

**SOCIAL WORK LEADERSHIP NARRATIVES IN  
FINLAND: PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP AND  
MANAGEMENT AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIAL  
WORK EDUCATION**

**by**

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## ABSTRACT

This thesis is about the experience of social work management and leadership in Finland, and the implications for pedagogy. Leadership and management in Social Work has been researched over the years, yet unanimous understanding of appropriate social work leadership and management has not been accomplished.

This research provides new perspectives into social work leadership by presenting the views of Finnish social work leaders and social work field employees as narratives on social work leadership and management. These narratives provide insight into experiences of good social work leadership practices and help reveal the phenomenon of leadership and management in a holistic light from the grassroots of everyday life in the social work profession. These narratives were revealed through interviews and a grounded theory research process and reviewed in the light of theoretical knowledge constructed through a literature review.

The theoretical findings generated through the literature review describe styles and approaches of leadership, both from the tradition of business management and social work. In addition, social work as a context, particularly in Finland, is discussed, as are themes of professional values and interdisciplinary work.

Empirical data for this research was collected through interviews with social work leaders and workers in the social care field. The findings reveal the relevance of much of the pre-existing research (Lawler & Bilson, 2010; Juuti, 2013; Pekkarinen, 2010; Peters, 2018), particularly the importance of values. In addition, three clear narratives generated the three roles of “caregiver”, “understander” and “designer”, which all contribute to well-functioning leadership and management in an organisation through different strengths. These empirical findings present “relational understandings” as capacities that are important for a leader to reflect to increase their self-awareness as a leader. These involve considering relationship to power; abilities to understand trust as a dynamic phenomenon influencing the atmosphere in a work setting; and dialogue as a tool to affect the stage of trust.

Knowledge from both empirical interview data and theoretical sources were combined and provide an example of how a social work management and leadership curriculum might be developed. The intended learning outcomes describe the recommended objectives for social work leadership and management training. Example narratives provide examples of experiences, which connect to the themes regarded as essential in social work leadership and management.

This research contributes to the professional body of knowledge by confirming the usability of the transformational, compassionate, servant and distributed leadership approaches alongside highlighting the importance of strategic objectives and evidence-based practice. For the already existing approaches,

this research presents original initiatives for the further development of these approaches through connecting them to business management originated tools, such as lean management and multiple criteria decision making. This integration should be made through social work ethics and social work professional values. A step forward is made in highlighting that psychodynamic leadership should be better acknowledged, particularly through its relevance to understanding emotions regarding interaction in the community and connected to trust.

This research recognized four tensions which were later in the process combined into three tensions. All these deserve further attention in research. Tensions between social work ethical values and business management rooted financial tools, between individualism and distributed leadership, and between trust and mistrust in the community should be individually examined further.

Key Words: Social work, Management, Leadership, Pedagogy, Curriculum

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## Abbreviations

CLS	Critical Leadership Studies
ESW	European Social Work
GT	Grounded Theory
HR	Human Resources
ILO	Intended Learning Outcomes
IFSW	International Federation of Social Work
NPM	New Public Management
STS	Secondary Traumatic Stress



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## Chapter 1 – Introduction

This thesis is about the experience of social work management and leadership, and its implications for social work pedagogy in Finland. I aim to clarify what is known about effective social work leadership and management, to explore how further research can deepen understanding of how it is experienced in Finland, and to develop insights into how the essential core of social work management and leadership could best be delivered as training. I see leadership and management as processes and examine these through a grounded theory approach (Birks & Mills, 2023; Straus & Corbin, 1990) with an intention to construct a theory of social work leadership, which is grounded in the experiences of interviewed leaders/managers and employees.

In this introductory chapter, I first summarise my starting points for this research in terms of literature and a reflexive account of my connection to this study. I provide definitions of the fundamental concepts of social work and leadership. I introduce social work leadership and the social work context. I then outline my research questions and the structure of this thesis.

## 1.1 Starting Points

Questions of effective leadership have raised curiosity in people for a long time, and my own understanding of leadership has been sparked by the Finnish leadership researcher Pauli Juuti (2013). He describes how management research has been based on science for the last hundred years. There are numerous paradigms in science, which, like ways of thinking, sometimes illuminate the matter under consideration and sometimes cast their shadow over it. The idea of knowledge, fundamental to reason, has manifested itself in leadership and management research as positivism, using methods based on natural science. Based on a natural science survey, observation and interview studies, theories related to leadership and management have been created in management research. The difficulty with these theories has been that they operate on a fairly general level.

Juuti (2013) continues, leaning on his experience as researcher, that none of these general leadership theories has been proven true; some adopted theories have been proven wrong later. New theories then emerged in their place, which have also been shown to be inadequate over time. Adopting the ideals of antiquity as the ideal of science brought with it the ancient society's way of structuring the world. In ancient Greece, free people thought and talked while enslaved people did all the work. Thus, a sharp distinction was made between knowing and doing. This difference has been reflected in dominant management views, so that theory has been considered more important than practical activity. Theories have become to be seen as absolute values in which the purest form of thinking is realised. (Juuti, 2013). Other researchers, such as Lawler & Bilson (2010), share this view and see that there is no one right way or golden key for better management.

In the 19th century, positivism took leadership and management research into narrow and mechanistic theories and models. These have had little to do with what people do in working life and, consequently, have also been unable to help people's activities and have yet to produce the added value that Comte's positivism sought (Juuti, 2013).

What is missing are grounded perspectives that do not aim to build certain generalisable truths about leadership and management. In this approach, leadership and management perspectives are understood as social constructions built by people and that specific ways of speaking, or discourses, are created from them, which, like other products, compete to become the most valued by employees of organisations in Finland. Consumers of these kinds of "leadership speeches" are organisations, management and supervisors, management developers, researchers and trainers (Juuti, 2013, p.26).

If the narrative offered by a particular leadership perspective helps people move forward with the problems they face in their work, the leadership perspective has value. However, the value of the leadership perspective ceases when people become permanently attached to it. In this case, using that point of view becomes a ritual-like activity in which people no longer think about the starting points, questions or puzzles they initially started using a particular leadership speech to solve (Juuti, 2013).

Juuti's (2013, p.26) idea of "leadership speeches" not only impressed me but helped me let go of the puzzle of finding the truth or even the best solution. Anyone's conception of leadership and management is a personal mindset consisting of theory and experience. The idea of speeches comes close to narratives, which is the term I use throughout this thesis. Narrative pedagogy is an approach to teaching in which educators and students work

together. The aim is to challenge assumptions of learning and utilise shared experiences (Ironsides, 2015). Narrative pedagogy assumes that humans make sense of the world through narratives (Nehls, 1995). In this pedagogy, students and teachers form learning partnerships in which narratives are shared and co-interpreted to meet the needs of their community (Ironsides, 2006; Nehls, 1995). Narrative pedagogy is not an exclusive approach to learning but works well when integrated into other approaches to pedagogy (Diekelmann, 2001). Narratives have been used, for example, in teaching nursing students (Brady et al., 2016).

We all hold different perspectives concerning good leadership and management, which we might manifest as speeches or narratives. If you would now go to Hyde Park speakers corner in London, where anybody can give a public speech, and were tasked with giving a speech on effective leadership and management, what kind of things would you say? What would you highlight? I would argue that, if my thesis – the review of theoretical data on the subject of management and leadership, empirical data from eight professional stories together with my conclusions regarding these – changes your narrative or brings anything new to it, my work has succeeded.

This thesis has a strong professional connection to working life. I have professionally grown in a university of applied sciences first as a student and now as a teacher for ten years. The connotation to working life in my professional context is strong, and we do a lot of practical co-operation with real working life organisations. My aim is to create a curriculum which provides new elements to be used in management and leadership training. A lot of this thesis consists of careful examination of social work leadership both in theoretical and empirical contexts. The curriculum, where a synthesis of these is presented, builds a bridge to students' know-how and onwards from there gradually to working life practices.

## 1.2 Reflexivity

Before summarising the critical terms in this chapter, I will explain my story concerning this research in a commitment to reflexivity. Reflexivity means that the researcher must be aware of their starting points as a researcher. They must estimate how they affect their data and process and describe this starting point in the research report (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004).

Reflexivity involves critical reflection on how the researcher constructs knowledge from the research process—what factors influence the researcher’s construction of knowledge and how these influences are revealed in the research’s planning, conduct, and writing up. A reflexive researcher is aware of all these potential influences and can step back and take a critical look at their role in the research process. The goal of being reflexive in this sense involves improving the quality and validity of the research and recognising the limitations of the knowledge produced, thus leading to more rigorous research. It does not have an overtly ethical purpose or underpinning (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004).

I will first write about my history and the context of my interest in leadership and management to provide an overview of my experiences. By doing so, I aim to tell what is significant in my story as a researcher of leadership and management, as my experience inevitably affects how I have analysed the question. Data analysis has to be as objective as possible and represent the informant’s voice. I have handled the challenges concerning bias with the help of the hermeneutical circle, which I will further explain in the methodology chapter. As one of my interviewees in this research stated: “Be interested in particular of [sic] the voices you do not want to hear”.

I am a social sciences lecturer at a university of applied sciences in Finland. Before entering academia, I worked as a social worker in a psychiatric hospital and, before that, in counselling work in assisted housing for mentally challenged clients. During my childhood and youth, I have been intensively involved in the construction business, where my family runs a business. For two years, I worked in both fields simultaneously since my father stepped away, and my involvement as a partial owner became more relevant. Shifting the work environment back and forth between such diverse work cultures was a valuable experience. My curiosity towards these experiences planted the seed to research the question of good leadership (and management). Unsurprisingly, the easy assumption is that the construction business is the expert in management and the social field in leadership, specifically in encountering people. This is too black and white, though this is the big picture in my experience. There is excellent leadership in construction, and there is excellent management in social work. Having seen many construction managers over the years, I first became curious about what features they have in common, particularly those considered effective. Based on my observations and informal discussions, they were fair and respected people. Sometimes, they could be even too straightforward in their interaction, but their fairness was trusted. They knew the technical side of the work, and if they still needed to, they sought for consultation.

Reflecting my personal journey, and my understanding of the importance of multiagency working in social work, this study therefore initially included an interdisciplinary aim, and I conducted interviews both from the social work and construction industries. The intention was to compare leadership in these two fields. Many elements in the journey of writing this thesis led to the construction field being left out of the findings and analysis presented here,

because the data from the social work field was already so rich. However, this background helps readers estimate how my experiences affect me as a researcher. Although data concerning management and leadership in the construction field was eventually left out of this thesis, it contributed to related research studies “Rakas raskas raksa” and Erasmus+ project “Wood in Circle”. At the end of this thesis, I will reflect on how the findings from my thesis could also be utilised alongside the findings from that study to further the development of management and leadership education in an interdisciplinary context.

Although a comparison between these two different fields was eventually left out of this thesis, this professional loop is, however, worth telling since my history affects the way I see the phenomena of leadership and management. It has been a privilege to observe this field from the inside through the construction business and later in professional projects in the university world. Although I could have chosen construction as a profession, my destiny was sealed when I was seven. I often travelled with my father to construction sites. My father sometimes gave me simple tasks to work with, which I rarely finished and found too complicated and alien. Instead, I wrote “construction poetry” in the construction shed. Nevertheless, I learned a lot; I wrote my father a bill for the poems. No self-respecting poet should work for free.

Social work has been a natural choice as a career for me and is my home, and this thesis concerns leadership and management in social work. My interdisciplinary background may help me develop a different analytical mind than I would have from a different professional background. My ambition is to help develop social work from the context of leadership since it is the most effective way to help vulnerable clients in need by effectively organising and leading the helping system. In my opinion, there is “social work” within construction industry, it is just not called social work. It can be seen in human behaviour concerning taking care of problems people encounter and also structurally as defending the rights of migrant workers.

In addition to experience from social work, as a teacher I have extensive experience of education. Therefore it is natural for me to look at the question of leadership and management from the viewpoint of learning, and explore how leadership management should be taught in addition to curiosity towards what good leadership and management are. I also believe that rooting leadership more strongly in the basic education of social work builds a sustainable bridge to working life practice.

### 1.3 Definitions

Management and leadership happen in a context. In this thesis, the context is social work as a profession. The International Federation of Social Work provides a synthesized summary of the social work profession as follows:

*“Social work is a practice-based profession and an academic discipline that promotes social change and development, social cohesion, and the empowerment and liberation of people. Principles of social justice, human rights, collective responsibility, and respect for diversities are central to social work. Underpinned by theories of social work, social sciences, humanities and indigenous knowledge, social work engages people and structures to address life challenges and enhance well-being. The above definition may be amplified at national or regional levels.” (IFSW, 2014).*

The contested difference between management and leadership continues as a theme throughout this thesis. As explained later in the literature review, these concepts are distinguished in some contexts but not others. In management and leadership literature, the difference between these two is clear. However, there is no clear distinction between these two in the literature on social work and in the interviews. The Finnish language adds a further challenge when interpreting some Finnish texts and interviews, as both concepts are often referred to using the same word, “johtaminen”. Management sometimes translates as “asiajohtaminen”, where “asia” means “thing”, and “johtaminen” means “leadership”.

For leadership and management, brief working definitions can be put in place to provide insight into the concepts. According to Northouse (2016, p.6), “leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal”. The definition of leadership as a process means that it is not a character trait inherent to an individual but rather a transactional event that occurs between leaders and followers. The leader affects and is affected by the followers. From this point of view, leadership becomes open to a wide range of people. The element of influence is pivotal. Without influence, leadership does not exist. Influence is directed towards individuals and groups of individuals with a common purpose. Leaders do not only lead individuals, as the staff they lead are usually part of different work groups and teams. Therefore, influence on a group level is pivotal in successful leadership (Northouse, 2016).

Although the themes discussed in this thesis mainly concern leadership, a definition of management is also needed. In search of such a definition, I have used an approach similar to leadership and examined the definitions of management used in social work. One such work is Mullins & Christy (2016). Mullins & Christy (2016) adopt Fayol’s much-quoted definition, which I will use as an anchor when reflecting on different management dimensions. Fayol defined management as “to forecast and plan, to organise, to command, to co-ordinate and to control” (Fayol cited in Mullins & Christy, 2016, p. 354).

In this thesis, I therefore see management and leadership as two functions and processes different people can promote, whether managers or leaders. In flat organisations, they can also be workers who are assigned to an interim leadership or management position in a project. In this thesis, grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006) as an applied method has helped me organise leadership and management as a process.

## 1.4. Social work leadership

In this section I will summarise what was found essential according to social work management and leadership in particular and why it is important to further study this phenomenon. Both these themes I will explain in more detail in the literature review chapter.

The need to develop and redefine social work leadership practices is confirmed in many earlier studies. Field & Brown (2020) discuss these needs in their social work leadership studies textbook. They see that the public sector – and social and health care sector in particular – are facing the most challenging time in their history. Difficult decisions must be made to avoid the problematic collapse of the health and social care system as we now know it. They see that challenging long-held assumptions, traditions, and practices provides opportunities to avoid this collapse. This means the old broken paradigm should be abandoned, and a new, better paradigm should emerge.

The predicted change in practice means that many significant changes need to happen. There should be a different deal between the state, individuals and communities, greater community and self-help, more equal relationships between practitioners, service users and patients, and a reduced and different role for the state and for those working in and alongside helping professions (Field & Brown, 2020).

One of the main reasons for re-thinking services is the increasing elderly population. In 2017, 18.2 per cent of the UK population was over 65. The percentage is expected to rise to 20.7 by 2027. (Field & Brown, 2020). In Finland, the development follows the same pathways. While in 2000, there were 777,200 people over 65 living in Finland, in 2030, their number will already rise to 1,389,100, which is 611,900 more people over the age of 65. When we look at the percentage increase in the number of people aged 65, we talk about ageing. From 2000 to 2030, the number of people over 65 will increase by 78.7 per cent. (Tilastokeskus, 2021).

Many similar changes affect future social policy in Finland as well. According to the future overview of the Finnish Ministry of Social Affairs and Health (2018), social and health policy is mainly affected by the changing population structure, as mentioned—phenomena such as globalisation, changes in work life and technological development also have an effect. Good management of development at its best contributes to the stability of society, sustainable growth and the narrowing of inequality. In addition to the ageing of the population, the birth rate is decreasing, and migration is increasing. Purposeful actions are needed to prevent inequality between socio-economic groups, geographical areas and genders. Climate change, cross-border health threats such as Covid-19, extreme weather phenomena and the resulting natural disasters increase social uncertainty, and the phenomena treat different people differently. The population's well-being must be affected by maintaining and supporting the functioning and work ability of the elderly, the health and work ability of working-age people, and taking care of the well-being of children and young people (Finnish Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2018).

All these anticipated changes related to government, increased self-help and equal relationships between practitioners and service users in social policy place pressure on social work leadership and management. This period is potentially tricky for those leading social work because of the uncertainty and turbulence Field & Brown (2020) described.



The changes described above need to happen in organisations. Organisational viability depends in part on effective leadership. Influential leaders engage in both professional leadership behaviours (e.g. setting a mission, creating a process for achieving goals, aligning processes and procedures) and personal leadership behaviours (e.g. building trust, caring for people, acting morally) (Mastrangelo et al., 2004). Altogether, there is a recognised need for development in leadership practices within social care organisations (Niiranen, 2004; Peters, 2018; Pekkarinen, 2010; Holosko, 2009; Iachini, 2015).

As I see it, there are macro-level political reasons behind the need to strengthen social work leadership. As leadership and management happen in organisations, this grass root level is the focus of my work. Many of the leadership development and training needs are related to the leaders' ability to look forward and anticipate changes. According to Niiranen (2004), new social problems occur constantly, and new know-how is needed to address these. Alajoutsijärvi (2015) sees the need for strategic thinking as a crucial social care leadership skill. Alajoutsijärvi (2015) further states that managerial skills such as marketing and understanding finance mechanisms cannot be overlooked. Pekkarinen (2010) adds new public management, and Niiranen (2004) discusses the importance of understanding the problematic tension between municipalities and government. Accuracy in the content of the managerial themes is essential.

One aim of this research is therefore to discover expectations and tensions, building on established themes in current literature. A central theme that persists in the contemporary challenging contexts of social work are business management-rooted management procedures that include ethical tensions (e.g. Lawler & Bilson, 2010; Lawler, 2016; Peters, 2018). These are discussed throughout this thesis. Of the many leadership approaches, understanding change and transformational management is also important (Pekkarinen, 2010). Many themes describe the dynamic movement of change; leaders should encourage others to make changes and create cultural shifts to increase autonomy and collaborative working styles (Peters, 2018; McCray & Palmer, 2014).

Communication and collaboration were mentioned often in the social work leadership context. These are seen as necessary at the work community level as supporting relationships between people (Antonacopoulou & Bento, 2004 in Niiranen, 2004) and building networks between companies and NGOs. Increasing internationality (Niiranen, 2004) creates new possibilities and challenges. Alajoutsijärvi (2015) and Peters (2018) write that cooperation should also provide more opportunities to learn from the experiences of other workers.

Emotion and its significance in leadership are therefore one of the golden threads throughout this thesis. Peters (2018) has found in her literature review that emotions should be better addressed in leadership training. Specifically, not responding to recognised fear and anger leads to adverse outcomes. Emotion has the potential to drive much of a person's behaviour, and ignoring emotion, especially anger and fear, can have adverse effects on worker well-being and organisational climate and possibly on client well-being. Instead of being disregarded, emotion could be used to identify issues in practice, which could then be addressed logically and rationally.

## 1.5 Aim, objectives and research question

The aim of this research is to:

Create an understanding of social work leadership in Finland and consequent needs for leadership education, adding new dimensions to the body of professional knowledge in this field.

The objectives are to:

- 1) Gather theoretical and empirical data on social work leadership within the contemporary context in Europe through a literature review.
- 2) Collect interview data on experienced challenges concerning leadership & management and strategies used to overcome these challenges in social work in Finland.
- 3) Develop elements of an outline curriculum for social work leadership in Finland that may have broader relevance in other European contexts.

There are three research questions as follows:

1. What leadership styles and approaches are valued by social work managers/leaders and social workers in leadership and management processes in Finland?
2. What do these leadership styles and approaches valued by social work managers/leaders and social workers, and related leadership narratives, deliver for colleagues and clients in Finland?
3. How might these styles and narratives valued by social work managers/leaders and social workers be integrated into the essential elements of a social work leadership curriculum in Finland?

### *Structure of the thesis*

These questions are explored through the following six chapters. This introduction is followed by a literature review chapter, which provides an overview of current research on social work leadership, organized around key concepts. The review reveals aspects of social care leadership that still need to be known. The geographical focus of this study is Finland. So, the Finnish social work context is presented to see the similarities and differences compared to the European context.

Next, in the methodology chapter, I explain how I have utilised the principles of qualitative research and grounded theory as a methodological frame to examine the interview data provided by social work leaders and employees in the social work field. The methodology

chapter includes a schematic overview of the findings to illustrate the whole research cycle for the reader.

The findings chapter follows, where I explain in more detail how the interviewees experienced effective social work leadership and how their perspectives resonate with the literature review. Here findings are explained as relational understandings, which relate to a leader's or manager's self-awareness particularly in relation to power, trust and interaction. The findings also present three leadership roles of "caregiver", "understander" and "designer" which all have their strengths and contributions to leadership as a wider organisational phenomenon.

In the discussion chapter, I further reflect on these findings, what was learned in the literature review, and new insights into how social work management and leadership might be understood with reference to other theories concerning psychodynamic understanding in the context of leadership and concepts such as lean management and multiple criteria decision making "borrowed" from other disciplines, such as business management.

After the discussion, I move on to the implications chapter where I discuss the significance of this work, now and in the future, for social work leadership education.

This thesis concludes with a recommendation for a social work leadership curriculum and recommendations for further research. Here further developmental needs are seen through three tensions concerning social work ethics and business management rooted management/leadership, participation and individualism, and trust vs. mistrust in a work organisation.

## Chapter 2 - The literature review

The task of reviewing this literature was challenging but provided many avenues of fruitful inquiry. The first challenge is the vastness of both social work core tasks and leadership literature. Secondly, there is no well-established link between traditional business management and social work leadership literature. However, in some parts, social work leadership does connect to the traditional business management leadership concepts. As I will demonstrate later, many themes and voices have emerged in social work leadership literature, particularly concerning social work values. In the deeper understanding of professional values lies a chance and a clear need (Lawler & Bilson, 2010; Niiranen, 2004; Peters, 2018; Pekkarinen, 2010; Holosko, 2009; Iachini, 2015) to better develop leadership theories to suit social work. There is an opportunity to deepen the social work-specific understanding of leadership but also a risk that the core task of social work dominates too much and that social work leadership discussions veer too far away from the leadership issue.

The relevance of a Finnish language saying is striking: “menee puurot ja vellit sekaisin”, which can be translated as “You need to know the difference between porridge and gruel”. That is, it is essential not to be distracted by how things resemble one another but to understand how they differ. Applying this distinction in practice, it is possible to see how the core task of social work and social work leadership resemble each other, as they refer to similar themes, yet they differ significantly in context and content. This also metaphorically describes well the distinction between leadership and management. Some policies are clearly either or, and there is a grey area between these which includes both. Work with social work clients is pursued with ethics in mind, involves responding effectively to multiple risks, and can express a follower–leader relationship. However, although ethics, managing multiple risks and leader-follower relationships are all evident in the literature on social work leadership, there is also a broader focus on the leadership of social work teams and within social work institutional environments. Also, to recall another potential area of confusion, the concepts of management and leadership may be seen to resemble each other, and as already mentioned in the introduction, in many social work articles on this subject, the boundaries are not made clear. I will highlight those differences and resemblances throughout this chapter and other parts of this thesis.

Further, towards the end of this review, I analyse the connections between these concepts and demonstrate the foundation for the chosen research questions: What should be further examined in light of what we already know?

The chapter starts with a description of the literature collection process and then moves on to a discussion of social work. First, I explore the social work core task, because to understand what kind of leadership is required or how it should be developed, social workers in leadership positions need to know the essence of their work. Work is done in an organisation. An organisation can be seen as a system that has been given a task.

The core task is a widely used concept in the literature. I have adopted Koski’s (2012) description of the core task. In the organisation, different employees form communities, each of which is assigned its task from the organisation’s perspective. The task of each work group is related to the primary task of the entire organisation. The core task concerns an outspoken, written and published mission that defines why the organisation exists, why it is

valued by social work managers/leaders and social workers, and what distinguishes it from other actors.

On the other hand, the work community's activities are structured by the task, which is connected to the organisation and, more broadly, to society as a whole. The recorded objective of the work community should express why the work community or, more broadly, the entire organisation exists. It is about mission and values. In the development processes of organisations and work communities, management studies, consulting, and work supervision activities, the primary task concept is generally used, although not unambiguously (Koski, 2012).

First, I discuss social work through its objectives and practice theories, which provide examples of how the objectives are met. In pursuing these objectives, social work operates in a heavily regulated societal environment where legislation plays a crucial role. Knowledge of what an organisation is trying to achieve, the theories and methods used to achieve this, and the operating environment provide vital context for understanding what kind of leadership may be required.

The second section of this review presents critical concepts connected to social work leadership and management. These include the differences between management and leadership, the history of leadership, approaches to understanding leadership, leadership styles, cultural and cross-cultural aspects, diversity and gender, different levels of leadership, critical views of leadership, psychodynamics, concepts of trust and dialogue, and developing leadership in a pedagogical context.

The third main section of this chapter then moves on to an overview of standard approaches to leadership. By this, I aim to outline how leadership is conventionally described in the literature and some insights into more critical perspectives. Leadership approaches are presented as concrete descriptions of how leadership can be done. This then turned into an examination of what is known about social care leadership. I present the literature review results using four dimensions: values, business context, interdisciplinary working context, and leadership styles and approaches. Values, business context and interdisciplinary work are not leadership theories nor approaches in the traditional sense. They are contexts that repeatedly occur in social work leadership literature. Therefore it seems self-evident that they play a role and should be returned to when the findings are discussed and measured through their significance.

The final section of this chapter reflects on the findings from previous chapters to clarify the challenges in contemporary writing about social work leadership. This discussion sums up the challenges I identified in the development of social work leadership practices and reveals the gaps in the understanding that I have identified as a result of this literature review. In chapters 3, 4 and 5, this thesis then draws on a synthesis of the findings from this review to interrogate the interview data and then develop a suggestion for a social care leadership curriculum. As one of the main aims of this thesis is to develop social work leadership education, this section of the literature review discusses pedagogical approaches currently available and the need for developing them.

## 2.1 The process of theoretical data collection

In this section I explain how I have selected the literature presented in the literature review and what kind of phases were included in the process.

### 2.1.1 The role of literature review in Grounded Theory research

The nature of an appropriate literature review is a much debated issue in the grounded theory (GT) tradition (Dunne, 2010). Turner and Astin (2021) explain the differences between Glaserian GT and Straussian GT. Glaserian GT researchers classically recommend that the published literature should not be reviewed until data collection, analysis, and theory development have been completed. The rationale for the delay of the literature review is to enable the researcher to remain 'open' to discover theories emerging from data and free from contamination by avoiding forcing data into pre-conceived concepts derived from other studies (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). A more pragmatic approach to the literature view is adopted in Straussian GT. Strauss and Corbin (1990) recognised that the researcher has prior knowledge, including that of the literature, before starting their research. They did not recommend dissociation from the literature but rather that the literature be used across the various stages of the research. The most recent step in the evolution of GT is the move towards a constructivist epistemological stance advocated by Charmaz (2006). In simple terms, the underlying approach reflects the belief that theories cannot be discovered but are constructed by the researcher and their interactions with the participants and data. As the researcher plays a central role in the construction of the GT, their background, personal views, culture and knowledge of the literature will influence this process and the way data are analysed. For this reason, it is essential to be explicit about these preconceptions and aim to maintain an open mind through reflexivity.

