinates. The autocratic management has been successful as it provides strong motivation to the manager. It permits quick decision-making, as only one person decides for the whole group and keeps each decision to them until they feel it is needed by the rest of the group.

#### ***Participative or Democratic Leaders***

The democratic leadership style favors decision-making by the group as shown, such as leader gives instruction after consulting the group. They can win the cooperation of their group and can motivate them effectively and positively. The decisions of the democratic leader are not unilateral as with the autocrat because they arise from consultation with the group members and participation by them.

#### ***Laissez-Faire or Free Rein Leaders***

The phrase is French and literally means "let do", but, in a leadership context, can be roughly translated as "free rein". A free rein leader does not lead, but leaves the group

entirely to itself as shown; such a leader allows maximum freedom to subordinates, i.e., they are given a free hand in deciding their own policies and methods.

Different situations call for different leadership styles. In an emergency when there is little time to converge on an agreement and where a designated authority has significantly more experience or expertise than the rest of the team, an autocratic leadership style may be most effective; however, in a highly motivated and aligned team with a homogeneous level of expertise, a more democratic or laissez-faire style may be more effective. The style adopted should be the one that most effectively achieves the objectives of the group while balancing the interests of its individual members. Other leadership styles have been identified as discussed below:

The **Bureaucratic Leader** (Weber, 1905) is very structured and follows the procedures as they have been established. This type of leadership has no space to explore new ways to solve problems and is usually slow paced to ensure adherence to the ladders stated by the company. Leaders ensure that all the steps have been followed prior to sending it to the next level of authority. Universities, hospitals, banks and government usually require this type of leader in their organizations to ensure quality, increase security and decrease corruption. Leaders who try to speed up the process will experience frustration and anxiety.

The **Charismatic Leader** (Weber, 1905) leads by infusing energy and eagerness into their team members. This type of leader has to be committed to the organization for the long run. If the success of the division or project is attributed to the leader and not the team, charismatic leaders may become a risk for the company by deciding to resign for advanced opportunities. It takes the company time and hard work to gain the employees' confidence back with other type of leadership after they have committed themselves to the magnetism of a charismatic leader.

The **autocratic leader** (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939) is given the power to make decisions alone, having total authority. This leadership style is good for employees that need close supervision to perform certain tasks.

The **democratic leader** (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). This style involves the leader including one or more employees in the decision making process (determining what to do and how to do it). However, the leader retains the final decision making authority. Using this style is not a sign of weakness, rather it is a sign of strength that your employees will respect. This is normally used when you have part of the information, and your employees have other parts. Note that a leader is not expected to know everything -- this is why you employ knowledgeable and skillful employees. Using this style is of mutual benefit -- it allows them to become part of the team and allows you to make better decisions.

The **laissez-faire** ("let do") **leader** (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). In this style, the leader allows the employees to make the decisions. However, the leader is still responsible for the decisions that are made. This is used when employees are able to analyze the situation and determine what needs to be done and how to do it. You cannot do everything! You must set priorities and delegate certain tasks. This is not a style to use so that you can blame others when things go wrong, rather this is a style to be used when you fully trust and confidence in the people below you. Do not be afraid to use it, however, use it wisely.

The **people-oriented leader** (Fiedler, 1967) is the one who, in order to comply with effectiveness and efficiency, supports, trains and develops his personnel, increasing job satisfaction and genuine interest to do a good job.

The **task-oriented leader** (Fiedler, 1967) focuses on the job, and concentrates on the specific tasks assigned to each employee to reach goal accomplishment. This leadership style suffers the same motivation issues as autocratic leadership, showing

no involvement in the team's needs. It requires close supervision and control to achieve expected results.

Another name for this is **deal maker** (Rowley & Rovens, 1999) and is linked to a first phase in managing Change, enhance, according to the Organize with Chaos approach.

The **servant leader** (Greenleaf, 1977) facilitates goal accomplishment by giving its team members what they need in order to be productive. This leader is an instrument employees use to reach the goal rather than a commanding voice that moves to change. This leadership style, in a manner similar to democratic leadership, tends to achieve the results in a slower time frame than other styles, although employee engagement is higher.

The **transactional leader** (Burns, 1978) is given power to perform certain tasks and reward or punish for the team's performance. It gives the opportunity to the manager to lead the group and the group agrees to follow his lead to accomplish a predetermined goal in exchange for something else. Power is given to the leader to evaluate, correct and train subordinates when productivity is not up to the desired level and reward effectiveness when expected outcome is reached.

The **transformational leader** (Burns, 1978) motivates its team to be effective and efficient. Communication is the base for goal achievement focusing the group on the final desired outcome or goal attainment. This leader is highly visible and uses chain of command to get the job done. Transformational leaders focus on the big picture, needing to be surrounded by people who take care of the details. The leader is always looking for ideas that move the organization to reach the company's vision.

The **environment leader** (Carmazzi, 2005) is the one who nurtures group or organizational environment to affect the emotional and psychological perception of an individual's place in that group or organization. An understanding and application of group psychology and dynamics is essential for this style to be effective. The leader uses organizational culture to inspire individuals and develop leaders at all levels. This

leadership style relies on creating an education matrix where groups interactively learn the fundamental psychology of group dynamics and culture from each other. The leader uses this psychology, and complementary language, to influence direction through the members of the inspired group to do what is required for the benefit of all.

