With the self as my leader

Leadership as a projection of one’s self-perceived identity

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In this essay we intend to further examine the ambiguity within the phenomenon of leadership in the remark that it is situationally, subjectively and contextually constructed by each individual. In the vast ocean of leadership research, all with several different approaches, we emphasize an examination of leadership with a greater openness towards newer leadership research which builds on, in part, many different parts of social sciences. We mean to highlight the individual creation of the phenomenon of leadership through projection of one’s identity. We draw on different research from areas involving subjectivity, projection, identity and the follower’s relationship with leaders. The study is conducted within an organization focused on producing fast moving consumer goods for hygienic purposes. The empirical data is built upon interviews, observations and document collection within the organization. Together, these forms of data show how identity, context, situation and life-story all contribute to a subjectively perceived leadership. Reviewing the empirical data with the presented theories, we then argue that it’s an individual projection of these factors that shape the individual’s self-perceived view on leadership, which conclusively constitutes the concept.

I den här uppsatsen avser vi att undersöka tvetydigheten inom fenomenet ledarskap i den bemärkelsen att det är situationellt, subjektivt och kontextuellt konstruerat av varje individ. I det breda spekter av ledarhetsforskning, alla med olika forskningsinriktningar, väljer vi att belysas ledarskap med en större öppenhet till nyare ledarhetsforskning, vilken i sin tur bygger på delvis flera olika delar av samhällsorienterad forskning. Vi avser att illustrera individens skapande av fenomenet ledarskap genom projektion av ens egen identitet. Vi lyfter fram teorier som berör områden som subjektivitet, projektion, identitet samt följares relation till ledare. Studien genomförs inom en organisation som producerar snabbrörliga
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1. Introduction

Leadership – seems we can’t live without it, still we’re having problems defining what “it” is. In today’s society leadership is often seen as a given. It surrounds us in most aspects of our lives, at work, in school, in politics, in popular culture and it’s attached to various positive aspects such as success and greatness (Industry Leaders, 2012). Society teaches us that leadership is of great importance (Ibid.). Still, what leadership actually is remains a mainly unanswered question. Much research has been conducted, although the picture of leadership remains fragmented at best. The problem of finding common and stable ground in regards of leadership research is tangible, which has resulted in a full set of expressions, behaviors and languages, which are all supposed to capture the essence of leadership. In later days this inconsistent view has made room for a more critical thinking of leadership that has started to question the way we think about leadership in general. Western (2013) means that critical thinking is to question and reflect upon normative ideas and take on a more radical, interrogative attitude towards “mainstream, positivistic and rationalistic perspectives” (Western, 2013, p.5). This critical standpoint intends to de-construct the given idea of leadership and open up the door for different interpretations (Western, 2013). Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) state that there is a need to have a greater openness when studying leadership and that there lies a problem in pre-existing knowledge, which often can cause researchers to take leadership for granted.

Critical theorists still believe that leadership exists, just not in the way society is constructed to make us think about it. As Western (2013) puts it “I believe that leadership is everywhere, but it mostly goes unrecognized, is misunderstood, and, worse, it is constrained and limited by social forces […]” (Western, 2013, p.XIV). Many of the views on leadership are built on the idea that it can be seen and observed objectively, but what if leadership is subjectively perceived? What if the perception of the phenomenon lies in the eyes of the beholder? Leadership is captured within, practiced by and exercised over people, and the idea that the human subjectivity would influence such a behavior seems reasonable. By allowing subjectivity into the concept of leadership and recognizing that our personal selves help shape our perception of the phenomenon, a more coherent and sustainable view might be created.

1.1 A revised approach

As previously stated, earlier ideas on leadership are increasingly being questioned (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; Western, 2013, Winkel, 2010). Previous theories have often regarded
leadership as something to be researched objectively. Winkel (2010) calls these theories classical leadership theories, which primarily include approaches covering traits, behavior, style and situation. The author explains furthermore how these classical approaches see the leader as an active, special actor in the leadership process, influencing the follower, who is seen as passive and reactive in the situation. This in turn creates a narrow view on leadership, unable to capture everyday leadership practice. Uhl-Bien and Ospina (2012) continue this reasoning, meaning that this objective view on leadership, constructed for the control and examination of neo-positivism, creates a shallow and abstract knowledge. Alvesson (1996) also criticizes this conservative perspective in social sciences, meaning that positivistic and neo-positivistic approaches accentuate objectivity and neutrality and that leadership research conducted with these principles produces material far from reality. The author also expresses that although something called an objective reality might exist, it is important to highlight that human consciousness cannot be externalized from social reality. This relates with Smircich and Stubbarts’ (1985) concept on an enacted world, which implies that environments are created together by individuals through a process of social interaction and construction. The world is expressed as “an ambiguous field of experience” (Smircich & Stubbart, 1985, p.726) and an individual’s reality is created by their own and others’ actions, followed by intellectual ambitions to create meaning out of these actions (Smircich & Stubbart, 1985). Grint (2005) further explains the importance of understanding reality as a construction of language, which in itself is a social occurrence and that the predominant reality therefore becomes both momentarily and collectively perceived. From the above stated research, the assumption can be drawn that observing an objective reality and knowledge when working with social research is highly problematic, if not perhaps impossible.

In the critic of earlier theories, more contemporary theories have risen. Winkel (2010) states that there are four main characteristics of current leadership theories, which intend to create a more appropriate explanation on leadership. Firstly, leadership is now more seen as a process of complex interaction, shifting focus from the leader and his or her characteristics and behavior to an interplay between leader and follower. Secondly, in contemporary leadership theories, a subjective reality with a focus on perceiving researched individuals subjectively, has overtaken the concept of an objective reality and an emphasis on developing and shaping leadership relations is given. Thirdly, the context is given a more complex and ambiguous position in current theories, emphasizing the social system in which leadership is imbedded as a result of intricate social relationships. Fourthly, leadership research approaches nowadays
have a stronger focus on describing and understanding leadership over delivering recipes and models for effective and normative leadership. (Winkel, 2010).

1.2 Problematization
The move from a more objective to a more subjective approach to leadership is not just based on the appointed flaws of previous views. Today’s society faces several challenges, both environmentally, socially and economically, and leadership, as it has predominantly been manifested and described up until recently, needs to be reconsidered. The global extent of business, production and finance requires a different understanding of leadership that is fit for the global arena of the present business world. The view on leadership needs to take on the same networking approach as the environment it’s present in and Western (2013) stresses that leadership needs to leave the old shape of a hierarchal pyramid, which explicitly implies leaders on top and follower underneath, and take on the form of a network, where leadership and followership interact in a dynamic flow of exchange between actors.

Thereby, a vastly changing social and economic environment combined with previous leadership research, that in today’s society tend to be viewed as outdated, calls for leadership research that addresses current issues and builds on to the substance of newer research, also occupied with these problems, thus giving it more validity. We find that the lines between areas of social research have a tendency to be distinctively drawn and that the different areas seldom interact intertwiningly. Drawing on that social facts are often seen as ambiguous in their nature, one could argue that the combining of different parts of social sciences, in an attempt to understand a social concept such as leadership, has the potential to result in a yielding outcome. The use of research outside the perimeters of leadership is thus deemed necessary to gain a more profound and valid theoretical framework, since the research aim for this thesis draws on several different genres. These genres have traditionally not been included in the field of leadership research, but are gaining more and more ground in this area and make a contribution to parts of leadership research previously unexplored.

Someone showing an interest for this intersection of different research fields is Western (2013), who in his research on leadership allows psychoanalysis to become a fundamental part. For example, when discussing this he expresses that “[…] we see how fluid the concepts of leadership are, with new links being developed between leadership and identity formation” (Western, 2013, p.13). To understand how an individual perceives a social concept such as leadership it could thus be of interest to understand how she perceives herself and project her
perception onto things around her. Self-perception in regard to leadership might thereby be of value when trying to create an alternative understanding of leadership as a subjective concept.

1.3 Research questions

- Is leadership an identity projection of leader’s and follower’s own self-perception onto the general concept of leadership?
- To what extent is the general concept of leadership affected by context, situation and social interaction within an organization?

1.4 Research Aim

In this essay we intend to create an understanding if leadership is created, within a given socially interactive context, though identity projections, where leaders and followers project their subjectively perceived identity, based on their own self-perception and self-concept, onto the general concept of leadership.

1.5 Limitations

As leadership research covers many aspects of leadership, for this theses, we have chosen to take certain interest in identity projection in understanding the concept of leadership which might exclude certain angles of research approaches. As an example, at the very start of the interview the researchers somewhat framed the setting for the interview by concisely explaining the more cognitive and subjective angle of incidence of the research area as well as stating the non-existence of a right or wrong answer. The reason for this was to help the respondents break out of mainstream views of leadership and not narrowing their answers to preconceptions regarding the theme at hand, thereby being able to give replies better concurring with the field of this research and reduce uncertainty. This in line with the argument of Alvesson (2003), who in his research on reflexivity regarding interviews emphasize that the interviewee’s assumption on what the researchers are after in the interview shapes and guides the interviewee’s responses. By setting the outer frame for the interview, the ambition was to make sense of the interview’s purpose for the interviewee, as Alvesson (2003) refers to as sensemaking, thus trying to create a better cognitive understanding of the research conducted. We recognize that the effect of this action might be that the respondents give answers other than the ones they would without the setting, but we find the potential effects of the action to be more positive than negative in regard to the aim of this thesis.
Additionally, words such as manager, leader and boss are in this essay used synonymously with each other to elude the necessity of defining the differences between the phrases, in similarity to the research put forth by Czarniawska-Jorges and Wolff (1991) suggesting a more contextual view on roles rather than their functions. This in turn could be deemed important in some research approaches to leadership, yet for the thesis at hand, it has been treated as equally defined. This is partially due to this thesis focusing on the general understanding of leadership, insinuating that such a phenomenon is not possibly objectively defined, and not necessarily excluded from the work of bosses, managers or leaders. This thesis partly argues the co-creation of leadership by participants of a social context which diminishes the need to put further value in the distinction between terms, albeit not ruling out the influence that terms might have on the general phenomenon of leadership.

Another limitation to this study is the fact that it is a case study inflicting on how one can generalize the results of the research. This is however not the sole purpose of the study but rather to develop a framework, which could be applied in other research. A reflection on the aspects of a case study will be presented in the methodological reflection.

1.6 Disposition

After the introduction, in the second part of this essay we examine previous research regarding this area of leadership, but also other areas, which include research of interest to our research aim. We will draw on several parts of critical leadership theory such as leadership and identity, followers’ role in creating leadership and the projection of leadership. Also psychology research will be given a notable part in the essay. These parts will together constitute our theoretical framework, in which we’ll find support to our research angle. In the third part we will describe our methodology when conducting our research and writing this essay. The section will cover empirical data collection and processing as well as reflexivity in regards of methodology, meant to bring forth a more reflexive way of processing and analyzing the data. The fourth part will encompass the processed empirical data divided into primarily three parts, which is interview, observation and document collection. Quotations as well as describing examples will be used to bring depth and richness to the text. In the fifth part empirical data will be analyzed using the theoretical framework as standpoint. We mean to search for common denominators both between respondents and with regard to the framework, thus building a strong analytic base for the aim of this essay. Parallel to the analysis we discuss our analyzed findings, thereby allowing our own opinions and perspective to additionally develop the analysis. The discussion will build up to our conclusions in regard
to the aim of the essay. For this thesis the section of analysis and discussion has been intertwined to allow for a more easily comprehended reading. In the final part we will draw our conclusions based on previous analysis and discussion and suggest areas of interest for further research.

2. Theoretical framework
In this chapter the emphasis lies with critical theory, subjectivity, projection, identity and leader-follower relationship, which all contribute to the theoretical framework and will be used in the analysis and discussion of the found empirical material. Critical theory and subjectivity can be seen as aspects affecting the latter three chapters on an overall basis, whilst the latter three chapters emphasize a main frame of this thesis.

2.1 Critical theory and leadership
Western (2013) claims that there is a need to have a critical approach to the study of leadership. He deems it necessary because in such a case being critical is not meant in traditional terms, such as finding flaws in mainstream leadership, but as being reflective and taking a questioning stance. Critical theory does not take for granted what is said to be face value in a mainstream, positivistic or rationalistic perspective (Western, 2013). This viewpoint is shared by, amongst others, Ford (2010), who emphasizes the dangers in trying to generalize findings from highly complex data. This, according to the author, disregards how the findings are actually based upon contextually specific and in-depth qualitative studies. To further exemplify troubles with said generalizability, Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) found in an organizational study that the people within the organization only partially succeeded in constructing a coherent view of how they see and practice leadership. These findings, combined with the rather sceptic approach to positivistic or rationalistic perspectives (as put forth by Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2003), helps us understand what Western (2013) means by explaining that critical theory supports an individual’s process of inquiry to the theory and practice of leadership. The individual needs to be taken into consideration so that neither the individual differences nor the contextual settings are ignored when creating theories of leadership (Ford, 2010).