### 2.1.2 The process of integrative literature review

I chose an integrative review approach to finding relevant elements of a conceptual framework using Turner & Astin's (2021) approach which draws on the work of Charmaz (2006) and Strauss & Corbin (1990). In this model, interview data should be examined with an understanding of the basic concepts of the phenomenon investigated, here leadership and management. So, in this study I have moved between literature searches and analysis iteratively to develop an understanding of social work management and leadership in a manner that stays true to the grounded theory analysis protocol. By this, I mean that my theoretical understanding related to social work management and leadership has grown gradually in the process and moved on from literature work to work with the data, back to literature on a deeper level, and so on.

I applied Oermann & Knaf's (2021) five stages of an integrative literature review to build a structure and body for this literature process. Their process consists of the phases of 1) problem identification, 2) literature research, 3) literature data evaluation, 4) literature data analysis, and 5) presentation of findings about the reviewed literature. The borderlines of these phases are not rigid and clear. Thematization moves on, however, across the phases, using the same emerging structural logic.

In this thesis, the first stage, problem identification, is represented in sections 2.2.1.–2.3.11. Initially, general concepts connected to leadership and management were reviewed. These

consist of sections 2.2.1.–2.3.4, regarding social work as a profession, difference between management and leadership, history of leadership, approaches to understanding leadership, and leadership styles. This focus aimed to outline the generic concepts on leadership and management in leadership education used in universities of applied sciences in Finland and to explore how they are rooted in business management thinking. The hope was that this could enable critical reflection on a larger base of leadership thinking in social work and that this might reveal concepts that would be echoed in the data and could reveal aspects that are also appreciated in the social work context. Later, sections 2.3.5.–2.3.11 were added. These consist of generic themes (cultural and cross-cultural aspects, diversity and gender, different levels of leadership, critical views, trust & dialogue, and leadership development) which deepen the understanding of the issues that were emerging from the data analysis and the discussion on the findings and the wider context of social work leadership literature to which this thesis seeks to contribute.

The more structured phases of literature research (data evaluation and data analysis, phases two, three and four in Oermann and Knafli's (2021) approach) were conducted after the analysis of interview data. These are explained in section 2.4. The focus here was to identify key themes in current literature concerning social work and management and leadership. The process and results of this literature research are explained in detail in the next section 2.1.3.

Partially, phase four (analysis of literature data) continues in section 2.5 of this chapter. Here pedagogical insights, Finnish contexts and connections to broader leadership literature are discussed and reflected upon. This reasoning process makes it possible to present knowledge gaps. The review chapter ends in conclusion in section 2.6. In the thematization of Oermann and Knafli's (2021) phases, this section corresponds to their model phase 5) presentation of findings about the reviewed literature.

### 2.1.3 The criteria for literature

The vastness of the subject became evident in literature searches. When I planned the literature review, I tested the searches which included the search words “leadership”, “leader” OR “management” AND “social work” OR “social worker”. To provide an example of the scope when using this criteria, searches in Laurea Finna returned 16,739 results and the Scopus database (accessed via UCLan) returned 240,010 results.

I followed recommendations adopted from the guidelines of the University of Jyväskylä (2024) regarding the selection of resources. These recommendations advice to use scientific databases and limit the articles to scientific articles. When considering, whether the article is scientific, it is worthwhile to check whether the articles are peer reviewed and limit the article selection to peer reviewed articles. Secondly, it is beneficial if the article is published in a scientific journal.

In addition to these recommendations, I decided to apply the CASP tool (Long, French and Brooks, 2020) criteria (please see table 1), publication year, status of peer reviews, and geographical location in Europe (in UCLan researches where this option was available) as the inclusion criteria, and the same criteria reversed as the exclusion criteria. These are presented in the table below.

Table 1: Criteria for literature selection

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Title, keywords or abstract included words: Leadership OR Leader OR management AND social work OR social worker	Title, keywords or abstract did not include words: leadership OR Leader OR management AND social work OR social worker
Article is published 2012 or later	Article was published before 2012
Article is peer reviewed	Article was not peer reviewed
The content is in Europe	The content is outside of Europe
There was a clear statement of the aims of the research (CASP criteria)	There was no clear statement of the aims of the research (CASP criteria)
There was an appropriate qualitative methodology (CASP criteria)	There was no appropriate qualitative methodology (CASP criteria)
There was an appropriate research design to address the aims of the research (CASP criteria)	There was no appropriate research design to address the aims of the research (CASP criteria)
There was an appropriate recruitment strategy to the aims of the research (CASP Criteria)	There was no appropriate recruitment strategy to the aims of the research (CASP criteria)
The data was collected in a way that addressed the research issue (CASP criteria)	The data was not collected in a way that addressed the research issue (CASP Criteria)
The relationship between researcher and participants was adequately considered (CASP criteria)	The relationship between researcher and participants was not adequately considered (CASP Criteria)
Ethical issues were taken into consideration (CASP Criteria)	Ethical issues were not taken into consideration (CASP criteria)
The data analysis was sufficiently rigorous (CASP Criteria)	The data analysis was not sufficiently rigorous (CASP Criteria)
There was a clear statement of findings (CASP criteria)	There was no clear statement of findings (CASP Criteria)
The research can be considered valuable (CASP Criteria)	The research can not be considered valuable (CASP Criteria)

The searched databases Laurea Finna utilises were ProQuest Central, Web of Science, Business Source Elite, Sage Journals Premier, Ebook Central Perpetual and Dda, PressReader, Pubmed Central Ebook Central, Cinalh, Taylor & Francis Ebooks, Repec, and Taylor & Francis Open Access. From UCLan databases, I utilised Scopus, Social Policy and Practice, Social Science Database, and Social Work Abstracts Plus. In addition, separate searches with similar search words were conducted via Google Scholar.

To provide an example of the scale of the results, UCLan Scopus with these criteria returned 4,358 results. I started to read abstracts of the articles and reviewed these against the CASP criteria.

Once I had evaluated an article abstract using the inclusion and exclusion criteria, I checked the context of the article more carefully. At this stage I was able to exclude articles which were not about organisational management, but rather case management in social work. So, I started to assess the literature to find articles where the key focus was service or team management or leadership as a way of applying the CASP criteria. Application of this relevance assessment reduced the volume of abstracts to a more manageable size.



I read abstracts and summaries of articles with principles of content analysis in mind. By this I mean that if “social work leadership” and “social work management” would be main categories, they have subcategories under them as other concepts and different contexts that appear in the article with the concepts of “social work leadership” and “social work management”. These concepts I here refer to as subcategories; they put leadership in its context. I printed sets of articles that passed the inclusion criteria based on the abstract and possibly summary and read these. I wrote these subcategories on Post-it notes and organised read articles according to their subcategories in piles. I coded the critical content of each article on paper as themes or keywords, which describe, on a headline level, the critical content of a specific article. I categorised these themes into subcategories looking for similarities and connections between themes. For example, themes such as “teamwork” and “dialogue” I have placed under the subcategory of “collaboration”. Through thematic analysis of the literature, I formed categories following the principles of qualitative analysis (Hirsjärvi et al., 2009). I weighed reliability (Kylmä & Juvakka, 2006) against the possibilities to select which articles to read and select. The choice to use a content analysis type of approach in selecting literature is due to the demand of assuring reliability.

When I had read and themed 25 articles (Table 2), the articles following these did not produce new subcategories. I read about 10 abstracts from each database search to ensure that the saturation point regarding subthemes on leadership and management was reached. The articles I read in the order of appearance in the databases. In Google Scholar, I also utilised the number of previous citations, since it is available there for the reader.

The descriptions of these categories in section 2.4. consist of many other articles in addition to the original 25 articles, which formed the foundation of categorisation. Some of the articles (e.g. Peters, 2018 & Smith, 2018) were literature reviews, which consisted of a rich selection of themes and other studies I was able to read and utilise when establishing the theoretical framework. Suitable articles passing the CASP criteria to an adequate level were added to these themes later. These emerged from different contexts, and if they were reliable, they were used.

These first 25 articles forming the categorisation are presented in Table 2 on the next page.

Table 2. Articles as result of the data search forming the categorisation

Authors and year	Name of the publication	Publisher
Bishop, L., Coombs, A., Domaguin, D., Hernandez, N., Higgs, E., McGhee, T., & West-Cahill, A. (2018)	Developing policy and management leaders: eight social work policy fellows share their experiences, case studies, and recommendations for leadership development.	Human Service Organizations: Management, Leadership & Governance, 42(3), 245–250.
Bliss, D. L., Pecukonis, E., & Snyder-Vogel, M. (2014)	Principled leadership development model for aspiring social work managers and administrators: Development and application.	Human Service Organizations Management, Leadership & Governance, 38(1), 5–15.
Bromark, K., Spånberger Weitz, Y., Erlandsson, S., & Schön, U. K. (2022)	Practitioners exploring intertwined challenges and possible solutions for user participation in social services.	Nordic Social Work Research, 14(2), 283–295.
Choy-Brown, M., Stanhope, V., Wackstein, N., & Delany Cole, H. (2020)	Do Social Workers Lead Differently? Examining Associations with Leadership Style and Organizational Factors.	Human Service Organizations: Management, Leadership & Governance, 1–11.
Colnar, S., & Dimovski, V. (2020)	Knowledge management in social work: management support, incentives, knowledge implementation, and employee empowerment.	Economic and Business Review, 22(3), 4.
Colnar, S., Dimovski, V., & Bogataj, D. (2019)	Knowledge management and the sustainable development of social work.	Sustainability, 11(22), 6374.
Connolly, M., & Jones, N. (2003)	Constructing management practice in the new public management: The case of mental health managers.	Health Services Management Research, 16(3), 203–210.
Djourova, N. P., Rodríguez Molina, I., Tordera Santamatilde, N., & Abate, G. (2020)	Self-efficacy and resilience: Mediating mechanisms in the relationship between the transformational leadership dimensions and well-being.	Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 27(3), 256–270.
Djupvik, A. R., Pithouse, A., Myklebust, V., Rees, A., Ekeland, T. J., & Brookfield, C. (2021)	New public management and practitioner autonomy in children's services in Norway and Wales: Views from the frontline.	European Journal of Social Work, 24(3), 405–417.
Edmonstone, J. D. (2020)	Beyond healthcare leadership? The imperative for health and social care systems.	Leadership in Health Services. Vol. 33 No. 4, pp. 351-363.
Hasenfeld, Y., & Garrow, E. (2012)	Nonprofit Human-service organizations, social rights, and advocacy in a neoliberal welfare state.	Social Service Review, 86(2), 295–322.
King Keenan, E., Sandoval, S., & Limone, C. (2018)	Realizing the potential for leadership in social work.	Journal of Social Work, 19(4), 485–503.
Lombardero Posada, X.M., Aguiar Fernández, F.X., Álvarez, E.M., Méndez Fernández, A.B. & González Fernández, A. (2022)	Effects of crises and neoliberalism on Spanish social workers: coping with meaningfulness, dissatisfaction, and withdrawal,	European Journal of Social Work, 25:5, 894–908.
Marmo, S., & Berkman, C. (2018)	Social workers' perceptions of job satisfaction, interdisciplinary collaboration, and organizational leadership.	Journal of Social Work in End-of-Life & Palliative Care, 14(1), 8–27.
McCray, J., & Palmer, A. (2014)	Commissioning personalised care in the English adult social care sector: an action research model to support leadership development.	Social Care and Neurodisability, 5(1), 3-15.
Park, T., & Pierce, B. (2020)	Impacts of transformational leadership on turnover intention of child welfare workers.	Children and Youth Services Review, 108, 104624.
Peters, S. C. (2018)	Defining social work leadership: A theoretical and conceptual review and analysis.	Journal of Social Work Practice, 32(1), 31–44.
Ruch, G. (2012) Where have all the feelings gone?	Developing reflective and relationship-based management in child-care social work.	British Journal of Social Work, 42, 1315–1332
Schaub, J., Hewison, A., Haworth, S., & Miller, R. (2022)	A leadership model for social work: Drawing on health care to inform social work leadership.	The British Journal of Social Work, 52(5), 2911–2930.
Scourfield, P. (2020)	Too many cooks or cannot follow the recipe? A critical consideration of conceptualizing the professional leadership of social work in England as a collective endeavour.	Critical and Radical Social Work, vol 8, no 1, 41–57.
Smith, T., Fowler-Davis, S., Nancarrow, S., Ariss, S. M. B., & Enderby, P. (2018)	Leadership in interprofessional health and social care teams: a literature review.	Leadership in health services, 31(4), 452–467.
Sullivan, W. P. (2016)	Leadership in social work: Where are we?	Journal of Social Work Education, 52(sup1), S51–S61.
Tafvelin, S., Hyvönen, U., & Westerberg, K. (2014)	Transformational leadership in the social work context: The importance of leader continuity and co-worker support.	British Journal of Social Work, 44(4), 886–904.
Tham, P., & Strömberg, A. (2020)	The Iron Cage of Leadership—the Role of First-Line Managers in Child Welfare.	The British Journal of Social Work, 50(2), 369–388.
Vito, R. (2020)	Social work leadership revisited: Participatory versus directive approaches during service system transformation.	Journal of Social Work Practice, 34(1), 7–21.

Later in the analysis process I sought further articles to complement the content of social work leadership in section 2.3 and to help establish the originality of my work. They were included if they were considered as reliable scientific sources mirrored against the including and excluding criteria and they provided insights to the concepts that were emerging from my data.. Examples of articles accepted to these categories later are such as Vito (2020) and Pekkarinen (2010). These articles added later may be for example published before 2012, be located in different geographical contexts or provide descriptions of approaches on a general level from other fields than social work.

According to reliability, finding a selection method which assures that all relevant contexts are covered is a difficult task, and different collection criteria may well lead to different selections of categories. If all the subcontexts mentioned, for example, in the above mentioned literature reviews were selected, the selection of contexts would have grown extensive and caused a danger of losing the main ideas and direction to too many mixed concepts. For this reason, themes and concepts that were less often mentioned in the literature review, but were verified as important concepts based on the empirical findings through interview data analysis once it progressed in the research process, were added to the report in 2.3.5–2.3.11 to complement the practices of context of this study. In the same manner, when seeking the saturation point in qualitative content analysis, I searched for articles regarding these contexts of cultural and cross-cultural aspects, diversity and gender, critical voices to traditional leadership thinking, psychodynamic views, trust and dialogue, and developing leadership. In a manner similar to the first literature search, I searched for more theoretical knowledge from the databases, encouraged by these empirical findings. I reached the point where no new article on the subject created the need for establishing a new category, and all content found could be inserted into existing ones with no significant contradiction.

The first round of data base research created five categories, which are referred to in sections 2.4.1–2.4.6.

The five overarching categories became from this round: Values, Context: Business orientated discussion in social work leadership, Context: Interdisciplinary working, Leadership approaches, Management approaches.

In addition to these, epistemological and ontological divisions in leadership are kept here as the sixth category in this context. The reason for this is that, during the process, keeping these at the centre of attention consistently carries this division with me throughout the study. These root to different applications as referred to here according to Tienari & Meriläinen (2012) and Lawler & Bilson (2010). Though it is stated throughout the study that no profound difference between leadership and management can be found, the difference in their essence stays with me when repeated here.

Resources in 2.5.2. “Social work leadership: the particular context in Finland” and 2.5.3. “Learning about social work leadership in Finland” were found using a similar logic. In 2.5.2., the researched databases were the same with the same search terms but in Finnish: “sosiaalityö\*” OR “sosiaaliala\*” AND “johtaminen” OR “johtajuus”. In the Finnish searches, the publication year was lowered to 2000, as there were less studies available. In 2.5.3., the criteria was the same as in Table 2, but the terms “pedagogy” OR “pedagogical” OR “learning” OR “training” OR “teaching” were added as search terms. These resources appear in the chapters referred to in this chapter.

Grey literature has been defined as documents produced by governments, academic institutions, businesses, and industries protected by intellectual property rights or sufficient quality to be preserved by library holdings or institutional repositories but not controlled by commercial publishers. (Schöpfel, 2010; Kiteley & Stogdon, 2014).

I have not utilised the so-called grey literature (Kiteley & Stogdon, 2014) in the theoretical description of social work leadership in section 2.3. I have aimed to secure all sources that pass the CASP criteria by doing so. Grey literature, such as governmental reports, may have been used in other places in this research, as in for example 1.4. to present statistics.

## **2.2 Social work objectives and practices in context**

In this section, I outline the context of social work in Europe, how it is defined, the specific context in Finland, and the implications for how it is practiced.

### **2.2.1 Social work in Europe**

Social work's core task is organisation specific. An overview of the process can be described, but the content and needs for leadership vary significantly from one organisation to another, especially within social work. Legislation is the most robust guideline in defining the core task in the municipal social work sector. Services are provided according to the need in the frame of these guidelines. In Finland, social work is mainly governed by the Social Welfare Act (2014/1301) and, more specifically, numerous special laws related to the rights of different customer groups. In addition to legislation, the core task (Koski, 2012) is defined through an organisations' culture and norms. Different phenomena behind different client relationships indicate strategies and choice of working methods and therefore form the core task. The core tasks of a municipal child protection unit and a third-sector community house differ since the objectives and methods differ. Public and private organisations differ in their requirements for the core tasks. According to Lawler (2016) there are differences in the public sector; running a probation office differs significantly from running a healthcare unit or a museum (Lawler, 2016). Social work organisations and, therefore, their core tasks differ. Different organisations require different kinds of leadership.

Next, I will discuss the typical definitions of social work to provide an overview of the profession. I discuss the operational environment in Finland through legislation, as this frames obligations and restrictions that must be considered when social work processes are planned, carried out and monitored. At the end of this section, I will examine social work more closely through social work theory and methods most strongly related to leadership and management.

### 2.2.2 Definitions of social work

There is an ongoing debate whether social work can be considered a fully developed profession or whether it remains a semi-profession, as it is an activity that has fewer clear-cut barriers to entry than traditional professions (e.g. Hall, 1968; Hopps & Collins, 1995). Etzioni (1969) explored the maturation of professions they termed “semi-professions” in their quest for professional status; among these were teaching, nursing, and social work. According to Gibelman (1999), social work is relatively underrepresented in its expressed concern for identity clarification in an evolving societal context. My view is similar to writers such as Payne (2014) and Teater (2020) that social work holds unique professional expertise in combining and integrating a vast amount of multifaceted knowledge from many different disciplines.

Social work methods are based on evidence derived from research and practice, including local and indigenous context-specific knowledge. Social work recognises that interactions between human beings are complex. The environment and capacity of people are affected by multiple factors, including bio-psychosocial factors. Theories of human development, behaviour, and social systems are used to help analyse complex situations and facilitate individual, organisational, social and cultural changes (Hare, 2004). Social work utilises the theoretical foundation of sociology, psychology, social psychology, social politics, anthropology and educational sciences.

Social work practice is as diverse as its theoretical groundings. According to Hare (2004), on a societal level, it addresses the inequalities and injustices that exist in society. It responds to personal and social problems, crises, and emergencies. Various skills, activities and techniques focus on the client’s service needs. The environment is holistic, meaning a larger community and context than the individual is considered. Interventions in social work vary from person-focused psychosocial processes to involvement in social policy, planning and development of services. These include clinical social work, counselling, group work, social pedagogical work, and family treatment and therapy. Social work also helps to obtain services in the community. Interventions also include agency administration, community organisation, and engaging in social policy and economic development.

### 2.2.3 Social work in Finland

Social work can be seen as a profession, a discipline and an operating system of society. It consists of research, education and practical social work and their interaction. *Social work* is a professional activity based on research to alleviate and prevent social problems (Toikko, 2005; Sipilä, 1989).

Social work principles in Finland are formulated as ministerial recommendations and are rooted in the European tradition. Kessl, Lorenz, Otto & White (2019) have investigated European Social Work (ESW). They mention associations such as the European Association of Schools of Social Work (EASSW), European Networks of Social Researchers (ESWRA), and professional organisations such as FEANTSA or European Communication platforms. In addition to this, numerous European study programmes are defining social work. All this demonstrates the existence of ESW but does not imply a standard definition. We either have failed to develop a consistent definition for ESW, or such a definition is not

feasible because the subject defies definition, and abstract labels cannot capture its essence. There are, however, common factors which influence how social work is understood and practiced across Europe. The first model defines its terms as a catalogue or set of classifications emerging from *comparisons between practice and theory* in different countries. The second model is to *declare those practices, organisations or politics as constituting ESW*. As their third view to approach ESW, Kessl et al. (2019) describe a specific *horizon they call “European thinking”*, which is a product of and contains the ideals of the Enlightenment with an emphasis on both personal and social equality. The writers summarise their thinking as a recommendation to understand ESW as *“an analytical perspective to be developed in all forms of social work practiced in Europe.”* This would open the horizon to reflect a deeper understanding of specific conflicts, needs and tasks for professional organisations delivering social services as contexts which can no longer be reduced to the national welfare state given the inter-dependency our societies have reached. ESW is to be understood best as relating to the European tradition of constituting subjectivity in members of modern society as a process of emancipation and liberation under conditions of justice and equality which need to be secured at the political level (Kessl et al., 2019).

The national context and legislation are necessary reference points for social work. Context with legislative possibilities and restrictions sets the direction for each client process. They need to provide more information on how each client process should be planned and monitored. However, they show whether there is an obligation or possibility to start a client process and what forms of work can be considered.

In Finland, social work is described by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health as follows:

“Social work can be done as an independent service or as part of other services. It is about expert work that prevents, reduces or eliminates social problems, which is done at the level of individuals, families, communities and structures. Social work is based on human rights and social justice. Strong social work can ensure that even people in the most difficult position get the help and support they need. Social work clients often have needs especially related to employment, training, livelihood, rehabilitation and other promotion of well-being and participation, and the work is characterised by large-scale networking with other actors. In family-specific social work, special attention must be paid to ensuring children’s social security and supporting parenting. Cooperation with, for example, early childhood education and school is important.” (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health in Finland, 2023).

The International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW) has described social work as follows

“The social work profession promotes social change, problem-solving in human relationships, and the empowerment and liberation of people to enhance well-being. Utilising theories of human behaviour and social systems, social work intervenes at the points where people interact with their environments. Principles of human rights and social justice are fundamental to social work.” (IFSW, 2014).

Next, I will conclude with a synthesis of social work as a profession, which I have analysed on the basis of what has been written earlier in this section. I have inserted the previous texts concerning social work in the Vivo programme and drawn them under the heading I have created to find shared meaning and connections between themes.

As much of the literature on social work leadership and social work practice in Finland draws on these different traditions, it is helpful to read these definitions to create a working synthesis for this thesis. Reading across these definitions, five themes are recurrent. These include 1) reasons behind clientships, 2) legislative frames that start the client process, and 3) objectives of the work, which need to be considered in cooperation with the client. Objectives set the direction for 4) the work process, including different theory-based methods and interventions. In all these stages (setting objectives, social work practice and assessment of objectives), 5) interdisciplinary knowledge and values of human rights and social justice are applied.



*Figure 1: Social work process*

To further open up the core social work task, I shall explain these three stages of the process in more detail.

Clientship in social work begins with examining the reasons for clientship and legislative possibilities or obligations to offer social work services. Here, I will use a common Finnish division into child protection and adult social services as examples.

A child always has a right to protection. Reasons for this have altered over the years, but there is always an experience of insecurity by a child behind these reasons. Factors behind cases where a child has been taken into custody often relate to parental exhaustion and severe problems with coping, unsuitable upbringing methods reflected against the child's needs, and internal conflicts in the family. Mental health problems and substance abuse are common phenomena in child protection clientships (Hämeen-Anttila, 2017).

Adult social work in Finland is often divided into adult and gerontological social work. Gerontological social work is specialized in dealing with questions of mature age concerning social needs. Often services concern rehabilitation, housing services, home services,



institutional care, support of next-of-kin carers, and various services for clients with memory diseases such as Alzheimer's (Seppänen, 2017).

Adult social work is an area of many complex social problems. Most commonly, clients suffer from social exclusion and income problems. Specific problems adult social work deals with are problems related to substance abuse. Another common theme is securing income and housing. Social work with adults is often done in multi-professional environments, and cases require strong collaboration with other professionals, as with patients in hospitals and prisoners. (Karjalainen, 2017). Other special situations in adult age which often require social work are the needs of disabled people, gambling problems, and needs related to immigration (Murto, 2017; Autio & Niemelä, 2017; Anis, 2017).

The "result" of a client process in Figure 1 is an "assessment of working achievements". Self-evidently this means that objectives have to be set first. Otherwise, it would be impossible to choose work methods and monitor progress. According to Payne (2014), social work has objectives on three levels. The first objective is *empowerment*: Social work seeks the best possible well-being for individuals, groups and communities by promoting and facilitating growth and self-fulfilment. The second objective is *social change* through cooperation and mutual support so that the most oppressed and disadvantaged can gain power over their lives. The third objective is *problem-solving* as an aspect of welfare services for individuals in societies that aim to meet their needs and improve the services offered.

In Figure 1, the arrow "social work practice" is this research's primary focus and interest. When the social work process and leadership are examined simultaneously, it is worth asking what the need for leadership is mainly connected to in the social work process. This also relates to the pedagogical connotation of this thesis: What is most relevant to understand about social work leadership concerning teaching social work leadership? Most of the social work is done in practice after evaluating the need for clientship and monitoring the results of the work in the end. This area of work requires the most interaction between different professionals as a form of interdisciplinary work. Therefore, I will open up the social work practice further in this literature review.

#### 2.2.4 Social work practice

Teater (2020) explains the role of theories and methods, which helps me describe social work practice through different applications. Theory is an essential ingredient in practice that guides how social workers view and approach individuals, families, groups, communities and society. Theory helps to explain, predict and assess different behaviours and situations. The theory explains how the social worker should react and interact with clients with particular histories, problems and goals. Muurinen & Kääriäinen (2020) have researched the relationship between theory and practice in social work. They refer to writers such as Fook (2002), Forte (2014) and Smeeton (2015) and explain the theory to refer to universal knowledge, which is most often defined as a systematic and complex explanatory system based on several concepts. In their article and supervision groups presented, they see theories as complex theories but also more content-specific knowledge based on scientific research, such as concepts and explanatory generalisations, which can lead to forming a theory.

Teater (2019) discusses the methods of social work practice. Methods are the specific techniques and approaches that social workers utilise in their work with clients to accomplish tasks and reach specific goals. Methods are informed by theory. Theories utilised in social work often emerge from psychology and sociology in addition to social work. Theory and method are both independent and interrelated. A theory is a hypothesis, an idea or a prediction about what can and might happen in different circumstances. The method describes what a social worker does when working with a client. The term “method” is often used interchangeably with the terms “intervention” and “practice” (Teater, 2020). Also, in this thesis, all these terms are used to describe the rich forms of practice in all forms.

Social workers apply many different approaches to practice. These cannot be named particular theories in a scientific sense. In their study, Muurinen & Kääriäinen (2020) arranged intervention groups for social workers, where they can reflect on social work theories concerning client cases and everyday practices. Through examples from practice, workers could reflect on which theories they were applying or whether they could anchor their practice to them. Many social workers found applying theories problematic. They experienced time pressure when reading materials and felt alienated from the theories they studied at the university. Social workers were struggling with actively combining practice and theory. Results from other countries (Beddoe, 2011; Gray, 2012; Nutley et al., 2007; Teater, 2020) point to a similar direction. These findings also align with theory-in-use, which was looked at more closely alongside the pedagogical questions later in this thesis. According to theory-in-use, theoretical knowledge is combined with workers’ experiences (Keski-Luopa, 2011). When workers apply problem-solving strategies, they combine experience with theoretical knowledge.