## 1.6 Leadership Styles of "Outstanding Leaders"

In 1994 House and Podsakoff attempted to summarize the behaviors and approaches of "outstanding leaders" that they obtained from some more modern theories and research findings. These leadership behaviors and approaches do not constitute **specific** styles, but cumulatively they probably characterize the most effective style of leaders/managers of the time. The listed leadership "styles" cover:

1. Vision. Outstanding leaders articulate an ideological vision congruent with the deeply-held values of followers, a vision that describes a better future to which the followers have an alleged moral right.
2. Passion and self-sacrifice. Leaders display a passion for, and have a strong conviction of, what they regard as the moral correctness of their vision. They engage in outstanding or extraordinary behavior and make extraordinary self-sacrifices in the interest of their vision and mission.
3. Confidence, determination, and persistence. Outstanding leaders display a high degree of faith in themselves and in the attainment of the vision they articulate. Theoretically, such leaders need to have a very high degree of self-confidence and moral conviction because their mission usually challenges the *status quo* and, therefore, may offend those who have a stake in preserving the established order.
4. Image-building. House and Podsakoff regard outstanding leaders as self-conscious about their own image. They recognize the desirability of followers perceiving them as competent, credible, and trustworthy.

5. Role-modeling. Leader-image-building sets the stage for effective role-modeling because followers identify with the values of role models whom they perceived in positive terms.
6. External representation. Outstanding leaders act as spokespersons for their respective organizations and symbolically represent those organizations to external constituencies.
7. Expectations of and confidence in followers. Outstanding leaders communicate expectations of high performance from their followers and strong confidence in their followers' ability to meet such expectations.
8. Selective motive-arousal. Outstanding leaders selectively arouse those motives of followers that the outstanding leaders see as of special relevance to the successful accomplishment of the vision and mission.
9. Frame alignment. To persuade followers to accept and implement change, outstanding leaders engage in "frame alignment". This refers to the linkage of individual and leader interpretive orientations such that some set of followers' interests, values, and beliefs, as well as the leader's activities, goals, and ideology, becomes congruent and complementary.
10. Inspirational communication. Outstanding leaders often, but not always, communicate their message in an inspirational manner using vivid stories, slogans, symbols, and ceremonies.

Even though these ten leadership behaviors and approaches do not really equate to specific styles, evidence has started to accumulate<sup>1</sup> that a leader's style can make a difference. Style becomes the key to the formulation and implementation of strategy and plays an important role in work-group members' activity and in team citizenship. Little doubt exists that the way (style) in which leaders influence

work-group members can make a difference in their own and their people's performance<sup>1</sup>.

### **1.7 Leadership in Organizations**

An organization that is established as an instrument or means for achieving defined objectives has been referred to as a formal organization. Its design specifies how goals are subdivided and reflected in subdivisions of the organization. Divisions, departments, sections, positions, jobs, and tasks make up this work structure. Thus, the formal organization is expected to behave impersonally in regard to relationships with clients or with its members. According to Weber's definition, entry and subsequent advancement is by merit or seniority. Each employee receives a salary and enjoys a degree of tenure that safeguards her/him from the arbitrary influence of superiors or of powerful clients. The higher his position in the hierarchy, the greater his presumed expertise in adjudicating problems that may arise in the course of the work carried out at lower levels of the organization. It is this bureaucratic structure that forms the basis for the appointment of heads or chiefs of administrative subdivisions in the organization and endows them with the authority attached to their position.

In contrast to the appointed head or chief of an administrative unit, a leader emerges within the context of the informal organization that underlies the formal structure. The informal organization expresses the personal objectives and goals of the individual membership. Their objectives and goals may or may not coincide with those of the formal organization. The informal organization represents an extension of the social structures that generally characterize human life- the spontaneous emergence of groups and organizations as ends in themselves.

In prehistoric times, humanity was preoccupied with personal security, maintenance, protection, and survival. Now humanity spends a major portion of waking hours working for organizations. Her/His need to identify with a community that provides security, protection, maintenance, and a feeling of belonging continues unchanged from

prehistoric times. This need is met by the informal organization and its emergent, or unofficial, leaders.

Leaders emerge from within the structure of the informal organization. Their personal qualities, the demands of the situation, or a combination of these and other factors attract followers who accept their leadership within one or several overlay structures. Instead of the authority of position held by an appointed head or chief, the emergent leader wields influence or power. Influence is the ability of a person to gain co-operation from others by means of persuasion or control over rewards. Power is a stronger form of influence because it reflects a person's ability to enforce action through the control of a means of punishment.

A leader is a person who influences a group of people towards a specific result. It is not dependent on title or formal authority. (Elevos, paraphrased from Leaders, Bennis, and Leadership Presence, Halpern & Lubar). Leaders are recognized by their capacity for caring for others, clear communication, and a commitment to persist. An individual who is appointed to a managerial position has the right to command and enforce obedience by virtue of the authority of his position. However, she or he must possess adequate personal attributes to match his authority, because authority is only potentially available to him. In the absence of sufficient personal competence, a manager may be confronted by an emergent leader who can challenge her/his role in the organization and reduce it to that of a figurehead. However, only authority of position has the backing of formal sanctions. It follows that whoever wields personal influence and power can legitimize this only by gaining a formal position in the hierarchy, with commensurate authority. Leadership can be defined as one's ability to get others to willingly follow. Every organization needs leaders at every level.

### **1.8 Leadership and Vision**

Many definitions of leadership involve an element of Goal management vision — except in cases of involuntary leadership and often in cases of traditional leadership. A vision provides direction to the influence process. A leader or group of leaders can have one

or more visions of the future to aid them to move a group successfully towards this goal. A vision, for effectiveness, should allegedly:

- appear as a simple, yet vibrant, image in the mind of the leader
- describe a future state, credible and preferable to the present state
- act as a bridge between the current state and a future optimum state
- appear desirable enough to energize followers
- succeed in speaking to followers at an emotional or spiritual level (logical appeals by themselves seldom muster a following).

For leadership to occur, according to this theory, some people "leaders" must communicate the vision to others "followers" in such a way that the followers adopt the vision as their own. Leaders must not just see the vision themselves, they must have the ability to get others to see it also. Numerous techniques aid in this process, including: narratives, metaphors, symbolic actions, leading by example, incentives, and penalty/penalties.