2.1.1 Emphasizing the individualistic approach
It is suggested by Haslam and Reicher (2007) that one better understands leadership through the study of followers instead of leaders. This in turn emphasizes the importance of an
individualistic approach when studying leadership, in similarity with the reasoning from Western (2013). With the individualistic approach in mind, critically assessing how any organizational phenomenon imprints on managerial manner should be evaluated and is of importance according to Alvesson and Deetz (2000). As followership has gained more importance in the study of leadership one ought to combine the understanding of such a phenomenon with contextual constraints (Western, 2013). Within such a context lies relationships between leaders and followers which constitute for example how engaged followers will be in decision making (Brewer, 2014). Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) follow the same reasoning and determine that context involves complexity. Such complexity could be analyzed reflexively (Alvesson, 1996) and leads to critically assessing theories upon which more contextually individualistic research can be built and constructed. What should be emphasized here is that such contextually individualistic research should correlate well with the reasons Western (2013) puts forth as reasons to why critical theory should be applied. It can be deduced, coherent with Western’s (2013) ideas, that in critical theory the individual is given more space and ought to be subject to more research.

In traditional perspectives on leadership, there has been an emphasis on the individual manager or leader who could be regarded as one with control over the situations of which he or she rules (Sveningsson, Alvesson & Kärreman, 2014). This is somewhat problematic when studying “leadership” since it disregards the attention that should be given to social context and the mutual interpretations and notions about the phrase (Ibid.). Alvesson (1996) suggests that critical theory includes evaluating social reality, a subjective reality or anything that must be interpreted rather than taken as a mirroring description. This in turn could lead to a better understanding of the empirical data and should give a broader perspective of what is studied.

2.2 Subjectivity

It is highly unlikely that, with the way every individual puts different meaning into different things, one is to objectively and collectively make a rational objective decision where everyone is pleased with the outcome (Carter & Jackson, 2002). The reason for this, according to Carter and Jackson (2002), is, amongst other things, that every individual subjectively interprets his or her reality. The authors emphasize that being objective is impossible when dealing with individuals and human beings. Instead, one might concur with Knights and Morgan (1991) who highlight the importance of analyzing subjectivity when understanding the identity of workers and managers. The authors claim that these very identities may be affected by a discourse which in turn is formulated, evaluated and
constructed by workers and managers in which they can secure their own reality. One could therefore argue that it would be in the best interest for managers to manage, as Western (2013) puts it, subjectivity and make it a central task for any organization. In support of such a statement, Owusu-Bempah, Addison and Fairweather (2011), state that each individual enter work situations with implicit theories built in their own minds, which are used when observing the actions of a leader to, ultimately, rate them good or bad. For a leader, it is thus important to see things through the followers “eyes”, which in turn might lead to the ability to influence the subordinates’ ideas of leadership (Ibid.).

2.2.1 Interpreting a subjective interactive reality

It could however be important to remember that the conception of the objective environment is that it is still there in, for example, material etc. (Smircich & Stubbart, 1985). The emphasis should instead be on how one perceives the environment and also realize that it is created through social interaction processes (Ibid.). To add to such complexity, Jackson and Carter (2002) claim that whenever one tries to exchange information, the information in itself remains neutral, whereas the interpretation of said information can be extremely multifaceted. This in turn, according to the authors, is due to, for example, emotions affecting the individual interpretation of the text. The question can then be raised whether organizations dealing with leadership tries to actively control such interpretations to maintain, as defined by Berger and Luckman (1966), a subjective reality. If so, then one can assume that a subjective reality might be interpreted as an objective one, when if it is socially defined (Ibid.).

How does one then subjectively interpret a word such as “leadership”, if, according to Carter and Jackson (2002), it is impossible to objectively determine anything which holds the same meaning to everyone? Kallifatides (2014) argues that the construction of leadership is about the internalization of subjective pictures of leadership, which then become objectively internalized by the spreading of said pictures. Whereas these subjective pictures can be found and utilized anywhere in one’s contextual habitat, the objective ones are commonly stereotypical and are thought to be able to spread through, for example, storytelling (Ibid.). When defining leadership, Kallifatides (2014) believes it will be defined in a manner which best justifies the individual’s subjectively created idea of the phenomenon. How subjectivity plays out in organizational contexts and acts in the creation of the understanding of leadership could hence be argued important to further investigate. After all, if it is as Sveningsson et. al. (2014) state that the emphasis of leadership should be on the individual interpretation of the
phenomenon, this concludes that subjectivity must be of concern when conducting and studying leadership.

2.3 Projection

There is a general idea that individuals like others that are predominantly similar to themselves (Castelli, Arcuri & Carraro, 2009). To exemplify, Castelli et. al. (2009) note that since the self usually is valued in a highly positive way individuals that resemble the self will also be highly valued.

Evidence implying projection could also be found in politics. Castelli et. al. (2009 p.3) found in their study “Projection Processes in the Perception of Political leaders”, which researched voters’ projections on political leaders, that voters in general projected personal features in a selective process onto political leaders and that these projections were both positive and negative. This was conducted in a way that more liked politicians were attributed personal features of voters, while less liked politicians were denied them. The self could, in this situation, be regarded as the guide for the perception of political leaders, which Castelli et. al. (2009) point out, appeared to be a way for the self to increase the perceived similarity between the voter and the politician. Applied to leadership, Petriglieri and Stein (2012) argue that a projection of the unwanted aspects of a leader’s identity by followers onto other followers make it appear as if such flaws are not present with the identity of the leader.

Instead, the authors continue, the successful identity work of leaders is enhanced by such a process, which in turn leads them to credibly act out in their roles. This behavior in turn leads to, as discussed by Lipman-Blumen (2005), an illusion that even if leaders are not knowledgeable and in control to satisfy each individual’s own projected identity, followers convince themselves that they are. Such a process could be a reason to why leaders believe in their own omniscience (Ibid.).

2.3.1 Conscious or unconscious

Petriglieri and Stein (2012) argue that projective identification is not a conscious strategy, nor is it something that can be fully controlled or captured in any conclusive models. However, they do emphasize that several factors may unconsciously ignite the engagement in projective identifications. As put forward by Kets de Vries (2006), the interface with surroundings is what guides our subsequent relationship with others. It could thus be argued that the individual who is projecting, whether good or bad projections, will unconsciously identify with the identities of the individuals being projected upon (Petriglieri & Stein, 2012).
could lead to the effective work between those who enact upon the same identities yet, paradoxically, inefficient between those who do not (Ibid.). The identity can therefore be deemed important when understanding leadership, as is also suggested by Castelli et. al. (2009). What such an identity means is discussed and exemplified by Western (2013) who states that a projection arises because of what one represents to others in the role of one’s profession. If such a profession includes leadership, then the author suggests it to be reflected upon as an unconscious process of projection in a context.

### 2.3.2 Assuming general consensus

People tend to predict the preference of others and do so while they expect their own preference to be generally predominating, which in itself is a result of projection (Clement & Krueger, 2000). The self becomes a general judging and expectancy frame for judging and evaluating others and it tends to be value-based, as people often put favorable emphasis on the traits, values and characteristics they perceive themselves to have (Dunning & Hayes, 1996). It is thus common that the knowledge and concept one has of oneself shapes the way one comprehends the social consensus, meaning that one’s own opinions, views and traits are thought to be prevailing amongst others as well (Clement & Krueger, 2000). In general, this indicates that the self becomes a vital part in perceiving, understanding, shaping and regarding the social world (Dunning & Hayes, 1996).

### 2.4 Identity

Petriglieri and Stein (2012) claim that research has illustrated how individuals influence their own self-perception through interactions with others to sustain or transform into a wanted role. The authors further explain that leaders are most efficient when they are, in a legitimizing way, able to take on leadership identities that cohere with their own experiences and the actions that have led to them. Shamir and Eilam (2005) researched authentic leadership and expressed that authentic leaders are built on characteristics shaped and developed from their own life stories. The life story becomes the source from which the leader draws meaning and through this becomes genuine in his or her leadership. Continuing on authenticity, Nyberg and Sveningsson (2014) talk about the difficulties in constructing a stable and coherent leadership identity. The authors point out that to create a coherent self the leader must modify and organize his or her experiences and knowledges into an eloquent life story, although this is a process of continuous adaptation and adjustment over time. Thereby, identity formation becomes a process of constant change, managing conflicting experiences as
a result of a complex context, in order to create an intelligible self (Nyberg & Sveningsson, 2014).

2.4.1 The organizational arena
Identity work can also occur unconsciously when leaders as individuals through projective identification are trying to maintain a desired identity (Petriglieri & Stein, 2012). The identification can often become influenced by the organization in which the leader is working. The influence implies that the more the leader identifies his- or herself with the organization the more likely he or she is to try to reduce the gap between the personal and the organizational identity (Petriglieri & Stein, 2012). Also building on the organization’s importance in the matter of leadership identity, DeRue and Ashford (2010) claim in their article “Who will lead and who will follow?” that leadership identities are created within organizations through social interaction as individuals are given, or take on, the identities of leaders and followers. The organizational context thus becomes the arena in which these identities become internalized by the individuals and through relational reciprocity they both become confirmed and validated (Ibid.). Petriglieri and Stein (2012) further develop this idea of internalization and validation, suggesting that leadership develops from two key features, being the internalization of the leader identity into the individual’s self-perception and the validation of this identity, which occurs through social interchange. Petriglieri and Stein (2012) state that the first part includes creating a correspondence between how the individual perceives him- or herself and how the individual perceives leadership. The second part encompasses potential followers recognizing the individual as a leader, granting him or her this role based on that their view on the individual and their view on leadership cohere (DeRue & Ashford, 2010)

2.4.2 Granting and claiming
In the process of claiming and granting these different identities, Petriglieri and Stein (2012) lift forward two dimensions that need to be considered as variables, with which the process varies: verbal/nonverbal and direct/indirect. Using these two dimensions, the authors theorize around diverse ways in which individuals can claim and grant their wished identities. Among some alternatives, they emphasized direct verbal claim and grant of leadership and followership, which involved verbally stating that you or someone else are a leader or a follower. They also declare nonverbal direct actions as a way of manifesting ones perceived identity and applied choosing to sit at the meeting head chair or only speaking when called upon during a meeting as examples. Also indirect verbal and nonverbal actions as stating
relationships with other leaders in the case of claiming a leader identity or actively withstanding from initiative when claiming followership are mentioned by the authors. (Petriglieri & Stein, 2012). This interplay between actors can be seen as a role-taking and a role-giving process, where the cognitive action of granting and claiming identities becomes an unavoidable result of every social interaction (Gecas, 1986). Gecas (1986) continues on this line of thinking and views the social context as an arena for constructing our identities. By defining the situation every participant becomes both the creator and product of these interactions and consequently their own and others identity (Ibid.).

2.4.3 Relational roles, motivation and situation
Also emphasizing roles and relations are Stryker and Burke (2000), who through identity theory expresses that identity is a role attached with a set of expectations in a certain network of relationships. An individual can thereby have many identities, depending on the number of separate networks and relationships he or she participates in, all manifested as roles to be played. The authors summarize this by expressing that “identities are internalized role expectations” (Stryker & Burke, 2000, p286). Ashford and Kreiner (1999) talk about the importance of self-definition, which helps the individual position him- or herself in the context and thus gives an idea on his or her thoughts, feelings and potential actions in the given situation. However, a vital point made by the authors is that individuals tend to use their social identities to increase their self-esteem and thus have an overhanging desire to view their self-definition in a positive way. In their article “Toward a theory of individual differences and leadership: Motivation to lead” Chan and Drasgow (2001) make the assumption that an individual’s personality, standards and values are related to the leadership behavior that he or she possesses, all through the individual’s motivation to lead. This, according to the authors, consequently effects the individual’s participation in leadership activities and which leader roles he or she takes on. Chan and Drasgow (2001) imply that these activities and roles are what give the individual the knowledge and ability to lead, resulting in the means to develop his or her leadership style. The authors also acknowledge the situation, meaning that the consequential leadership in a specific moment is a product of individual differences, generated through personality and values, interacting with situational factors.