To provide examples from practice, I will introduce examples of theories, methods and interventions commonly used in social work practice. I have categorised these according to Payne’s (2014) classification, where he has placed practice theories, methods and interventions under three categories according to their relatedness to the client process objectives of problem-solving, empowerment and social change.

The first category relates to the objective of *problem-solving*. Psychodynamic theories emphasise the importance of people’s feelings and conflicts in generating behaviour and resolving their problems.

Crisis and task-centred theories focus on brief, highly structured intervention models with clearly definable problems that will respond to active efforts to resolve them (Payne, 2014). According to Teater (2020), crisis intervention is based on crisis theory which holds that individuals have coping mechanisms to deal with stressful events. Sometimes individuals cannot lean on their standard coping mechanisms and are thrown into a state of disequilibrium. The social work task is to help them become aware of the stages of crisis and help to find practical strategies to overcome difficult phases. Cognitive-behavioural theories emphasise the importance of rational behaviour management in understanding the source of people’s problems and managing it.

Systems/ecological theories integrate interpersonal work with individuals with interventions with families, communities and social agencies. Work is directed towards larger surrounding structures and environments (Payne, 2014; Teater, 2020).

The next group of theories is connected to the social work objective of *empowerment*. Teater (2020) sees empowerment as holding that individuals who have power and control over their lives, in the sense that they can access the necessary resources to meet their needs and rights, can thrive and develop. Payne (2014) introduces macro-practice, social development and social pedagogy as practices supporting empowerment. Their contribution to practice is prioritising the social and educational, engaging people with shared interests and concerns to work jointly to overcome them. Strengths/solutions and narrative recast clients' and families' apparent problems and seek strengths that enable them to build on positively in the future (Payne, 2014). Glicken (2004) defines *strength perspective* as "a way of viewing the positive behaviours of all clients by helping them to see that problem areas are secondary to areas of strength and that out of what they do well can come helping solutions based upon the successful strategies they use daily in their lives to cope with a variety of important life issues, problems and concerns" (Kondrat, 2017). The humanistic/existential/spiritual theory group consists of views which emphasise personal development through shared experience as a source of individual and group empowerment. (Payne, 2014).

The third group of theories is connected to *social change*. There are theories connected to advocacy and empowerment on the border of empowerment and social change. These views create experiences and alliances that empower people to achieve a greater understanding of their lives and the changes in them. Critical theories offer critique to present a social order that analyses and deals with the social factors' underlying problems or social barriers. Feminist theories explain and respond to the oppressed position of women in most societies through collaborative dialogue and group work to achieve consciousness of the issues affecting women's social relations (Payne, 2014). According to Teater (2020), the feminist practice seeks to implement approaches tailored to address differences between men and women with the goal of empowerment. Anti-discriminatory/multicultural sensitivity develops an understanding of cultural and ethnic barriers, conflict and difference, and practice that respects people's individual and social identities (Payne, 2014).

In conclusion, social work is a professional activity with the aim of the welfare of individuals and communities. Social work achieves this aim by preventing, reducing and eliminating social problems. In doing so, social workers utilise a wide selection of approaches from different disciplines and plan interventions, which effectively help reduce the problems of social work clients and their communities.

## 2.3 Leadership and management key concepts related to social work

Before focusing on leadership in social work literature (section 2.4), I review some of the key concepts in leadership and management in general. First, I discuss how management and leadership differ from one another and why the distinction between them is described (if this is even possible to do). I then approach leadership through angles which are relevant to social work leadership. I start by presenting different paradigms which have been popular approaches to leadership in different eras. I then examine the most common leadership styles and approaches. It is helpful to investigate leadership styles. Knowing these provides an opportunity to approach the leadership question from the viewpoint of a single leader and understand their leadership working styles. This is also important because of the pedagogical context of this study. A student of leadership must be able to somehow relate the question of leadership to themselves in order to analyse the ongoing subjective leadership activity. This is best shown in the leadership style. I then concentrate on culture and cross-cultural differences, ethics, diversity with a particular view on gender, different levels of leadership in organisations, critical views towards leadership, psychodynamic dimension, trust, and dialogue and leadership development.

### 2.3.1 Difference between management and leadership

The terms management and leadership are often used interchangeably. Bennis & Nanus (1985) have written a famous yet controversial statement on the difference: “Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right things.” Leaders are interested in direction, goals, vision, objectives, intention, effectiveness and purpose, which Bennis & Nanus (1985) call the right things. Managers are interested in efficiency, i.e. “how to”, the short-term running of doing things right. Sullivan (2016) quotes Brilliant (2001), Mary (2005) and Zaleznik (1977) and views management as entailing everyday activities, tasks and routines that are necessary for organisations to remain viable and function smoothly. Zaleznik (1977) describes the essential characteristics of a manager: being persistent, tough-minded, hardworking, analytical, intelligent, tolerant and good-willed helps. Compared to managers, leaders are described to be creative, take risks, and promote organisational innovation and growth (Brilliant, 2001).

Kotterman (2006) discusses in his article whether making a clear distinction between management and leadership is necessary. Most researchers believe there is a significant difference. These terms are often used interchangeably in workplaces, which is confusing. Leaders and managers may be involved in establishing direction, motivating people, and aligning resources. The rough distinction is that managers plan and budget, while leaders set the direction. The managers’ purpose is narrower when they try to stabilise work, maintain order and organise resources. Leaders aim to develop new goals and align organisations. Leaders motivate, while managers control and solve problems.

Table 3: Comparison of differences between management and leadership processes (Source: Kotterman, 2006). p 15.

Process	Management	Leadership
Vision Establishment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Plans and budgets</li> <li>• Develops process steps and sets timelines</li> <li>• Displays impersonal attitude about the vision and goals</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sets the direction and develops the vision</li> <li>• Develops strategic plans to achieve the vision</li> <li>• Displays very passionate attitude about the vision and goals</li> </ul>
Human Development and Networking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Organizes and staffs</li> <li>• Maintains structure</li> <li>• Delegates responsibility</li> <li>• Delegates authority</li> <li>• Implements the vision</li> <li>• Establishes policy and procedures to implement vision</li> <li>• Displays low emotion</li> <li>• Limits employee choices</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Aligns organization</li> <li>• Communicates the vision, mission, and direction</li> <li>• Influences creation of coalitions, teams, and partnerships that understand and accept the vision</li> <li>• Displays driven, high emotion</li> <li>• Increases choices</li> </ul>
Vision Execution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Controls processes</li> <li>• Identifies problems</li> <li>• Solves problems</li> <li>• Monitors results</li> <li>• Takes low-risk approach to problem solving</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motivates and inspires</li> <li>• Energizes employees to overcome barriers to change</li> <li>• Satisfies basic human needs</li> <li>• Takes high-risk approach to problem solving</li> </ul>
Vision Outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Manages vision order and predictability</li> <li>• Provides expected results consistently to leadership and other stakeholders</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Promotes useful and dramatic changes, such as new products or approaches to improving labor relations</li> </ul>

Lawler & Bilson (2010) write that the debate between management and leadership has a long history and continues without a joint agreement on the differences.

Lawler & Bilson (2010) have chosen to discuss both and refer to which one is being discussed if needed. I will not try to detach these concepts from one another but aim for clearness in distinction. Firstly, it is impossible to leave the management side out of context, and as the interviewees in this research undoubtedly use the terms interchangeably, it is my responsibility as a researcher to keep these as disconnected as possible.

To revise, I have chosen Northouse's (2016) interpretation of leadership as a working definition for my thesis for the following reasons. First, it is comprehensive and considers different dimensions of the category. Second, it has been used in leadership education in Finland, and therefore there is experience-based evidence on the usability of his definition. Third, it is referred to by Lawler & Bilson (2013), who have examined social work leadership in particular.

According to Northouse (2016, p. 6), "leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal".

The definition of leadership as a process indicates that it is not a character trait inherent in an individual but rather a transactional event that occurs between leaders and followers. The leader affects and is affected by the followers. From this point of view, leadership becomes open to a wide range of people. The element of influence is pivotal. With influence, leadership exists.

*Groups* are the context in which leadership takes place. Influence is directed towards individuals and groups of individuals with a common purpose.

In search of a working definition of management, I have used a similar approach to leadership and examined definitions of management used in social work. One such work is by Mullins & Christy (2016). Mullins adopts Fayol's (2016) much-quoted definition, which I will use as an anchor when reflecting on different management dimensions. Fayol defined management as "to forecast and plan, to organise, to command, to co-ordinate and to control" (Fayol cited in Mullins & Christy, 2016, p. 354).

### 2.3.2 History of leadership

I believe that in order to understand any current phenomenon, it is worthwhile to see how a particular phenomenon has been looked at in the past.

Finnish leadership researcher Hannele Seeck (2012) has divided the history of leadership into five paradigms, which I refer to in order to understand how leadership has been looked at in different times.

Scientific management (Taylorism) is based on Frederik Winslow Taylor's (1856–1915) thoughts on rationalising work to increase productivity and efficiency (Seeck, 2012). Taylor had a degree in engineering and experience working in factories in many different positions. Taylor saw that the main problem in organising work was that managers did not know how long it took to conduct a single work performance. For this reason, the managers could not estimate productivity. On the other hand, workers could slow down their working pace if they saw that managers gave more tasks to those who worked fast. Taylor saw it wise to estimate the time needed for each work performance and consider how work should be organised to utilise both worker and employee (Seeck, 2012).

Scientific management was born in the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century in the United States and influenced mainly between 1900–1923 (Barley & Kunda, 1992). It became particularly popular in Japan. In European countries, the techniques of scientific management were adopted, but as an ideology it remained weak. Germany adopted the principles of scientific management well. In Great Britain, scientific management was criticised by the trade union movement until mid-1940s. In Spain, techniques from scientific management were adopted in 1939–1953. In Finland, it was one of the first doctrines of business management to arrive. It was approached with caution. In the 1920s, scientific management received only little attention since the times in the labour market were particularly difficult (Michelsen, 2001). In many branches of industry, competence was yet developing and there was shortage of capital (Seeck, 2012).

The era of scientific management was followed by the era of the human relations school. The School of Human Relations criticised how scientific management sliced the work tasks into small components and aimed to enrich and expand the job descriptions. Workers were encouraged to interact with one another and to cooperate. Solutions were provided for monotony of work, absences, turnover of staff, conflicts, and work moral problems. All of these were seen to lower the productivity of companies. It was believed that scientific

management had technologised work too far. Workers were seen as components of machines rather than individuals (Seeck, 2012).

The approaches of the human relations school were mostly developed in the United States, but British researchers also influenced this paradigm strongly. The first studies examining the psychological effects of the work environment were conducted in Great Britain during the First World War (Rose, 1989). The breakthrough of this paradigm was done in the United States, where Hawthorne's researches first recognised the effect of psychological factors on work efficiency (Barley & Kunda, 1992). The school of human relations was strong as a popular paradigm between 1945–1970. Particularly in the United States and Great Britain, it was appreciated both as an ideology and technique. In Spain, it was recognised as an ideology but not widely utilised as a technique. In Germany, neither of these dimensions gained significant popularity (Guillén, 1994). In Finland, there was only little research conducted on the school of human relations (Seeck & Kuokkanen, 2007). This paradigm did not have support from state or string institutions behind it to support its spreading, and its influence remained relatively low in Finland (Vartiainen, 1994).

The third paradigm (Guillén, 1994; March & Simon, 1958; Drucker, 1954; Chandler, 1962; Thompson, 1967; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1969; Etzioni, 1961) was a structural analytical paradigm. In this paradigm, organisations were examined as a whole through the analysis of structures and analysis. At the same time, scientific management and the school of human relations concentrated on solving the problems of giant industrial corporations, such as organising work to increase productivity and solving conflicts between workers. When organisations grew in size, new kinds of problems emerged, and new solutions were needed. Theories analysing structures were born to answer the needs of bureaucratic organisations. Under examination was the organisation's entity: planning, grouping tasks into departments and units, forming communication channels, and organising hierarchy and control. The underlying idea is that organisations are like organisms, open systems, and must form a functioning relationship with their environment to survive. The operational environment was not considered in earlier paradigms, and organisations were seen as closed systems (Seeck, 2012).

The structural analytical paradigm was developed in Europe and the United States parallelly in the 1950s–1970s (Guillén, 1994). In European countries, it was popular in Great Britain and Germany. In Spain, it was not adopted comprehensively. In Finland, the structural paradigm has had a strong impact (Seeck & Laakso, 2010). The effect of the structural paradigm has been very strong in Finnish University leadership education between the 1960s and early 1990s (Seeck & Laakso, 2010).

Seeck (2012) calls the fourth paradigm a cultural theory paradigm. It approaches leadership and organisations by examining organisational symbols and meaning systems. The basic assumption is that all organisations have their own culture, which dictates how people think and act in a particular organisation. Morgan (1997) has presented that culture as a way to construct and reconstruct shared reality. This way, people can understand events, situations and acts in a shared manner.

The cultural theory paradigm (Calas & Smircich, 1996; Alvesson & Wilmot, 1992; Schein, 1987; Ouchi, 1979; Pascale & Athos, 1981 (cited in Seeck, 2012); Peters & Waterman, (1982) originates from the early 1920s United States, when the North American Industry

faced emerging industrial competition both from east and west. Work communities had to become more flexible, creative and motivating for the employee. Answers to this challenge were searched from ideologies of organisation culture, commitment, and quality. In Finland, the cultural paradigm was mentioned in newspaper writings in the 1970s. By the 1990s, this was the strongest paradigm in Finland.(Seeck, 2012).

The fifth and current paradigm is innovation theories (Damanpour, 1991; West & Farr, 1990 cited in Seeck ,2012; West & Anderson, 1996; Amabile, 1983 (cited in Seeck, 2012); Kanter, 1997 (cited in Seeck,, 2012). This paradigm can be seen as the current paradigm. Therefore, its influence on leadership and organisations can be estimated later. One problem the innovation paradigm tries to resolve is the ongoing need to renew and bring better products and services to market. Companies need to maintain their position in a heavily competitive market environment. The innovation paradigm offers more than one right solution, such as scientific management. The approach is contingent, where solutions are constantly searched according to real situations and contexts. Workers are seen as individuals with a continuing need to learn and develop themselves to stay competent in the work market. In addition to rewards such as salary and other benefits, workers are motivated by possibilities to use their creativity and expertise. This applies particularly to workers in expert positions. The innovation paradigm's fundamental concepts are uniqueness, newness, change, flexibility, creativity, and innovativeness (Seeck, 2012).

### 2.3.3 Approaches to understanding leadership

Northouse (2016) suggests that there are common approaches to understanding leadership which have been strongly present in the literature for decades, with a focus on process.

In the *trait approach* (Bass, 1990; Jago, 1982; Stogdill, 1948; Bryman, 1992) it is believed that some individuals were born with specific characteristics and qualities that made them great leaders. However, scholars never reached a consensus on what these favourable traits are. Some of the qualities that frequently came up were intelligence (Zaccaro et al., 2004), self-confidence (Stone, 2011) , determination, integrity, and sociability. Researchers (Judge et al., 2002) have found a strong connection between the five-factor personality model (Goldberg, 1990) and leadership traits, such as extraversion, conscientiousness, openness, low neuroticism, and agreeableness. Also, connections to emotional intelligence have been established. Leaders sensitive to their emotions and their impact on others seem more compelling (Goleman, 1996, Caruso & Wolfe, 2004, Shankman & Allen, 2008).

The *skills approach* (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleischman, 2000) see that the competencies of leaders are crucial in measuring successful leadership. In the three-skill approach (Katz, 1955), effective leadership is measured through three basic personal skills: *technical, human and conceptual*. At lower management levels, technical and human skills are the most important. At upper management levels, conceptual and human skills are the most important. In the '90s, the skills model was developed to explain the capabilities. The model presented five components of effective leader performance: competencies, individual attributes, leadership outcomes, career experiences, and environmental influences. The strength of the skills model is that it sees leadership as a set of skills that can be learned; therefore, practical leadership skills become accessible to all. Weaknesses are that the breadth of the model extends beyond the boundaries of leadership, including, for example, conflict management, motivation theory and personality theory. Although the approach claims to be different from the trait approach, traits play an important role. The model has



been tested with military personnel, which makes it difficult to generalize its usability (Northouse, 2016).

The *behavioural approach* is very different from the trait and skill approaches as it focuses on what leaders do rather than what they are. Leaders are involved with two types of behaviours: task behaviours and relationship behaviours. Leaders combine these two behaviours to influence others. This approach has broadened the scope of leadership research to include the study of behaviour rather than only personal traits and characteristics. It is supported by a large number of studies, which increases its value. The shortcoming is that researchers have been unable to associate behaviours such as morale, job satisfaction and productivity. This approach provides a framework to acknowledge both dimensions rather than an organized set of effective leadership behaviour (Northouse, 2016).

The behavioural approach originated from three different lines of research. In the Ohio State studies, researchers analysed how individuals acted when they led an organisation or a group. A Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Hemphill & Coons, 1957) was created to point out how specific clusters of behaviours were typical of leaders. The University of Michigan studies (Cartwright & Chandler, 1960; Katz & Kahn, 1951; Likert, 1961, 1967) identifies two types of leadership behaviours: employee orientation (strong human relationship emphasis) and production orientation (emphasis on technical and production aspects of work). The work of Blake and Mouton (1964, 1978, 1985) produced a Managerial (leadership) Grid. The grid was created to explain how leaders utilise two factors, concern for production and concern for people, to help organisations reach their purposes.

As the name implies, the *situational approach* (Blanchard, Zigrani & Zigrani, 2013) argues that leadership is situationally constructed in different organizational settings. Leaders should behave according to the demands of a particular situation. Leadership is classified into four styles:

- S1 is high-directive and low-supportive.
- S2 is high-directive and high-supportive.
- S3 is low-directive and high-supportive.
- S4 is low-directive and low-supportive.

According to Blanchard, Zigrani & Zigrani (2013), each of the four styles applies to followers who work at different levels of development (D1, low in competence and high in commitment, D2, low to some competence and low in commitment, D3, moderately competent but lacking commitment, and D4, a great deal of competence and a high degree of commitment). Leadership is considered effective when a leader can diagnose the development level of their followers and adjust their style accordingly. This approach is thanked for its practicality and easy application and for providing flexibility. There are no robust research findings to support the reliability of this approach (Northouse, 2016).

The *path-goal theory* (Evans, 1970; House, 1971; House & Dessler, 1974 cited in Northouse, 2016; House & Mitchell, 1974) was developed to explain how leaders motivate followers to be productive and satisfied with their work. The path-goal theory is a contingency approach to leadership because effectiveness depends on the fit between the

leader's behaviour and the characteristics of the task and the follower. Basic principles are derived from expectancy theory. This theory suggests that followers will be motivated if they feel competent and think their efforts will be rewarded. It is a leader's responsibility to help followers reach their goals by directing, coaching and guiding them. Leaders choose between directive, supportive, participative and action-orientated styles (Northouse, 2016).

*The Leader-Member Exchange* (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, 1976) theory depicts leadership as a process centred on the interactions between leaders and followers. The leadership process's relationship between leaders and followers is a crucial concept. Leaders' relationships are viewed as vertical dyads of two types: dyads based on expanded role relationships were called leaders in the groups, and dyads based on formal job descriptions were called out-groups. The theory assumes that followers become in-group members based on how well they get along with the leader and their willingness to expand their role responsibilities. Compared to "out-group" members, "in-group" members receive more benefits such as extra influence, opportunities and rewards (Northouse, 2016).

*The transformational leadership* (Downton, 1973 cited in Northouse 2016, Bryman, 1992; Lowe & Gardner, 2001; Antonakis, 2012; Bass & Riggio, 2006) theory concerns how confident leaders can transform followers to accomplish great things. Leaders are expected to adapt to the needs and motives of followers. They are change agents and role models to others. They can articulate a clear vision for an organization that empowers followers who act in a trust-creating manner, and help followers meet higher standards (Northouse, 2016).

Northouse (2016) summarises *authentic leadership* as transparent, morally grounded and responsive to people's needs and values. The interpersonal perspective focuses on leaders and their knowledge, self-regulation and self-concept. *Authentic leadership* is a collective process created by leaders and followers together. The developmental perspective emphasizes major components of authentic leadership, which develop over a lifetime. These are self-awareness, internalized moral perspective, balanced processing, and relational transparency. According to Chan (2005), authentic leadership is at a first glance easy to define, but is a complex process challenging to characterize. Shamir & Eliam (2005) describe in their intrapersonal approach that authentic leaders lead from conviction, exhibit genuine leadership and are original. Eagly (2005) sees that authentic leadership is relational and created by followers and leaders together. Walumbwa et al. (2008) highlight in the developmental approach that leader behaviour develops from and is grounded in the leader's positive psychological qualities and strong ethics.

*Servant leadership* (Greenleaf, 1970, 1972 (cited in Northouse, 2016), 1977; van Dierendonck, 2011) is a paradoxical approach that challenges our traditional beliefs about influence and leadership. Leaders should be attentive to the needs of their followers, help them develop their human capacities, and empower them. In this approach, leaders consciously choose to serve first, i.e. to place the good of the followers over their self-interest. They attend fully to the needs of their followers, aim to remove inequalities and social injustices, and are concerned with the less privileged (Northouse, 2016).

*Adaptive leadership* is about helping people to change and adjust to new situations. A leader is not a problem solver but encourages others to solve problems (Northouse, 2016). Heifetz et al. (2009, p. 14) define authentic leadership as "the practice of mobilizing people to tackle

tough challenges and thrive”. Adaptive leaders engage in activities that motivate, mobilize, organise, orient and focus on the attention of others (Heifetz, 1994).

*The psychodynamic approach* goes beyond the conventional “rational” approach. It looks at the underlying irrational processes and dynamics governing human behaviour. We carry subconscious patterns rooted in us in our early infancy, affecting our behaviour. These undercurrents need to be considered when leadership behaviour is examined (Manfred & Cheak, 2016, cited in Northouse, 2016).

#### 2.3.4 Leadership styles

In addition to discussing approaches, leadership can be examined through leadership styles. Here leadership is connected more to the leader themselves and their style of conducting the leadership work. Traditionally styles are divided into autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire styles (Jaafar et al., 2021).

When the style is *autocratic*, one person takes control of everything and makes decisions, guiding others in the direction of action chosen by them. Management decisions are taken without input from employees. Often this style of leadership occurs when decisions must be made quickly. Sometimes, performing autocratic leadership is also a middle-level manager’s message to the senior management that the manager can make independent decisions and demonstrate management skills. (Jaafar, 2021). The use of autocratic leadership is known to have adverse effects on employee motivation (Rapp et al., 2006; Krishnan et al., 2002).

According to Jaafar et al. (2021) in a *democratic style*, one person takes control but is open to group input, often allowing the group to make decisions and collectively assign tasks. Here leadership is more guiding than directive. A democratic leader relies upon group decision making, active member involvement, comradeship, and honest praise and criticism. The employee and employer work together to meet the organisation’s objectives. The democratic leadership style often raises employee motivation since employees feel they are contributing to the company’s success and feel as if they are respected as part of the organisation. (Castaneda et al. 1991).

In *laissez-faire* leadership, the person in charge steps back and does nothing. They provide no guidance or direction. Employees are given the freedom to perform their work independently. This may raise employee motivation, but the risk of losing track of achieving the organisation’s goals is high (Jaafar et al. 2021; Abdul, 2012).

#### 2.3.5 Cultural and cross-cultural aspects

Lanne-Eriksson (2021) highlights how important it is for a leader or manager to understand the essence of organisational culture in social care leadership. Recognition of organisational culture is vital. Existing culture explains what is considered accurate, the correct information, and how people think. Organisational culture also dictates what processes are used, how to relate to everyday activities, and what kind of behaviour is expected (Lanne-Eriksson, 2021).

According to Lanne-Eriksson (2021), organisational culture has many definitions. Common to all these is that organisational culture is constructed through shared and collective experiences about beliefs, values, attitudes, and traditions. According to Juuti (2013),

“Organisational culture is a sum of basic assumptions and beliefs, which the members of the organisation have adopted in order to survive in their operational environment and to maintain community cohesion” (Juuti, 2013, cited in Lanne-Eriksson, 2021, p. 265).

Organisational culture is also affected by cross-cultural factors. According to Hanges, Aiken, Park and Su (2016), the role of societal culture and how it affects the desired and effective leadership has been studied for quite some time. Starting from the 1990s, Global Leadership and Organisational Behavioural Effectiveness (GLOBE) sought to identify universal leadership attributes as well as to determine whether organisational/societal culture predicts culturally contingent leadership attributes (House et al., 2004; Dorfman et al., 2012). GLOBE found only a few universal leadership attributes. Features such as trustworthiness, decisiveness, and information were universally respected attributes. The majority of attributes were culturally contingent.

Lusk, Terrazas & Talcido (2017) write about culturally competent social work. This work form is the process in which social workers ethically engage with diverse clients by conducting assessments and interventions that are fitted to the culture, context, class, and identity of the client (Lusk, Chavez, Palomo, & Palacios, 2014; Fong & Furato, 2001). Critical culturally competent supervision necessitates an understanding of the client’s cultural values and traditions and understands the intersectional differences of race, gender identity, education, class, income, status, and privilege (Fong, 2009). Lusk et al. (2017) see that there should be more culturally competent supervision available. More current definitions of culturally competent social work contain three major elements: (1) the awareness of how diverse populations experience their uniqueness in a larger context; (2) an understanding of intersectionality that examines oppression, discrimination, and domination; and (3) cognition of the social worker’s position of privilege and entitlement in relation to the populations they serve and with a recognition of the need to exercise cultural humility (NASW, 2015). It is essential to show appreciation for each supervisee’s particular set of values, cultural humility, and an engaged social work practice that battles oppression, discrimination and domination. But culturally competent leadership is also based on skills—learned attitudes that are manifested in each communication and interaction with members of a diverse social work work force. Beyond these features, a key element of culturally competent leadership is the recognition that leading is a form of emotional labour. Authentic emotional labour injects a compassionate human element into the work of leadership. This may seem self-evident to social workers who constantly modulate their emotions through the professional presentation of self when working with clients in general and in clinical settings in particular. Less common is the notion that leadership may require the same or superior level of emotional engagement as client-centred work. An authentic and culturally competent leader engages with staff using cultural individuation, attenuating and focusing the interaction while cognizant of the staff member’s culture, gender, and identity (Lusk et al., 2017).

Hanges et al. (2016) see that further research on how emotions affect leader-follower relationships in cross-cultural contexts should be conducted. *To date*, cross-cultural leadership *research* has mainly concentrated on the cognitive aspects of leadership.

### 2.3.6 Diversity and gender

Thinking about diversity in relationship to leadership invites leaders and managers to consider backgrounds and minority questions. According to Chin & Sanchez-Hucles (2007), thinking about effective leadership requires attending to issues of gender, racial/ethnic minority status, sexual orientation, and disability status. Of these themes, in the reviewed literature on social work leadership and management, gender was the most discussed (Pekkarinen, 2010; Harlow, 2002; Barkdull, 2009; Netting & O'Connor, 2005; Stotzer & Tropman, 2006; Lawler & Bilson, 2010; Chernesky, 2003; Dewane, 2008; Berg et al., 2008; Foster, 1999).