Stacey (1992) has suggested that the emphasis on vision puts an unrealistic burden on the leader. Such emphasis appears to perpetuate the myth that an organization must depend on a single, uncommonly talented individual to decide what to do. Stacey claims that this fosters a culture of dependency and conformity in which followers take no proactive incentives and do not think independently. Kanungo's charismatic leadership model describes the role of the vision in three stages that are continuously ongoing, overlapping one another. Assessing the status quo, formulation and articulation of the vision, and implementation of the vision.<sup>1</sup>

### **1.9 The Impact of Leadership Performance on Organizations**

In the past, some researchers have argued that the actual influence of leaders on organizational outcomes is overrated and romanticized as a result of biased attributions about leaders (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). Despite these assertions however, it is largely recognized and accepted by practitioners and researchers that leadership is important, and research supports the notion that leaders do contribute to key organizational

outcomes (Day & Lord, 1988; Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008). In order to facilitate successful performance it is important to understand and accurately measure leadership performance.

Job performance generally refers to behavior that is expected to contribute to organizational success (Campbell, 1990). Campbell identified a number of specific types of performance dimensions; leadership was one of the dimensions that he identified. There is no consistent, overall definition of leadership performance (Yukl, 2006). Many distinct conceptualizations are often lumped together under the umbrella of leadership performance, including outcomes such as leader effectiveness, leader advancement, and leader emergence (Kaiser et al., 2008). For instance, leadership performance may be used to refer to the career success of the individual leader, performance of the group or organization, or even leader emergence. Each of these measures can be considered conceptually distinct. While these aspects may be related, they are different outcomes and their inclusion should depend on the applied/research focus.

It is important to distinguish between performance (discussed in more detail below) and effectiveness (Campbell et al., 1993). Performance reflects behavior, while effectiveness implies the assessment of actual organizational outcomes (see Campbell, 1990 for a more detailed discussion). Specifically, it is important to delineate the particular behaviors expected to contribute to key organizational outcomes, versus the actual organizational outcomes. Outcomes may be subject to external factors beyond the control of the leader making it difficult to determine exactly what is driving the particular outcome of interest (e.g., organizational performance, financial performance).

**Leadership Effectiveness** refers to the ability to influence others and achieve collective goals (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Some advocate leadership success should be based on the effectiveness of the team, group, or organization (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994). However, leadership effectiveness is more often based on the perceptions of subordinates, peers, or supervisors (Judge et al., 2002).

Alternatively, **leadership emergence** addresses whether an individual is perceived as the leader or being “leaderlike” (Hogan et al., 1994; Judge et al., 2002). Emergence involves distinguishing between leaders and non-leaders and making comparisons. Many studies rely on peer rankings or ratings to determine who emerges as a leader in a given situation. Several stable personality traits have been associated with leadership outcomes. For instance, extraversion and openness to experience were positively associated with leader effectiveness, while neuroticism was negatively related to leader effectiveness (Judge et al., 2002). In terms of leader emergence, Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002) also found that extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were positively related to leader emergence. The relationships between personality and these leader outcomes were stronger for leader emergence than for effectiveness. Another related concept is **leadership advancement**, which involves the attainment of leadership roles over a career span. Early longitudinal research using assessment center data suggested that factors such as interpersonal, cognitive, and administrative skills were related to leader advancement (Bray, Campbell, & Grant, 1974; Howard & Bray, 1988).

### **1.10 Leadership versus Management**

Over the years the philosophical terminology of "management" and "leadership" have, in the organizational context, been used both as synonyms and with clearly differentiated meanings. Debate is fairly common about whether the use of these terms should be restricted, and generally reflects an awareness of the distinction made by Burns (1978) between "transactional" leadership (characterized by e.g. emphasis on procedures, contingent reward, management by exception) and "transformational" leadership (characterized by e.g. charisma, personal relationships, creativity). Some commentators link leadership closely with the idea of management. Some regard the two as synonymous, and others consider management a subset of leadership. If one accepts this premise, one can view leadership as:

- centralized or decentralized
- broad or focused

- decision-oriented or morale-centred
- intrinsic or derived from some authority

Any of the bipolar labels traditionally ascribed to management style could also apply to leadership style. Hersey and Blanchard use this approach: they claim that management merely consists of leadership applied to business situations; or in other words: management forms a sub-set of the broader process of leadership. They put it this way: "Leadership occurs any time one attempts to influence the behavior of an individual or group, regardless of the reason. Management is a kind of leadership in which the achievement of organizational goals is paramount."

However, a clear distinction between management and leadership may nevertheless prove useful. This would allow for a reciprocal relationship between leadership and management, implying that an effective manager should possess leadership skills, and an effective leader should demonstrate management skills. One clear distinction could provide the following definition:

- Management involves power by position.
- Leadership involves power by influence.

Abraham Zaleznik (1977), for example, delineated differences between leadership and management. He saw leaders as inspiring visionaries, concerned about substance; while managers he views as planners who have concerns with process. Warren Bennis (1989) further explicated a dichotomy between managers and leaders. He drew twelve distinctions between the two groups:

- Managers administer, leaders innovate
- Managers ask how and when, leaders ask what and why
- Managers focus on systems, leaders focus on people
- Managers do things right, leaders do the right things
- Managers maintain, leaders develop
- Managers rely on control, leaders inspire trust
- Managers have a short-term perspective, leaders have a longer-term perspective

- Managers accept the status-quo, leaders challenge the status-quo
- Managers have an eye on the bottom line, leaders have an eye on the horizon
- Managers imitate, leaders originate
- Managers emulate the classic good soldier, leaders are their own person
- Manager's copy, leaders show originality

Paul Birch (1999) also sees a distinction between leadership and management. He observed that, as a broad generalization, managers concerned themselves with tasks while leaders concerned themselves with people. Birch does not suggest that leaders do not focus on "the task." Indeed, the things that characterize a great leader include the fact that they achieve. Effective leaders create and sustain competitive advantage through the attainment of cost leadership, revenue leadership, time leadership, and market value leadership. Managers typically follow and realize a leader's vision. The difference lies in the leader realizing that the achievement of the task comes about through the goodwill and support of others (influence), while the manager may not.