2.5 Leader-follower relationship
Brewer (2014) emphasizes that “leadership is the ability to act with others and to have the emotional means to carry it out successfully” (Brewer, 2014, p.89). Followers become a critical part of this interactional view on leadership and it can be stated that without followers there can’t be leaders (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). In the light of social identification, followers might apply personal identification with the leader and thereby provide for potential influence of leader over follower (Yukl, 2013). This approach regarding leaders influence on followers has previously been the dominating approach, however, lately the other side of the coin has started to gain research ground (Western, 2013). DeRue and Ashford (2010) state in their research that as a counter pole to leadership identity there must also be a follower identity. The authors continue that although both these identities are partly cognitive, individual self-perceptions, they are also socially constructed and mutually co-dependent, insinuating there can’t be leadership identities without follower identities. By taking on a relational rather than an intrapersonal approach, this indicates a two-sided influential process in the creation of leadership identity, which rather than being internal and static, deems the identity to be both timely, contextually and situationally dependent (DeRue & Ashford, 2010).

2.5.1 The three levels of the self

In a discussion regarding the self, Brewer and Gardner (1996) state three levels of self-representation, namely the personal, relational and collective self, to highlight the complexity of identity work and social self-awareness. DeRue and Ashford (2010) draw upon these three levels and claim that in order to fully understand the process of leadership identity construction, one must include all three levels. This implies that leadership cannot be merely an individual creation, but rather a multi-level, cross-lateral social construction procedure (Ibid.). The authors conceptualize this by declaring that “leadership identity comprises three elements: individual internalization, relational recognition and collective endorsement” (DeRue & Ashford, 2010, p. 629), the latter two being the foremost predominant when discussing followers influence over leadership.

The individual internalization referrers to when the individual incorporates the leadership identity within his or her self-concept (DeRue & Ashford, 2010), which Gecas (1986) argues is the perception the individual has of him- or herself as an object. The second element of relational recognition focuses on receiving recognition from surrounding individuals for the identity one takes on (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). In this regard, Sluss and Ashforth (2007) mean that identities are attached to roles and that these roles have intrapersonal relationships
situated in different social contexts. Thus, the confirmation of the claimed identity becomes dependent on the situation and the embedded relations within that situation (Ibid.). Sluss and Ashforth (2007) call this role-relationships and argue that the roles within a context are complementary, painting an example where there can be no leader identity without a follower identity. DeRue and Ashford (2010) build on this, stating that the claiming of corresponding and shared role identities as leader and follower generates relational recognition of the leadership identity and thus makes it stronger. Lastly, collective endorsement is about expanding the boundaries of the self-concept to a socially extended self and become seen within a broader social context as part of a collective identity (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). To the greater extent that an individual is collectively authorized as part of the leaders or followers within a group, the stronger the identity construction becomes and the related identities even further established (DeRue & Ashford, 2010).

Following on others and collective opinion, Ashford and Kreiner (1999) argue that individuals, by adopting collective values, opinions and norms and participating in social interaction, become aware of how others view them and allow that to become part of their own self-definition. So although partly an individual process, the narrators correspondingly emphasize that the construction and view of the self is influenced by social endorsement.

3. Methodology

To gain empirical evidence, which could be used to answer the thesis, it was deemed necessary to gather information about opinions and perceptions from individuals willing to share. Thus, in accordance with Bryman and Bell (2013), the different research methods used to conduct this study have primarily been out of a qualitative design with which the researchers gain the understanding of the respondents’ perceptions on the subject matter. However, according to Alvesson (2003), when dealing with, for example, interviews, one should proceed with caution to not overlook the fact that it is a complex social event, which calls for deeper analysis. The deeper analysis extends to what the author calls a reflexive approach, where a set of theoretical viewpoints could, and should, be applied to elude the risk of misinterpretation of the interview. This will be further discussed in the latter part of this chapter.

3.1 Research on the theoretical framework
The approach to finding the theories which constitute the theoretical framework has been a deductive one, in accordance with Bryman and Bell’s (2013) description of the concept. The deductive approach is used when researchers gather information about what is known in a general field of science and then deduct one or several hypotheses, which are to be empirically tested and evaluated (Ibid.). Initially, the theories put forth by Western (2013) were used to gain insight to the field of research as well as act as a gateway to other researchers’ theories. The names of those researchers, as well as themes, were looked up in a database in order to gain more insight into the fields of interest. Some key themes were eventually found to be more predominant in regard of giving an answer to this study’s thesis. This conclusively led to the discovery of two articles which have been a foundation to this thesis. The article “Who will lead and who will follow?” by DeRue and Ashford (2010) and the article “The unwanted self: Projective Identification in Leaders’ Identity Work” by Petriglieri and Stein (2012) have both been used in reference to other authors and researchers as well as identifying key phrases, which could be searched for in a database. This is, according to Bryman and Bell (2013), a good way to gain insight to any research field.

3.2 Choice of method

As researchers, one has the urge to raise the credibility of one’s results, which, for the thesis at hand, has been conducted through the use of a triangular method of gathering data. The triangular method is, according to Bryman and Bell (2013), a way of securing and strengthening the results through different types of methods in which we try to observe an initially equal problem. In accordance with the authors, to strengthen the credibility of the results, this case study draws upon data collection from three sources. It includes interviews, observations and the partaking of documents produced by the company itself. To better understand the results of each category individually, it was deemed necessary to analyze them with the aid of the other two.

The lens through which empirical data has been gathered and analyzed was built upon critical theorists such as, amongst others, Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003), Alvesson (1996) and Alvesson (2003). Further implications of the application of critical theory will be discussed in the methodological reflection.

3.3 Selection of organization

The nature of the study is what Bryman and Bell (2013) refer to as a case study since the empirical data has been collected from solely one company at only one location. The
company is of considerable size with units in many parts of the world and has approximately 44,000 employees in total with ca 1000 on the location studied. One could deem the organization a knowledge-intensive one with many of the employees holding university degrees. The company is of a fast-moving-consumer-goods character, which produces products for hygiene usage.

The selection process of the organization was based on an earlier preunderstanding to one of the researchers and therefore, according to Bryman and Bell (2013), makes it close to a chain selection, whereas the acquaintance has been the link between the respondents and the researchers. The acquaintance’s insight to the study was limited to a general understanding of the thesis at hand to minimize the possible influence over the study since she was the one arranging the interviews with respondents. In the selection process of the respondents some criteria were given in order to receive interviews that could be used as useful sources when concluding this thesis. Such criteria included the even distribution between managers and co-workers as well as men and women.

Other than being the link to the interviews, this chain selection lead to an easier access, if needed, to other forms of data collection. Apart from said interviews, data from the organization was collected through observations and the partaking of documents from within the organization, which were of interest to the study. As described by Eisenhardt (1989) the typical case study is used to accomplish various aims, be it to provide a theory, generate a theory or provide a description of a case. For the purpose of this specific thesis, the utilization of the acquaintance was thereby deemed a prerequisite of any data collection and has been a substantial aid in the completion of the work in the description of a case. In addition, Bryman and Bell (2013) emphasize that although a chain selection might not be representative of a population, it is still used in qualitative approaches due to the absent need of generalization of results.

### 3.4 Anonymity

For this thesis, both the organization and the individuals being studied have been treated with aspects of anonymity. To secure said anonymity, three bigger actions were taken. Firstly, in accordance with Bryman and Bell (2013), all of the individuals partaking in the study were treated with confidentiality leading to, for example, the naming of all 11 respondents as Co-worker 1 through 5 and manager 1 through 6. Secondly, the organization will be kept anonymous by name though a brief description of what it does is provided. Thirdly, anything
being able to link to a specific respondent or observed leader has, to the researchers’ best capabilities, been altered to include, for example, quotes without specific names, titles or relations. This aspect was also communicated to the involved individuals during the interviews and observations, as recommended by Patel and Davidsson (2011). Mainly, this was done to elude the risks of a constraint answer due to a possible identification of a certain respondent and to make the respondents feel comfortable talking freely and openly.

3.5 Interview

The interview was split up into two parts. Firstly, respondents were asked to answer questions and secondly to solve a test-case (see Appendix 1).

3.5.1 Questions

Part of the empirical data is based on interviews with 11 respondents, which lasted approximately for one hour. The respondents were notified solely that the interview would lie within the field of leadership since the respondents requested knowledge of a theme before the acceptance of participation. This in turn could have created a pre-understanding of what replies might be sought for, but to facilitate the interview this was a necessity. The description of within which field the questions would lie was deemed enough information to meet the requirements of the respondents as well as minimizing the effects of possible pre-rehearsed answers. This was done, in accordance with Alvesson (2003), to establish an understanding of the purpose of the interview and within which field it would lie, although the information was minimized in order to avoid pre-assumptions coloring the responses to a large extent.

All of the interviews with the respondents were carried out on the location of the studied company. The settings of the first two interviews varied from the last nine due to a complication with the booking and scheduling of a conference room where the interviews were meant to be held. Instead, they were carried out in the offices of the respective respondents, which both had enough space and furniture to accommodate the event. For the rest of the interviews, a conference room was assigned for the sole purpose of carrying out the study. The room was secluded from the rest of the corridor, with no possible insight through windows for bypassing workers.

In accordance with Eisenhardt’s (1989) example on how to form a strategy for interviewing in teams, the interviews were conducted in a manner where one researcher handled the questions while the other recorded notes and observations. This in turn was done in hopes of gathering information about both what was said, but also how what was said made the respondents
react. It should therefore be noted that the notes carried out were also of behavioral kind, only to further develop an understanding of what Alvesson (2003) means by describing an interview is a complex interaction, which could be inflicted by both feelings, emotions and the urge to minimize embarrassments. If, for example, one respondent seemed nervous before the initiation and well into the first part of the interview this was noted to reflexively evaluate the situation, as emphasized by Alvesson (2003).

The questions asked during the interview were of semi-structural and open kind, as described by Bryman and Bell (2013) to give the respondents room within which they could answer the questions without constraints of a single yes or no answer. What was sought was the elaborate answer to any one question, where the respondents were asked follow-up questions by the researchers if it was deemed necessary. The questions were asked in an iterative way with some order whilst a follow-up question could cause deviation from that very order. However, in enforcing the similarity between the interviews, all of the questions were finally asked. What Bryman and Bell (2013) tell us about this way of conducting an interview is that the emphasis must be on the respondent and how the perception of the questions is portrayed by this particular individual. Building on this argument, whenever the respondent seemed unable to give an elaborate answer, the researchers tried to fill in the necessary additional information to enable a better understanding of the question at hand. By explaining a question to a respondent the chances of getting answers within what Alvesson (2003) calls “Framing the Situation” (Alvesson, 2003, p.19) were meant to decrease. What the author tells us is that when an interview is carried out the respondents might have underlying assumptions about what is looked for in the reply. This of course was never the purpose of the interview, to get the perfect answer, but it was worth to consider that the assumptions made up by respondents may have been such.

3.5.1.1 Recording, transcribing and coding
The interviews were all recorded and after they were conducted, the data was transcribed and coded for the purpose of analysis. With the knowledge that a recording device might throw a respondent off, as described by Bryman and Bell (2013), it was still deemed a good way to properly reproduce what was said for an analysis. Although the transcription of interviews is time consuming, the ability to be able to repeatedly listen and read what was said during an interview leads to a more thorough analysis (Bryman and Bell, 2013). The respondents were all asked beforehand if they agreed with the recording or not.
The coding was conducted in such a way, as described by Bryman and Bell (2013) about grounded theory, that concepts shaped categories, which were constantly revised and changed to better fit comparison later on. These comparisons in turn lead to the conclusion of certain descriptive words indicative of certain events or perceptions, which were used in the analysis to provide evidence for the thesis.

3.5.2 Test case – example to be solved
At the end of each interview the respondents were encouraged to solve a case within which the researchers had selectively omitted certain data in hopes of receiving a more elaborate and creative solution. More specifically, it was created by the researchers and was used to gain insight into how the respondents, when put in a hypothetical environment, would solve this case of a leadership dilemma. This in turn could contribute to a deeper understanding on each of the respondents’ perspectives regarding leadership as a phenomenon. Bryman and Bell (2013) claim that through qualitative interviews one can, if the questions are not too structured, gain a better perspective and description of what the respondent’s view of a certain matter is. Thus, in accordance with Bryman and Bell (2013), this case was indeed loosely structured and no actual or obvious solution existed. Namely, it was supposed to let the respondents talk about how they perceived correct leadership and how such leadership should be carried out in a certain situation. The case was an attempt to get the respondents to try to hypothetically leave the constraints of the context within the organization and to apply their own values and beliefs on a leadership dilemma.