The literature which considered gender and minority issues, reflected on social, historical and cultural dimensions of the issues. The studies examined, for example, how women combine gender, leadership roles and family (Harlow, 2002). In two studies, the examination of gender was connected to the historical context, in that women stepping down from the boards of charities in the early 20th century was seen to coincide with the timing of organizations becoming more structured (Netting & O'Connor, 2005). Another study considered why women obscured their gender in their speeches when they served as presidents of the National Conference of Social Work in the United States in the 20th century (Stotzer & Tropman, 2006). In contrast, in a study with Native American social work leaders, women reported that reclaiming a traditional sense of matrilineal hierarchy helped them feel secure in their leadership role (Barkdull, 2009). In all the studies above, the gendered social order presented a challenging context in which women sought to engage in leadership in social work.

Despite these challenges, Stotzer & Tropman (2006) state that history holds many examples of female social work leaders. Women, such as Jane Addams (1910), Mary Willcox Glenn (1915), Julia C. Lathrop (1919), Grace Abbott (1924), Gertrude Vaile (1926), Miriam Van s (1930), Katharine Lenroot (1935), Edith Abbott (1937), Grace L. Coyle (1940), Jane M. Hoey (1941), Elizabeth Wisner (1944), Ellen C. Potter (1945), Arlien Johnson (1947), Martha M. Eliot (1950), Margaret Hickey (1957), Eveline M. Burns (1958), Thelma Shaw (1961), Ellen Winston (1976), Margaret Berry (1971), Mary R. Ripley (1973), and Duria B. Ward (1983), have been selected into leadership positions of the National Conference of Social Work for over 100 years. According to Stotzer & Tropman (2006), all female presidents chose similar styles of speech delivery and spoke narrowly from the viewpoint of their professional expertise. According to the writers, a more radical speech style could have promoted their leadership possibilities. They name three possible reasons for this narrower selection of social work topics. They might have limited their expression due to their desire to protect their own professional status, to protect women in general, and to keep solid relationships to their colleagues. Stotzer & Tropman (2006) conclude that more research regarding the history of historical social work leadership is needed to parse these interrelated concepts.

Lawler & Bilson (2010) discuss gender in relation to challenges in social work management and leadership. They argue that it is relatively clear to numerically assert that women are underrepresented at senior management levels in social work. However, they point out the assertion that gender translates into different leadership styles is overly simplistic, and may indeed repeat dominant unfounded stereotypes. For example, researchers such as

Chernesky (2003) and Dewane (2008) discuss feminine and masculine management styles. Berg (2008) sees that the development of managerialism in social work organisations has favoured masculine styles. Berg (2008) finds two reasons, why women are disadvantaged compared to men in relation to senior management positions. First, they start their careers from lower positions in the organisation and secondly, often have more family duties than their male spouses. In a rejection of this simplistic male-female binary, Lawler & Bilson (2010) argue that a feminist approach to leadership requires a reflective-pluralist approach; men and women should not be seen as separate homogenous groups, but the experience of gender should be further explored.

Some of this further exploration of gender and leadership has subsequently occurred, and confirmed Lawler & Bilson's focus on a reflective-pluralist approach. Rodriguez, Guenther & Faiz (2023) show how gender's connectedness to leadership can be examined through intersectional situatedness. They note that there are multiple, simultaneously intersecting socially constructed categories of differences in the experience of leadership. Temporal and spatial experiences of intersectionality shape experiences of leadership. Gender-in-leadership is never only about gender but always about intersectional identity. Rather than creating hero images of females who rise to leadership (as defined by Western norms), they suggest that the dominant Western conception of leadership should be called into question, to allow for inclusive conceptions of what it means to lead. In the context of Western definitions of leadership, the situated intersection of gender and race has also received further attention (Liu & Baker, 2016; Liu, 2018; Ladkin & Patrick, 2022). For example, Lanier et al. (2022) point out that black women leaders are forced to engage in protective tactics since they are often exposed to microaggressions. And Ladkin & Patrick (2022) note the need to resist the imposition of binary hierarchical and isolating notions of leadership and to embrace notions of leadership rooted in shared humanness.

Social class is another factor that intersects with gender in expressions of leadership. Social class background influences both the chances of obtaining leadership positions and predispositions to different values and approaches to interaction, which may translate into different leadership styles being adopted (Martin et al., 2017). But, much is still in need of research to understand how social class impacts the actions and beliefs of leaders (Lee et al., 2021).

### 2.3.7 Different levels of leadership

Leadership should also be examined in the context of leaders' organisational positions, that is, whether leaders are nearby or distant. DeChurch et al., (2010) refer to different writers (Day & Lord, 1988; Hunt, 1991; Hunt & Ropo, 1995; Jacobs & Jaques, 1987; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Zaccaro, 1996; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001) when they sum up that leadership needs are dependent on the leader's level in the organisation. According to these sources, much of the psychological leadership research examining the rich dynamics of leadership largely applies to lower levels of hierarchy in the organisation. On the other hand, research concerning strategic management connected top-level leaders and their work with organisational strategies and outcomes (Hambrick & Mason, 1984).

Further, DeChurch et al. (2010) quote Jacobs and McGee (2001), who have divided leadership into three levels, corresponding to a three-tiered organisational design. They see that leaders hire, fire, and allocate tasks at the bottom. On the next layer, middle management, leaders establish operational goals and coordinate the effort required to meet these objectives. Top-level leadership is seen as the strategic apex of an organisation, which establishes the vision and sets broad objectives for the organisation. Zaccaro & Klimoski (2001) see that leaders enact the same functions of direction setting, boundary spanning and operational maintenance but operate with these differently at different organisational levels. In direction-setting, the difference relies on the period, whereas at the CEO level, the horizon includes planning for years, even decades ahead (Jacobs & McGee, 2001), and lower-level leadership decision making may move in a time horizon of three months. In boundary spanning, the difference is like boundaries; at lower levels in their unit or units within the organisation, higher position leaders span boundaries that link more outside the organisation.

Coordination and operational maintenance differ in the degree to which leader interaction is direct versus indirect. Leaders at all organisational levels facilitate coordination. At lower levels of hierarchy, the coordinative behaviour is direct, whereas at higher levels, it involves increasingly indirect actions such as establishing operating procedures to routinise coordinative patterns (DeChurch et al. 2010).

### 2.3.8 Critical views

Collinson (2011, p. 181) discusses the growing impact of "critical leadership studies" (CLS). The term refers to the "broad, heterogeneous and diverse perspectives that all share the concern to critique the power relations and identity constructions through which leadership dynamics are often reproduced, frequently rationalised, sometimes resisted and occasionally transformed". CLS traditionally challenges perspectives in mainstream literature that both underestimate the complexity of leadership and assume people who are leaders are always in charge and make decisions and their followers carry out orders from the above. (e.g. Gabriel, 1997; Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Fairhurst, 2007; Sinclair, 2007; Banks, 2008; Nye, 2008).

Sutherland, Bolden and Edwards (2022) have spearheaded a shift in CLS, gathering voices of the critical turn. This turn sees the nature of context and "place" in leadership theory in a new light, challenging traditional views of leadership.

In the “critical turn”, the criticism is placed on how traditional leadership seeks to locate and uncover the objective truth about leadership through positivistic inquiry. “Critical turn” in leadership studies suggests that multiple realities exist simultaneously. This moves leadership thinking to concern the dialectical and constructive approaches, where leadership is “not seen as property as one individual, but contextualised outcome of interactive processes” (Gronn, 2002: p. 444). For Smircich & Morgan (1982) and Hosking (1988), this critical turn means moving from examining leaders to examining leadership, which they see as contextually and culturally aware and socially constructed processes. Leadership is an emergent relational phenomenon that is co-produced and performed by a much more comprehensive range of participants than was deemed possible by the broad corpus of extant academic work on leadership within organisations (Smircich & Morgan, 1982; Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003 & Collinson, 2006).

Mainstream perspectives assume that we have one coherent self waiting to be discovered. The post-structuralist approach, however, suggests that subjectivity is rather multiple, fragmented, shifting, ambiguous, and in a constant state of reconstruction and flux (Collinson, 2006). The post-structuralist perspective also implies that in leadership, it is important not only what happens in the “foreground”, such as personality traits, the tangible, the overt and directly interpersonal aspects of an organisation, but also in the background, such as in terms of unspoken rules of formation, the subjective, the non-verbal meaning-making and the place-based elements (Sutherland et al., 2022).

Individuals and places cannot be separated as people are enmeshed and embedded in social relations, worlds, and practices (Giddens, 1979; Collinson, 2003). Porter and McLaughlin (2006) found that between 1990 and 2005, leadership articles published in major journals did not emphasise context or context was a secondary variable such as culture or climate. Place is not only one variable constitutive of leadership theory and practice that actively shapes how leaders and followers interact and relate. Sutherland et al. (2022) introduce a place-based agenda for leadership research. According to this agenda, leadership differs from typical leadership and management scholarship. The “place” of leadership can be seen as virtual and imagined in the context of countries and societies, cities and communities (Hambleton, 2015), and workplaces and organisations (Carroll et al., 2008; Woodcock, 2014).

Sutherland et al. (2022) see that the approach may help to move leadership research away from seeking one best way of doing leadership and may lead to a greater appreciation of alternative leadership approaches, which are compassionate, collective and inclusive (Bolden et al., 2019). A place-based approach promotes organisational learning and encourages continual reflection. When place is put in the centre of the research agenda, we acknowledge that flux is inevitable and situations are in constant transformation. The fourth benefit relates to connections between communities. Hambleton (2015, p. 5) remarks that this perspective may “play a significant role in advancing social justice, promoting care for the environment and bolstering community empowerment”. The fifth viewpoint is that by considering the place of leadership, researchers and educators may develop more inclusive, sustainable, ethical and effective forms of leadership.

Sutherland et al. (2022, p. 10) conclude their article with a statement that many of the contributors to the issue highlight the need for leadership scholars to “acknowledge their responsibilities for perpetuating or challenging unequal and harmful leadership practices and to play a role as activist and change-makers”. Next, in this section, I will present what



kind of psychodynamic understreams there are which, in practice, may be considered harmful vs. good leadership.

In order to understand what good leadership is, it is good to shed light on the dark sides and pitfalls of leadership, i.e. insufficient leadership. According to Juuti (2018), most leadership theories have gone astray, as they mainly look at the qualities and leadership styles of a good leader or how one should lead. Such a normative way of looking at good leadership hides the contradictory and confusing nature of leadership. In reality, good and bad leadership coexist. In practice, even good leadership is always mixed with lousy leadership.

Also Collinson et al. (2017) find binary “good” and “bad” thinking alien. They quote Meindl et al. (1985) who describe the “romance of leadership”, a view where we either excessively credit leaders for high organisational behaviour or hold them overly responsible for workplace failures. This kind of thinking often occurs in organisations, but it is an overly simplified but reassuring way to understand multifaceted organisational processes (Collinson et al., 2017).

Bad leadership is often built up quietly, unnoticed, and mixed up with excellent and rational actions. The reasons for bad leadership can be individual or communal, and most often, it is a question of a combined effect of these. The reasons at the individual level often start when the supervisor tries to compensate for their difficulties adapting to their work and role as a leader with exaggerated behaviour. Community reasons can be related to positions of power or insufficient performance and competence (Juuti, 2018).

Juuti (2018) has divided bad leadership into reasons based on structures, bad leadership based on the construction of threat images, and issues related to the leader’s skewed personality.

Bad leadership based on frameworks is often coercion in one form or another. Its most visible and traditional form concerns overemphasising authoritarian leadership. The term “management by the devil” in Finnish history describes terrible management (Maury et al. 2015). However, lousy management based on frameworks is often invisible. This behaviour is often considered acceptable because it relies on laws, rules and adopted customs. Appealing to wrongful treatment is pointless because the wrongly treated employee is formally treated correctly. Such practices include, for example, the fact that management has the right to regulate the number of employees and the quality of employment relationships. With the threat of dismissal and warning, the employee’s actions can be controlled in fear of sanctions (Juuti, 2018).

In bad leadership based on the construction of threat images, power is sought by painting dystopian threatening visions and constructing threat images. In particular, this topic becomes relevant when the working community faces a crisis. The background of the problem is the natural human tendency for suspicious thinking. Behind these are series of different defence mechanisms, which often include negative feelings. These negative feelings may then be reflected onto other people (Klein & Riviere, 1964; Klein, 1992). The culture of most communities provides fertile ground for planting threatening images. The human mind is receptive to the formation of threats and enemy images because every person has experienced injustice and disappointment at one time or another. The visions painted by the power-seeker cling to these experiences, and suspicion takes over. Typical manifestations of this kind of activity are, for example, doubting the activities of other units

and seeing other organisations as competitors that must be fought against by all means (Juuti, 2018).

The third theme in lousy leadership (Juuti, 2018) is the leader's skewed personality. The topic is even more ethically tense than the previous two, the effect of which I will examine below. Bad leadership is not caused by the manager alone; the environment, other people, and changing situations impact management. However, the person in charge plays the most significant role in making choices. Choices take management in a good or wrong direction, although the line between good and bad leadership is unclear (Zimbardo, 2007). Most managers sometimes choose options related to sound and sometimes lousy leadership.

Every person has at least some personality distortions, varying from mild emotional knots to serious, personality-distorting puzzles. Juuti (2018) names greed (Locke & Spender, 2011) and narcissism (Judge et al., 2006), even sadism (Padilla, 2007) and psychopathy (Hare, 1999; Boddy 2011), as typical personality-related shadows that undermine leadership.

Juuti (2018) names the problems of atmosphere, lack of trust, workplace bullying and chronic bad feelings as manifestations of bad management in the work community.

Issues related to power, or more likely its misuse, are an expected negative outcome of lousy management. French & Raven (1986) have described power in five themes referred to in more detail later in this research. Mainly using coercive power, where followers are led through threat, is problematic. Holding a leadership position based mainly on selfish motives also causes problems in organisations. As Juuti (2018) states, LeGrand (2003) sees motivation for seeking leadership position and its connectedness with power crucial when the effectiveness of leadership is measured, explaining that motivations for seeking leadership positions can be altruistic or based on self-interest.

Power has been discussed in the context of leadership. Lawler & Bilson (2010) refer to French & Raven's (1986) division of power into five different types of power.

Power can be legitimate power based on the position in which a particular person is granted legal authority. We often act according to the requests of our supervisor because he has the right, based on law and contracts, to regulate our work (French & Raven, 1986).

Having coercive power means that someone can influence someone through threats or negative consequences. This also includes withholding positive consequences if a particular course of action is not followed (French & Raven, 1986).

Reward power is the opposite of the previous one. In it, the activity is guided by the awareness that following some instructions and suggestions is followed by a reward. This can be a material benefit, such as a salary, or a less tangible benefit, such as respect, recognition or praise (French & Raven, 1986).

Power can be based on charisma when power is referred to as referent power. The source of this power is a specific individual's charisma, thereby influencing others. Charisma can be general, or it can be based on experience and general reputation. The vision and judgment of a charismatic person are trusted because of their personal qualities (French & Raven, 1986).

In expert power, power is based on knowledge and expertise. This type of power is about trusting someone's expertise and competence and working according to their suggestions based on this professional trust (French & Raven, 1986).

### 2.3.9 Psychodynamics

Interaction and emotions connect to many leadership approaches presented in textbook by Northouse (2016). Emotional factors also explain complicated patterns behind insufficient or inadequate leadership, as explained in the previous section by Juuti (2018). The continuing countereffect of emotions is present in the psychodynamic tradition, mentioned in Northouse's (2016) approaches and further examined in this chapter.

Writers such as Kets de Vries (1980), Kets de Vries & Cheak (2016), Volkan (1988), Kets de Vries & Miller (1984), and Deal (2007) further describe different psychodynamic phenomena which affect leadership. Our subconscious world is a strong influencer of organisational interaction. Therefore, implications to leadership practices should be acknowledged.

Many patterns of behaviour relate to the role of our early caregivers and, therefore, affect interaction in organisations and leadership. (Emde, 1980; Eriksson, 1950; Kagan, 1994; Kohlberg, 1981; Oglensky, 1995; Piaget, 1952; Pine, 1985). Emotions colour experiences with positive and negative connotations. These connotations direct our choices and how we interact with the world (Darwin, 1920; Plutchick, 1980; Tomkins, 1995). Sometimes, our pathways of growth and early experiences do not support good emotional coping in interaction well enough. Nowadays, the discussed trauma-informed approach (Sarvela & Auvinen, 2020; Nyberg & Lindroos, 2020) reminds us that people, also workers in work communities, carry traumas with them, which might make it more difficult for them to interact with others, particularly in emotionally burdening situations.

In Northouse's (2016) book, Kets de Vries & Cheak (2016) write about the principles of the psychodynamic paradigm in a leadership context. They divide the clinical paradigm as a lens to the study of behaviour in organisations into four basic premises (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984). First, there is a rationale behind every human act i.e. logical explanation for every action. This applies also to actions that seem irrational. These reasons are often unconscious and "detective work" is required to understand sometimes irrational behaviour. The second premise deepens the idea of the unconscious nature of the mind. Feelings, fears and motives live mostly outside conscious minds, but still they affect the conscious reality in working life. Even the most rational people have their blind spots and dark sides, which they do not know and do not want to know. According to the third premise, it is inevitably important to see how each member of a work organisation expresses and regulates emotions. Emotions colour experiences with positive and negative connotations. These connotations direct our choices and how we interact with the world (Darwin, 1920; Plutchick, 1980; Tomkins; 1995). The fourth premise suggests that human development is an inter- and intrapersonal process where we are products of our past experiences. Here our experiences of our early caregivers continue to influence us throughout life (Emde, 1980; Eriksson, 1950; Kagan, 1994; Kohlberg, 1981; Oglensky, 1995; Piaget, 1952; Pine, 1985).

Kets de Vries & Miller (1984) also present concepts and ideas relevant to leadership that have emerged from psychodynamic thinking. Each of these views provide tools to examine

hidden dynamics in work organisations. One of the core concepts of the psychodynamic paradigm is the “inner theatre” (McDougall, 1985). This theatre consists of people who have, for better or worse, influenced our experiences in life. Wilferd Bion’s (1961) discoveries of groups’ three basic assumptions – dependency, flight-flight and pairing – help in understanding leader-follower relationships. The themes of social defence mechanisms, such as splitting (seeing everything in black-and-white), projection (seeing one’s own shortcomings in others), displacement (expressing negative emotions by focusing on a less threatening target), and denial (refusal to accept facts) are discussed. (Kets de Vries, 2011) These mechanisms are relevant to leadership, as leaders tend to rely on existing structures and mechanisms to “contain” their followers’ anxiety. If the ways of dealing with organisational anxiety grow too extensive, the organisation becomes dysfunctional. In “mirroring and idealizing”, followers “mirror” qualities they would like to see in their leaders. Leaders may respond to this by behaving in a wanted way. This leads to a mutual admiration society, where leaders choose actions to shore up their image rather than serve the organisation’s best interest. (Kets de Vries, 2011) In “identification with the aggressor”, a follower responds to a leader’s aggressive behaviour by creating aggressive behaviour in themselves. (Kets de Vries, 2009) In the “Folie a Deux” phenomenon (or shared madness), the organisation sacrifices truth and honesty over delusional visions presented by a charismatic leader and shared by followers. These concepts and ideas have all contributed useful themes to leadership thinking. In addition to these, narcissism as a downside of leadership is discussed (Kets de Vries, 2001).

The psychodynamic approach is sometimes criticised for its negative tone when it brings the shadows of the mind into awareness. The intention of the approach is different; more likely, these are realistic descriptions of interaction in all colours. At best also, positive emotions, of course, influence and balance the organisational atmosphere, as Ojanen (2007) explains positive psychology. Tools such as “inner theatre” (McDougall, 1985) are based on Bion’s (1961) findings on group behaviour as valuable tools for examining interaction.

Trust is often mentioned as a positive leadership feature (Harisalo & Miettinen, 2010). Trust appears essential for a good organisational atmosphere and worthwhile for leaders to learn to understand as a dynamic psychodynamic goal. Dialogue (e.g. Isaacs, 1999) is a primary route to experienced trust. These concepts help renew psychodynamic thinking in leadership. In the next section, I explain through literature how trust together with dialogue can contribute to leadership development as a tool to balance psychodynamic forces.

### 2.3.10 Trust and dialogue

Harisalo & Miettinen (2010) describes well the negative community atmosphere, which is described as an undesirable state the psychodynamic approach (Kets de Vries & Cheak, 2016) “warns about” as an end result of too many individuals possessing too many emotional pathways that are considered psychodynamically negative. Therefore, when the leadership skills to be taught are considered, it is pivotal to understand what the consequences of these negative pathways are and how they can be tackled. Therefore, the leader should understand trust and mistrust as dynamic phenomena and dialogue as a way to promote movement towards positive direction i.e. trust (Harisalo & Miettinen, 2010).

Shared dialogue skills in the work community, initiated and supported by the leader, are the antidote to this negative development (Harisalo, & Miettinen, 2010). Therefore as a taught skill, dialogue skills are the most substantial part of the curriculum in this theme. They should

be understood as a tool to control the movement between trust and mistrust. This places dialogue in a greater context.

The importance of trust is also discussed by Lawler (2016), who connects trust with shorter-term relationships between employers and employees. The question is linked also to questions of individualization discussed in the section “participation”.

According to Harisalo & Miettinen (2010), mistrust as a phenomenon explains well the bigger picture of what is wrong in an organization when people experience a negative atmosphere. Arriving at this stage of mistrust is a consequence of long development, where many negative events have created the negative atmosphere as a chain reaction. Dialogue, as Isaacs (1999) has presented, is a tool to “reverse” the dynamic movement from a stage of mistrust to trust.

Harisalo & Miettinen (2010) have described how an organisation drifts in practice towards mistrust in five phases. The first and usually poorly recognized effect of mistrust is an unpleasant, difficult-to-define change in the atmosphere. It makes people insecure and makes them watch their words and actions (Harisalo & Miettinen, 2010). In the second stage, things start to become more concrete for the people, and mistrust takes on specific features. It helps people identify the causes and consequences and the people and groups behind them. Already at this point, people start avoiding each other. People who used to like each other’s company, no longer spend time together. They are careful not to talk about certain things and avoid giving advice and instructions. They distance themselves without noticing each other. In the two stages described above, mistrust is relatively invisible, hidden and at best only indicative. Because there is no information about the causes of mistrust or it is very uncertain and prone to different interpretations, distrust is difficult to intervene. Therefore, mistrust can continue to spread in the organization without anyone trying to stop it. (Harisalo & Miettinen, 2010; Bibb & Kourdi, 2004). In the third stage, mistrust starts to become visible and to be recognized. This stage is characterized by people having opposing interests and forming groups to promote them. Tensions between groups become open and the conflicts become tearing and difficult to reconcile. People are ready to criticize each other and even attack each other (Harisalo & Miettinen, 2010; Reina & Reina, 1999). In the fourth stage, mistrust has a negative effect on the people’s desire to take and bear responsibility for the management of tasks and responsibilities. It is increasingly difficult for them to perform what is entrusted to them in the form of common duties and responsibilities. More and more people feel that it is useless to put in the effort and make sacrifices, because they do not feel that they will gain from it fair attention and reward. When people notice that some manage to avoid fulfilling their responsibilities, they start to do the same. In the last stage, mistrust makes people lose their desire to solve problems and conflicts peacefully or to pursue a common interest. They stick to their own ideas, their demands and interests, and are reluctant to seek compromises. When people do not trust each other, they are reluctant to agree constructively even about trivial matters. (Harisalo & Miettinen, 2010; Reina & Reina, 1999) The last stage of the consequences of mistrust is very dramatic, because tensions and conflicts are an essential part of working communities and the reality of organizations. New conflicts that arise frequently and unintentionally deepen distrust. The drama is that unresolved conflicts can take away power and effectiveness from the management’s good efforts and development plans. (Harisalo & Miettinen, 2010; Reina & Reina, 1999; Bibb & Kourdi, 2004; Shaw, 1997).

Trust is a strong partner to interaction, since dialogue (e.g. Isaacs, 1999) is the key to move the work community from the stage of mistrust to trust. (Harisalo & Miettinen, 2010). This positive chain reaction promotes good atmosphere, wellbeing and, as a result, all managerial functions and even the economic success of an organization.

### 2.3.11 Developing leadership

Effective leadership and innovations are required and many different leadership development programmes have been developed for this purpose both by corporations and public sector agencies (Hotho & Dowling, 2010). Leadership education often leans on pedagogical solutions, seeing the participants as recipients of didactic input and pre-set pedagogy (Gherardi et al., 1998, Elkjaer, 2001; Örtenblad, 2002). However, the socio-constructivist perspective in leader education can provide theoretical foundation for the argument that leadership development programmes can become more effective if context specific dimensions are recognised as shaping and constraining factors impacting programme participants (Hotho & Dowling, 2010).

Day (2011) sees that a basic distinction has been drawn between leader development and leadership development, focusing on the development of individuals (leaders) as compared to the development of social structures and processes (Day, 2000). He calls the former a traditional approach that concentrates on building a leader's individual capabilities, and the latter is moving towards organizational development and team building (Day, 2000).

An example of a development process that encounters both views has been described by Lawler and Ford (2016). The foundation of their four stages of the practical professional development process relies on existentialism and social constructionist perspectives, which encourage us to see professional development as an individual, subjective and relational experience. Their approach takes a narrative perspective. In the narrative approach, "perspective focuses on relationships and interrelationships, on intersubjectivity as means of creating and exploring meaning within work and thus within work development." (Lawler & Ford, p. 513). By intersubjectivity, the authors refer to the sharing of impressions, feelings and views, which are subjective. According to Lawler & Ford (2016), dialogue understood as unrestricted, open interaction between people is a tool for professionals to construct narratives – their own stories. Relational dialogue enables these individual views to become shared.

Themes concerning developing leadership training in social work education are further discussed in section 2.5.3.

## 2.4 Leadership in social work

In this section, I explore what has been written about the epistemological and ontological division in leadership and move on to explain what is written about management and leadership in social work according to the literature research described in section 2.1.

### 2.4.1 Epistemological and ontological division in leadership

I believe it is wise to start examining leadership and management from their epistemological and ontological origins. I think this helps students to place different phenomena and differences between them in a bigger context to examine important concepts later in more detail.

Lawler and Bilson (2010) are widely credited for foundational texts on social work leadership. They systematise leadership approaches into four sections according to whether they are rational-objectivist or reflective-pluralist by nature and whether they emphasise an individual or an organisation. Rational-objectivist approaches assume that an external knowable and stable reality, independent of the observer and their actions, exists. The reflective-pluralist end of the continuum presumes that there are many socially constructed realities and individually perceived realities with real consequences to our actions. The nature of reality and the different views significantly differ between these two approaches. Another vital view concerns change processes in the organisation. The rational-objectivist approach considers the organisation a stable object, a machine, and the various parts can be manipulated. Achieving specific outcomes is essential. This is implemented by providing new procedures, new working practices, clear job descriptions, clear lines of accountability, etc. The orientation of the reflective-pluralist approach is towards collaboration. Change is seen as emergent and cannot be comprehensively planned (Lawler & Bilson, 2010).

Other writers have also separated the leadership phenomenon in two and described this division through ontology and epistemology.

Tienari and Meriläinen (2012) divided the leadership phenomenon into relationship-based and individual-centred perspectives. They explain that ontology is about the perception of the nature of reality. According to the perspective built on relationships, reality is open to interpretation and is built on social realities. There are many realities, and they are constantly being constructed.