This goodwill and support originates in the leader seeing people as people, not as another resource for deployment in support of "the task". The manager often has the role of organizing resources to get something done. People form one of these resources, and many of the worst managers treat people as just another interchangeable item. A leader has the role of causing others to follow a path he/she has laid out or a vision he/she has articulated in order to achieve a task. Often, people see the task as subordinate to the vision. For instance, an organization might have the overall task of generating profit, but a good leader may see profit as a by-product that flows from whatever aspect of their vision differentiates their company from the competition.

Leadership does not only manifest itself as purely a business phenomenon. Many people can think of an inspiring leader they have encountered who has nothing whatever to do with business: a politician, an officer in the armed forces, a Scout or Guide leader, a teacher, etc. Similarly, management does not occur only as a purely

business phenomenon. Again, we can think of examples of people that we have met who fill the management niche in non-business organisations. Non-business organizations should find it easier to articulate a non-money-driven inspiring vision that will support true leadership.

However, often this does not occur.

Differences in the mix of leadership and management can define various management styles. Some management styles tend to de-emphasize leadership. Included in this group one could include participatory management, democratic management, and collaborative management styles. Other management styles, such as authoritarian management, micro-management, and top-down management, depend more on a leader to provide direction. Note, however, that just because an organization has no single leader giving it direction, does not mean it necessarily has weak leadership. In many cases group leadership (multiple leaders) can prove effective. Having a single leader (as in dictatorship) allows for quick and decisive decision-making when needed as well as when not needed. Group decision-making sometimes earns the derisive label "committee-itis" because of the longer times required to make decisions, but group leadership can bring more expertise, experience, and perspectives through a democratic process.

Patricia Pitcher (1994) has challenged the bifurcation into leaders and managers. She used a factor analysis (in marketing) factor analysis technique on data collected over 8 years, and concluded that three types of leaders exist, each with very different psychological profiles: 'Artists' imaginative, inspiring, visionary, entrepreneurial, intuitive, daring, and emotional Craftsmen: well-balanced, steady, reasonable, sensible, predictable, and trustworthy Technocrats: cerebral, detail-oriented, fastidious, uncompromising, and hard-headed She speculates that no one profile offers a preferred leadership style. She claims that if we want to build, we should find an "artist leader" if we want to solidify our position, we should find a "craftsman leader" and if we have an ugly job that needs to get done like downsizing. We should find a "technocratic leader".

Pitcher also observed that a balanced leader exhibiting all three sets of traits occurs extremely rarely: she found none in her study.

Bruce Lynn postulates a differentiation between 'Leadership' and 'Management' based on perspectives to risk. Specifically, "A Leader optimizes upside opportunity; a Manager minimizes downside risk." He argues that successful executives need to apply both disciplines in a balance appropriate to the enterprise and its context. Leadership without Management yields steps forward, but as many if not more steps backwards. Management without Leadership avoids any step backwards, but doesn't move forward.

### **1.11 Leadership by a Group**

In contrast to individual leadership, some organizations have adopted group leadership. In this situation, more than one person provides direction to the group as a whole. Some organizations have taken this approach in hopes of increasing creativity, reducing costs, or downsizing. Others may see the traditional leadership of a boss as costing too much in team performance. In some situations, the maintenance of the boss becomes too expensive - either by draining the resources of the group as a whole, or by impeding the creativity within the team, even unintentionally.

A common example of group leadership involves cross-functional teams. A team of people with diverse skills and from all parts of an organization assembles to lead a project. A team structure can involve sharing power equally on all issues, but more commonly uses *rotating leadership*. The team member(s) best able to handle any given phase of the project become(s) the temporary leader(s). According to Ogbonnia (2007), "effective leadership is the ability to successfully integrate and maximize available resources within the internal and external environment for the attainment of organizational or societal goals". Ogbonnia defines an effective leader "as an individual with the capacity to consistently succeed in a given condition and be recognized as meeting the expectations of an organization or society."

## 1.12 Summary

The lecture provided us with the knowledge of various leadership qualities and styles in today's emerging businesses.

## 1.13 Study Questions

1. How do you support the assertions that Leaders are made not born?
2. Identify and explain the various leadership theories known to you.
3. Discuss the various leadership styles that can be adopted in an organization.
4. Even though the trait theory of leadership is gaining more popularity among managers, it's still been criticized by some scholars. Discuss the criticisms as argued by Zaccaro (2007).
5. What are the differences between Transactional and a Transformational leader?
6. Discuss the leadership styles of outstanding leaders.

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## **2. MODULE TWO: CRISES MANAGEMENT**

### **2.1 Introduction**

As a leader or manager of an organization, would you and your staff know what to do if something terrible were to happen? How would you and your staff react to an unexpected life-threatening, chaotic and emotionally charged situation? While it is impossible to anticipate every event, you can develop a framework for responding to crises that may increase the likelihood of a good outcome.

The purpose of this lecture is to provide students with the tools and critical thinking skills which you can use to help make the best decisions when you are challenged by circumstances beyond your immediate control. If you already have a crisis plan in place, use this guide to refine or reaffirm what you have developed. If you don't have a plan, we hope that you will use this outline as a starting point. In either instance, share your plan and crisis management information with your staff. Educate them. Practice. Just don't wait for a crisis to happen before you begin figuring out what to do.

### **2.2 Learning Objectives**

The objective of the study is to avail students with Crises Management approaches for peaceful co-existence and industrial harmony for effective performance.