In cases where the respondents had trouble coming up with a hypothetical solution, the researchers presented further data to ease the process. Additionally, in an effort to make the replies more comparable, some structured questions could occur during the case. Even though Bryman and Bell (2013) strongly recommend not doing so, it was deemed necessary at times for a better, more thorough comparison of the replies.

3.5.3 Transcribed pages
The figure below shows how many transcribed pages each interview consisted of.
3.6 Observation

In addition to the interviews, empirical data was gathered through the participation in meetings with some of the respondents. The selection of which meetings the researchers could attend was based on the availability of the respondents and the willingness to be observed in action. During the meetings of which the researchers did attend, a behavioral type of observation with the intent of observing a group of individuals was conducted. This is, according to Bryman and Bell (2013), a good selection process to gain an oversight of different behavioral acts during different time periods. The behaviors were noted in a somewhat structured observational scheme, as it is defined by Bryman and Bell (2013), which in turn was supposed to lead to a more in-depth analysis of an event which ultimately could aid in the conclusion of this study’s thesis. The schematics were inspired by the article “Who will lead and who will follow?” written by DeRue and Ashford (2010) in search for, amongst other things, the relation between leaders and followers and the acts of claiming and granting the leadership.

The observations lasted for approximately two hours each, where the researchers passively recorded the social happening. This, according to Bryman and Bell (2013), is often a way in which structural observations are conducted. However, it should be noted that the emphasis of the observations was to, amongst others, better gain understanding of organizational and contextual phenomenon, which could create a sounder base of empirical data for the later analysis. The data collected could in turn correspond to what behavioral aspects had been described by the respondents during the interviews. This was supposed to give a more
elaborate, descriptive result of such an event, which could better aid in the conclusion of the thesis. The setting of the observations of leaders and followers was both group meetings and managerial team meetings. The group meetings were deemed less formal with no written agenda, whereas the managerial team meetings had a structural written agenda. When an agenda was present, it had been written by the leader earlier on. The agenda took into consideration both timing and which of the participants who was going to present the issue at hand. The meetings were held in rooms which were blocked from insight from the rest of the corridor and secluded from any disturbances which could occur. Such a setting acted in aid when observing behaviors, which were not affected by external influences from outside the room, such as bypassing co-workers etc. The observed participants were both subordinates to the observed leaders although some of them occupying a leader-position themselves, i.e. had subordinates of their own. The number of participants ranged from 7 to 11, including the leaders, and in one of the meetings an external stakeholder

3.7 Document collection
The partaking in certain documents of the studied company was of utter importance to in many different ways gain a better perspective on why respondents replied the way they did during, for example, the interviews. Building on Alvesson’s (2003) eight metaphors, with which a researcher can elude the possibility of taking for granted a rehearsed answer or something developed within a discourse, the data collected worked as an aid in this matter during interviews. The documents contained different points of which properties the company deemed a leader ought to have and practice. Thus, it was made clear that some answers during the interviews, or conducts present at the observations, could have been influenced by such a document in which the respondents felt comfort leaning on. In accordance with Bryman and Bell (2013), these documents were viewed upon as part of the identity work of the organization, which could influence the identity work of the respondents. The implications might be that the documents aid in revealing discursive leadership capabilities demanded by the company and thus aid in a deeper analysis of the ones mentioned in interviews.

3.8 The analysis
The three methods combined constitute what Bryman and Bell (2013) refer to as a thematic analysis, which includes finding patterns across data sets that are important to the thesis at hand. After finding the common patterns, the empirically gathered data was cross checked for common denominators and themes, which were used to further develop the analysis. The
cross checking included the comparison of codes amongst the empirical data gathered from interviews as well as observations. This in turn stood in reference to what was collected through the gathering of documents. Conclusively, this method was used to grasp a deeper meaning of the data, in accordance with Bryman and Bell (2013).

3.9 Methodological reflection

In this section the usage of methods to gain empirical data and the development of the theoretical framework are openly reflected upon. Implications of chosen methodology is discussed in both a critically assessing and supportive manner.

3.9.1 Theoretical framework

According to Western (2013), many academics critiquing critical theory often highlight the critical theorists’ urge to be focused only on flaws of any leadership theory. The author adds that to be critical of any theory, one has to take a reflective stance and not take mainstream, positivistic theories’ face value for granted. Arguably, the theoretical framework consist of researchers who was deemed fit the task of critical theory. Such tasks are described by Western (2013) to create an understanding of the world being socially constructed, to study power and knowledge relations as well as challenging dominating structures. As this study focuses on individuals in a context, research on what attributes an individual uses when constructing their respective social reality was focused upon. The selection of theories add insight to, amongst other things, attributes such as identity, the relationships between followers and leaders as well as how one projects certain aspects upon something. Since such attributes could be used to depict an individualistically created social reality, the theoretical framework could be argued to correspond with the aim of this thesis. One should however consider the critique towards critical theory, as described by Western (2013), when reading.

3.9.2 Drawbacks of a case study

Performing a case study may have its drawbacks, such as being limited in time, space and representativeness (Alvesson, 1996). However, with the description of a context, one could in general say more with the gathered empirical evidence, than otherwise (Ibid.). Keeping this in mind, an explanation of situational interviews, observations and even the organization itself was deemed necessary. Even though the underlying generalizability is not as present in a case study, Bryman and Bell (2013) emphasize that any researcher may have a special interest in the details of a certain case from which they ultimately can draw theoretical conclusions. Related to this thesis, the latter combined with Alvesson’s (1996) advice on contextual
descriptions sums up what may be a more appropriate way to describe the goal of said thesis. Instead of reaching a generalizability, this study was conducted in a way which can lead to further encouragement in building upon the discovered theoretical conclusions of this thesis. Thus, the selection of a case study can still be motivated to contribute to the general field of research if applied to, and used, in other studies within the same theoretical framework with an understanding of the original context of the organization.

3.9.3 Interview, the reflexive approach
With the application of critical theory comes the obligation of critically assessing the research methods used to gain empirical evidence, as much described by Alvesson (2003). The author implies that a certain naivety may be the results of a study built on shaky grounds and inferior understanding of the theories of research. Talk about how researchers should relate to different situations to ultimately reach a benign objectivity, such as described by Bryman and Bell (2013), Patel and Davidson (2011), Eisenhardt (1989) and others, is prominent in much of the written literature. However, according to Alvesson (2003), it is better to accept any situation and reflexively approach the data collected to better establish a fundamental view of what was underlying certain results. As an example, one could reflexively draw the conclusion that the leadership qualities presented by, and within, the company could result in the use of certain words to ascribe leadership during the interviews. With the knowledge of this being within what Alvesson (2003) might call “the play of the powers of discourse” (Alvesson, 2003, p.23), one could certainly try to understand the situation differently. As an example, during the interviews for this thesis, a respondent may have used the same terms as another to describe leadership. However, when asked to elaborate the meaning of those very terms, a subjective approach to the meaning of the words could be detected by the respondent using different sets of words. Moreover, one should bear in mind that a respondent might have felt obligated to respond to any question asked by the researchers to maintain a self-identity (Alvesson, 2003) as, for example, a smart, literate person. This could lead to the respondent using culturally established resources, such as the leadership qualities, to respond to questions, which could cohere with what Alvesson (2003) calls “Cultural scripts” (Alvesson, 2003, p.20). However, one could argue the fact that, if the respondent used words that differ from the cultural resources at hand, it would lead to a reply more “truthfully” put forward for this study’s thesis. This conclusion draws upon that the perception of a certain word ascribed to leadership would be described by the respondent, inevitably drawn from self-experiences.
Further mentioned by Alvesson (2003), when critically assessing research methods, is that an interview situation can be seen as a site for identity work. What the author means by this is that identities are situationally relational and should be subject to a reflexive approach when analyzed since the respondents’ and researchers’ self-images both could be seen as constructed during the interview. The conclusion one can draw from such a statement is that during the interviews, an identity might be constructed, rather than revealed, indicating that the described identity not necessarily holds true when it comes to the actual traits of the respondent. Instead, one might, for example, analyze the effects the researcher, or the situation, has upon the building of identities as well as the organization’s influence on the matter to better grasp the claimed identity.

The essence of critically assessing the research methods used is, in accordance with Alvesson (2003), rather a way of eluding naivety and gaining an appreciation of the richness of meaning in complex empirical material. Thus, this has been of importance to the researchers conducting this study.

**3.9.4 Observation**

Alvesson (1996) states that a lot of empirical work is somewhat remote from empirical phenomenon and therefore may tell little of what goes on in acts of leadership. Thus, to add the observations into the equation of finding enough empirical evidence for the thesis at hand, one could argue the point of a better understood empirical data. However, observations differ in many ways, as Bryman and Bell (2013) tell us, and is used to assess different settings or phenomenon over time. Further, there are some aspects to consider when using said method to gather the empirical data. For example Bryman and Bell (2013) state that some of the individuals being observed might act in such a way that is beneficial to them and thus be in conflict with the observer wanting to observe the most truthful behavior possible. To evade such a situation from happening, the observations took place where the observers posted less of a distraction during the observed meetings. It was argued, in accordance with Bryman and Bell (2013), that as the meetings went on, the matters discussed made the observed individuals pay less attention to the observers. It was deemed that the participants of the meetings were too engaged in discussions to be disturbed by the researchers observing. It should however be noted that since it was not part of their every-day activities, one could detect a slight discomfort of being observed amongst some.
Building on less truthful behavior, one could argue the fact that if any individual was acting in a self-beneficial way, such a reaction might be recorded by the observers. The hopes of co-workers reacting strangely to a less truthful behavior amongst their colleagues and thus creating an observable situation is what such an argument would build upon. Ultimately, observations serve in great aid when analyzing situational contexts affecting respondents (Alvesson, 1996), which is indeed beneficial for a more reflective approach to the empirically gathered data.

4. Empirical data

In this section the gathered empirical results will be presented, commencing with interviews and then following up with observations and document collection. In the interview section, quotations will be used when deemed elaborating a statement further. In the observation section the results will be presented as hypothetically named scenarios put together in a conclusive model depicting a relationship between claiming and granting identities. The presentation of document collection is depicted through a model, which is a re-creation of the original document, with the usage of the same words (See model 1 and appendix 3).

4.1 Interview

The chronological order of this section is portrayed in the same manner as the theoretical framework to first cover areas of subjectivity and then projection, identity and leader-follower relationship.

4.1.1 The incoherent view of leadership

When asked if she always wanted to be a leader from the very start Manager 5 states that she did, just to make sure people grew in their work role and that this was more easily done while occupying a managerial position. This is also emphasized by Co-worker 2 who implies that if she were to be a leader, she would have a relational point of view with much care for her employee’s issues. Contradictory, not everyone claims to be on-board with the people perspective tied to leader positions. Upon the question of what he’d bring to the table as a hypothetical leader, Co-worker 5 points out that the company would be run more efficiently, emphasizing a more simpler and cost-efficient everyday work day.

A majority of the respondents mention in some way how they relate to each other through positions and roles. Such roles may include, as explained by Manager 4, a set of defined goals, a mission and a relationship. The latter part, a relationship, is also mentioned by
Manager 3 who claims that it is built upon what you do rather than what you say. Upon the question of how she tries to mediate her leadership to her co-workers, she (Manager 3) emphasizes actions rather than words to create a credible relationship. This is also mentioned by Co-worker 3 who talks about roles in different settings. She states:

*I try to see the person in front of me, since many people play a different role when they are at work. You do this as an individual too, but deep inside I am a person, who of course needs to act differently when at work. One cannot act in any way you please here.*

When asked to describe the setup of meetings, many managers emphasize how the structure might be formal, yet the communication within each matter is informal. Manager 5, for example, claims that everyone is allowed to talk a lot and the managerial tasks thus involves a lot of listening. The formal structure is also backed by some of the co-workers who claim that to have a sit-down with the managers, one has to make an appointment. Co-worker 1 describes a hypothetical situation where he claims that there has to be a structure to how one goes about expressing concerns. For example, he states, that one cannot stumble into the manager’s office without an appointment and speak one’s mind.