According to the individual-centred perspective, only one reality is objective, permanent and independent of the researcher. Epistemology refers to the nature of knowledge. From a relationship-based perspective, knowledge is created in relationships between people. Research builds different interpretations and versions of the world. According to the individual-centred perspective, knowledge belongs to the individual and research is seen to reflect the real world. (Tienari & Meriläinen, 2012).

Social work has a strong tendency to see reality being built as socially constructed in relationships. Lawler & Bilson (2010) and Tienari & Meriläinen (2012) seem to reinforce this idea. This should help us differentiate leadership and management approaches according to their suitability for social work.

## 2.4.2 Ethics and values

Ethics and values are considered crucially important in many different contexts throughout the literature, which is why they are referred to here on a general level as introduction to these concepts, before reviewing how they are discussed in social work literature.

As mentioned in previous sections, social work is a strongly ethics-driven profession. Juujärvi, Myyry, and Pessa (2007) explain the origins and concepts concerning ethics. The root of the ethics concept is in Greek, where “ethikos” means a civil nature of mind, and “ethos”, which means commonly accepted manner or procedure. “Moral” (originates from the Latin word “mos”) is a concept related to ethics. Moral regards to the human conception of right and wrong. *Ethics* is a discipline which investigates morals, i.e. conceptions of right and wrong. Ethics is a systematic attempt to understand what is right and wrong.

Juujärvi et al. (2007) present ethical concepts such as virtue ethics (virtues as guidelines), Kantian ethics (autonomy vs paternalism), utilitarianism (quantity of service receivers and “total amount of happiness”), Ethics of care (responsibility based on agreed professional relationship), and radical social work (Juujärvi et al. 2007) vital to social work. Banks (2021) has formed four themes through which ethical dimensions can be examined through. First are individual rights and welfare, which highlight the service users’ right to make their own decisions. Secondly, ethics can be examined from the viewpoint of public welfare; the rights and interests of others than service users. Thirdly, questions of equality, diversity and structural oppression. The fourth view is the view of professional roles, boundaries and relationships which discusses what kinds of roles (counsellor, controller, assessor, ally or friend) social workers should take in particular situations.

Professional ethics means that professions share a conception of what kind of professional activity is considered good and right and what is wrong and evil (Juujärvi et al., 2007). In Finland, Talentia Union on professional Social Workers (2019), has presented a professional code of conduct. This includes basics of professional ethics, consisting of principles, as Juujärvi et al. (2007) and Banks (2021) have explained and referred to earlier in this chapter. Secondly, Talentia (2019) discusses the values of the social welfare sector, such as human dignity and human rights, respecting right to self-determination, promoting inclusion, holistic work with people’s capacities, challenging negative discrimination, recognising diversity and pluralism, equal distribution of resources, challenging unjust policies and practices, and solidarity. Thirdly, Talentia (2019) discusses ethical behaviour in professional practice, such as obstacles in ethical behaviour, ethical discretion and responsibility, interaction, power and use of compulsion, client participation, confidentiality and privacy. The fourth chapter includes themes of advocacy and employee rights, such as self-monitoring and reporting deficiencies, ethical courage and freedom of expression, digitalisation, cross-sectoral cooperation, maintaining professional skills, caring for own well-being, management, entrepreneurship and self-employment, and occupational health and safety.

Social work practice requires many ethical decisions, often daily. These ethical decision-making processes can be monitored through the ethical decision-making cycle by James Rest (1999). According to this model, ethical sensitivity is the first requirement of ethical activity; one must recognise a particular situation to require ethical consideration. A second phase, moral ethical decision making, follows this. This is followed by the third phase, ethical motivation, and the fourth, execution. Without motivation and action, even valuable attempts to solve ethical dilemmas are not rooted in real-life contexts.



The literature makes three main points regarding values. It acknowledges that values matter in leadership and starts to identify the value base of social work leadership. Key values identified are the need for an *empowering attitude* (Holosko, 2009), *acceptance of all individuals* (Peters, 2018), and *challenging injustice* (King Keenan, 2018; Healy, 2002). Lawler (2007) maintains that social work leadership is heavily influenced by a *professional code of ethics* driven by altruism rather than economics or efficiency but is also concerned about the public image. In my opinion, altruism and the protection of public image are very different motives to cherish human centred values. The former shows genuine dedication to a value base whereas the latter has an instrumental nature, where activities are made to look better than they actually are.

When leading social work, more attention should be paid to accepting all emotions (Peters, 2018; Bishop et al., 2018). Although “emotion” is not a value as such, in this context I am referring to the leader’s ability/willingness to see emotions as significant aspects of their leadership work. Specifically, not responding to recognized fear and anger leads to negative outcomes. Emotion has the potential to drive much of a person’s behaviour, and ignoring emotion, especially anger and fear, can have negative effects on worker well-being and organizational climate, and possibly on client well-being. Instead of being disregarded, emotion could be used as a tool to identify issues in practice, which could then be addressed logically and rationally. Here Peters (2018) suggests there is a significant contradiction between the values underpinning leadership in social work and the values informing leadership in for-profit business sectors. There is little evidence on which this assertion is based, however, and there may be benefits in comparing the role and value placed on emotions in social work in contrast to business where the primary focus is on making profit. In Finland, social work is done also in organisations making or aiming for profit, but these companies are required to follow the social work values as well. According to Maturana (1988), rationality in leadership is often overemphasised at the expense of emotions.

Often, when ethics and values are discussed in the context of social work leadership, they are described in the context of managerial practices in social work, where different writers have found different tensions between social work values and ethics. The findings are controversial, and there are also positive experiences regarding this area. In this section, I will provide an overview of this discussion.

Healy (2002) discusses tensions between the social work principles of social justice and the contexts of social welfare management. She has discussed threats and opportunities for progressive management practices. In her study, social justice was seen as a guiding ideal in management practice. Social justice principles were associated with a dual focus on the individual and structural contexts of social disadvantage. Consistent with current policy directions towards encouraging cross-sectoral involvement in addressing social needs (Giddens, 1999), some of her respondents sought to involve the business sector in supporting the activities of their organisations. Most of her respondents involved in medium to large organisations believed that the cooperation of the business sector, in terms of the provision of financial resources and technical knowledge such as accounting and legal information, will become increasingly crucial to the management of human services organisations in the future.

Healy (2002) names two threats her findings indicate in the context of managerial techniques. First, respondents repeatedly expressed worry about the growing constraints in

their capacity to direct organisational resources to broad and long-term change activities. According to the respondents, government contracts with welfare services were reported to focus primarily on short-term service delivery outputs.

A second central theme concerned the threats to the diversity of community service organisations. Healy quotes Nevile (1999) and states that it is commonly recognised that market reforms of the public sector confer advantages on large organisations. These organisations are more likely to have the capacity to dedicate organisational resources towards competition for funding and to offer funding bodies economies of scale in the administration of funding contracts. Those from small organisations reported pressure to expand their organisations through, for example, forming consortiums or merging with large organisations. (Healy, 2002)

Healy (2002) also reports positive views concerning managerial activities. First, the reform process has been accompanied by increased pressure on non-profits to delineate service goals and outcomes. Some respondents identified that the clarification process could improve service provision and service users' understanding of and access to services (see also Coulshed and Mullender, 2001, pp. 237–8). Additionally, the focus on clarifying services' missions and outcomes provides a base for valuing welfare services in public policy and the community more generally.

The second positive outcome is that governments' preference for awarding funding to large integrated projects rather than to single small services was seen by some as providing a positive incentive for formalising networks extant within the non-profit sector. Respondents working in various sectors, such as health, employment, and family support, used the consortium model to formalise networks with other agencies they saw as sharing a joint mission. The consortium model, whereby a range of organisations collaboratively tender and manage service contracts, was reported to provide opportunities for service organisations to achieve more significant impact than was possible for services working in isolation (Healy, 2002).

Thirdly, the respondents identified opportunities to improve service quality. In particular, some respondents had used aspects of the reform process to direct service resources towards enhancing the quality of service and, in particular, to develop the skill bases of service providers. For example, three respondents working in residential settings where few staff had formal welfare qualifications used the framework of continuous quality improvement to allocate additional resources to professional supervision and formal educational opportunities for staff. However, the capacity to redirect organisational resources in this way was dependent on a high level of financial flexibility; this was available primarily to those in medium to large organisations. Indeed, in the context of chronic underfunding, managers from small community services expressed outrage at demands from the government for increased accountability and continuous quality improvement. (Healy, 2002).

Choy-Brown, Stanhope, Wackstein & Delany Cole (2021) use recovery orientation in mental health work as an example of ethically desirable practice and see transformational leadership to promote this orientation. In their study, Choy-Brown et al. (2021) studied differences in leadership styles between leaders with social work experience and leaders from other contexts. They note that over the last 40 years, social service and health service

delivery have been shaped by a policy that privileges the privatisation of services and individual responsibility over progressive era approaches (Hasenfeld & Garrow, 2012). Choy-Brown et al. (2021) quote Abramovitz (2005) and state that leaders of human service organisations (HSO) have reported prioritisation of productivity, efficiency and cost reduction and, according to Lawler (2007), incentives to be lean, efficient and risk-averse. This context is where service delivery models have shifted to a new public management model. In this model, HSOs are required to innovate through market competition and demonstrate their impact through outcomes measurement (Mosley & Smith, 2018). In addition, arguments in support of SW leaders have stated that SW leaders bring to HSOs the necessary ethical, principled leadership style (Bliss et al., 2014), knowledge of direct practice that remains the bedrock of the profession (Brilliant, 1986), and commitment to social justice (Sullivan, 2016). Ethical leadership has been shown to translate to ethical practice (Mayer et al., 2009; Schaubroeck et al., 2012).

In Finland, Mänttari-van der Kuip (2015) has studied the well-being of front-line social workers in the age of austerity. Despite being rooted in the Nordic welfare state model, Finnish statutory social work has been successfully familiarised with market-driven public sector reforms, market-oriented practices and the implementation of NPM, experiences which have been shared around the Western world. Since the economic recession of the early 1990s, social services have been battling with increasing budget constraints, deliberate under-budgeting, and pressures to be more effective under constantly shrinking resources (Eeronen et al., 2013; Julkunen, 2001).

Hence, it is argued that the Finnish social policy paradigm has been undergoing a dramatic change, leading towards the increasing dominance of ideas of competitiveness and productivity (Kananen, 2008). The formation of larger organisations has been part of this development. The shift towards service provision by larger units has been driven, for example, through mergers of municipalities, which have radically reduced their number over the last ten years (Association of Finnish Local and Regional Authorities, 2013a).

Another way of achieving larger populations has been through service provision by joint municipal organisations. The belief that larger organisations can provide better quality services more efficiently lives on, for example, in the form of the New Municipality 2017 programme (Association of Finnish Local and Regional Authorities, 2013b). However, neither higher education nor the Nordic welfare state context seems to protect Finnish social workers from impaired work-related well-being. According to a Nordic comparative study, Finnish social workers experience higher levels of occupational stress and more frequently encounter contradictions in their work than their Nordic colleagues (Saarinen et al., 2012). This study confirms the importance of perceiving that one has the opportunity to do ethically responsible social work as a predictor of work-related well-being. Decreased opportunities to act ethically predicted worsening in work-related well-being, while increasing economic pressures were considered responsible for these deteriorating opportunities. Increasing efficiency demands predicted impaired work-related well-being directly, but also through decreasing opportunities to do ethically responsible social work. The role of budget changes in opportunities to practice according to one's professional values and predicting work-related well-being became meaningful when these were connected to decreasing opportunities to do ethically responsible social work.

Different techniques have been used to solve this tension between ethically sustainable social work and managerial approaches. One is lean management, which has been examined in health care by Ulhassan et al. (2014). The results suggest that Lean management methods may positively impact the psychosocial work environment, given that it is appropriately implemented. Also, the psychosocial work environment may even deteriorate if lean work deteriorates after implementation. Employee managers and researchers should note the importance of employee involvement in the change process. Employee involvement may minimise the intervention's harmful effects on psychosocial work factors. A multi-method may be suitable for investigating the relations between lean and psychosocial work environments.

In Finland, lean management in social care services is used with positive experiences in Espoo, as referred to in section 2.4.4. In Finland, a recent textbook by Rousu and Lanne-Eriksson (2012) emphasises the importance of financial know-how in social care organisations. They state that it is part of the leader's responsibility to understand the relationship between finances and the organisation's different activities. This rarely has to be managed alone, and leaders have different professionals from the field of economy to help them. Leaders, though, must know the basic financial concepts to communicate with professionals with economic know-how. Rousu & Lanne-Eriksson (2021) also list special features they connect to the leading social care sector. They require skills to lead in an ethically sustainable manner, following the ethical principles of social work, and acting in an ethically brave manner. Another skill mentioned is to use public funds in an ethically sustainable manner.

To conclude, the tension between managerial techniques to run social work services and guard social work's ethical conduct is present firmly in the literature. Transformational leadership has been found helpful in maintaining an atmosphere, for example, in the successful execution of recovery orientation. Lean techniques have been useful tools when they are used in a manner that involves participating employees. Workers face ethical challenges and experience problems in work well-being when meeting the extreme challenges of austerity. Long-term plans are difficult to conduct, and the diversity of organisations needs to improve; hence, smaller organisations lose market competition to bigger ones. The positive side may be that smaller organisations form consortiums that share their values to meet financial demands. Quality might be improved if the skills of the workers were increased to meet the requirements set by the competitive environment.

### 2.4.3 Context: Business orientated discussion in social work leadership

In the previous section, ethical challenges connected to business orientated techniques were referred to. In this section, I will further open up the role of business orientated discussion. One great discourse in the social care leadership discussion regards the tension between the public and private sectors, i.e. whether ethically sensitive social work can be based on economically driven management principles. The category “business orientated discussion in social work leadership” includes themes around this discussion.

Lawler (2007) quotes Langan (2000), who argues that introducing managerialism in the public sector was a key to modernising public services. The goal was to make services more accountable, transparent and flexible. Within social services, there are restrictions on the usability of business-based models—these conflict with user involvement and quality management in social services. Lawler (2007) concludes that the initial focus on management for greater organisational effectiveness is followed by a realisation that management alone cannot promote effectiveness. Leadership is a potential means of promoting effectiveness and other organisational qualities, such as flexibility and creativity.

Managerialism has led to many changes in how social work is constructed. For example, this shows that social workers are care managers rather than deliverers of social work services (Harris, 2003). There is a culture change where the concepts of competition, quality, value for money, and choice become central in delivering services.

Healy (2002) argues that social work values may counter managerial reforms in social work. She worries that increasing managerialism might jeopardise the role of human service values. This shift in value could lead to a situation in which there is an underrepresentation of social workers in managerial positions. She sees the challenge in promoting humanitarian values and recognising the complexities of human welfare services in a managerial and inter-professional climate.

Peters (2018) refers to writers such as Lawler and Bilson (2010), Ruch (2012) and Fawcett (1999) and states that social work leadership employs theories and models which were developed for corporate and military entities which have different goals and processes than social work organisations (Lawler & Bilson, 2010). Peters (2018) sees a further conflict between social work leadership and for-profit business models. Hence social work is to increase human and community well-being instead of profit.

According to Pekkarinen (2010), New Public Management (NPM) is still seeking its place and justifications in European social work leadership. NPM has been strongly connected to new liberalistic financial theories, which aim for effectiveness, competition based on the free market, and cutting costs (Lumijärvi & Jylhäsaari, 2000; Pollitt, 2003). Pekkarinen (2010) summarises well the worries connected to New Public Management in social work management and leadership functions. NPM adds pressure to lead in a financially effective manner. In the worst case, this could lead to conflicts between leaders and their subordinates (Farrell & Morris, 2003) and individualising problems (Andersen, 2005). Harlow (2003) worries that NPM development could lose the social work case-work ideology; when encountering the client, the inner world and emotions would be left out of the client-worker relationship. According to Regehr (2002), nearly half of the leaders reported symptoms of post-traumatic stress reaction. They felt that stress was rooted in financial demands experienced too strictly alongside the emotional workload.

Different European studies show different attitudes towards NPM-rooted processes. Lombardero Posada et al. (2022) studied job satisfaction and work meaningfulness among social workers in public, third-sector, and private organisations. They see that work circumstances caused by neoliberal policies have caused particularly workers in private and third sectors to change vacancies to the governmental sector where there are fewer neoliberal features. Djupvik et al. (2021) have compared the attitudes of Welsh and Norwegian Child Protection Social Workers. They found that Welsh workers spend much more time on managerial office duties than their Norwegian colleagues, who had more time working with clients in their natural environment. The Welsh respondents should have reported managerial duties lessening their job satisfaction. In this regard, we may speculate that (a) professional autonomy exists in Wales to the extent that it makes practice meaningful and intrinsically rewarding, and (b) professional autonomy is not the sole or necessarily major determinant of how workers view their activities as meaningful and intrinsically rewarding. Thus, while features of NPM appear prominent in the Welsh context, this has not revealed itself in the workers' dissatisfaction.

Johansson (2019) has developed an evidence-based practice in Swedish social work and sees New Public Governance (NPG) as an alternative to NPM. In contrast to governance by mistrust, control, and NPM, trust-based governance is connected to the paradigm of New Public Governance (Øllgaard Bentzen, 2016), where the governing of public organisations is based on mutual trust between politicians, managers, and street-level professionals (Lipsky, 1980).

#### 2.4.4 Context: Interdisciplinary and multi-agency working

An often-mentioned and widely discussed theme was leading interdisciplinary work. (Bishop, 2018; King Keenan, 2018; Edmonstone, 2020; Reeves et al., 2010; McCray & Palmer, 2014; Healy, 2002; Smith et al., 2018; Peters, 2018). The category "Interdisciplinary and multi-agency working" presents literature findings in this area, interdisciplinary work, and interactive functions and phenomena around this subject. The terms relate to collaboration between professionals from different backgrounds. This theme does not directly indicate how leadership should be done in social work. However, since it is repeatedly discussed in the social work leadership literature, it should be covered here as a significant context leadership operates in. Jensenius summarizes the differences between disciplines, referring to Marilyn Stember's 1991 paper 'Advancing the social sciences through the interdisciplinary enterprise'. In an intradisciplinary setting, people work within a single discipline. Multidisciplinary work is in question when people from different disciplines work together, each drawing on their disciplinary knowledge. In cross-disciplinary work, workers view one discipline from the perspective of another. Interdisciplinary working means integrating knowledge and methods from different disciplines, using a natural synthesis of approaches. On a transdisciplinary level, the target is creating a unity of intellectual frameworks beyond the disciplinary perspectives. This means that knowledge from different disciplines forms synthesis and creates new frameworks for social work practice.

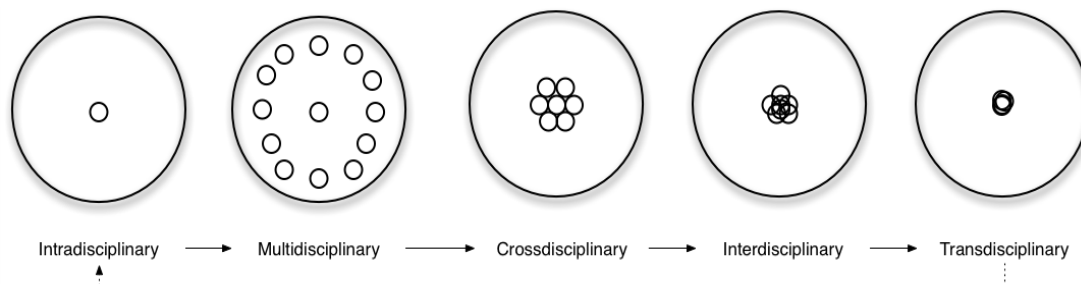


Figure 2: Stages of professional cooperation (Jenselius 2012; Zeigler 1990).

Overlapping terminology may need to be clarified. I have referred to the term the original writer in each source has referred to. I have used the term “interdisciplinary” throughout the thesis. There is a difference between these forms in the depth of the level of cooperation.

For example, Alajoutsijärvi (2015) argues that the interprofessional approach is essential in social care leadership development. Pekkarinen (2010) uses the term multiprofessionalism. In their paper, McCray & Palmer (2014) also discuss interprofessional settings in education and training routes. When I discuss these themes later in this study, I use the terms I deem relevant to the context depending on whether the synthesis of different disciplines exists.

The focus in this context goes beyond personal behavioural style or competencies but is on corporate relations, connectedness, interventions into the organization system, and changing organization practices and processes (Turnball, 2011).

Lawler (2007) quotes Mizrahi and Rosenthal (2001) to stress the potential value of the social work perspective for leading interdisciplinary activities. According to them, social work must be promoted as a critical element of interdisciplinary service. They find social work professionals leading inter-professional coalitions effective. They see that social care professionals understand the complexities of diverse needs and therefore are in an excellent position to lead multi-professional teams. Bisman (2004) finds strengths in social care professionals similar to those of leaders of inter-professional work because of their vital concern for human dignity and concern.

Peters (2018) states that integrating diverse experiences is one of the underlying discourses essential to social care leadership.

Not all voices in the inter-professional leadership discussion favour social care professionals being the best practitioners in leading multi-professional work. Lawler (2007) quotes Mohan (2002), who sees there needs to be adequate social work leadership both within professional and inter-professional contexts. He sees that social work even deludes itself in believing the profession takes the lead in welfare.

#### 2.4.5 Leadership approaches

Much of the discussion around leadership approaches in social work leadership literature connects to change and participatory elements in leadership. Including many groups as practitioners and service users in the decision-making process connects staff, leaders and clients in leadership activities. A lot of the literature describes the dynamic movement of change; leaders should encourage changes and create cultural shifts to increase autonomy and collaborative working styles (Peters, 2018; McCray & Palmer, 2014). In this section, I discuss transformational leadership, participatory leadership, compassionate leadership, servant leadership, and evidence-based practice/knowledge management. Later in the discussion chapter, I analyse these relationships in relation to other relevant phenomena.

##### *Transformational leadership*

Transformational leadership is widely discussed in social care leadership literature. Choy-Brown et al. (2020) have studied preferred leadership styles in social work. Their results indicate that social workers score high on elements of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership has the characteristics of individual influence, spiritual encouragement, and intellectual stimulation. They often consider individuals, establish a vision and aim inside, create an open culture, trust the staff to reach their goals, and give full play for their potential (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014.) Transformational leadership concentrates on the development of followers and their needs. According to Bass (1997), transformational leadership aims to “transform” people – to alter them in the mind and heart, enlarge vision, insight and understanding, clarify reasons, make behaviour congruent with values and concepts, and bring about permanent, self-perpetuating, and momentum-building changes. According to Bass and Avolio (1993), transformational leadership happens when leaders uphold the interests of the employees once they generate awareness and acceptance for the purpose and assignment of the group, so they blend employees to appear beyond their self-interest for the group’s good. They identify four components representing the concept of transformational leadership: idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individual consideration.

Conger & Canungo (1998) name elements that have been recognised to be markers of transformational leadership. These are influencing followers, establishing a vision for a better future, leading by example and role modelling, inspiring the followers as opposed to controlling them, contributing to employees’ intellectual stimulation, enhancing meaningfulness of goals and behaviours, fulfilling employees’ needs for self-actualisation, empowering and motivating, exhibiting subordinates’ ability to reach higher levels of achievement, and enhancing a collective identity.

Tafvelin, Hyvönen & Westerberg (2014) have studied the effectiveness of transformational leadership in social work. Their findings support the view that the transformational leadership style positively affects both workers’ role clarity and commitment. Two attributes were essential; time spent with the leader and co-worker support. They see this model as particularly helpful in times of change.

Djourova et al. (2020) found that two transformational leadership dimensions, inspirational motivation and individualised concentration, affect workers’ self-efficacy, so the correlation



is negative in the latter case. Inspirational motivation is defined by precise, positive and productive communication with followers, through which the leader can clarify the roles of followers and therefore allow them to estimate better what is expected from them. Individualised concentration could negatively influence self-efficacy by enhancing dependency on the leader.

Park & Pierce (2020) have researched the relationship between child welfare workers suffering from secondary traumatic stress (STS) and turnover intentions. They found that followers whose leaders had adopted a transformative leadership style were less likely to leave their jobs. Fisher (2013) has researched the presence of transformative leadership in third-sector organisations and found that leaders in these rank high in all four dimensions identified by Bass and Avolio (1993).

Lawler (2007) discusses transformational leadership more critically when he analyses Gellis' (2001) views. Gellis (2001) argues that transformational leadership positively impacts effectiveness and satisfaction. Lawler quotes Mizrahi & Berger (2005) and Pearlmutter (1998) when he states that additional skills, such as developing strategy and self-support, are needed as well in order to become an effective leader. Here Lawler's (2007) view supports Pekkarinen's (2010) view on the importance of strategic leadership.

Peters (2018) criticises transformational leadership as well. Transformational leadership (Elpers & Westhuis, 2008; Gellis, 2001; Mary, 2005; Tafvelin et al., 2014) is known to be successful in business leadership. Peters refers to Lawler (2007) when he states that due to the history of white male militaristic tradition and strict hierarchies, problems may occur when these are applied to social care leadership. This is problematic because the culture of competition and defeat is respected over collaboration and empowerment (Peters, 2018).

Tham & Strömberg (2020) have found in their study that transformational leadership is a desirable leadership style in social work practice. However, in real life, there is a conflict between social workers' expectations and the organisation's demands. Instead of transformational leadership, organisational requirements are seen to push them towards a transactional style, a role characterised by control and authority where quantitative measuring and monitoring are expected.

### *Participatory Approaches to Leadership*

One notable discourse in the social work leadership literature involves participation. Vito (2020) has discussed participatory vs directive approaches in social work leadership.

In the participative leadership approach, decision making is pushed closer to the people it concerns. This style works best in flat organisations, where there is a less bureaucratic hierarchy. Three agencies she studied favoured participatory leadership approaches, and both parts drifted towards situational leadership and a directive decision-making style (Vito, 2020).

Scourfield (2020) discusses "collective leadership", an advised leadership style in English social work since 2018. He maintains that social work leadership needs to be more adequately defined. He finds it problematic to follow the principles of collective leadership due to the need for more definitions of such a style. He also raises a critical question on who should be involved in collective leadership. Workers with no leadership position or service

users participating in decision making should be carefully considered to ensure everything is clear.

Hafford-Letchfield, Lambley, Spolander & Cocker (2014a) discuss the development of participatory approaches across social care. This approach has challenged practitioners to think about a new way in which service users can be included in co-designing, commissioning and delivering services. The SCIE study (2005) suggests the need to include service users is inevitable to harness the expertise and knowledge of service users to learn about safeguarding incidents and improve the systems that protect vulnerable children.

Bromark et al. (2022) write about practitioner participation in social work and the contradiction experienced in this. User involvement promotes inclusion and participation. However, practitioners expressed frustration that the nature of their work was attuned to user participation. They felt there needed to be more clarity between the authoritative nature of laws and regulations governing social services and the need to comply with the users' needs.

Sullivan (2016) presents client-centred leadership as a suitable leadership style for social work. He sees that historical development has moved social work from purely philanthropic agencies to bureaucratic ones. As a result of this, social work has, in some cases, strayed from its mission. Sullivan (2016) sees client-centred leadership as being faithful to the cardinal values of social work and reflects a more excellent social environment toward consumer empowerment. With a strong focus and service recipients, the client-centred leadership model is aligned with strength-based and recovery-based practice. Committing to an "extended table" means bringing the service receivers to the discussion at a minimum. It also involves going beyond traditional borders involving politicians, businesses, and other individuals who can make a difference in the lives of those we serve.