### **2.3 What is a crisis?**

A crisis is a temporary emotional condition wherein one's usual coping mechanisms have failed in face of a perceived challenge or threat. When asked to define "crisis," most people would respond by describing a cataclysmic event, like a tornado, hurricane, medical emergency or an emotionally trying situation. Because the experience of a crisis is highly individualized, what represents a crisis for one person may not be experienced as a crisis by someone else; when a crisis has occurred, we are faced with incomprehensible uncertainty. We don't know what lies ahead. The aftermath might include serious injury, loss of life, damage to property and reputation, litigation, or even the loss of your business. No two people will define "crisis" in the same way. It may help, however, to keep the following in mind:

- A crisis is an unstable or crucial time or state of affairs, an emotionally significant event, a radical change in the status of a person's life, or a serious endangerment to property in which a decisive change for better or worse is impending.
- In crisis situations, it is obvious or highly likely that a third party (such as the police, medical personnel, or an insurance company) will be involved in some way. Before the crisis Preparation is the key to effective crisis management. The best time to think about how to handle a potential situation is well before it happens. Setting aside "Think Time" now to outline a crisis management plan may increase the likelihood of a positive outcome and maximize "Response Time" after a crisis has occurred.

In the event of environmental crises, we urge the affected people to call local National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) office nearest to them to identify potential natural and man-made disasters that may affect their area. Once you have identified potential exposures, arrange a meeting with your NEMA officials for additional suggestions that will help make your crisis management responses more specific to the disasters that may occur in your area. Remember, in addition to preserving the lives and health of the children in your care, your crisis management plan should also protect your organizational structure and operations, personnel, and services you provide. Consider storing duplicate business records in a secured, offsite location. Review your plan at least once a year with your staff, so it is practiced and current.

#### **2.4 Impact Assessment of the Crisis Event**

Individuals may have different responses in face of the same critical incident. It is the interaction effect of various factors that determine the crisis reactions in people. The factors can be grouped into two categories (a) the characteristics of the crisis event and (b) the personal risk factors (Brock, 2011). The characteristics of a crisis event can include the predictability, duration, consequences and intensity of the crisis event. Generally speaking, crisis events that happen unexpectedly, cause deaths/serious injuries and persist for a long time may be perceived as threatening to most people. The estimated degree of impact is also affected by personal risk factors which include

physical proximity, emotional proximity and personal vulnerabilities. Generally speaking, individuals who have witnessed the crisis or stayed at the scene, individuals who have a closer relationship with the victim, individuals with mental health problems, or individuals with less social support and weak coping skills could have stronger threat perception and could be more affected by the incident.

## **2.5 Basic Principles of Crisis Intervention and Psychological Support**

When facing a crisis, it is common for people to have various emotional, cognitive, physical, social and behavioral reactions e.g. feeling upset, confused, fatigue, having poor appetite, etc. Under general conditions, these reactions will subside after a few days or weeks as a process of natural recovery. In the initial stage after the crisis, the main support strategies include clarification of facts, providing psycho-education and establishing social support. Through the teaching of adaptive coping strategies, students can learn about the common crisis reactions and how to cope with them.

However, for those individuals who are severely affected (e.g. those who experience prolonged difficulty falling asleep, nightmares or flash back of crisis related images etc.). Closer contact and more in-depth communication with professionals are required for them. Group or individual counselling may be needed to help them release distress, and they can also acquire coping/relaxation skills to restore normal functioning.

In view of the individual differences in reacting to a critical incident, unnecessary/inappropriate intervention may affect the natural recovery process. On the other hand, unaddressed needs may hinder the recovery process. Thus, it is important to assess the impact of the crisis event and identify at-risk individuals so that intervention and support measures can be appropriately conducted as indicated from the assessed needs.

In addition, crisis reactions may change from time to time. People/staff may have delayed crisis reactions, they may not show the need for support immediately after a particular crisis happens. Yet, it is important to keep observing and assessing the

needs of at-risk people/staff at different post-crisis periods (e.g. after a few days, a few weeks and a few months) so that appropriate support can be arranged accordingly. Overall speaking, communities/organizations should have adequate preparation and be familiarized with the assessment procedures and different support measures, so that timely and appropriate intervention can be rendered to the affected people/staff in time of a crisis.

## **2.6 The Community/Organizational Crisis Management Team (CMT).**

### *Objectives*

Communities or organizations have to set up their Crisis Management Team (CMT). The CMT is the most important unit for crisis intervention in communities or organizations. It comprises a group of people/ staff who know the community or the organization and each other well enough to make the necessary decisions when a crisis occurs. On the suggested criteria for selection of Team Members, the members should at least have the trust of the people within the community or organization and must have the ability to remain calm in tense situations and make decisions, as well as be equipped with the relevant knowledge and skills and be sensitive to the feelings and needs of others. The objectives of the CMT are:

1. **Safety:** to ensure the immediate safety of all people.
2. **Stability:** to re-establish the stability of the community or organization routine as soon as possible.
3. **Consistency:** to control the flow of information in order to eliminate the spread of rumor.
4. **Identification of needs:** to identify at-risk people/person for necessary intervention to address feelings of distress.
5. **Psychological Support:** to provide appropriate counselling support to facilitate adjustment of individuals and groups, and to mitigate crisis reactions.
6. **Empowerment:** to enhance people's personal growth through adaptive coping with the crisis situation.