4.1.2 A generalization of a value-based self-perception

When asked to describe previous leadership figures around them, almost all of the respondents referred to different bosses they had come across in the past, both positive and negative. Some also commented on people in their surroundings in everyday life, both current and previous, such as teachers, family, co-workers and leaders at different institutions such as church, the gym, the scouts and so forth. In a vast majority of the cases the previous leadership figures that where viewed upon positively had the same personal features as the respondent, which they had been asked to describe earlier. Such was the case with Co-worker 2, who describes herself as an individual in her work role who’s good at getting things done, is thorough and capable of making decisions. She gives off the general impression of liking to take things on and being involved on several corners. When asked about previous leadership figures, a positive figure brought up by her was described as having numerous features corresponding with the respondent, such as being an overachiever, taking on several different tasks at once and making things happen. A similar situation is to be found with Manager 5, who refer to herself as energetic, humoristic and open for including others in discussions and with a genuine belief in people. The predominant positive leadership figure she later
mentioned was then given very similar features like including, listening, a sense of humor and a compassionate person with a big heart.

4.1.2.1 The opposites of positive features

However, it was not just previous leadership figures that were given the positive features of the respondents. When asked to talk about good or bad leadership, all of the respondents expressed features identical or similar to their own self-perceived features as positive leadership. It was also noticeably expressed that negative leadership was mainly the opposite of the respondents’ positive features. To exemplify, Manager 3 describes some of her features to be being clear, available and making her co-workers feel safe. She then states good leadership to include the same features and continues on saying that negative leadership is making your co-workers feel unsafe, making information and feedback unavailable and being unclear. These sides of opposites are noised by some respondents and Manager 5 even says when requested to go from talking about positive to negative leaderships that, “Well, of course it will be opposites”. Personal features that could be perceived as negative were only commented on in a few of the interviews and for the managers generally only first when asked how they think their co-workers perceive them as leaders, not in the description of themselves as individuals or as leaders. Noticeable is that the predominance of emphasizing ones self-perceived features in a positive way regarding leadership is not restricted by position, while both co-workers and managers expressed this prominently. It should be stated though that the emphasis was stronger with the managers than with the co-workers.

4.1.2.2 Frequently mentioned features

When viewing the answers in total regarding features that was deemed to be positive and negative leadership, it was found that some features were more frequently mentioned than others, while the personal features where more varying. In this case there was also a slight difference between the features expressed as positive and negative between the manager and co-worker group.
4.1.2.3 Positive general leadership

Interestingly, it was observed in every interview conducted that whenever general leadership was discussed, whether explicitly asked about or just generally reasoned around, it was always positively featured in regard to the respondents own perceptions. Consistently, when the co-workers were asked to describe leadership in general, exclusively positive vocabulary was used. As Co-worker 2 puts it:

A leader is a person that gets people to do things without pointing with the whole hand. Instead simply makes them want to contribute and want to follow. [...] that you [the leader] create the preconditions, rather than telling someone that this is the way it’s done, be able to involve. To make people feel involved and that they want to go in the same direction.

Similarly, when managers where asked to talk about themselves as leaders and instead started talking about general leadership, the concept was described with significantly positive attributes. Manager 4 makes the following statement regarding general leadership, when asked about himself as a leader:

I think it’s about being genuine and honest and have a lot of values. [...] Base a lot on values. Being respectful. Treat everyone in a good, respectful way. To see the person and understand what needs they have.

4.1.2.4 The generalization of the individual opinion

A tendency amongst the respondents was to generalize their own opinion. Though some respondents were clear with expressing that this was their own understanding of the concept, a greater part often talked about their view on leadership as the commonly prevailing one. Also, the respondents that did say that the opinion was their own mostly did so on questions specifically asking for their view, but when the questions were more indirect, they too tended to generalize. Manager 2 talks about the weight of performance in leadership and states that even though it’s important to have fun at work, results are the ultimate factor and states this to be the general way of things:

We cannot just have fun, we must also deliver results. That’s the way it is, it doesn’t work otherwise.
When asked about good and bad leadership, Co-worker 1 starts talking about how leadership has developed over time and makes a similar generalization:

*The leader is supposed to be a leader, he is not supposed to know everything about everything that happens below. That’s the way it was before, but luckily it’s disappearing more and more. The leader is supposed to be able to lead his or her subordinates, that’s what’s important. You have to be able to do a good job.*

The perception of general consensus in regard to one’s own opinions was more indirect as well. When the managers talked about what influenced their leadership and where they found inspiration, previous bosses were the most frequently mentioned factor. Their features, which more than often were shared with the respondents, and general discussions about leadership were in many cases presented as the social consensus. As Manager 4 talks about previous leadership figures he makes some comments about leadership in general, stating that:

*You won’t get anywhere with fear of course. It’s a difference between respect and fear. You are supposed to have respect as a manager, but naturally they should not fear you.*

### 4.1.3 The past and present self and contextual influences

In every interview with the managers a clear image was given that the leadership they tried to portray and use was strongly influenced by their past and present. Influences to their self-perceived leadership were to be found in both their older and younger history, work and leisure experiences and professional and private relationships. Manager 3 refers to both school and previous employment when talking about why she wanted to become a manager:

[…] I think I have always been a driven person and I’m someone that always has expressed my mind and taken part in discussions and someone that has gotten people to join in on things, like in school. I got other people in the group with me. How should we do this, who should do what and how do we present it in a good way. So maybe I didn’t know what type of manager I would be or if I even would be a manager. But pretty early on in the [...] industry, when I realized that being a manager was a possibility for someone that performed, that became that my ambition.

Manager 4 draws on many parts of his personal life when talking about his leadership and refer to both experiences in dog ownership as well as in parenting, always emphasizing the
relational part of the interaction. In an attempt to strengthen his point he states with equal parts humor and sincerity that:

*It doesn’t matter if you are a [...] manager or a parent, it’s a lot the same things. It’s the same things you work with in creating motivation and joy.*

When asked about the identity’s part in leadership, Manager 2 gives the following answer, underlining the importance of the choices you make:

* [...] I think you have your identity and then your leadership becomes a result of it. You should try to be who you are and see how far that gets you. I don’t think you should try to play some role that doesn’t match with who you are, that will be difficult I think. Make sure to get as much as possible with you from your childhood and you make a lot of choices in life regarding friends, sports, interests and partner. Consider how you choose in life and take that with you. The puzzle pieces, you take them with you and they shape your identity, which eventually creates your leader style, most likely.*

Also the co-workers, although most not in a leader position, clearly indicated that both their view on leadership and in some cases their informal leadership and previously exercised leadership is strongly influenced by life in general and personal experiences. Some draw on family and leisure, but all on earlier work experiences and managers. Co-worker 5, who previously has had leader positions, talks about how identity controls the leadership a person portrays:

* [...] You are who you are and become the leader you become, based on personality, or identity, and you can evolve it and improve it, but it will still come from inside, your own personality and identity [...]*

### 4.1.3.1 Context

Throughout the interviews, a large part of the respondents, intentionally or unintentionally, had a hard time not allowing their answers to become influenced by the context. The company was often part of answers given on questions aimed at personal opinions and several of the respondents have been working multiple years in the company. For example, when asked to describe general leadership, Co-worker 1 asks if it’s a general leadership at this company and even though given the answer no on that question he still starts his answer with “*A general*
leader today within our company is [...]"). Mentioned only by him, Manager 1 explicitly expresses the influence the company has over the practiced leadership by saying that:

Everything is process-based, even what we call performance management, our leadership so to speak, our way of leading. [...] The company has decided how a leader should be. We have a number of leadership pillars [...].

As a further indication of the company’s influence, goals were given a pre-dominant role in many of the interviews. Goals were often allowed into personal answers regarding leadership and many respondents sought validation to their answers in referring to company goals. Co-worker 5 gives goals a large role when asked to talk about general leadership:

[General leadership is] if you can motivate. Maybe you can’t negotiate the goals because you have a passion, a goal you want to reach and that goal is a little bit more settled in a corporation, while it’s based on profits. [...] But you have to agree on the goals and you can discuss the goals, but once the goals are settled then that’s the way it is and there is not much room for changes. [...] Once you have the goals you have to motivate so that everyone wants to reach them. If everyone wants to reach the goals, then you have a good chance of achieving them.

4.1.3.2 Roles

In an attempt to clarify both answers and opinions, every respondent used the term roles at some point during the respective interviews. Some to a quite large extent, as a way to shed light on things that were given. Often, answers were validated by expressing that the role meant having responsibility or that it came with certain expectations. Co-worker 2 puts large emphasis on role expectations when addressing how she sees herself at the workplace:

[...] I also have quite high integrity, which is very important when you work at this level and that you understand that you can’t be friends with people, you have to remain within your role. [...] I take upon me tasks from my manager that isn’t amongst her strength and it’s my role to support her, in whatever it might be.

Manager 1 also acknowledges other peoples’ roles in a discussion regarding group interaction, but highlights that his role comes with the ultimate responsibility:

[...] We sit together and engage in problem solving, we sit in groups and negotiations, yeah we do a lot together and then of course we have different roles. But it is of course expected of me to make the final decision, to be accountable. That should all be to
some extent, but I’m the one responsible and the one that brings matters to higher instances. And if there are difficulties and needs for discussions, even heated ones, I’m the one that has to deal with it.

4.1.3.3 The depiction of general leadership

When asked what general leadership means to him, Co-worker 5 brings up a broad perspective on how it all comes down to making more money for the company. This view however, is quite underrepresented amongst the other coworkers who claim that leadership is about, amongst other things, relations, coaching, conflict managing etc. This view is endorsed by examples of reactions to good leadership such as described by Co-worker 3:

> When the leadership is good one wants to do an even better job and contribute to the positive leadership and also to the group that you’re part of.

Some however, believed leadership to be the sharing of work related tasks. During her interview, Co-worker 2 explains how she had explicitly told her manager that she now needed an assistant due to an overwhelming position for a single person to occupy. Others regarded leadership as something that comes with a lot of responsibility, such as exemplified by Co-worker 4 who describes that leaders must make difficult decisions, which he himself would not be able to.

From the managers point of view, some state that leadership meant to sometimes act out in their managerial role and make a decision if the group of co-workers is unable to come to an agreement. As an example, Manager 4 states that from early on in life he was the one who suggested places where he and his friends would eat, further explaining that this could be seen as an indirect way of leading people somewhere just by suggesting anything. The same manager also adds that when one occupies a leadership position it is up to him to lead the way. He explains:

> To be the first one into a storm and show to the rest that it isn’t dangerous, and that we can withstand together.

4.1.3.4 The motivation to lead

When asked about wanting to become a leader, both now and earlier in life, the predominant answer amongst the respondents was yes, although many expressed reservations towards certain aspects of being a leader, such as managerial administration and staff responsibility.
Co-worker 1 for example, expresses a large hesitation regarding becoming a manager within the organization when asked if he would like to become manager:

Yes, but I don’t know within what. [...] But I’m quite hesitant [to become a leader] within the company, I like the job I have today. It’s questionable if I would like that, because the leaders here are more strategists, more visionaries, and work with upcoming strategies, which I find a bit too intangible.

Another finding in regard to leader motivation was that many of the managers and some co-workers stated that they in general in life had gotten the acknowledgement as leaders based on their way of being. Both from early on in school as well as in leisure activities and professionally, many of the respondents expressed a drive to lead and recognition from others as a leader.

4.1.4 A situational social interaction

As briefly described in the previous section, the respondents identified themselves greatly with their roles within the company and the expectations that came with them. These roles were also allowed to become noticeable parts of the individuals work identities, which often had great similarities with their identity in general. Thereby, leader and follower identities were both claimed and granted and expressed to work in an interchangeable way. Manager 4 points this out and states that leadership is a relationship, based greatly on the co-workers will to be led by the manager:

I think it [leadership] builds a lot on creating a relationship with your co-worker. To think about why would they want to be led by me? Except because I’m their line manager. Because for some of them I’m not the line manager, but I still have to lead them in some sense. So why would they like to follow me? That’s a question I think you should ask yourself.

4.1.4.1 Social interaction

When asked about what’s important to her as she interacts with her manager, Co-worker 2 explains that she puts great value in establishing a partnership:

[...] For me it’s important that we have a partnership. That we are in this together. [...] [I just don’t want] to be a receiver of things, instead it’s important to me that we establish this, my framework, which means that I want a partnership where we work together in a relationship.
When asked how and where she interacts with her co-workers, Manager 5 explains that after delegating the responsibilities of attending certain meetings to her co-workers, a lot of the interaction occurs when she chooses to sit in on said meetings. She further explains that she does not always feel the need to attend every meeting and that she trusts the individual to act out her group responsibility. She states:

*It is not the individual who attends that meeting, but the group attending. The individual is just a representative of that group.*

When it comes to her co-workers, Manager 3 states that when a problem arises she is the one they go to for help, when in need of backing an argument or taking the matter to further instances within the organization. This view is emphasized by Co-worker 4 who states that he expects his manager to support him and not turn his or her back on him when he needs aid. He elaborates with an example:

*[…]* when you have a problem and she [the manager] turns her back on you and you have to go ask your co-workers instead because she [the manager] was unable to address the issue.