Lawler & Bilson (2010) see distributed leadership as a function distributed between individual members of the work community rather than being concentrated to one manager or leader. They refer to Ancona et al. as they see that it is impossible for one individual to possess all qualities needed for effective leadership in any organisation. The key elements or four capabilities for distributed approach are sensemaking (understanding the context), relating (building relationships), visioning (establishing picture of future), and inventing (finding new ways to reach this vision). Lawler & Bilson (2010) also refer to Spillane (2006) who has established three dimensions distributed leadership can be examined through. In the collaborative form, people are working together largely in the same space and time; in the collective form, separate individuals work independently yet inter-dependently; and in the coordinated form, interdependency and the need for sequencing or organisation is recognised. Raelin (2003) sees four traditions in distributed leadership: concurrent, collective, collaborative and compassionate.

There is a recognised tension between distributed leadership and individualism. Individualism is seen as a trademark of modern society (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim 2002; Bauman 2000), and neo-liberal governmental policies support the development of individualism (Newman et al. 2008).

Juuti (2013) has a view on why distributed leadership might fail when not understood well enough. He finds that distributed leadership consist of three elements which all have to be strongly present in leadership practices. These are goal orientation, symbolism and

discussion. All these need to be equally strong, and they have to interact with one another. Goal orientation refers to the traditional elements of strategy and strategic work. Discussion here means that interaction is based on the emotional processes of participants. Symbolism refers to a process where interaction creates different emotions. These interaction related processes relate to one another in an invisible way. They either strengthen or weaken one another. Characteristically in symbolism, there is a great amount of emotional phenomena created by relatively small amounts of clearly expressed information. The unconscious code of behaviour is learned in childhood and it directs our interaction on a symbolic level.

### *Servant leadership*

Servant leadership is one of the approaches found suitable for social work leadership. According to Winston & Fields (2015), servant leaders are perceived as motivating and mentoring individuals to self-actualise by working for the organisation's greater good. Servant leaders are thought to be able to form reciprocal relationships that form a good fit between the leader and employee, which will then promote organisational stability (Peterlin, Pearse & Dimovski, 2015; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Winston & Fields, 2015; Schein, 2009). Servant leadership has been compared to transformational leadership but extends an added dimension of service for the overall good of the people who work in the organisation and the good it serves (Brown et al., 2005; Spears & Greenleaf, 2002; Peterlin et al., 2015).

Marmo & Berkman (2018) studied job satisfaction among hospice workers in an organisation where the servant leadership style was favoured. Satisfaction was examined as intrinsic (recognition, feelings, accomplishment, responsibility, perception of value, perceptions of shared values between co-workers and leaders) and extrinsic (job security, salary, working conditions and work relationships). According to their findings, servant leadership as a style positively impacts worker job satisfaction on intrinsic and extrinsic levels.

### *Compassionate leadership*

Schaub, Hewison, Haworth & Miller (2022) suggest "compassionate leadership" as a well-suited approach to social work leadership. The model has been adopted from the field of health care. Two models for compassionate leadership have been proposed. The first was created by identifying the elements of compassion and applying them as four components of compassionate leadership that enable innovation and problem-solving: attending, understanding, empathising, and helping (West, Eckert, Collin & Chowla, 2017). The second is the European model, which combines compassionate leadership with cultural competence. It focuses on the basic principles, values and skills that a healthcare leader should have as a role model for staff in delivering compassionate and culturally competent care (Kouta et al., 2019).

West et al. (2017) and West & Chowla (2017) name the four elements of compassionate leadership: "attending", "understanding", "empathising", and "helping". These suggest that social work leadership can be compassionate through listening to others, understanding, attempting to find commonality, acknowledging others' pain and difficulty, and trying to help to improve the situation.

## 2.4.6 Management approaches

In this section, I present literature findings describing management in the context of social work. Two categories, knowledge management/evidence-based practice and strategic management, describe how the processes relate to reliable knowledge and the significance of strategy in social work. When describing this area, I follow the social work literature, and use the terms management and leadership interchangeably. Particularly in the Finnish language, as noted in the introduction, these terms are similar in many sources.

### *Knowledge management and evidence-based practice*

Social work management processes should be established on knowledge. (Colnar & Dimovski, 2020; Colnar, Dimovski & Bogataj, 2019). Writers define *knowledge management* as a managerial activity that develops, stores, transfers and implements knowledge. It aims to equip employees with real-time information to appropriately make decisions that will allow them to successfully meet organisational goals (Hicks, Dattero & Galup, 2006). Knowledge management can help organise work in compelling ways, in particular, on how workers organise in more effective ways (Kahn, 1993). There are good experiences of this from the public sector (Henttonen, Kianto & Ritala, 2016). Evidence-based practice (Ekeland et al., 2019) also believes that social work practice should be based on knowledge, i.e. science.

Rousu (2021) sees that meeting client needs in an responsible manner requires good commandment of economy. Finances and economy have to be managed and lead, and this should be based on evidence. In Finland, Sitra (The Finnish Innovation Fund) has developed a model for evidence based practice to support strategic decision making. The model's perspectives include forecasting the demand for future well-being services, customer analysis, and the quality, targeting, and effectiveness of the services produced using current resources. By taking into account the demand for future welfare services, the model is used to simulate future changes in the supply of services and the service network.

### *Strategic management and commissioning*

According to Pekkarinen (2010), strategic management is a recurrent focus in social work leadership. Johnson et al. (2014) describe *strategy* as the long-term direction of an organisation.

Creating a strategy is often a leadership task in an organisation. Strategy often includes managerial tasks, which makes strategy a management task. Strategy defines organisational goals and direction. Naturally, leadership decision making is needed to form a strategy, but the commitment of the whole work community is needed for successful outcomes. Strategical leadership directs the development of workers' competencies, and therefore, strategical leadership is also part of human resources management (Ollila, 2006; Seeck, 2012; Huotari, 2009).

Field et al. (2020) write that leaders are being strategic when they try to make sense of the current and future operating environment. Leaders identify opportunities and threats and respond to them. Current operations must be critically reflected and fitted to the environment. Leaders must always consider the assets and actions of people and

communities alongside organisations as co-producers and outcomes. Leaders must ensure a “golden thread” exists between vision, long-term objectives and short-term goals. We need to invest energy in understanding how things work. Leaders must improve operations over time by building effective collaborations with people, communities and other organisations that make the best use of the combined assets. Leaders should engage with people, partner agencies and communities to define the wider picture and what the organisation will contribute to co-produce an agreed set of outcomes.

Alongside strategy, Field & Miller (2020) discuss commissioning and planning in a social work context and see these as equally important. *Commissioning* is a relatively new, widespread and rapidly developing process adopted by much of the public sector. There is no single definition of commissioning; the Department for Communities and Local Government defines it as “the means to secure the best value and deliver the positive outcomes that meet the needs of citizens, communities and service users”.

When commissioning is done well, it differs from traditional practices in many ways. Traditionally the focus is on objectives, whereas successful commissioning focuses on outcomes, estimating what is desired for individuals and communities. Services, activities and supports should be remodelled for people, communities and practitioners to the best of their assets to deliver improved outcomes jointly. In commissioning, it is essential to see that we, in addition to service delivery, shift citizen behaviour to eliminate, delay or reduce the need for traditional public services, collaborate with other agencies to provide services which are integrated, influence non-contracted businesses, and that voluntary and community groups work in ways to help achieve social outcomes and help communities to identify and use the assets they control, the priorities they seek and actions they may wish to consider.

Field et al. (2020) define planning as “the process by which a desired future state is conceived and an effective way of delivering that developed and resourced”. *Planning* is a conception process that seeks to ensure the desired future state is delivered. Organisational planning should be integral to performance management and flow from strategic thinking. Organisations practising assets-based commissioning will ensure that people have an equal say in the planning process’s design and as contributors and decision-makers.

## 2.5 Discussion and the need for a social work leadership curriculum

To explore the implications of this review of social work leadership literature for future research and curriculum development, this section discusses the connections between themes I have discovered in the social work literature and the broader literature on leadership and pedagogy. Here, and at the end of this chapter, I reflect on how this literature contributes to understanding social work leadership.

### 2.5.1 Connections with broader leadership literature

The review of literature above suggests that some parts of the social work leadership literature are difficult to compare to the business management leadership literature. Whereas business management literature discusses leadership and management from the viewpoint of approaches and styles, social work leadership literature also discusses themes like contexts, such as interdisciplinary teams and leading these. The importance of professional values attached to leadership and management practices is frequently referred to as well. As I referred to in the description of the data selection, I have formed these categories following the same kind of logic as I have used in content analysis (Kylmä & Juvakka, 2007; Hirsjärvi et al., 2009). I have not used similar preciseness in the process of concentrating the material into smaller, understandable components as I have with data as I explain in the “Methodology” chapter, but thematised the articles according to the meaning attached to their content. This division of topics into values, interdisciplinary work, business context and leadership approaches and styles seemed clear and justified for me since it describes the important contexts of social work leadership (interdisciplinary work and tensions related to managerialism and leadership approaches and style). Separating the latter context (approaches and styles) makes it possible to examine how social work leadership is similar or different to “generic leadership” i.e. leadership and management themes presented mostly in the business management tradition. When social work leadership literature discusses values and business context, it is a value based discussion rather than an analysis of leadership. Many writers, including Sullivan (2016) and Satka (1995), have described the journey of social work from philanthropy to the profession (or semi-profession, as discussed earlier). Sullivan (2016) also states that people often hold leadership positions in social work with a professional background in disciplines other than social work. When social work leadership researchers discuss values and interdisciplinary work, they also describe elements necessary for successful social work leadership regardless of approach. For historical reasons, social work has had to defend its position in the professional world. This has resulted in professional/semi-professional inward facing discussions. A further reason, in my opinion, might be gender. Women dominate social work positions, and the position of women being the oppressed gender compared to the male gender in the patriarchal culture may have affected this question, particularly in the past. The writings of Bilson & Lawler (2010) and Rodriguez et al. (2023) also point to this direction.

Discussions concerning values and interdisciplinary work remain essential. More than descriptions of management and leadership, values are like lenses to examine social work leadership. The attitude atmosphere in Europe and Finland is more polarised than before. My own view from following the discussion in the media is that right-wing thinking alien to social work values has increased, but on the other hand, values standing for human rights and social justice (social work values) are more supported and more under discussion. When writing this thesis, Finland goes through a sad case of the newly elected Treasury

minister Riikka Purra having been discovered to write racist blog writings in the past. She is now being pressed to resign by many fellow politicians and a petition signed by over 120,000 citizens. Interdisciplinary work and assuring it through leadership is a quality factor in social work practice since multiple client problems require attention from several professions simultaneously.

It is most beneficial to examine social work leadership through leadership styles. This makes it easier to compare earlier writings about management and leadership in a generic context. When the leadership styles reported in studies as suitable for social work leadership are examined more closely, specific themes become visible and are repeated. Good social work leadership is about supporting a social worker's professional growth and development. This is particularly well present in the transformative leadership style. This growth can be achieved through a good relationship between the leader and the follower, as expressed in service leadership.

Good social work leadership is built upon cultivating positive emotional behaviour on individual and organisational levels. These are manifested most strongly in compassionate leadership and also in transformational leadership in the form of trust and the creation of open culture. Positive emotions should also extend to a unique social environment and networks around the organisation.

Good social work recognises the need to include service users in decision making; therefore, this question strongly connects to leadership. It should carefully considered which areas suit shared leadership with service users according to legislative restrictions connected to social work core tasks. Good social work has strategic objectives. The work conducted and led is evidence-based.

### 2.5.2 Social work leadership: the particular context in Finland

In the Finnish context, transformative leadership has been viewed as the preferable leadership style (Pekkarinen, 2010; Alajoutsijärvi, 2015) and, in line with Lawler (2007), these authors stress the importance of strategic leadership. The need for this leadership style and strategic focus in Finland may relate to context.

Vuokko Niiranen, Seppänen-Järvelä, Sinkkonen, and Vartiainen (2010) studied problems, procedures and principles in social care leadership in Finland. Niiranen (2002) discussed the complex relationship between social care leadership and political decision-making mechanisms, where social work, at the same time, takes instructions from societal decision making and influences this system.

Aaltonen's dissertation (1999) studied social care leadership from the viewpoint of staff, clients, organisational changes, and leadership roles. She concludes that features of scientific management, democracy theory and management by results are strongly present in social care leadership in Finland.

In the discussion on New Public Management (NPM), which has been an increasing focus in Finland for the past 20 years (Tammelin & Mänttari-van der Kuip, 2022), Finns were found to respond to changes of increasing managerialism in a more neutral manner than in Great Britain (Haverinen, 2000). Especially women in middle management reported that New Public Management principles increased their professional expertise in other areas besides

social work. New Public Management was better accepted for use in organisations, where it was introduced in dialogue with leaders and followers and explained to aim towards a shared vision following the principles of democratic leadership (Connolly & Jones, 2003; Dickinson et al., 2007; Ackroyd et al., 2007). In the Finnish discussion, the importance of carefully considering the suitability of NPM for ethical reasons was also discussed (Pekkarinen, 2010). The question of attitude around this subject is controversial. A recent study from Tammelin & Mänttari-van der Kuip (2021) shows that Finnish social workers experience powerlessness and meaninglessness because of the execution of NPM. Many experience occupational and moral distress and even burnout in reconciling their professional ideals with organisational demands and statutory requirements (Mänttari-van der Kuip, 2015).

Statements in this section direct me to examine the literature review findings as a bigger entity than as an execution of one selected style or approach or ruling out any views. Looking at managerial practices integratively alongside ethics seems valuable. This connects also to strategy, since the desired outcomes set the scale to the processes (often managerial) we choose to achieve the outcomes.

### 2.5.3 Learning about social work leadership in Finland

Reikko, Salonen and Uusitalo (2010) have directed their attention towards the front-line management role; the study aims to locate roles and positions in changing organisations. According to their results, front-line management has become more demanding, and tasks and responsibilities delegated to front-line managers are increasing. The Ministry of Education in Finland (2003) has also outlined that there needs to be more interdisciplinary leadership education in social and health care education, and its quality needs to be improved, reflected by the increasing needs of working life.

The question, then, is how leadership might be learned. Alajoutsijärvi (2015) writes about the importance of experience and both clients and elderly workers as sources of tacit knowledge in a leadership context. I consider the role of experiential knowledge pivotal in curriculum planning. Therefore pedagogical measures should allow room and provide tools for experiential knowledge alongside traditional theoretical knowhow. When social care leadership is discussed at the general level through desirable paradigms, styles and integration of these, we should remember that leaders (like all people) base their solutions on theoretical and experimental knowledge. Even if two leaders in the same social care organisation share the same social care ethics, commonly agreed leadership philosophies, financial know-how etc., their leadership behaviour is affected by their experiences and personality, which draws from many other influences outside the social care profession. In addition to acknowledging that social care leadership and its elements need to be strengthened, we need to know how leadership competence shows and develops in a single leader. Education- and leading theories have been criticised for not meeting expectations. It is expected that behaviour stays the same no matter how people are brought up, led or what kind of information they are provided with. New knowledge does not seem to change behaviour (Keski-Luopa, 2011).

Learning is seen as a deepening and continuing process. There are two dimensions in learning: conscious and subconscious understanding. Personal experience is a base for later learning. Critical reflection and observation lead to testing experiences and conclusions on theories in practice (Kupias, 2001).



Here the work of Argyris & Schön (1974) is useful because it helps to highlight the distinction between what they call *espoused theory* and *theory-in-use*. Espoused theory refers to values and worldviews people believe guide their behaviours and to subconscious elements of what is learned. Theory-in-use, in contrast, refers to the worldview and values reflected in people's behaviours and actions, it is established from what we learn and experience and may contradict espoused theories (Argyris & Schön (1974)). In professional situations, workers rarely repeat what they have learned as such. Professional activities and choices are affected by personal experiences and those of others. People are often unaware of the values that guide their behaviour. Argyris and Schön (1974) point out that if people are unaware of their theories-in-use driving their actions, they may not effectively manage their behaviours.

Making theory-in-use more apparent helps to ensure that we do not choose to only engage with information which suits and reinforces existing information (Keski-Luopa, 2011). This has implications for pedagogical situations. , Argyris & Schön (1974) show that people intuitively utilise their experience and generalise different views into a functional thinking scheme. So, when people are learning about leadership, they are constructing a scheme of coherent personal view of leadership, called "leadership identity". So when students are expanding their own leadership identity, they have to be encouraged to both reflect on the unconscious aspects of their theory in use, and to engage with broader knowledge on different aspects of leadership.

There are successful examples of the use of critical reflection to raise social workers' awareness of the gap between their espoused theories and on the basis of their newly gained awareness to develop alternative strategies and approaches. In their study, Savaya & Gardner (2012) studied with case writing tasks given to social work students, how they have experienced meaningful professional cases in the beginning and how their activities might have differed from this first view (espoused theory). Writing processes were reflected in groups to find new models of practice.

The key is understanding what kind of meaning one relates to new information. If information is not attractive, it has no or little meaning. It must be understood to be used. If a learner thinks information is essential but does not fully understand it, they imitate the activities of others, and activities lack real significance. We often rely on our previous conceptions and experiences and must realise we are doing so. Our observation is selective. We seek information that suits the existing and disregard information we do not understand. We are unwilling to change this theory if it works and protect it from changes. New and controversial information shakes our identity. Therefore, selective observation is natural. (Keski-Luopa, 2011).

As stated, theories-in-use are mostly unconscious. By becoming aware of the unconscious factors influencing decision making with the help of pedagogical processes such as critical reflection (Savaya & Gardner, 2012), one can estimate one's own conception of leadership. One's theory-in-use can only be changed or formed if new arguments are better than the previous ones (Keski-Luopa, 2011). This view connected to the unresolved tension between managerialism and ethical values in social work is interesting. What is desirable financial know-how in social care organisations? Even more importantly, how is it "marketed" in the social care leadership organisation so that ethical demands are not compromised too much and harmful resistance in staff is avoided? Here Keski-Luopa's (2011) view on conflicts and

dialogue as resolvers present to me as necessary leadership tools alongside theories in social care leadership literature.

Vito & Schmidt Hanbidge (2021) highlight the importance of well-trained social work graduate students to become supervisors and leaders in the future. They remind that core social work values and ethics cannot be overstated in social work leadership training. Future social work supervisors and leaders need to know how to successfully lead diverse organizations, support interdisciplinary teams, maintain their own and staff wellness and quality client services, and advocate and collaborate with external stakeholders, government funders, and policymakers to preserve the fundamental social justice mission of social work with marginalized populations. Allain et al. (2023) also suggest that social work leadership education should utilise interdisciplinary teams also beyond social work and cooperate with business management teaching as well.

#### 2.5.4 Themes and gaps in the literature review

As shown in the literature review, and reinforced by these challenging contexts in Finland, social work leadership must address a wider range of tasks and operate in complex contexts. I suggest that there are other relevant phenomena, which, together with the findings from this review, may contribute to the development of understanding social work leadership, so that it might be more readily taught. In this section, I will first discuss approaches to leadership and then move on to specified gaps of business rooted strategies in social work, clarification of participatory approaches, and development of interdisciplinary practices.

##### *Themes and approaches to social work leadership*

As referred to in this literature review, it seems that the themes of values (Holosko, 2009; Peters, 2018; King Keenan et al., 2018; Healy, 2002; Lawler; 2007; Bishop, 2018), servant leadership (Winston & Fields, 2015; Peterlin, Pearse & Dimovski, 2015; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Brown et al., 2005; Spears & Greenleaf, 2002; Peterlin et al., 2015; Marmo & Berkman, 2018) and compassionate leadership (Schaub et al., 2022 ; West et al., 2017; Kouta et al., 2019; West & Chowla, 2017) are well balanced, and there is undisputed understanding that these themes and approaches are suitable to social work leadership. Strategical management and leading with knowledge seem well reported and unanimous (Colnar & Dimovski, 2020; Colnar, Dimovski & Bogataj, 2019; Hick et al., 2006; Kahn, 1993; Henttonen et al., 2016; Ekeland et al., 2019; Pekkarinen, 2010; Johnson et al., 2014; Byars, 1992; Ollila, 2006; Seeck, 2012; Huotari, 2009; Field, 2020; Field & Miller, 2020).

Distributed leadership and other participatory approaches form their own section in this section, which I will refer to later.

Transformational leadership was the most discussed approach in the social work leadership research literature. There were many writings which saw transformative leadership as a favourable approach to social work leadership (Choy-Brown et al., 2020; Nanjandeswaraswamy, 2014; Bass, 1997; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Conger & Caningo, 1998; Tafvelin et al., 2014; Djourova et al., 2020; Park & Perce, 2020; Gellis, 2001; Mary, 2005; Tham & Strömberg, 2020; Mizrahi & Berger, 2005; Pearlmutter, 1998) and voices which were more careful when suitability was considered (Lawler, 2007; Peters, 2018) regarding the business rooted connotation and detachment from strategic thinking. The four “Is” –

idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1993) – resemble empowerment and are practices we put into action with our social work clients. This is in line with our professional ethics. This also follows the principles of the innovation paradigm, considered the contemporary leadership paradigm.

Social workers are trained to establish an empowering attitude towards their clients. I believe this same empowering approach is likely between social work leaders and followers. I suggest that this is a professional ethos that we would like to see good and fair human behaviour in any human interaction. Empowering behaviour is built into the social work core task. The empowering attitude is strongly present in the principles of transformative leadership. As workers, we train and coach our clients to reach their best potential, grow and exceed expectations. As leaders, we are likely to follow these same principles.

There are, however, a few contradictions concerning this leadership approach as well. Djourova et al. (2020) found that individualised concentration could negatively influence self-efficacy by enhancing dependency on the leader. Lawler quotes Mizrahi & Berger (2005) and Pearlmuter (1998) and reminds us that more than the transformative approach is needed. Additional skills such as developing strategy and self-support are needed as well in order to become an effective leader. Peters (2018) criticises transformational leadership as well. The approach (Elpers & Westhuis, 2008; Gellis, 2001; Mary, 2005; Tafvelin et al., 2014) is successful in business leadership. Peters refers to Lawler (2007) in the history of white male militaristic tradition and strict hierarchies; problems may occur when these are applied to social care leadership. This is problematic because the culture of competition and defeat is respected over collaboration and empowerment (Peters, 2018). Tham & Strömberg (20120) find that there is a conflict between social workers' expectations and the organisation's demands in real life. Instead of transformational leadership, organisational requirements are seen to push them towards a transactional style, a role characterised by control and authority where quantitative measuring and monitoring are expected.

Servant leadership is one of the approaches found suitable for social work leadership. According to Winston & Fields (2015), servant leaders are perceived as motivating and mentoring individuals to self-actualise by working for the organisation's greater good. Schaub et al. (2022) suggest "compassionate leadership" as a well-suited approach to social work leadership. The model has been adopted from the field of health care.

Strategic management is a recurrent focus in social work leadership. As stated, *strategy* is defined as being "the long-term direction of an organisation" (Johnson et al., 2014). Byars (1992, p. 16) extends this by defining strategy as "determining and evaluating alternatives available to an organization in achieving its objectives and mission and choosing the alternative that is to be pursued". Social work management processes should be established on knowledge. (Colnar & Dimovski, 2019; Colnar, Dimovski & Bogataj, 2019). Writers define *knowledge management* as a managerial activity that develops, stores, transfers and implements knowledge.

To conclude, the transformative leadership approach has many advantages, but its suitability alone, detached from strategy awareness, should be considered cautiously. In the future, when the suitability of transformational leadership is estimated, it should be estimated whether it promotes dependency on the leader. Servant leadership, compassionate approach and strategic management should be strengthened in social work leadership.

### *Traditional leadership approaches and social work leadership approaches compared*

I compared Northouse's (2016) descriptions of leadership with the descriptions of social work leadership in order to find similarities and differences. Out of all of Northouse's descriptions of leadership, transformational leadership and servant leadership are most discussed in social work leadership literature. Many of Northouse's descriptions of leadership are indirectly or partially present in descriptions of social work leadership. By this, I mean that the content of the style is presented in some form but expressed differently. Path-goal theory and leader-member exchange theory are examples of this. They highlight the quality of the relationship between leader and follower, i.e., follow the idea that leadership does exist in relationships altogether. How relationships are seen is yet different and even conflicted in an ethical sense. The leader-member exchange theory also includes problematic views reflected against social work values, as it presents the division of members into out-group and in-group members, which could cause inequality social work practice resists.

Emotions are present in social work leadership literature and Northouse's classification, where emotions are firmly in the psychodynamic approach. The term "psychodynamic" refers to the subconscious processes of the mind. It has a loose connection to compassionate leadership.

Emotions are also present in this review in the social care leadership section as a value. Lawler & Bilson (2010) and Peters (2018) discuss the theme, Lawler & Bilson as a reference to Goleman's emotional intelligence (1996; 2001) and Peters (2018) as a cross-cutting theme in all social work leadership.

The rest of Northouse's (2016) styles must be included or presented with only a few mentions. Skills, behavioural and situational approaches are not extensively existing, nor are authentic and adaptive styles. Vito (2018) found traits of situational leadership in two of the organisations investigated in her study.

What needs to be known is the missing styles; according to Northouse's categorisation, they can be missing from social work leadership literature only or missing from reality. Is it possible they are latently present in reality, or are they simply not suitable for social work and not present? Some elements readily contradict social work values, such as categorising followers' motivation in situational leadership or, as mentioned, in-group and out-group members.

For example, situational leadership would provide a "rational solution" to deal with different levels of commitment and competence. Why, for example, is this approach not represented in the social work leadership style collection consistently? There is one mention to positive usability of this approach in Sonnino (2016), but otherwise it is missing. This may be due to the value base of the profession as well. Saying a follower's competence or commitment is poor is against social work professional values because taking such a stand requires judgement, which we want to avoid. Nevertheless, there are instances of inadequate performance and unethical behaviour within social work, as with any profession.

While reading the leadership literature, I first took for granted the common idea that trait theories are outdated. They might be in their original form since they emphasise personality

traits. Yet there are many leaders in politics, for example, whose personality is at the centre of attention of the media, and a lot of their popularity appears to come from their personality traits. It might be possible that the trait approach is alive and well but has changed form. Also, remarks in a lot of the trait theory discussion refer to “white male” (e.g. Lawler & Bilson, 2010). Many of the admired leaders in the media are women nowadays, as discussion around former Prime Minister Sanna Marin has shown. Is the former “white male at the top of his hierarchy” now a “young woman running her flat organisation”? By this analogue, I raise the question: Have we got a natural tendency to favour charismatic leaders as individuals? This analogy is not a value statement on gender nor relates to feminism, emancipation or patriarchal culture (Dominelli, 2017; Lawler & Bilson, 2010). However, in leadership discussion, I suggest that trait theory is further examined from this cultural viewpoint.

To conclude this section, it appears that the psychodynamic approach is indirectly referred to in different terms in social work leadership literature, for example as the importance of emotions. Favourable traits may still be alive within social work leadership, but are likely to have changed form as in what these traits are. Some approaches, such as situational leadership or path-goal theory, might include ethical challenges which are missing from social work leadership literature recommendations.

#### *There is need for leaders to understand political and business contexts in social work*

The Finnish social work context follows the European context of contemporary leadership discussion quite well. The tension between managerialism and ethical sensitiveness is present too, but the attitude is more positive yet controversial. Where and how social services are provided is the result of political decision making. In Finland, the service structure reform of social welfare and health care has continued for over a decade. This reform aims to integrate social and healthcare services and geographically organise these in larger areas and centralise the administration. Currently, the responsibility to organise services is located under 21 collaborative areas for healthcare and social services (Mäntysaari, 2020).