## **2.7 Functions of the Community/Organizational Crisis Management Team**

The CMT serves to manage the effects of a crisis and to help the school restore its normal functioning. It co-ordinates the various resources of the school to deal with the unusual situation. The functions of the CMT are to:

1. Draw up a crisis intervention and support plan
2. Evaluate the impact of the crisis on the community/organization
3. Collect and disseminate updated information and clarify whenever necessary
4. Coordinate all resources, in and outside community/organization, and provide timely and appropriate intervention and support as needed
5. Provide support to members of the affected community/organization.
6. Monitor the progress of crisis intervention and support
7. Evaluate the crisis intervention and support plan
8. Coordinate the follow up work

## **2.8 Responding to a crisis**

As you develop your crisis management plan, design your communications strategy. You may need to communicate the crisis while it is happening. For example, you may need to notify your staff that a hostile intruder is in your facility or on your grounds. Developing a code word or door card ahead of time and using it when a crisis occurs will let your staff know it's time to implement the crisis management plan. Immediately following the event, the steps you take should be responsive in nature. Planned, practiced actions can help you avoid chaos and lower the risk of additional negative consequences. During the first few minutes, concentrate on gathering accurate, concise information. This information will help you respond immediately and eliminate confusion later. Realize that things are likely to happen rapidly and often simultaneously. Stay focused, but flexible when carrying out the first steps of your plan. You may need to change the order of the following actions.

### **2.8.1 Action Steps 1. Find Out**

Find out and record exactly what happened; which individuals were involved; and their current location, present condition, and immediate needs. Note any actions that have been taken so far. Ascertain who was in charge or supervising when the incident occurred, and determine who is in charge now. Assess which resources you now have available, which outside resources may be called in, and how such assistance will be delivered. Document the facts as you learn them. Keep a notebook and pen or pencil in your crisis response kit.

### **2.8.2 Essential facts checklist**

- What happened?
- Who was involved?
- Where are they now?
- What is their present condition?
- What action has been taken so far?
- Who was supervising?
- Who is in charge?
- What internal resources are available?
- What outside resources are needed?
- How will assistance be delivered?
- When did the incident occur?

As you get the facts about what happened or is still happening, it's important to determine if the crisis is life threatening or not. If you are faced with a bomb threat, shooter, or the encroachment of a life-threatening situation, you may need to take immediate action before you contact emergency services.

### **2.8.3 Stabilize the Situation**

With help on the way, your attention can be directed to stabilizing the situation. You can accomplish this by accounting for those involved, assessing their condition, removing everyone from further harm, and controlling the activity at the scene. When you

develop your plan, identify individuals on your staff who can act as “greeters.” Greeters help monitor the flow of traffic, keep unauthorized individuals out of the crisis area, and direct press inquiries to a designated spokesperson. The individuals you select for this role should be diplomatic but authoritative, articulate, and level-headed.

Greeters also need to be well versed on your crisis management plan. Provide them with brief, bullet points of information about how the media can contact the designated spokesperson, as well as how, when, and where parents can retrieve their children. As soon as possible, disperse these greeters to strategic areas (entrances, exits) with appropriate instructions. When something terrible happens, people who want to help, onlookers, media and less well-intentioned people often flock to the site. Account for all individuals involved. In the confusion of the moment, it may be difficult to remember everyone’s name. A current roster and list of staff and volunteers should be placed in your crisis response kit. Camps which are both day and resident may have different rosters at different times of the day.

## **2.9 Summary**

This lecture module has provided students with the understanding of the processes of dealing with crises for both national and organizational development.

## **2.10 Study Questions.**

1. Define the term Crisis.
2. What are the steps to be followed in responding to crisis situation in either your community or organization?
3. List the essential facts checklist and explain what to do before, during and after the crises to stabilize the situation.

### **2.11 Reference:**

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## **3. MODULE THREE: PEACEBUILDING**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This lecture will provide us with the understanding of those peacebuilding skills which leaders must possess in handling crises, strikes and grievances of all sorts, as well as collective bargaining agreement principles for consensus agreement and meaningful development.

### **3.2 Learning Objectives**

The main objective is to understand the concept of Peacebuilding in communities and organizations for harmonious relationships and effective performance.

### **3.3 What is Peacebuilding?**

Former UN Secretary, Boutros Boutros-Ghali introduced the concept of peacebuilding in 1992 in his report to the UN as action to identify and support structures, which will lend to strengthen and solidify peace in order to avoid a relapse into conflict". Over the years, efforts have been made to elaborate on this definition. The Brahimi report from 2000 defined peacebuilding as, activities undertaken on the other far side of conflict to assemble the foundations of peace and provide the tools for building on those foundations something that is more than just the absence of war". In 2007 the Secretary-General's Policy Committee has described peacebuilding as, "a range of measures targeted to reduce the risk of lapsing or relapsing into conflict by strengthening national capacities at all levels for conflict management, and to lay the foundation for sustainable peace and development. Peacebuilding strategies must be coherent and tailored to the specific needs of the country concerned, based on national ownership, and should comprise a carefully prioritized, sequenced and relatively narrow set of activities aimed at achieving the above objectives. The 2009 UN report identified five recurring priority areas for International assistance as follows:

1. Support to basic safety and Security
2. Political Processes
3. Provision of basic Services
4. Restoration of Core Government Functions
5. Economic revitalization

### **3.4 Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding**

Conflict sensitivity is an approach used by many of the UN member nations. It considers the potential impact of development or humanitarian interventions on their environment and, particularly, prevailing conflict dynamics, and supports organizations to conduct their activities in the least harmful way. For instance, health or education projects can avoid legitimizing or supporting systems and structures that promote violence and conflict, or creating tensions between groups over access to services. Conflict sensitivity has an important role in supporting humanitarian principles and ensuring that humanitarian assistance fulfills its humanitarian objectives.

Whereas conflict sensitivity can be viewed as the “minimum standard” for development and humanitarian interventions in all conflict-affected contexts, peace building represents a more explicit effort to address the root causes of conflict and violence. In this respect, peace building represents an intervention into conflict dynamics and, therefore, involves a much greater degree of social transformation. The concept of peace building originated in the field of peace studies more than 30 years ago, as an endeavor to create sustainable peace by addressing the root causes of conflict and supporting local capacities for peaceful management and resolution of conflict through both structural and relational means. Up until the 1990s, civil society organizations and NGOs were active in pursuing peace building approaches, but these efforts were largely in parallel to the UN and diplomatic communities.