### 4.1.4.2 Relational views

During all of the interviews, the question of how the respondents view themselves in their work-role was asked. The majority of the replies consisted of a description of the self as part of a relationally endorsed view emphasized by co-workers, such as exemplified by Manager 6:

*[…] I don’t keep track of the details, I let other people [co-workers] do that. Instead, I use a lot of energy into bringing others with me to where we are going.*

Another example was depicted by Manager 3 who states:

*[…] I cannot expect others [co-workers] to deliver on time if I cannot do so myself.*

In addition, a majority of the respondents mention a survey, which rates the managers’ capabilities and their shortcomings on any certain criteria. This is exemplified by Manager 5 who states that she knows how her co-workers regard her since she just received feedback from the survey. She claims:

*Now we have just finished this survey, so now I know how I am being perceived by them [co-workers].*
Even the co-workers relate themselves to managers and other co-workers through relational views. As an example, Co-worker 5 states that he needs to engage in relations to be able to perform his job. He further explains that to act out in his role in the organization, he needs to build a relationship with co-workers to engage them in different matters. This makes him regard himself as more of a leader-character.

4.2 Observation

Briefly described will be examples of situations, which occurred during the observations. Each situation has been given a hypothetical name to be used later on in a model depicting the claiming and granting of leadership. The situations are divided up into two parts, the first being leadership claiming acts performed by the leader and the latter being the granting of leadership by followers.

4.2.1 Leadership direct verbal claiming acts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The situation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The pen</td>
<td>As one of the subordinates drops his pen during a conclusive decision, the leader turns to the individual (somewhat jokingly) and asks if he did not concur with the decision, meaning that the decision is final and has been made.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summer project (1)</td>
<td>As discussions about summer activities occur, the leader delegates the handling of the project to the subordinates, stating that they have to come up with people in charge of the project.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The decision-making</td>
<td>During one of the observations, the leader had the final call on many decisions. Quotations included for example: &quot;Then I'd like us to do this way...&quot;, &quot;We decide what to pass on to our subordinates...&quot; etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>It was stated by the leader that the subordinates had to come see her for a specific matter, and that she didn't have time to find them all, concluding it'd be easier if they found her. &quot;Leave whatever meetings you must!&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The situations were noted when leadership was deemed claimed by the observed leaders in front of the participants. During these happenings, the leaders were verbally confirming the leadership directly to the participants by words and actions combined.

4.2.2 Leadership direct non-verbal claiming acts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The situation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The slideshow</td>
<td>All of the leaders were responsible for the managing of any slideshows during the meeting, except for the stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The position</td>
<td>All of the leaders sat at the chair closest to the screen at which presentations were held, except for when the stakeholder was present at the meeting. The respective leader then first sat down at said chair and thereafter offered to move.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The guiding</td>
<td>At the meetings, it was the leader who was asked (either verbally or confirmed by eye-contact) whose turn to speak it was. Also, this was confirmed by nodding, pointing or point blank by being asked &quot;what do you think?&quot; by the leader.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The corridor</td>
<td>The metaphor &quot;the corridor&quot; was used to describe the relationship between people in the same organization but with different tasks. &quot;Corridor&quot; defined a place where certain work-related issues developed pointing out the fact that the same issues wouldn't develop on &quot;the floor&quot;.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The disconnection</td>
<td>When the leader instructs the subordinates to engage in conversation with each other for a brief moment over a case discussion, she disconnects her own computer from the main screen where everyone can see to where only she can see.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The standing</td>
<td>Of all the participants, excluding the stakeholder, the only one's standing up to talk were the leaders.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These situations were noted when the leadership was deemed claimed by the observed leaders through non-verbal direct acts. This meant affirming a leadership status without the verbal confirming of such a fact.

### 4.2.3 Leadership indirect verbal claiming acts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The talk of others</th>
<th>The leaders observed talking about people within the organization with which it seems as none of the subordinates have any conversational affiliation to. Quotations such as &quot;It's being discussed at a very high level in the organization...&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The boss</td>
<td>At one of the observations, the leader gives an example of the relationship between herself and her boss when it comes to delegating tasks. This was used as an example to encourage more delegating.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The idea</td>
<td>When an idea is presented, the leader states that &quot;that's a good idea, and is worth copying&quot; while looking to certain participants and using eye contact to confirm recognition of the idea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders</td>
<td>During the observation talk of an external stakeholder arose and the leader pointed out that she had been the one in contact with them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These situations were noted when the leadership was deemed claimed by the observed leaders through indirect verbal acts. This meant claiming a leadership status through verbal communication, never actually stating that one occupies a leadership position, although implied by the statement.

### 4.2.4 Leadership indirect non-verbal claiming acts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gestures (1)</th>
<th>The observed leaders confirmed good arguments non-verbally by pointing, nodding or in any other way recognizing the statement.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gestures (2)</td>
<td>Eye-contact was used by a leader rather intensely to confirm that an idea would be complied with.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These situations were noted when the leadership was deemed claimed by the observed leaders through indirect non-verbal acts. This meant claiming leadership through actions, which indirectly and subliminally supports the leadership.

### 4.2.5 Follower direct verbal granting acts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The stakeholder</th>
<th>&quot;As you mentioned, everyone here is allowed to speak up...&quot; is stated by the stakeholder to the leader while getting ready.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The confirmations</td>
<td>During all observations, repeatedly, it was confirmed that some decisions were the leader's call. Quotations such as &quot;What would you like us to do?&quot; and &quot;What do you mean by that?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The asking for permission</td>
<td>During all observations, the leader was asked by the participants if it was okay that they, for example, talked about a new subject, talked for five more minutes or asked for permission to speak at all.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summer project (2)</td>
<td>&quot;If anyone wants to sign up, they'll go to you...&quot; stated by a participant and subordinate to one of the leaders when talking about who would be in charge for the planning of a summer project.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These situations were noted when the leadership was deemed granted by the observed participants through direct verbal acts. This meant granting leadership through actions, which were confirmed and communicated verbally directly to the leader as it happened.

### 4.2.6 Follower direct non-verbal granting acts
These situations were noted when the leadership was deemed granted by the observed participants through direct non-verbal acts. This meant granting leadership through actions, which were never confirmed and communicated verbally directly to the leader as it happened.

**4.2.7 Follower indirect verbal granting acts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The representation</th>
<th>During one of the observations, a participant expresses the joy of representing the leader at her meetings for her.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contacts outside</td>
<td>During the observations, the participants asked the leaders about stakeholders outside the organization with which it seemed though as if the leaders were the only contact within the organization.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These situations were noted when the leadership was deemed granted by the observed participants through indirect verbal acts. This meant granting leadership through actions, which were confirmed and communicated verbally in indirect support of the leadership to the leader as it happened.

**4.2.8 Follower indirect non-verbal granting acts**

| The finished discussion | Whenever the leaders finished a discussion, generally, no one suggested anything afterwards and the subject changed. |

These situations were noted when the leadership was deemed granted by the observed participants through indirect non-verbal acts. This meant granting leadership through actions, which were confirmed but never communicated verbally in indirect support of the leadership to the leader as it happened.

**4.2.9 Summary of the claiming and granting of leadership**

Presented below is a model that aims to depict the hypothetically named situations and their relationship between the claiming acts of leadership acted out through the leader and the granting of the leadership acted out through the followers during the observations.
**4.3 Document collection**

The data collected consisted of documents defining different pillars, like categories, within which specific capabilities were defined and was meant to be applicable as guidelines to the leadership within the organization. With each capability comes a corresponding description defining a more specific characterization of each capability. For an overview, a model was created and is presented below (model 1). Presented is not the original document (See appendix 3 for the original), although all the words, except for the identity of the organization, are the same.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pillars</th>
<th>Leadership capabilities</th>
<th>Descriptors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perspective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Holistic thinking</td>
<td>Takes a broad stakeholder perspective, challenges what we are doing, value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>diversity, assesses risks and leverages successes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Makes the vision happen</td>
<td>Creates a vision, engages others to the vision, translates the organisation's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>vision into strategies and plans, fosters creativity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Customer and consumer driven</td>
<td>Walks in the shoes of the customer/consumer, has genuine business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>curiosity, understands business and how the whole value chain works, makes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sound business decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acts on opportunities and threats</td>
<td>Actively search opportunities based on customer needs, hungry to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>lead and change the game, creates an environment for innovation, shares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>best practices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Takes responsibility and is accountable</td>
<td>Has a sense of ownership of the company, gives people responsibility, holds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>people accountable, drives continuous improvements, has a sense of urgency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Drives performance</td>
<td>Sets ambitious objectives and seeds opportunities, turns strategy into</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>actions and delivers results, makes the best use of existing resources,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>gives and takes regular feedback.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People engagement</td>
<td>Empowers people</td>
<td>Has a genuine interest and understanding in people, recognizes individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>differences, empowers people to their ability, enables others to reach their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>full potential, provides opportunities to succeed and recognizes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Builds effective teams</td>
<td>Creates the team, sets the direction for the team, manages and develops the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>team, involve others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communicates effectively</td>
<td>Builds open environment, listens actively, conveys a message, inspires and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>motivates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal impact</td>
<td>Has passion</td>
<td>Is committed and engaged, has and gives energy, drives a winning attitude,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>is proud of the organization, the team and our products, acknowledges the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>need of fun at work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Has courage</td>
<td>Does the extraordinary, has a can do attitude, makes decisions, is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>determined, shows perseverance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leads by example</td>
<td>Is open and authentic, acts with integrity, builds trust, is loyal to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>decisions, acts as a team player.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model 1 Leadership qualities as defined by the organization. (Source, the researched company, 2016).

5. Analysis and discussion

In this section we draw upon the theoretical framework and combine it with the empirical data in an attempt to strengthen or disprove arguments put forth by researchers within the field. Ultimately, this is later used to draw the conclusions to this thesis.

5.1 Subjectivity

One can regard Manager 5’s statement about how making sure people grow in their work role is more easily done from a managerial position as an internalized picture of leadership, described by Kallifatides (2014). This would strengthen the view of what a manager employed at the organization is expected to do, referring to the “empowerment of people” capability as found in the collection of data (Model 1). Corresponding to the empowerment of people is a description, which states that a manager should “enable others to reach their full
potential” (Model 1). As an example, it could thus be argued that the possession of a managerial title holds a certain meaning as to what one can accomplish at work contradictory to if one didn’t hold the same title. At least such seem to be the belief, which might be confirming the theory put forth by Western (2013) that one projects aspects upon the phenomenon of leadership within the context of the organization in regard of titles with managerial content. However, in regard of leadership, the interviews showed the differences in what the respondents thought a leader was or should do. For example, Co-worker 5 emphasized a more efficient and cost-effective leadership, contradictory to the relational standpoint emphasized by Co-worker 2. These findings further strengthen the arguments put forth by Carter and Jackson (2002) as well as Smircich and Stubbart (1985) that every individual subjectively interprets his or her reality as well as how the emphasis should lie on the individual perceiving the environment through social interaction processes. One could then learn from the contextual habitat of where the social interactions take place to better grasp how each individual interprets the phenomenon of leadership.

Since no coherent description of leader or leadership was found amongst the interviews, one could suggest the description of leadership by Kallifatides (2014) to be true. The author believes that when asked what leadership is, it will be described in a manner that best justifies one’s own subjectively created idea of the phenomenon. This, along with the findings of non-coherent responses during the interviews, further emphasizes that leadership is subjectively created in a specific contextual habitat (Kallifatides, 2014) and is probably not regarded objectively equal in other contexts. Deduced from these findings one could argue that the concept of leadership is ascribed individually subjectively interpreted capabilities.

5.1.1 A subjective reality perceived as objective

As pointed out by a majority of the respondents, they relate to other individuals in the organization through roles and positions. These roles come with expectations of, as explained by Manager 4, defined goals, missions and relations. Such roles can be seen as a creation and preservation of a discourse (Knights & Morgan, 1991) based on that one’s superior secures the roles and relations between manager and subordinate, which later become a reality for both, not to be questioned. This subjectively created reality might then be interpreted as an objective one, even if socially defined (Berger & Luckman, 1966). Conclusively, the statement by Co-worker 3 shows how a subjective reality affects the behavioral actions when one is at work, quoting, “One cannot act in any way you please here” making it an objectively perceived reality.
Another perceived objective reality found in the respondents answers were the structure of meetings and the booking of sit-downs with managers. As described by Co-worker 1, one could not enter the manager’s office without an appointment to simply speak your mind about a matter of leadership. This could be regarded as a way of actively controlling a subjective reality and making everyone engaged in such a system perceive it as an objective one, as suggested by Berger and Luckman (1966). As a leader, it could thus be argued that the importance of seeing a contextual reality through the subjective eyes of the follower (Owusu-Bempah, Addison & Fairweather, 2011) matters when one’s leadership is to be defined in the same context as the followers’. If a better understanding of the perceived objective reality is acquired, then this might in turn lead to a better perceived leadership when rated amongst co-workers (Ibid.).