The economic sustainability of social work must be secured. This is a strategic management task. The consequences of limited financial resources and austerity are questions to be resolved in the future. The discourse of the mismatch between social work and business-rooted management ideologies will not disappear. If social care as a profession opposes business-rooted models, it should develop a clear and functional alternative to answer the financial demands of effectiveness. The biggest unresolved question appears to be resolving the juxtaposition between ethical sensitivity and managerialism. Resources will bring us the structural possibilities to execute human-centred leadership together. The willingness to lead in a human-centred manner is not opposed or questioned in social work leadership literature.

The reason for inadequate resources is partly political, but the roots of the problem are deeper. Different countries have different approaches to welfare. In Finland and the Nordic countries, universalism as the foundation of the welfare state has a long tradition (Karisto et al., 1997). We know that the ageing population and shrinking birth rates will make it even more challenging to maintain the level of services in the future. Demands for effective leadership are likely to increase.

There are also new successful practices in this area. In Finland, in the city of Espoo, lean strategies (Modig & Ahlström, 2013; Sodek, Duward & Land, 2010) have been utilised by the municipal government in all areas, including social work. Heinonen & Lajunen (2018) have researched lean practices applied to adult social work in Espoo. According to their findings, applications of lean philosophies also suit the social work environment and help social workers examine their work processes and remove activities that do not add value to the client. Existing literature (Niiranen, 2011; Viinamäki, 2008) pinpoints the need for social work leaders to have this understanding, but there is a gap in current literature concerning how to build capacity to understand political and business contexts in a way that is relevant for social work leadership in Finland. The three biggest changes in social leadership and management in the first decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century have been the increase in the size of organizations, the thinning of the private and public boundary, and the increased demands for efficiency (Niiranen, 2011).

Experiences from Espoo are well in line with Lawler's (2016) writings concerning the self-determination and self-esteem of public service professionals. Lawler (2016) sees approaches supporting self-determination more effective than those based on direction and control.

Suitable management tools to be used also in the context of social work could be borrowed from other disciplines to apply. Techniques such as Multiple criteria decision making (MCDM) (Aruldos et al., 2013) could be utilised as structural frames to strategical management in social work as well.

Williams, Connolly & Coffey (2019) quote many authors when they estimate strategic management and its role in social work. The formal models for teaching leadership for applications to social work research and practice have, however, relied on rather conservative theories from the business leadership literature (Tafvelin et al., 2011; Elpers and Westhuis, 2008; Gellis, 2001). Peters (2018) argues that while these models are useful, they can lack congruence with social work values and ethics. These theories, he suggests, are influenced by a white male militaristic tradition based on strict hierarchies (Peters, 2018; Lawler, 2007) which foster a culture of competition and defeat rather than collaboration and empowerment.

The demand for efficiency and effectiveness is getting stronger. This makes it difficult for the social sector to be familiar with the issues of competence, strategic thinking and knowledge-based management at the same time. In practice, social sector leaders must at the same time promote reforms and minimize their harmful consequences. This changes the field of management skills and further emphasizes management with information, especially the use of new and renewed information about operations in management. With these changes, the vertical and horizontal division of work must be reorganized, i.e. network-like management and the organization's core competences must be developed alongside the manager's own qualifications and management competences. (Niiranen, 2011).

However, there are authors who strongly drive forward the idea of increasing the amount of managerial content, such as financial management and strategical thinking, to social work leadership training. Two fairly recent textbooks for the purposes of social work leadership training describe financial management in a way which, to my eyes, seems like conservative business management speech. The other one, a recent Finnish textbook "Lähijohtaminen

sosiaalialalla” (front line management and leadership in social work), writes about the content of budget planning like this:

“The budget is mainly prepared according to the accrual principle: all income and expenses are allocated to operations, e.g. customer fee income collected from home service is allocated to the cost center of home services. In this way, a net amount is obtained, which the profit unit responsible for home services must not exceed... The financial assessment is structured from cost centers in accordance with the internal structure and management and responsibility relationships of each organization.” (Rousu, 2021, p. 231 ).

In the textbook “Effective Leadership, Management & Supervision in Health and Social Care” by Field and Brown, 2020, the role of inflation is explained like this:

“All budgets reflect two factors: the volume of physical resource to be purchased or sold and the cost or price per unit. An expenditure budget for gas, therefore, composes a number of kWh to be purchased at a particular tariff or rate. At the point of which budgets are prepared the actual future price that will be paid per unit is difficult to estimate due to the effect of the future inflation...” Field 2020a, p. 123)

It must be emphasised that these quotations are off in a bigger context, and the textbooks describe the human side of leadership well. The point of this quote is in reflection of earlier writings on the suitability of business management techniques in social work leadership vs ethical concern. The research gap according to this issue is in the greater context of the different discourses. We need to include data where these views are integrated, and a student can estimate the balance between these discourses and create their know-how where these discourses, business management and social work ethical limitations, are balanced economically in a sustainable way.

The contradiction concerns values and causes a chain reaction to structures. Harlow (2003) worries that NPM development could lose the social work casework ideology; when encountering the client, the inner world and emotions would be left out of the client-worker relationship. This is an example of a case where value choice (=not valuing the importance of emotions) leaves no room for a necessary social work form of casework. To include Pekkarinen’s worry (2010) of leadership in this view, we see that leadership positions drift outside the social work field to other professions.

This issue, the contradiction between business management policies and social work ethics, is more complex than it first seems because of the chain reactions, such as the example described in the previous chapter. This phenomenon builds a bridge to interdisciplinary work. Both views have to be taken into account. Only social work can determine which work forms and processes are vital and must be defended more than others. If austerity measures are targeted merely from a different discipline, business management, they might cause severe ethical consequences. Social work knows its substance, and it should either strengthen its economic know-how and/or, in an interdisciplinary setting, create new models for financial management with business management. Here the pedagogical view comes strongly into the picture. Including these views in the social work curriculum through examples and narratives helps combine thinking from both disciplines.

Emotional burden and stress experienced by social workers, possibly due to NPM practice-based work processes, which cause ethical challenges, is another worrying view. There is a contradiction in these findings as Lombardero Posada et al. (2022) and Djupvik (2021) write in their studies. Lombardero & Posada et al. (2022) found that Spanish social workers change workplaces to organisations with fewer neoliberal policies. Djupvik et al. (2021) found differences between Welsh and Norwegian social workers' work satisfaction concerning the use of neoliberal policies.

Worker participation in these processes is crucial. Yliruka & Karvinen-Niirikoski (2013) consider reflective structures helpful in developing practical social work. These structures refer to learning, transformative expertise, knowledge formation and management in an organisation that recognises and appreciates tacit and explicit knowledge. Dynamic, reflective structures come close to the idea of mediated co-production processes (Koivisto & Pohjola, 2015) and learning networks for the innovative agency (Alasoini et al., 2010.) These approaches show an appreciative approach towards employees. Appreciation, trust and dialogue are essential for giving meaning to the primary and core tasks and for productivity. Ruch (2010) warns of the dangers of overemphasising productivity in emotionally burdening social work.

To conclude, the research gap concerning this theme relies upon the contradiction between social work ethical values and business-rooted management styles. The future challenge is to find models where these two are balanced and to include these in a social work leadership curriculum.

#### *There is a need to clarify participative leadership approaches*

The literature review findings are somewhat controversial concerning participative leadership approaches.

Sullivan (2016) sees client-centred leadership as being faithful to the cardinal values of social work and reflects a more excellent social environment toward consumer empowerment. With a strong focus and service recipients, the client-centred leadership model is aligned with strength-based and recovery-based practice.

Scourfield (2020) and Bromark et al. (2022) are more critical. Scourfield maintains that social work leadership needs to be more adequately defined. He finds it problematic to follow the principles of collective leadership due to the need for more definitions of such a style. He also raises the critical question of who should be involved in collective leadership. Workers with no leadership position or service users participating in decision making should be carefully considered to ensure everything is clear.

Bromark et al. (2022) discusses client involvement as well. Participative approaches promote inclusion and participation. However, practitioners expressed frustration that the nature of their work was attuned to user participation. They felt there needed to be more clarity between the authoritative nature of laws and regulations governing social services and the need to comply with the users' needs.

To conclude, participative approaches are well-suited to social work practice. The research gap relates to inadequately designed client participation in social work leadership.



### *There is a need to develop interdisciplinary practices*

As stated in this review, interdisciplinary work and commitment to social work values are integral to all social work. The Social Welfare Act in Finland obligates authorities to cooperate on clients' cases. Therefore interdisciplinary work is not a choice; it is present in all leadership alongside values and preferred leadership styles.

Leading interdisciplinary teams requires well-planned structures, attitude influence, and many other skills in addition to dialogue, but the idea is familiar to social workers from our core task.

The social and healthcare reform in Finland requires more and more cooperation between the social and healthcare sectors. This places requirements for well-functioning interdisciplinary practices in the future even more than today. Mäntysaari (2020) worries that social care might look like a subordinate fusion partner to health care, which is much more visibly present in the reform discussion. Social care must make its expertise and role visible and "market itself" outwards. This is a management and leadership task.

As learned from the literature review, not all voices in the inter-professional leadership discussion favour social care professionals being the best practitioners in leading multi-professional work. Lawler (2007) quotes Mohan (2002), who sees there needs to be adequate social work leadership both within professional and inter-professional contexts. He sees that social work even deludes itself in believing that the profession takes the lead in welfare. Later literature (Hafford-Lethcfield et al., 2013) discusses challenges in interdisciplinary work. They find that there are different values between different disciplines even within the social and health care fields, which causes pressure to set different objectives.

To conclude, leadership of interdisciplinary work requires further clarification regarding its policies and content.

### *The need to develop pedagogical solutions to train leadership*

Ianchini et al. (2015) refer to several authors, such as Brilliant (1986), Holosko (2009) and Rank & Hutchison (2000), when they conclude that the curriculum in social work education needs to prepare students for leadership roles within the changing policy context of the social work profession. Questions remain, however, regarding what specific models of leadership should be emphasized, where leadership content should be infused within the social work curriculum, how courses should be structured to best support graduate students' development of leadership competencies, and how to evaluate the development of leadership among students (Brilliant, 1986; Hafford-Letchfield & Harper, 2014; Holosko, 2009; Lawler, 2007; Leonard, Hafford-Letchfield & Couchman, 2013; Rank & Hutchison, 2000).

When it comes to ways of organising education, social work leadership education is recommended to be organised in groups. Ianchini et al. (2015) see The Social Change Model of Leadership (Komives et al., 2009) as a possible conceptual framework for teaching leadership. In brief, the SCM is a values-based leadership model that emphasizes leadership as a collaborative group process with the aim of social change.

Given the challenging contexts in which social work is being practiced, and the need to reconcile competing values, it is unsurprising that elements of the current literature highlight the need for more vigorous social work leadership training. McCray and Palmer (2014) have identified future leadership training needs in their study. According to them, there are gaps in leading and defining the vision; human resources managing people; communication skills; interprofessional/agency working; gaps in industry standards; clarity of role specifications in social care; new ways of working; marketing; leading cultural change; policy – structures – engagement; and finance. These are also strongly present in the findings concerning social work leadership literature referred to earlier in this review. They also discuss the interprofessional setting in education and training routes and quote Illeris (2002) who suggests that learning has three aspects; 1) knowledge which is cognitive, 2) psychodynamic connected to emotion and motivation, and 3) societal related to communication and interaction. Further, they quote Newell-Jones and Lord (2008) who remind that professional identities become challenged and cooperation may lead to negative outcomes if tensions are not addressed.

Jones & Phillips (2016) also discuss the importance of interdisciplinary work and would extend interdisciplinarity as a part of training. They see it would be worthwhile to consider teaching social work leadership in an interprofessional setting. They refer to the “Core Competencies for Interprofessional Collaborative Practice” (IPEC, 2011), where suitable competencies for interprofessional teaching are referred to: values and ethics for interprofessional practice, interprofessional communication, roles and responsibilities, and teams and teamwork. These competencies match well with the core values and code of ethics of the social work profession, the Council on Social Work Education’s (CSWE) Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards (EPAS), and the National Association of Social Workers’ (NASW) Standards of Practice in Health Care Settings, which all highlight the need for collaborative practice.

Pecukonis et al. (2013) define four basic assumptions about interprofessional education to guide and direct the curriculum: 1) Trainees learn best through hands-on experiential activities and working directly with other disciplines over time. 2) IPE is best taught with adult learning strategies implemented in both the clinical/community and classroom settings. 3) Trainees should be involved in all aspects of IPE curriculum planning. 4) Decision making and power is shared equally between trainees.

Alajoutsijärvi (2015) presents future social care management and leadership development themes. These are strategic thinking, human resources management, and leading with knowledge. Essential in strategic thinking is the ability to plan and see the so-called big picture. Resources should be allocated according to this vision instead of concentrating on all immediate needs occurring at any particular moment. Knowledge needed in social care leadership is also experiential and not only theoretical. From the perspective of managing human resources, recognising the individual needs of workers and their life situations, positive images of the work community, and good spirits motivate people to join and stay in the community. Supporting the community is, therefore, a critical leadership task. The significance of age and culture should be acknowledged. Good human resources management also recognises the individual need for autonomy when planning their work.

Connolly et al. (2019) share the idea of the importance of strategy and see that social work management and leadership training should be mainly developed to teach strategic thinking.

They believe that much of the focus has been on the impact of neo-liberal methodologies on management and leadership. They wonder whether we are stuck in reactive responses and critique, with notions of survival, resilience and adaptation guiding our decision making. They wish for more usual preoccupations with the impact of neo-liberal policy trends, austerity and resource scarcity. They see that critical questions concerning change need to be asked, as well as political strategy and the opportunities that may lead to new directions in social work education, to generate alternatives and deploy new tools and strategies under such circumstances of restraint. They wish the discourse would move from analysis into action in social work leadership education.

Peters (2017) sees that the paucity of leadership and management training in social work education has been strongly emphasized in recent years. The matter of leadership education was already illuminated decades ago by Hagerty (1923) when he asserted that social workers were learning the casework method as a trade, rather than receiving a broader university-style education in sociology, economics, and psychology, which would not only provide context for their work, but enable them to be better leaders and administrators. The author concluded his argument by saying that social work schools were training individuals to “fill the ranks of the army of social workers but not those in command of the army” (Hagerty, 1923, p. 163). Over 60 years later, Patti (1984) agreed with Hagerty (1923) and added that social workers were losing their administrative positions not only because many smaller, independent social service organizations were being consolidated under large human services organizations (Patti, 1984) but also because social workers lacked leadership and managerial skills and training that were popular in the new conservative climate. Brilliant (1986) identified the lack of leadership training in graduate school as one of the primary reasons for the leadership gap in the social work profession.

Peters (2018) criticizes the lack of courses which teach skills needed in administration in the context of client needs, employee needs, and organizational needs and changing political climates. Austin's et al. (2011) analyses of the British social work education reveal further deficits in leadership education and training. The Social Work Task Force found that the curriculum is lacking in organizational leadership skills such as risk analysis, communication skills, managing conflict and hostility, and working with other professionals.

In this research, these challenges are recognized and dialogue is introduced in the training programme to answer these challenges in both theory and practice.

Also Pekkarinen (2010) has found in her literature review concerning leadership training, which social care leadership tasks are drifting from social care professionals to other professions. This was considered problematic. It is thought that one reason for this development are the gaps in social care leadership training. When leaders were asked what kind of themes they would include in leadership training, the findings were controversial depending on research. Both leadership skills, such as communication skills, substance knowledge and commitment to clients, and managerial skills, such as financial knowhow, were mentioned.

Sonnino (2016) has found some general concepts which are universally important for leadership training development. For an effective programme that will give leaders insight into themselves and others, pretesting for learning styles and personality characteristics is beneficial. These tests include identifying each individual's Myers Briggs type indicators and completion of formal 360 feedback evaluations. Learning how to use the information

obtained from these assessments is key to developing the insight into one's own characteristics, as well as learning to interact effectively with individuals very similar or very different from oneself.

Training on leadership styles and situational leadership should be a component of the curriculum for emerging health care leaders, allowing them to understand and be able to interact with individuals with different styles from their own. Among the competencies that should be included in most comprehensive leadership curricula, the most significant include finances and economics, emerging issues and strategic planning, personal professional development, adaptive leadership, conflict management, time management, ethical considerations, and personal life balance (Sonnino, 2016).

Each of these assumptions are employed to promote longitudinal interprofessional learning, with a focus on both clinical and classroom learning opportunities, and teaching students to recognize and challenge prevailing hierarchical structures preventing collaboration. We emphasize the relational or interactive components across professions as the primary focus of our curriculum. This relational focus addresses issues of power (who makes decisions), hierarchy (how is labour divided in the health care setting), professional culture (how are we socialized within our professional groups), professional roles (what are a profession's tasks, clinical responsibilities, and scope of practice), and team interaction (communication, problem solving, conflict management).

To conclude, social care leadership education should include content of leadership styles. The learner should have changes to reflect their own leadership identity. The role of strategic planning and financial frames of operations should be covered. The leader should be able to master what knowledge is needed to run the needed activities and plan which combination of workers provide the adequate skill mix. The leader should encourage to create new solutions and plan structures where this is possible. Above all, the leader should possess interpersonal skills to lead interaction in groups and networks and assure ethical behaviour and choices in all organization activities. Pedagogical methods should be blended, i.e. a mixture of different methods. The pedagogical design should include elements from psychodynamic, cognitive and societal views. Projects and possibilities to share experiences are recommended.

## 2.6 Conclusion on literature review

I think Niiranen's (2010) writings on hybrid leadership as a structure responds to the need to pursue social work values in the challenging contexts I have outlined. "Hybrid leadership" is established to meet the efficiency and quality integration requirements. Hybrid thinking is connected to the conversation concerning New Public Management. Hybrid thinking adds high-quality service production to the public sector demands for efficiency and effectiveness. This view invites us to investigate the relationship between values and finances. (At post-Covid-19 times, the term hybrid leadership often refers to the combination of remote and office work in Finland. This differs from the context of the term in this research.) This view favours the idea of integrating different views as parts of one's own theory-in-use, valuing both the managerial and leadership approach when writing one's own "leadership speech".

Network leadership expert Kickert (2001) stated that a hybrid organisation operates at the interface of public and private organisations and connects public service tasks to a market-based organisational structure. At an organisational level, hybrid leadership requires the ability to connect relevant networks through cooperation. Alongside organisational structures, discussing hybrid leadership as a leadership activity is essential. This means we should connect different leadership approaches and models. Hybrid leaders can connect strategic thinking and economic demands (generalist) to substance know-how (specialist). In an interdisciplinary social work environment, the leader is an appellant between different interest groups, who understands the different values and cultures of different professional groups in the network they operate in (Kickert, 2001; Savage & Scott, 2004; Brown & Waterhouse, 2003.)

However, a focus on hybrid leadership alone is not enough to support the development of an adequate curriculum for social work leaderships education. Ways of deepening the understanding of transformational and participative/shared leadership, and ethically updated managerial practices, are needed if an ethically sustainable management and leadership practice is to be developed in Finland. Deeper understanding of transformational, participative and ethically sustainable leadership requires empirical data collection, so that the nature of these recommended styles and approaches can be understood in current social work contexts in Finland, and so that the question of whether there are missing effective leadership styles or traits, already existing underneath the surface waiting to be discovered, which might inform a contemporary leadership curriculum, can be answered.

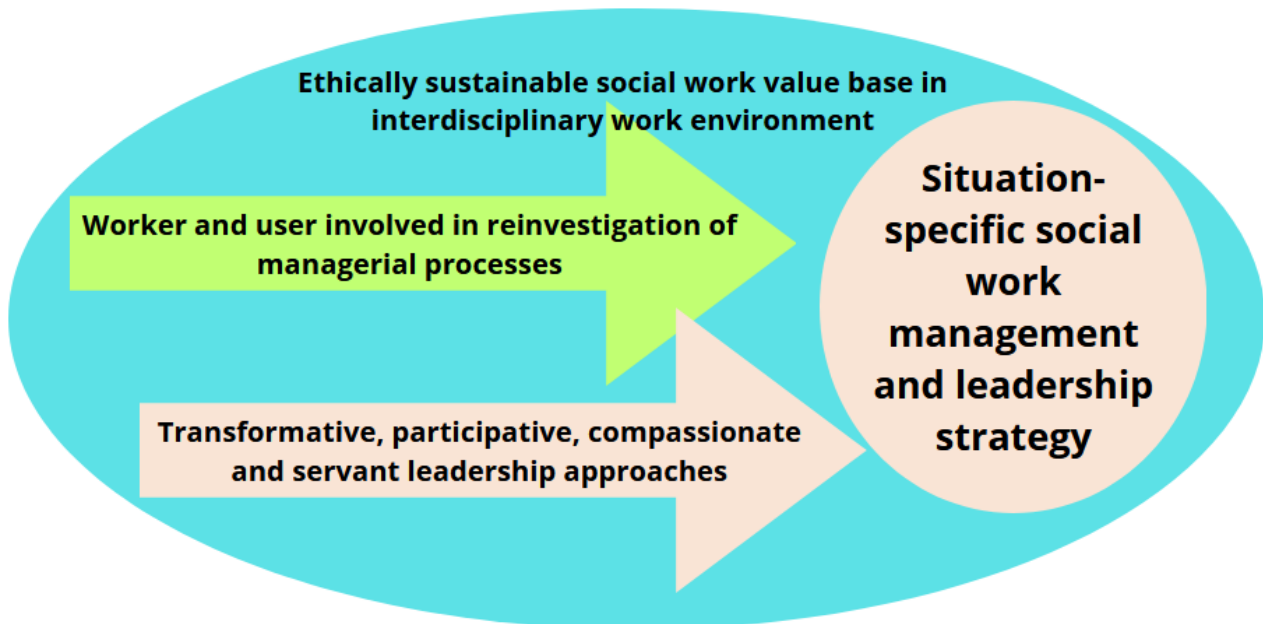
Strategic management was discovered to have a positive impact on organisational performance (Griggs, 2003), but know-how in this area also needs to be improved (Daley et al., 2002; Ollila, 2006; Huotari, 2009). Lack of knowledge in this area is a gap in leadership know-how and should be emphasised more.

I suggest that social work management and leadership should be developed and perceived as a situation-specific process, where the leader examines the organisation's core task in a situation-specific manner and

- 1) investigates managerial processes in cooperation with followers and clients where appropriate. They apply managerial practices to the core task and strategy in an ethically sustainable manner.

2) examines different leadership styles available to construct a suitable leadership scheme for the situation and organisation. They pay specific attention to transformative and participative leadership styles in this process.

In these processes, the leader utilises the pedagogical principles of the theory-in-use to construct their leadership scheme based on experience and knowledge.



*Figure 3: Social work leadership and management*

## Chapter 3 - Methodology

In this chapter, I explain the methodological choices I have made in order to conduct this research and to address the gaps in current understanding that I have identified in the previous chapter. I first look at the rationale for my research design (3.1), including considerations of my philosophical position, the nature of qualitative research as a methodology in general, and what can be learned from previous approaches to studying social work leadership. In this section I also explain how this has been informed by the choice of in-depth interviews and the ethical considerations I have addressed. In the second section of this chapter, I describe how I conducted the research in practice (3.2), including my sampling strategy and my narrative interview approach in practice. I then go on to explore my approach to repeated cycles of data analysis (3.3), starting first by introducing grounded theory as a method and then describing the multiple dimensions of the grounded theory analysis process, that is, how the suggested theory of leadership was developed. In relation to each dimension of analysis – open, axial and selective/storyline coding – I also present an overview of the headline insights to demonstrate how the analytical processes revealed different aspects of the findings. The findings then are explained more thoroughly in the following chapter.

Because I took a grounded approach to this study, the timeline for my research activities is different from some other studies. For example, I spent less time on a literature review at the start, as I hoped that insights would come first from my data (to the extent that this is possible). I spent more time on analysis than in some studies. I also conducted some interviews with professionals working in a multidisciplinary environment unrelated to social work (construction) as I felt this would give further insights into how to respond to the multidisciplinary challenges that are part of the core social work task. In the analysis process, however, I recognised that deeper analysis of the social work interviews provided greater insights into my research questions, and consequently these multidisciplinary interviews were not included. The timeline for this process is therefore given in Table 3 below.

Table 4: Research as a process

Research activity	Duration																				
	2018			2019			2020			2021			2022			2023			2024		
	M9-M12	M1-M4	M5-M8	M9-M12	M1-M4	M5-M8	M9-M12	M1-M4	M5-M8	M9-M12	M1-M4	M5-M8	M9-M12	M1-M4	M5-M8	M9-M12	M1-M4	M5-M8	M9-M12	M1-M4	
Defined a broad subject area and research questions																					
Reviewed initial literature to establish this was a gap																					
Conducted interviews with social work and construction professionals																					
Engaged in grounded analysis of the interviews																					
Away from the studies																					
Decision to not use the construction interviews																					
Returned to the literature to identify where new knowledge may be arising from the analysis																					
Engaged in narrative analysis as this helped deepen understanding of the themes with new insights																					
Returned to the literature to understand how this connected to the narrative analysis																					
Developed ideas for a curriculum throughout																					
Tested ideas for a curriculum in my teaching																					
Wrote the thesis																					



### 3.1 Rationale for research design and ethical considerations

In this section, I explain the foundations and rationale for my research design and explain the ethical dimensions of the research.

#### 3.1.1 Philosophical position

I see the philosophical position as the “umbrella” and other research activities and choices to be located under this position. Birks & Mills (2023) define *philosophy* as a view of the world which encompasses the questions and mechanisms for finding answers that inform that view. They see that the choice of methodology (a lens a researcher looks through when dedicating the types of methods to answer the research question) and methods (the practical procedures, strategies and processes conducting the research) depends on the researcher’s philosophical position. This position concerns personal beliefs about reality that guide thinking about how legitimate knowledge can be acquired (Birks & Mills, 2023).

Often this positioning concerns reflection on ontological and epistemological questions. Ontology is the study of being. (Birks & Mills, 2023). According to Gruber (1993), ontology is an abstract representation of the world conceptualized explicitly or implicitly. Differences in how researchers experience existence and reality often lead to choices between qualitative and quantitative research settings. Quantitative researchers are interested in proof that a natural phenomenon exists. Qualitative researchers think about “why” and “how” different situations occur in the surrounding social world (Birks & Mills, 2023).

Epistemology is interested in how it is possible to gain knowledge of reality (Petty et al., 2012). Several shared epistemological and ontological positions are known as paradigms. They are collective thinking methods such as variously defined models, patterns or exemplars. For example, there are broader philosophical traditions of naturalism and interpretivism behind qualitative and quantitative research traditions. Research traditions vary from the positivist view, which believes a single objective truth can be found by applying a scientific method. This is the core of the naturalist (quantitative) tradition. Interpretivist (qualitative) tradition is most strongly alive in constructivism, which sits at the other end of this continuum. Constructivists believe that reality is constructed by those who experience it (Birks & Mills, 2023).

I am a constructivist and ontologically see that reality is constructed in relationships between people. This supports qualitative methodology as a choice. Interest in experiences of social reality supports the choice of grounded theory. The choice of method cannot only be reflected against the researcher’s philosophical position but has to be supported by other factors, which I will refer to in later sections of this chapter.