Conflict prevention cannot be dealt with outside its context, in particular that of conflict analysis. There are many approaches to conflict prevention and a few common

definitions. The twenty countries of the MDG-F CPPB Window are all experiencing a different degree of conflict. Social and economic inequalities, and lack of good governance and rule of law, still represent the greatest challenges in the achievement of the MDGs and in determining the transition to a sustainable development and long-lasting peace and democratic participation to decision making processes.

This study focuses on accomplishments and attempts to capture the positive elements brought about by (some of) the UN. However, these results need to be contextualized—any best practices need to be understood and appreciated within a context of challenges at the field operational level in many of these countries. For example, in some conflict-affected settings (most notably in Afghanistan, DRC, Sudan, South Sudan, etc.) the overall security situation undermines delivery and programme implementation. What the ‘successes’ share is a focus on community needs and specific needs that make it difficult to be replicated in other contexts.

### **3.5 Conflict and Violence Prevention: The United Nation’s (UN) Example**

What constitutes conflict and violence prevention support for the UN encompasses a range of development activities, including the development of forums for non-violent settlement of disputes, employment generation activities and rule of law development support. While the overall responsibility is on national actors as the protagonists in a conflict prevention setting, UN support has increasingly been geared toward building so-called infrastructures for peace, a specific set of interdependent state structures, cultural norms and resources which cumulatively contribute to conflict prevention and peace building.

Conflict prevention has three interrelated elements: (i) to help reform governance/institutional reforms required for the peaceful management of conflict and the prevention of emerging violent conflict, (ii) the identification of non-violent means of resolving tension, and (iii) stopping the spread of ongoing conflict. These can be further categorized as operational prevention (direct intervention such as deployment of

peacekeepers) and structural prevention (addressing root causes in governance, human rights, etc.).

In the area of conflict prevention, the use of crisis and risk mapping analysis as a tool to provide specific conflict related information and analysis can be effective. Sudan, faces huge challenges, coming out of a decades-long conflict, still facing areas of conflict/potential conflict (border with South Sudan, Darfur). The country has also undergone a separation from the new State of South Sudan (July 2011) during the course of the project implementation. Risk mapping has helped participating agencies and partners identify areas and activities. The programme's focus ("Sudan: Sustained Peace for Development: Conflict Prevention and Peace-Building") on strengthening systems and capacities for sustainable conflict prevention and management had some good results) helping communities to recover from conflicts through basic service delivery and development of economic opportunities) introducing reconciliatory practices through training at the community level.

In the border areas between Sudan and South Sudan, the JP supported the training of UN partner agencies involved in the Sustained Peace for Development programme. The mid-term evaluation reported that "The conflict sensitivity training conducted by UNDP for partner agencies was extremely useful, with agencies reporting that it influenced their programming in the Joint Programme and other interventions. It is a positive example of interagency collaboration that can have wide ranging impact on the quality of crisis/post-conflict programming in Sudan." This positive assessment is tempered by the fact that the initiative was part of a wider package of inter-agency activities that suffered from contextual delays and too-great an emphasis on assessments with a commensurate lack of actual 'peace dividend' inputs.

Supporting local communities is a good approach to solve inter-community conflicts, as the support to Tribal Elders in Sudan shows. The Southern Kordofan's Reconciliation and Peaceful Coexistence Mechanism (RPCM) and UNDP's Crisis and Recovery Mapping and Analysis (CRMA) and Conflict Reduction Programme (CRP) supported a

community interaction in Al Buram locality to enable the Shatt Nuba and RawawgaHawazma tribes to jointly decide on interventions for consolidation of peace and reconciliation. This type of participatory exercise is a good example of how to provide a forum for leaders of two communities to jointly identify the pressing issues affecting both sides and to prioritize these interventions. In addition, it allows the UN system and the state government to identify partners to deliver infrastructure, service and capacity needs.

The Observatory helps identify the type of violence affecting communities; it is too early to quantify impact on communities, but it already has a positive impact at the academic level as it has fostered dialogue and discussions on violence and crime prevention. No impact on the institutions themselves yet, but positive strides in identifying how to improve data collection, working closely with the Haitian National Police (PNH). So far, 526,366 people were sensitized in violence and crime prevention through education and information through radio (248,025 men and 278,341 women).

In Guatemala, the approach of “Consolidating Peace in Guatemala through Violence Prevention and Conflict Management” has led to the development of three models of “Safe Cities” in three communities in the country (Coban, Chennenula& Santa Lucia). A total of 210 youth were trained in human rights, and IT, job training in courses of 6 months; the UN also reached 123 women and 87 men. As part of violence and crime prevention, about 6,000 women were reached with counseling on GBV, domestic violence, on their rights etc. in the three communities. The good results in keeping cities safe and preventing crime are now being adapted in other regions in the country, with a special focus on preventive violence and protection for adolescents, women, and community organizations.

Promoting peace building has also improved social cohesion in Southern Serbia, improved access to public services and has supported economic development of minorities. It has established a good partnership between local, national and

international stakeholders that has led to collaborative approaches for supporting local media in fostering prevention or mitigating conflict and its effects.

In Haiti 29,300 people (many of them youth) were reached as part of campaign against violence— through radio and print media. Moreover, 300 journalists were trained in reporting on violence prevention, elections, and political violence. An additional 150 youth leaders were sensitized on violence in 5 cities in Haiti.