5.2 Projection

The empirical data showed how the respondents in the interviews granted previous good leadership figures and good leadership in general with their own self-perceived features, as stated by Manager 5. This could be found to cohere with Castelli et. al. (2009) research on projection of personal features onto political leaders. In the same selective manner the respondents granted previous leadership figures and good leadership with features they perceived themselves to have, as with Co-worker 2, and granted bad leadership figures and bad leadership in general with the opposites, as expressed by Manager 5. The process could also be seen to concur with what Castelli et, al. (2009) claim to be a wish for an increased perceived similarity between the individual projecting and the individual being projected upon. It could thus be argued that the respondents are projecting features onto previous leadership figures in order to increase the similarity with them, thereby increasing both one’s valuation of the self and the individual similar to the self. The same could be reasoned for the respondents’ projection of personal attributes onto good leadership. This was exemplified by Manager 3 who expressed firstly her own good features which later were found to be coherent with her view on good leadership. By doing so the respondents could be seen to increase their self-perceived correspondence with what a good leader should be, thus increasing their own self-valuation and belief in themselves as good leaders. Such action could make the respondents in a managerial position, as stated by Petriglieri and Stein (2012), more credible in their roles and thereby possibly be able to effect followers’ conviction of their qualities as leaders, which cohere with the discussion of Lipman-Blumen (2005).
5.2.1 Context shaping the self-perception
When observing both the consolidated individual features of good and bad leadership (Figure 1) presented in the interviews and the leadership pillars presented in the document collection (Model 1) there is an indication of overlapping features. This could be seen as an effect of contextual stimulus, much consistent with the organizational influence on personal identity discussed by Petriglieri and Stein (2012). The larger part of the leadership pillars (Model 1) are either exactly or similarly expressed as personal features the respondents claim to possess. It could thus be argued that there is potential for the context to greatly influence the individual’s self-identification, making the individuals personal and professional identities more alike. This further strengthens the argument of Petriglieri and Stein (2012) that the more the individual identifies with the organization the more the gap between the personal and organizational identity has the potential to be reduced. Much of the interview data showed how history, life, experiences and relationships, both from within and outside of work, shaped the respondents’ identities. One could thereby claim that the context in which the individual works influences his or her identity to the extent that it becomes a part of their self-concept, whether intentional or not. This can be connected to Westerns (2013) statement regarding representation within one’s profession, where the profession itself, if including leadership, is to be seen as a contextual projection process that occurs unconsciously. The correspondence between the, by the respondents mentioned, features (Figure 1) and the leadership pillars (Model 1) could thus furthermore be seen as influenced by what a profession represents within the company, thereby additionally strengthen the argument of contextual influence over leadership. This line of reasoning mentioned above can also be drawn to the discussion by Alvesson (2003), who talks about the influence of cultural scripts over respondents’ answers. The coherence between the leadership pillars (Model 1) and the stated leadership features (Figure 1) could thus be seen as a way for the respondents to give answers they find more literate, drawing on culturally available scripts, than the ones they are able to provide on their own. It might also be an unconscious act, created from contextual influence.
Nevertheless, one could draw the conclusion that the cultural context within which the individual work has a strong influence on how leadership is perceived and described.

5.2.2 The projection procedure strengthening the self-value
The conscious or unconscious unwillingness to share self-perceived negative features and instead only talk about previous bad bosses and opposites of good leadership could be seen to concur with Petriglieri and Steins’ (2012) argument on projections of unwanted aspects. Since
the individuals’ subjective view on good leaders and good leadership is argued above to cohere with the individual’s self-concept, this process could be seen as a way to marginalize undesirable personal features. A general consensus is that people all have features we like more or less. By applying less liked features onto disliked leaders and granting liked leaders the opposites, it will make it appear as if the liked leader does not possess these features, as argued by Petriglieri and Stein (2012), and thereby neither the respondent. The projection procedure could thus be argued to be a way to both strengthen ones self-value and process liked as well as disliked aspects of the self, thereby allowing leadership to become a projection of one’s value-based self, as discussed by Dunning and Hayes (1996).

5.2.3 The generalization of opinions
The respondents’ observable tendency to generalize personal opinions into social consensus in regard to leadership can be found to correspond well with Clement and Krugers (2000) argumentation on how individuals, as a result of projection, tend to expect their own opinion to be the generally prevailing one. Both managers, such as Manager 2 and Manager 4, and co-workers, such as Co-worker 1, were inclined to present certain statements as general truths, largely without further reflection on why that was the case. Furthermore, the previous discussed inclination by respondents to evaluate leadership based on self-perception in combination with their tendency to generalize personal opinions falls well in line with the statement of Dunning and Hayes (1996), where the self is used as a general frame for evaluating and judging others. The authors continue by deeming the process to be value-based since the individuals often highlight features and values they find themselves to have. This is confirmed by the respondents’ usage of personal features in regard to their perception of good, bad and general leadership. This could further be connected to the description of the concept of general leadership by the respondents being always described in positive terms, giving the impression that general leadership is always positive, as exemplified by Co-worker 2 and Manager 4. Again, this could be connected to the argument put forth by Dunning and Hayes (1996) where if the self is the foundation of leadership, general leadership thus becomes corresponding to one’s positive self-perception. However, there is a point in mentioning that certain opinions, also regarding leadership, can be perceived as the social consensus by large amounts of individuals in a certain context or culture. As an example Manager 2’s statement could be mentioned, that in the very end leadership is about delivering results, which could be stated to be the social consensus in large parts of the corporate world. This can then further be connected to Alvesson’s (2003) discussion regarding the discourse
power over both respondents’ answers, but also general consensus. With this in mind, there is reason to regard the usage of certain generalized opinions by the respondents as possibly influenced by discourse and regarded as given within the organizational context. Leadership may thereby be seen as more coherent within a given context, based on generalization drawn from discourse.

5.3 Identity
The respondents frequent mentioning of history, life and experiences (for example Manager 3 and Manager 4) in regard to their view on, and practicing of, leadership could be seen to have noticeable correlation with Petriglieri and Stein’s (2012) argumentation on the importance of personal experiences when creating legitimizing leadership identities. The usage of previous experiences by the respondents can thereby be part of building a leadership identity they can stand for and also be able to convince their co-workers of their leadership qualities. Some respondents, Manager 2 for example, even express explicitly the difficulty in trying to be a leader that does not cohere with who you are, which is further strengthened by the research of Shamir and Eilam (2005) on authentic leadership. In coherence with the authors’ research, the respondents (for example Manager 3) repeatedly drew on their identity, created from their life story, in order to explain their view on leadership. This could be regarded as an attempt to find meaning in their leadership, as also expressed by Shamir and Eilam (2005). When talking about how their experiences and histories have shaped their view on leadership to what it is today, the respondents implicitly implied that what leadership is to them is something that has changed over time. Co-worker 5 even expressed plainly that one’s leadership can be both improved and evolved, but is always a result of one’s identity. Such a statement could be found to suggest that as the identity develops over time, as result of life itself, so does one’s view on leadership. This falls well in line with the reasoning of Nyberg and Sveningsson (2014) that leadership, based on one’s identity, is something under constant change. Thus, leadership can be argued to never be a concept of consistent meaning and always in a state of flux as a result of a constantly developing self. There is a point in considering Alvesson’s (2003) discussion regarding interviews as identity work when analyzing the answer by the respondents regarding their identities. As the author points out, the interview could become a forum for identity construction for the respondent, meaning that the respondent depicts a desired identity rather than revealing the actual one. Hence, the usage of similar forms of answers, rather the explicit answers themselves, could be of value when conducting the
analysis. This while it could minimize the possible identity work by the respondent and still shed light on individual influences on the general concept of leadership.

5.3.1 Company influence over leadership
As a further sign of the company’s influence over the way leadership is perceived and enacted in this context, respondents continuously brought up guidelines and goals defined by the organization, as exemplified by Co-worker 5, to be of great importance. For instance, Manager 1 clearly stated that the company decides how a leader should act. However, the usage of the word “should” in this instance could indicate that there is some room for discrepancy between how the organization wants leadership to be perceived, and how it is actually perceived and acted out. The recognition of the organization’s view on leadership, by the respondents, could thereby be a way of seeking the contextual granting of one’s leadership identity, rather than it actually being what leadership is according to the individual. This can be connected to the research of DeRue and Ashford (2010), who claim that leader and follower identities are granted and claimed within organizational context through social interaction. In this case, one could argue that the organization is shaping the outer frame for this granting and claiming process by stating expectations on the leadership practiced within its context. Furthermore, this influences who will see the identities of leaders and followers and under which circumstances these identities are validated, which could be seen to correspond with the reasoning of DeRue and Ashford (2010).

5.3.2 The claiming and granting acts
In support of the arguments put forth by Petriglieri and Stein (2012) about claiming and granting identities, the data collected through observations portrays different situations where such activities takes place. For example, the non-verbal indirect claiming acts of leadership performed by observed leaders involved a lot of gestures (Gestures (1), Gestures (2)) instead of stating that one holds a leadership position. To grant a non-verbal indirect followership, it was found in the interview with Co-worker 5 that he emphasized a viewpoint in which leaders do what’s best for the company in monetary terms. What he states can be viewed as a granting (Petriglieri & Stein, 2012) of a followership, never actively taking the initiative to question leadership acts that lead to better results.

As with the other forms of claiming and granting acts of leadership, the most prominently observed was actions of direct verbal follower and leader situations. Such situations as “The pen”, “Summer project (1)” and “The decision-making” from the leadership claiming acts co-
existed with the follower’s granting acts, such as “The stakeholder”, “The confirmations” and “The asking for permission” (Model 2). The empirical data collected hence suggests Gecas’ (1986) theory to be true, that firstly, such role-taking and role-giving really does take place. Secondly, it also suggests that the granting and claiming of identities is an unavoidable result of social interaction within which Gecas (1986) suggests every participant become both the creator and the product of such interactions.

Apart from the observations, support of Petriglieri and Stein’s (2012) different variables of claiming and granting were found in interviews as well. From a follower’s perspective, an example of a non-verbal direct granting of leadership was how Co-worker 3 suggested that one wants to do an even better job when the leadership is good. Additionally, as an example of a non-verbal direct claiming act of leadership, Manager 4 claims that one has to be the one to show the way, “[…] the first one into a storm […]” as he puts it, where the rest will follow. Additional examples were found, only further emphasizing the theory put forth by Gecas (1986).

These findings and theories could be argued both show the presence and effects of various identity work, which, when categorized in the two dimensions put forth by Petriglieri and Stein (2012), manifests in different ways. It should be emphasized that for a leader, depending on situation and context, one should be aware of which claiming acts one performs. Additionally, the understanding of the followers’ role in the co-creation of the roles and identities one perceives oneself to have as a leader could be argued equally important for the understanding of the claimed leadership identity.

5.3.3 Identity as roles with expectations
The reference to roles in regard to identity and leadership throughout the majority of the interviews could be viewed to correspond with the argumentation of Stryker and Burke (2000) that identity is to be seen as a role, which in a certain network of relationships comes with a set of expectations. The way the respondents used roles to explain parts of leadership and identity that appeared to be somewhat given to them could be seen to agree with the authors claim of identities to be role expectations, internalized by the individual. As when Co-worker 2 states that how she acts is largely given by her role’s perceived expectations and limitations, such as not being too personal. Seeing how these roles the respondents claim to have, have effect on their self-perception in different situations and within the context, it could be argued that this strengthens the discussion on self-positioning by Ashford and Kreiner (1999).
likeness to what the authors claim, the respondents defined themselves partly with expectations within their role in the organization to clarify reasoning and behavior in regard to leadership. Manager 1 comments on this, while also including other individuals in the role expectation process, thus strengthening the relational network argument laid forth by Stryker and Burke (2000). One could thereby reason that the individual’s self-perceived identity becomes influenced by the expectations attached to his or her role within a given context, thus effecting the individual’s view on leadership.

5.3.4 Motivation as a factor
When managers were asked if they always wanted to become a leader, and co-workers were asked if they would like to become a leader, the answers were for the most part yes, although some clearer than others. This could be linked to Chan and Drasgow’s (2001) research on how motivation to lead in combination with your identity and the situation shapes your leadership. Co-worker 1 says for example that he would like to be a leader, but possibly not within the current organization. This could be seen to agree with what Chan and Drasgow (2001) claim about the situation being of importance when shaping one’s leadership and being motivated to lead. The authors also state that an individual’s motivation to lead together with his or her personality and beliefs results in certain experiences and actions, which eventually forms an individual’s self-perceived leadership. This can be argued to be supported by Manager 3’s statement, that maybe the will to lead was unconscious, but that she’s always possessed what one could define as leadership qualities, took leading actions and was given recognition as a leader. As a consequence of the above stated, an argument can be built that leadership is shaped and created by four aspects, being identity, motivation to lead, experiences and situation.

5.4 Leader-follower relationship
Building on self-awareness of one’s identity, one could argue that Manager 4’s statement of questioning the will amongst co-workers to be led by him is an act of better grasping the identities of the followers, as put forth by DeRue and Ashford (2010). The emphasis lies not with what “super power” one has as a leader, but what lies within the contextually, situationally dependent time frame one gets to act upon the roles as leader and follower. It could be argued that the “people engagement” as defined by the leadership pillars (Model 1) is a way of trying to engage, somewhat subliminally, co-workers and managers to co-create leadership through social interaction. To see to it, as a manager, that a co-worker reaches their
full potential, it might be valuable to provide the opportunity for the co-workers to co-create
the most appreciated leadership, as defined by the co-workers’ themselves. This would further
strengthen the arguments put forth by DeRue and Ashford (2010) about how followers give
relational recognition to the claimed identities of leaders. Such seems to be the case with Co-
worker 2 who emphasizes that the partnership she engages in with her manager is what kind
of leader and follower relationship that she looks for.

5.4.1 Situational roles with contextual relationships
The identities of followers were found to be in support of the argument by Sluss and Ashforth
(2007) who state that attached to identities are roles, which have intrapersonal relationships
within different contexts. As an example, it was found during the interviews that Manager 5
delegates to her co-workers different tasks such as to attend meetings in which they act as
representatives of a whole group, rather than individuals. In doing so, the relationships in the
contexts of meetings, where the individual represents the whole group, differs from when the
same individual needs to report what was said at the meeting. Such a situation could be a lot
like “the talk of others” (Model 2), where the leadership is, momentarily, held by the co-
worker presenting information, which the other group members did not take part of, since he
or she was exclusively attending the meeting. These claimed identities become dependent of
situation and in addition receive a recognition of the surrounding individuals, such as
portrayed by DeRue and Ashford (2010). In conclusion, one can also argue in support of the
theory on many identities as put forth by Stryker and Burke (2000) that the identities of the
individuals differ from situation to situation, making the identity work ever changing. Such an
argument would build upon that the identity would become dependent of networks and
relationships thus conclusively situational and contextual.

5.4.2 Collective identity
Furthermore, on a broader perspective, Brewer and Gardner (1996) debate how the collective
identity consist of one’s self-concept, which becomes seen in a bigger social context. This is
important in understanding how roles interplay with each other in groups where, for example,
Manager 3 is seen as the person to go to for help. When such roles are emphasized even by
coworkers (Co-worker 4, for example), one could argue that it collectively endorses the
leader’s self-concept into being a credible leader and acting on behalf of his or her co-workers
when in need of help. On the other hand, it could be argued that it is as much collective
endorsement of the follower and his or her identity, which actively authorizes the leader when
bringing matters of dilemma to the leader’s attention. The identities related to leaders and
followers thus become further established, as suggested by DeRue and Ashford (2010) and would not be the same, were it not for the endorsement of the leadership by followers.

Deduced from the empirical findings one can hold the statements put forth by Ashford and Kreiner (1999) to be true about how individuals become aware of how others view them when participating in social interaction. When asked to describe themselves, many managers endorsed a view of themselves emphasized by co-workers deduced from socially interacting with them. Further strengthening such an argument is the situation described by Manager 5 who claims to know how her co-workers view her through the survey mentioned in her reply. Collective values endorsed by such a survey can thus be in coherence with Ashford and Kreiner’s (1999) argument about how it becomes part of one’s perceived self-definition. This could be argued inflicts on how a leader can regard themselves as collectively authorized and credible in their leadership, while at the same time further strengthening the established identities. In part, this relates to the situation put forth by Lipman-Blumen (2005) where leaders could believe in their own omniscience affirmed by followers. In this situation the omniscience could however be limited to the willingness to, amongst managers, become better at one’s perceived-to-be better capabilities as seen in the surveys. In such a regard, the leadership identity might stagnate from evolving and be reaffirmed over and over again by followers in a contextual manner.

Even co-workers, such as Co-worker 5, implied that one leads through relationships and thus engages people in matters needed to address. With the observations of non-verbally direct granting acts such as “Raising a hand” and “Eye-contact” (Model 2) one has no problems understanding to which content a leader is confirmed of being a leader. This is however, for a leader, true only if the followers socially endorses his or her role ultimately leading to the construction and of the leader’s self, as partly discussed by Ashford and Kreiner (1999),
6. Conclusion

The findings reflect non-coherent responses regarding a perception of leadership, which suggests that leadership is subjectively, individually defined. Notably, the defining of one’s leadership within a context was found to require the insight of followers’ perception of leadership as well. This in turn leads to the belief that the general concept of leadership seems to be subjectively constructed within a specific context by both followers and leaders simultaneously.

Conclusion 1: Leadership could be seen as a subjectively constructed concept, co-created by every individual.

The empirical data showed how respondents project their own features onto “good” leadership, which increases the self-perceived resemblance between a good leader and oneself. This in turn was found to be a way for the respondents to strengthen one’s self-value and process traits of both positive and negative caliber. Another finding based on self-valuation is the generalization of personal opinions ascribed to leadership, which implies the self-perception to be the general frame for the construction of leadership. The context was found to influence the individual’s self-concept, intentionally or unintentionally, thus affecting what will be projected upon leadership.

Conclusion 2: Leadership could be seen as a projection of one’s self-perceived features, drawn from a value-based self and affected by contextual influence.

Respondents’ life stories and experiences were found to be a large part of building their identities, ultimately enabling them to explain and shape their view of leadership. The usage of past and present history as a way of expressing both identity and leadership insinuates that just like life stories, the concept of leadership is ever-changing. Additionally, the context provided a framework with which leadership expectations were defined. This led to the possible organizational influence and constraints over the leadership identities expressed by the respondents. As a further evidence of contextual influence, the self-perceived identities were affected by the expectations of roles, connected to the identities and internalized by the respondents. These roles were either claimed or granted within the given context by different acts of leadership. Furthermore, one’s identity together with a motivation to lead were found to result in different experiences and situations, which ultimately shaped the self-perceived leadership.
Conclusion 3: Leadership could be seen as based on one’s identity, which is built on life story, thus always changing, and internalized roles influenced by the context.

A recognition to co-create leadership through social interaction between co-workers and managers was found in the empirical data. Within the borders of said interaction, an emphasis was found on a relational aspect of leadership, defined by the interacting individuals. Furthermore, it was found that identities differ from situation to situation, depending on which relationships that take place within the situational context. Collective endorsement was also found to influence the described leader and follower identities, further establishing the self-constructed view of leadership.

Conclusion 4: Leadership could be seen as created through relational recognition and collective endorsement through social interaction between leaders and followers, thus additionally establishing the identities within the situational context.

6.1 Summary

Leadership could be seen as a subjective projection of one’s self-perceived identity, which is based on one’s self-concept and self-perception, built upon life story and situational role expectations, recognized and affirmed by others, in an interchangeably enacted social context, thus ever-changing.

Building on this thesis’ conclusion we developed a model in an attempt to depict the relationship between the aspects that act in the co-creation of the individual’s perception of the general concept of leadership. The blue part, and everything within, constitutes the individually constructed parts in the creation of the concept. Subjectivity acts as a framework, insinuating that nothing is objectively perceived, and affects the projection, identity and leader-follower relationship aspects. From outside, the context then influences the individual’s perception of the concept. Ultimately, the critical theory surrounding the model is of interest for a researcher since it is a lens that we argue should be applied when studying leadership from this alternative approach. It could also act as an aid in questioning mainstream reasoning regarding leadership theories.
6.2 Suggestions for further research

With the application of the case, which was built to somewhat leave the contextual constraints of the employee’s work related habitat, the contextual influence over the individual was emphasized. An intriguing research field would thus be to further establish contextual affection on the perception of leadership by conducting research on respondents within dual contexts. Such research might include contexts where the respondents’ spend a lot of time and interact with others such as at work, at home or at any socially enacted gathering place. By doing so, one could further strengthen the essence of critical theory, namely through affirming the contextual differences upon subjectively reproducing a description of leadership. Such an affirmation could shed more light over the emphasis of leadership research being in need of a new critical approach. Studying more than one context might also strengthen the generalizability of the found results.
7. References

7.1 Books and articles


### 7.2 Electronic resources

Industry Leaders (2012), *The impact of a good leader and a good leadership in society.*
Appendix 1 – Interview questions

Ledare

1. Beskriv dig som individ i din arbetsroll.
3. Varför ville du bli ledare (från början)?
4. Hur förmedlar du din bild av ditt ledarskap till dina medarbetare?
5. Fanns det några tidigare ledarskapsgestalter? Vilka, beskriv gärna hur de var!
6. Hur skulle du beskriva bra eller mindre bra ledarskap?
7. Hur tror du att dina medarbetare uppfattar dig som ledare?
8. Var hämtar du inspiration till ditt ledarskap ifrån? (Om inte medarbetare nämns, notera detta).
9. Var och hur interagerar du med dina anställda? I vilka sammanhang möter du dem?

Medarbetare

1. Beskriv dig som individ i din arbetsroll.
2. Utefter dina egna erfarenheter, generalisera ledarskap. Vad är den generelle ledaren för dig?
3. Hur skulle du beskriva bra eller mindre bra ledarskap?
4. Finns det några tidigare tydliga ledarskapsgestalter i ditt liv? Vilka, beskriv gärna hur de var!
5. Hur skulle du reagera om en ledare hade de egenskaperna som dina tidigare ledarskapsgestalter hade?
6. Bedömer du dina nuvarande ledare utefter tidigare erfarenheter av ledarskap?
8. Vill du bli ledare? Vad skulle du tillföra?

Case:

## Appendix 2 – Observation schematics

### Observationsschema

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Datum:</th>
<th>Antal deltagande:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tid bokat:</td>
<td>Ledare:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenario:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| Leader (Direct/Verbal) claiming leadership: | |
| Leader (Direct/Non verbal) claiming act: | |
| Leader (Indirect/Verbal) claiming act: | |
| Leader (Indirect/Non verbal) claiming act: | |
| Followers (Direct/Verbal) granting: | |</p>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Followers (Direct/Non verbal) granting:</th>
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<td>Övrigt:</td>
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</table>
### Leadership Capabilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEADERSHIP CAPABILITIES</th>
<th>DESCRIPTORS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holistic thinking</td>
<td>- Takes a broad stakeholder perspective. Challenging what we are doing. Values diversity. Assesses ideas and leverages success.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes the vision happen</td>
<td>- Creates a vision. Engages others to the vision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer and Consumer driven</td>
<td>- Works in the shoes of the Customer/Consumer, then genuine business can flow. Understands business and the whole value chain works. Makes sound business decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acts on opportunities and threats</td>
<td>- Actively searches for opportunities based on customer needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Takes responsibility and is accountable</td>
<td>- Hungry to lead and change the game. Creates an environment for innovation. Shares best practices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowers people</td>
<td>- Sets ambitious objectives and seeks opportunities. Turns obstacles into actions and delivers results. Makes the best use of existing resources. Drives and drives regular feedback.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Builds effective teams</td>
<td>- Empowers people. Recognises individual differences. Empowers people to their ability. Enables others to reach their full potential.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicates effectively</td>
<td>- Provides opportunities to succeed and recognises.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has passion</td>
<td>- Creates the team. Sets the direction for the team. Manages and develops the team, drives others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has courage</td>
<td>- Builds an environment. Listens actively. Conveys a message. Inspires and motivates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leads by example</td>
<td>- Is committed and engaged. Has and owns energy. Drives a winning attitude, is proud and passionate about our products. Acknowledges the work we do and fun at work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Does the extraordinary. Has a can do attitude. Makes decisions, is durable. Shows perseverance.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>