Gender-sensitivity training is also important in any post-conflict context; in Serbia, the training resulted in the town of Vlasotince establishing its first-ever Gender Council and the four municipalities of Vlasotince, Bojnik, Medvedja and Lebane adopted their first-ever Gender Action Plans. Gender equality capacity-building activities to achieve increased participation of women and gender equity at the local level have been done following a 'gender equality survey'.

Other results in increased access for vulnerable communities include the Roma community in Vlasotince now having better access to the National Employment Service programmes; and 13 Safety Councils provided information bulletins to communities to address citizens' safety and security concerns. This also led to increased networking among municipalities. Inter-ethnic peace building has also brought good results in FYR Macedonia, where 130 Local Media workers were trained in conflict sensitive reporting, a crucial result, based on the lessons learned of the conflict in the Former Yugoslavia in the 1990s where media propaganda became a tool of war.

### **3.6 Access to Justice and the Rule of Law**

The UN Secretary General has urged the United Nations and its agencies to “focus on finding better ways to support Member States and their populations in the domestic implementation of international norms and standards, working to achieve compliance with international obligations and, most critically, strengthening the institutions, policies, processes and conditions that ensure effective enforcement and enjoyment of a just national and international order.” Such support is especially important for conflict-

affected countries and is a focus of some of the UN's. A common feature in conflict-affected countries is the lack of public confidence in the composition and functioning of the national justice system. Outreach beyond main towns is often non-existent and the weaknesses in the prosecution element of the criminal justice system stem from the lack of qualified and properly trained prosecutors. The risk is that a dysfunctional justice system perpetuates a culture of settling disputes through violence. Some of the key factors that lead to violent upheaval in some of the countries under review here were human rights violations, unresolved land disputes, corruption, and inequity. Improving understanding between different communities and promoting human rights and the rule of law is a proven way to help reduce conflict in many contexts.

In Mauritania (“Strengthening conflict prevention capacities and the rule of law”), the UN produced good results by targeting areas with high potential for conflict, and focusing on vulnerable groups such as women and youth, as well as the inhabitants of ‘adwabas’ (villages of former slaves) and communities of returning refugees. The programme strengthened national capacity in conflict prevention and resolution, and established mechanisms for mediating and managing conflict situations, such as early warning networks and trained mediators. Mauritania presents an interesting use of rule of law and civic education to promote peace. A total of 3,600 local judicial and administrative officials, village chiefs, NGOs participated in training and capacity building on human rights, rule of law and conflict prevention. About 40,000 beneficiaries were reached directly or indirectly, 79,201 students and 925 youth were reached through civic education; 550 community leaders and 40 journalists were trained in human rights and civic education. An additional 25,000 people reached through cultural activities, such as the initiative ‘Building Bridges’.

‘Building bridges’ through shared spaces is an interesting concept that has helped integrate different ethnic groups in 58 communities in Mauritania. About 47 community parks and infrastructures benefitted 38 100 people; it provided a common space for people to meet. Through the use of community markets, parks, and income-generating activities managed by committees from the two targeted villages, the communities now

enjoy better relations. These interventions have built bridges of reconciliation, trust and peace between the two communities. Other assistance included framework laws on protection of the environment, human development, human rights and risk prevention and management.

A strong communication strategy was built by the UN, providing support in public awareness on conflict resolution in urban areas and creation of political and social consciousness. Achievements include technical support for the new Constitution and rule of law; capacity building for civil society, and, as a result, increased dialogue among beneficiaries. The UN focused on strengthening of Rule of law, Justice and capacity building in the area of conflict prevention. It dealt with discrimination, dialogue and conflict resolution. The Final Evaluation identified some aspects of the UN and partnership with the government that are significant in terms of impact.

### **3.7 Enhancing Inter-Ethnic Community Dialogue**

Inter-ethnic dialogue is a useful tool for conflict prevention and peace building. Experience in several fragile settings has shown that empowering and strengthening the capacities of individuals, communities, and institutions to manage ever-present conflict and violence factors is essential to peace building. Attention should be paid not only to national level institutions, but also to the community level for accountability of institutions to its citizens. This helps local partners find compromises, and develop constructive relationships. Inter-cultural dialogue has taken a new meaning in the context of globalization and it is becoming a vital way of maintaining peace and world unity, to ensure space for and freedom of expression to all cultures. Therefore, it isn't a matter of identifying and safeguarding every culture in isolation, but rather of revitalizing them in order to avoid segregation and cultural entrenchment and prevent conflict. A few of the UNs strategies, are designed to facilitate the establishment of a functional conflict transformation system by strengthening capacity at the local and national levels, as well as promoting a multi-cultural civic identity—as in the cases of FYR of Macedonia, Serbia, Colombia, and Mexico among others. The strategy is to facilitate a systemic linkage among existing responsible mechanisms at national and local levels,

building conflict resolution expertise where none/few exist; enhancing the capacity of central and local bodies to facilitate inclusive problem-solving processes and consensus-building around community priorities, strengthening the commitment to an inclusive civic national identity with respect to diversity, supporting the longer term role of education, and work with local leaders, civil society and the media to facilitate constructive civic dialogue that promotes inter-cultural awareness and values informing peaceful co-existence.

### **3.8 Summary**

This lecture module provides us with the clear understanding of the right approaches to peacebuilding necessary for peaceful co-existence for both national and organizational development.

### **3.9 Study Questions**

1. What is peacebuilding? Discuss the areas of priority attention as identified by United Nations (UN, 2009) in international peacebuilding practices.
2. Discuss the approaches to conflict prevention and peacebuilding in Nigeria and their consequences on country's development.
3. To what extent lack of access to Justice and the Rule of Law by citizens becomes a major impediment to nation building?
4. How best Inter-ethnic dialogue can become a useful tool for conflict prevention and peace building in Nigeria?

### **3.10 References**

Report of the Secretary-General (2009); *Peacebuilding in the Immediate Aftermath of Conflict* A/63/881–S/2009/304.

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