No single person solely represents any paradigm solemnly but also understands other views. In the analysis process described later, I see my constructivist side most robust at the selective phase of the process, where narratives are at their strongest. On the other hand, open coding has required different kind of preciseness, which is essential but not the most naturally flowing part of my thinking. Sometimes, I “kick the positivist side of myself awake” to check how precise and justified my rational thinking is. Recognizing one’s own philosophical position is vital because otherwise, the researcher is in danger of becoming blind to the groundings from which they operate. This also links to the credibility and reliability of the research.

### 3.1.2 Qualitative research

This research is qualitative. According to Hennik et al. (2013), qualitative research is an umbrella term that covers a wide range of techniques and philosophies; thus, it takes work to define it accurately. In broad terms, qualitative research is an approach that allows one to examine people's experiences in detail by using a set of research methods. Writers mention in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, content analysis, visual methods, and life histories or biographies as examples. Regardless of the method, qualitative research allows us to identify issues from the perspective of study participants and understand the meanings and interpretations that they give to behaviour, events or objects. This requires open-mindedness, curiosity, empathy, flexibility, and the ability to listen to the researcher.

### 3.1.3 Earlier studies on social work leadership

Various methods have been used in leadership in social work research. Peters (2018) has conducted a systematic literature review. Her profound data search from various databases produced over 600 articles on social work leadership. Articles utilised in this study were non-empirical and published between 2005–2015. In his work, Peters has produced a preliminary working definition. Another strength is that she has added a level of organisation to the otherwise reasonably individual-focused leadership discussion. As a merit, she has also emphasised the role of emotions in social work leadership. This is evitable to social work compared to many other disciplines.

As a limitation to her work, Peters (2018) mentions that her work includes no textbooks and grey literature. The use of these expanded the view on social work leadership. One limitation is that she has done the work alone, and other authors' reflections might have produced more insight. Peters (2018) states that qualitative analysis revealing how social workers perceive and execute leadership would be a welcome addition to the research field and could validate results.

Garrow-Oliver (2017) has researched leadership in Canada's early childhood education sector. She aimed to increase understanding of ELCC (early learning and child care) directors' understandings of leadership in ELCC in the context of their lived experiences. She conducted five semi-structured interviews using dialogical analysis (Riessman, 2008) and narrative cognition (Polkinghorne, 1995). The strength of this research approach is that it genuinely presents the in-depth experience of the participants. The limitation is that results are difficult to generalise.

Vito (2018) has researched three children's service agencies in Ontario, Canada, demonstrating the extent of participatory versus directive leadership approaches during government-mandated service system transformation. She has used multiple triangulation methods, including semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, observation in management/staff meetings, and an extensive agency document review. She interviewed 14 people who were considered directors and five supervisors, collected 26 questionnaires, and observed in 7 meetings. To her, the limitations in her research are data collected on self-report rather than observation, data gathered in a short period during a dynamic organisation process, and limited feedback from one of the investigated agencies. The strength is that these multiple case studies identified common patterns and found variations. Vito (2018) has used multiple triangulation methods, including semi-structured interviews,

questionnaires, observation in management/staff meetings, and an extensive agency document review.

Many different research designs, with their strengths and limitations, make their unique contributions to social work leadership research. No single research solves the question of social work leadership. The development of social work leadership is a joint effort from many researchers, this being one of them.

Prior research implicates that many different research designs, both qualitative and quantitative, have been used to research social work leadership and management success. The following sections will explain and justify my choices to establish my research on a grounded theory methodology, gather data through in-depth interviews and narrative inquiry, and analyse the data by content analysis. Mostly Garrow-Oliver (2017) has inspired the use of narratives as part of my research design.

### 3.1.4 In-depth interviews, narrative interviews and appreciative inquiry

I have used interviews as a data collection method. My interviews are in-depth interviews/conversations which are narrative by nature. The principles of appreciative inquiry have helped me in developing a respectful atmosphere in the interview situations.

The chosen approach to data collection in this study was narrative in-depth interviews. DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree (2006) state that interviews can only be considered structured. Relatively unstructured interviews are equivalent to guided conversations. Hennik et al. (2013) describe in-depth interviews as a purposeful conversation. This is, however, not a two-way dialogue, as only the interviewee tells the story, and the interviewer's task is to elicit the story.

In-depth interviews are popular in, for example, health care research as they enable the co-creation of meaning with interviewees by reconstructing perceptions of events and experiences (DiCicco-Bloom, 2006). In-depth interviews can inform a wide range of research questions. The research question may function as the first interview question and is advised to be followed by 5–10 more specific questions (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006).

Narrative interviews fit nicely into research settings which aim to capture the essence of experience (Saaranen-Kauppinen & Puusniekka, 2006). According to Groleau et al. (2006), storytelling is an elementary form of human communication and, independently of stratified language performance, is a universal competence. By telling, people recall what has happened, put the experience into a sequence, find possible explanations for it, and play with the chain of events that shapes individual and social lives (Groleau et al., 2006).

Narrative interviews are a form of an in-depth, constructive interview with specific features. The idea of narrative interviewing is motivated by a critique of the question-response schema of most interviews. In the question-response mode, the interviewer imposes structures in three-fold-sense: (a) by selecting the theme and the topics, (b) by ordering the questions, and (c) by wording the questions in their language. To elicit a less imposed and, therefore, more "valid" rendering of the informant's perspective, the influence of the interviewer should be minimal, and the setting should be arranged to achieve this minimising of the interviewer's influence. The rules of engagement of the NI restrict the interviewer. The

NI goes further than any other interview method in avoiding pre-structuring the interview. It is the most notable attempt to go beyond the question-answer type of interview. It uses a specific type of everyday communication, namely story-telling and listening, to reach this objective (Groleau et al., 2006).

Narrative inquiry is a subtype of qualitative inquiry. Narrative inquiry revolves around an interest in life experiences narrated by those who live these experiences. Narrative theorists define *narrative* as a distinct form of discourse, such as meaning-making, through the ordering or shaping of an experience. Narrative inquiry helps to organise objects and events into a meaningful whole. Over time, it becomes possible to see the consequences of actions and events well (Chase, 2011).

Some researchers study narrative as lived experience, as social action. This view is interested in how people narrate their experiences, i.e. what their story is really about. In this approach, the narration is the practice of constructing meaningful selves, realities and identities. Many researchers use in-depth interviewing as a data-collection method for narrative data (Chase, 2011).

It is essential to rapidly develop a positive relationship with the interviewee during an in-depth interview. This is based on trust and respect for the interviewee and information sharing. Researchers should establish a safe and comfortable environment for sharing interviewees' personal experiences and attitudes as they occur (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). The stages of rapport include apprehension, exploration, cooperation and participation (Spradley, 1979). The apprehension phase often includes uncertainty related to the strangeness of the new context. The aim is to get the interviewee talking with the help of a broad question. In the exploration phase, the interviewee becomes engaged in an in-depth description. The process involves learning, listening, testing, and a sense of bonding and sharing. The co-operation phase is characterised by a comfort level in which the participants are not afraid of offending one another and find satisfaction in the interview process. This phase also suits sensitive questions that might have been too early to ask at the beginning. According to Chase (2011), researchers who collect data through in-depth interviews work on transforming the interviewer-interviewee relationship into one of narrator and listener. This requires a shift from the conventional practice of generalising experiences to inviting the narrator's specific stories. This kind of interviewing requires emotional maturity, sensitivity and life experience, which take years to develop (Clandinin & Murphy, 2007).

### 3.1.5 Ethical considerations

Ethical approval was granted by the ethical board at the University of Central Lancashire (PSYSOC 464).

Qualitative research aims to produce reliable knowledge of the researched phenomenon. When the reliability of a research is considered, it is necessary to consider how truthful the produced knowledge is. (Kylmä & Juvakka, 2007).

Trustworthiness can be estimated through different criteria. Here I have reflected on my research through the criteria of credibility, dependability/audibility, reflexivity and transferability. Kylmä & Juvakka have chosen these criteria based on researchers such as

Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Koch, 1994a; Koch, 1994b; Hungler, 1995; Cutcliffe & McKenna, 1999; Mays & Pope, 2000, Malteraud, 2001; Kylvä et al., 2007).

Credibility means proving that the findings correspond to the respondents' conceptions of the researched phenomenon. This can be assured by returning the findings to the interviewees or discussing the credibility issue with researchers who study the same subject. The researcher should also spend enough time on the research as qualitative understanding is created over time: diaries and note-taking help strengthen credibility (Kylvä & Juvakka, 2007). Later in this chapter I will explain how I have used the hermeneutic circle and the principles of grounded theory to assure the credibility of my findings.

I have written memos throughout the study and regularly met with the supervisory team to ensure that the process and results are credible. The research process lasted five years, although there was a break of 1,5 years included. The longer time has helped increase my understanding of the subject through literature and my experiences. Carefulness in the analysis process has ensured that the findings presented are genuinely present in the data. Two partially parallel and partially sequent processes and open/axial- coding and open/selective coding also strengthen credibility. The original language of the data is Finnish, the researcher's native language. Data was translated into English at the stage when the transcript text was coded as a node. Since it was a meaning unit translated and not only individual words, I find no danger to objectivity created here. Interviewing in one's native language increases credibility. The dialogue was richer with many nuances of language, idioms, etc., and the actual meaning of the interviewee was captured in a more reliable way. The final version will be proofread by a professional translator of English language. The proofreader will be provided UCLan guidelines on the role of proofreading and they will assure to have followed these guidelines. This assures that the content of this work is solemnly my own.

Dependability is connected to the whole research process. It requires that the process is written out in a way that other researchers can follow the process. The researcher writes memos of the interview situations, methodological decisions and analytical realisations. Dependability is a problematic criterion as, even with the same data, two researchers can have different interpretations. This is acceptable, as there are many interpretations of reality, which is acceptable in qualitative research. Different interpretations do not necessarily indicate a problem with credibility since different interpretations parallelly increase understanding of the phenomenon researched (Malteraud, 2001).

Transferability means examining whether the findings of the research are transferrable to other similar situations. The researcher must provide enough descriptive information about the study participants and environment so that the reader can estimate transferability questions.

Another researcher could have highlighted different aspects of the data. I made a conscious decision to highlight the relationship viewpoint in the findings. This is due to the relationship between research questions, i.e. what is good leadership, and how should it be taught? Interviews are like stories of advice from experienced leaders to students who become leaders. Another emphasis on the research question could have resulted in accurate categorisations. Analytical realisations have often occurred on occasions other than those when I have sat down with the intention of doing research. I remember the interviews very well and overall have a good memory. Often I have witnessed an event in real life, watched

the news etc., when some interview episode has returned to my mind and caused a realisation: This is what he meant! I have written it down and returned to it in the analysis process. The original interviews included interviews from the construction sector. I spent much time in the construction department coffee room to better understand the culture and heard much discussion about leadership. Although construction was left out of this thesis, this time helped me immensely with the social work interviews. I adopted the same kind of “anthropologist” attitude in my social work environment as well when the everyday leadership situations I observed increased my own experience and understanding. Also, these two cultures help distinguish between management and leadership.

Chase (2011) points out specific ethical issues which concern narrative inquiry. Narrative researchers often describe longer stories from individual narratives. This differs from a conventional qualitative view, where the excerpts are usually short. In this research, best informed later when selective coding is discussed, each narrative gives a heading to each storyline and includes many other themes. It cannot be emphasised enough that nearly all themes are presented in nearly all interviews. Different informants have weighed themes differently. The narratives in this research can be considered collective narratives (Chase, 2011).

## 3.2 Research activities and sample

In this section, I explain how my methodological commitments translated into practice as I sought to include the relevant participants in my study, and to offer them ways to engage in interviews which enabled them to tell their stories.

### 3.2.1 Sampling strategy, recruitment and profile of interviewees

I carefully considered what kind of interviewees would benefit the research design the most and provide the richest possible data. I had three criteria in mind according to the selection of leader interviewees.

Firstly, as a reminder, most social work is conducted by the municipal sector since the obligation to provide social work services is stated in the legislation. I wanted to keep the link between the interviewees' core tasks and the political environment, and therefore considered it would be best if the interviewees worked in the municipal sector. The views of the private sector and third sector/NGOs are not represented in this study.

Secondly, I preferred that the interviewees represent different areas of operational responsibility according to client segmentation. As I have written in the first chapter concerning social work as an operational environment, in Finland the client segments are child protection and adult social work. Adult social work is often divided further into areas of operational responsibility. In the other city, I studied areas of responsibility in addition to child protection, which were general adult social work, matters concerning mental health and substance abuse, services for handicapped clients, and services for geriatric clients. The other city was significantly smaller and all areas of client responsibility were administratively in one unit.

Thirdly, I preferred to find leader interviewees from different hierarchical organisational levels. I have categorically named these top management and frontline management. When I speak of a person in top management in this study, I refer to a person who has at least one hierarchical level of employees "under" them, who also work as leaders or managers to other people. When I refer to a front line manager or leader, I refer to a person who is in managerial or leadership position to people who work directly with clients. The structure of a typical municipality organisation and different levels of management and leadership are presented in Appendix 3. Four of the interviewees locate to the level "Chiefs of different operational responsibility areas" (top management), one to "leading social workers/ unit managers" (front line managers) and three to "social workers and counsellors" (employees).

I considered it important to interview employees as well. Leadership in this study is seen as a wider phenomenon, and it can and should be evaluated not only by leaders and managers, but employees as well.

With this criteria in mind, I applied for a research permission from two cities in southern Finland. When these permissions were granted, I started the recruitment by sending invitation letters (see Appendix 1, invitation letter) to the leaders responsible for different client segmentation responsibility areas. I had a target of five interviewees in this group. Four of the leaders (top management) I approached agreed to participate in the interview. I

work as a lecturer of social services in a university of applied sciences, and our university has well-functioning networks with these cities. I asked a teacher colleague of mine to recommend a manager or leader I could approach. He recommended a person (front line management) who agreed to participate.

When I interviewed these leaders, I asked for recommendations of employees I could interview. Two of these interviewed employees I found through snowball sampling. One of the employees I know from my networks in my teaching profession. I had discussed the importance of leadership development earlier and asked this person to participate.

All these leaders/managers had both leadership and management responsibilities. The four first mentioned had mainly leadership responsibilities and the one latter more managerial responsibilities. Specifically, the four top managers were involved with influence, which Northouse (2016) sees as a critical feature of leadership. All were also responsible for managerial responsibilities such as budgeting and HR.

Three of the interviewed leaders were male and two were female. Four top level leaders were social workers and had a history of working as social workers. They had all worked in leadership positions for years. As a group, they represented the different client segmentations of child protection, adult social services, services of handicapped, and services for clients with mental health and substance abuse problems.

Two of the three interviewed employees work in child protection services, and one is a counsellor in adult social services. All employees were female. Overall, all major client groups and levels of leadership are represented by the interviewees, and therefore, the data can be considered rich.

In the findings chapter, I will present the findings of the social work leader interviews (N=5) with leaders in four different categories, which are further divided into 41 different subcategories. The social field employee interviews (N=3) were analysed following the same categorisation to see if there were similarities or differences in comparison to the answers of the leaders.

### 3.2.2 Narrative interviews in practice

These narrative interviews had three main questions, each followed by three to six follow-up questions that I, as a researcher, chose according to the answers and themes of the first main questions (see Appendix 4). As my main questions, I first asked the interviewees to recall a situation where they had experienced good leadership and describe as freely as they can what kind of factors, events etc. made this experience positive. This experience did not have to concern their own leadership, it could be good social work leadership they had experienced as employees or successful leadership from a colleague. After this conversation, I encouraged the interviewees to honestly tell unsuccessful examples as well, if there was anything they wanted to share. I wanted to provide the possibility to speak honestly about the downsides of leadership as well. The third main theme summarised the conversation; I directed the discussion to a pedagogical viewpoint and asked interviewees to think what would be important to teach social work students of leadership. This kind of interview paradigm allowed me to follow the storyline of each interview following a natural pathway.



One leader interview and one employee interview were conducted as Teams interviews online. Six interviews were conducted as face-to-face interviews at the interviewees' work places in meeting rooms. Most situations had a calm and peaceful atmosphere. In one employee interview (Teams), there were connection problems and the interviewee was disconnected twice. This interviewee, however, felt like they had been able to say everything they felt was essential.

I began the interviews by introducing myself, my research and its aims. I explained the meaning of "informed consent" (see Appendix 2), and we discussed its content and the meaning of confidentiality and right to withdraw. I then asked the interviewees to freely tell a little bit about themselves and told briefly about myself to establish a positive rapport, leaving the spotlight however to the interviewee. I had already conducted several interviews with construction managers before these interviews, and that had helped me a great deal in settling myself into these interview situations.

I believe the interviewees' mutual background and professional position helped establish a positive rapport. I share the same background profession as the interviewees, which I felt brought familiarity to the context. The pedagogical context strengthening toward to the end of these interviews felt like a functional idea, since it placed both me and the interviewee at "service of greater development" in the students' interest and in the greater societal context, i.e. what is the focus of future social work leadership?

Both the interviewer and the interviewee share the same professional background and "speak the same language". Confidentiality is built into the social work profession, so the interviewees quickly adopted the idea of confidentiality. Their professional status requires higher education. Hence they had the readiness to produce meaningful verbal narratives. In addition to the main questions, not many additional questions were needed, and the conversation progressed naturally. The topic of leadership was not the most sensitive type of an interview topic and had a solid professional connotation.

All interview data was recorded and transcribed. The leader interviews (N = 5) lasted altogether 4.35 hours (43.06 min; 58.45 min; 65 min; 52.19 min; and 42 min) and produced 74 pages of transcribed material (font Calibri 12). The employee interviews (N = 3) lasted 1.3 hours and produced 33 transcribed pages of data (font Calibri 12).

The leaders understandably spoke of leadership and management a lot, and the conversation flowed easily from one view to another to my understanding mainly because the leaders spoke of matters they ponder every day. The employees looked at the phenomenon of leadership from their own angle, and brought to light important grass root level implications leadership has in their everyday work and wellbeing. They are shorter in duration for a reason, which is that the employees did not discuss leadership so much in its organisational and societal meaning.

### 3.3 Data analysis

Different methods have been researched for leadership in social work. Peters (2018) has conducted a systematic literature review. Vito (2018) has used multiple triangulation methods, including semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, observation in management/staff meetings, and an extensive agency document review.

In her research, Vito (2018) audiotaped her interviews and focus groups, and they were initially transcribed in writing using a computer programme, which she reviewed for accuracy while listening to each audiotape. From these audiotapes she edited transcripts. The edited transcripts were analysed, following the phases of thematic analysis to organise the data according to emerging themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Lapadat, 2010). The emerging key themes were sent to each agency's director and supervisor group for initial review and feedback, as part of member checking (Rubin & Babbie, 2011), to ensure accuracy and reduce bias. A coding system was developed to help maintain continuity in reporting (Corden & Sainsbury, 2006).

Garrow-Oliver (2017) interprets the stories of her research participants using what Riessman (2008) calls dialogic analysis and Polkinghorne (1995) calls narrative cognition. She engaged in a process of critical reflection and dialogue with her participants in the interviews, and began to co-construct an understanding of what leadership practice looks like as it is shaped by their roles as child care directors. Through this process, she explored questions that dealt with the child care directors' context, history, and culture, while taking an active part in the dialogue and the text as they attempted to create meaning together and to seek understanding of the women's lived experiences.

In this section I will explain what kinds of solutions I have applied in this research for data analysis.

#### 3.3.1 Introduction to Grounded Theory

The research method I have applied in this study is grounded theory (GT). Birks & Mills (2023) refer to three different types of instances where the use of grounded theory is indicated. First, grounded theory is justified when little is known about the study area. Secondly, generating theory with explanatory power is a desired outcome/deliverable. Thirdly, grounded theory methods will likely explicate an inherent process in the research situation. I chose grounded theory because social work leadership has yet to be extensively researched, and previous social work leadership interview-based studies have not generated a theory on the subject of leadership. We do not yet have a shared understanding of social work leadership. Therefore grounded theory is the justified choice for this purpose since it generates a theory on the subject. The outcome (social work leadership and management theory) describes leadership experienced by the informants of this study in the Finnish context. A theory with explanatory power is desired since it makes it possible to understand the phenomenon thoroughly. This is crucially important, especially from the pedagogical viewpoint of this study. A shallow collection of topics is not desired as an outcome since this kind of situation leaves the phenomenon off context, and it would become challenging for a student to understand the relatedness of different views. This thinking leads to the third point: process. Process thinking, which GT favours, helps to see the phenomenon of leadership as different events with effects on and consequences for one another.

Two trends can be distinguished in Grounded Theory methodology: Straussian inductive-deductive and Glaserian inductive (Stern, 1994; Siitonen, 1999). Glaser and Strauss developed grounded theory methodology together, which they presented in their book “The Discovery of Grounded Theory” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In the last decade, Glaser and Strauss developed the grounded theory methodology further. Grounded theory methodology can be used to produce either formal or substantive theory employing constant comparative method analysis. (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

I have adopted the main principles of GT as seven components explained next and applied different qualitative methods, such as inductive content analysis, where I have deemed it appropriate and possible to do without compromising the central philosophy of GT or the reliability of this research.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) presented seven components a grounded theory practice should include. The researcher should be simultaneously involved in data collection and analysis. They should avoid preconceived logically detected hypotheses and construct analytic codes and categories from the data. They should use constant comparison, which involves making comparisons during each stage of the analysis, and advance theory development during each stage of data collection and analysis. They should lean on memo writing to elaborate categories and their properties. Sampling in research should aim for theory construction rather than for population representativeness. Lastly, they should conduct the literature analysis after developing an independent analysis. Birks & Mills (2023) mention these same principles when they discuss what is required from a study to be grounded theory research. They also mention that constant comparative analysis should be both inductive and deductive. They also raise questions of theoretical sensitivity, intermediate coding, and identification of the core category.

Throughout this section, I will explain what solutions I have developed to achieve results and reflect these solutions against the criteria presented by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Birks & Mills in the previous paragraph. Flexibility in applying grounded theory principles is encouraged (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), and researchers are invited to see GT as a set of principles and practices rather than prescriptions and packages. At the same time, I aim to apply GT according to requirements and use creativity within this frame.

Theoretical sensitivity is crucially essential to achieve reliable results. In my analysis, I have assured objectivity through the use of the hermeneutic circle. Laine (2018) has described the hermeneutic circle, i.e. the research dialogue with the research material. Research material should be understood as something other than an acquired information storage. The researcher engages in a dialogue with the interview material, the goal of which is to understand the otherness of the other. Investigative dialogue is a circular movement between the researcher’s understanding and the material. In this process, the researcher’s understanding should deepen all the time. Moving on, the hermeneutic circle frees the researcher from their self-centred interpretation. The goal is an open attitude towards others. It is often the case that the researcher makes spontaneous interpretations at the beginning of the research. The aim is to get rid of these with the help of critical reflection. This way, you gain distance from your interpretation. The material is periodically re-examined with critical eyes. After the critical distance, the material appears different. Things emerge that were not considered significant at first, or significant discoveries lose their status due to

using the hermeneutic circle. This movement aims to find the most likely and believable interpretation of what the interviewee meant.

As I referred to in the “ethical considerations”, I have written field notes and memos throughout the research process (see example in Appendix 6). Birks & Mills (2023) recommend electronic memos. I have found the traditional notebook and pen style more appropriate for me. Seeing my handwriting and working with my hand helps me remember what I have thought and written. I am a visual learner, and I use different colours for different purposes; blue for meetings and agreements with supervisors, red for spontaneous ideas and observations, and green for work with the analysis process (an example in Appendix 5). I have found memos useful particularly for two reasons. First, to increase the reliability of findings as I have later been able to see what ideas I have had and why I have abandoned some views. Secondly, mainly when construction leadership was a part of the research design, I spent many hours physically in the Hämeenlinna UAS construction department community to gain observations on the work culture and leadership. Although this view was left out of this study, this process has contributed to my professional growth as an observer. This also helped me as a researcher in the social work environment, as I learned to stop and think again about what I am seeing and hearing around me.

At the same time, the literature review conducted after the data collection helped me check whether the findings created new angles to the phenomenon. GT is considered very suitable for studying human activity. The interest is in actors and the interaction between activities. With the help of the method, examining human activity is possible conceptually and as a process. There needs to be more research done on social work leadership. Grounded research allows capturing the essence of leaders and employees as purely as possible. It is possible to describe how good leadership is experienced in social reality. Leadership practices are processes. Grounded theory enables us to see leadership as an activity with relationships between different events, conditions and consequences. Secondly, the data collection and analysis done independently before thorough engagement with leadership literature allows the interviewees’ voices to construct a leadership theory with as little bias as possible.

Grounded theory methodology is based on data orientation, whereby the produced theoretical structure, a system of concepts, or a theory describes and explains the phenomenon and content in question either as substantive or formal theory. Formal theory is characterised by its generalizability, testability and suitability for a wide range of operations in the area. This approach has not been possible within the confines of this study. Rather my approach has been to take steps towards developing a substantive theory intended for a particular field of activity, an inductively formed theory produced from empirical material. (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

### 3.3.2 Overview of the analysis process

The data analysis progressed in three phases following the principles of the grounded theory tradition from open coding to axial coding and selective coding. Charmaz (2006) encourages researchers to apply GT independently and differ from traditional pathways when it seems justified. I have constructed a data analysis where the phases of axial and selective coding are parallel, each emerging from the open coding independently rather than linearly building on one another sequentially.

In the grounded theory methodology, the first stage of coding in the analysis process is called open coding. *Open coding* is defined as “the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising and categorising data” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Dey (1999) quotes Strauss & Corbin (1990) further and describes the process as “parts of the analysis that pertains specifically to the naming and categorising of phenomena through close examination of data”. Other phases follow the open coding stage. Axial coding Strauss & Corbin (1990) define as “a set of procedures where data are put back together in new ways after open coding, by making connections between categories”. *Selective coding* is defined as the core category in this context, and is described as the central phenomenon around which all other categories are integrated. To summarise, the phases consist of 1) categorising data (open coding), 2) connecting categories (theoretical and axial coding), and 3) focusing on one core category (selective coding).

Each of these processes revealed different insights. In the following subsections of this chapter, I therefore explain separately the process and headline insights from open (3.3.3), axial (3.3.4) and selective storyline coding (3.3.5).

### 3.3.3 Open coding and emerging insights

The open coding phase results in “relational understandings” in the findings. This segment of the analysis process contributed to an understanding of a leader’s relationships with themselves, with employees and towards the unique environment. This section will explain how this part of the research was conducted.

Strauss & Corbin (1990) suggest that open coding can be carried through different levels, from line-by-line analysis, through sentence or paragraph coding, to coding entire documents. The emphasis is on “close examination” of line-by-line analysis. Charmaz (2006) also discusses alternatives to the first stage of open coding as line-by-line or word-by-word coding. In all cases in this first stage, the idea is that the transcript interview data is broken into smaller pieces.

In this research, I conducted a line-by-line analysis. This helped me process the data thoroughly. For the use of analysis, it left the essence of the data on too detailed a level. I moved on to use meaning units, as Graneheim & Lundman (2004) refer to it.

I analysed the open coding stage following the stages of inductive content analysis. In content analysis, the data is dismantled into pieces, and the parts with similarities are connected, as the open coding stage in the GT approach requires. (Kylmä & Juvakka, 2007). The content analysis aims to produce new knowledge of the phenomenon under research (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). In inductive content analysis, categories are formed from the data. Content analysis is based on inductive reasoning, which is directed by the research question and the purpose of the research (Kylmä & Juvakka, 2007).

The first round of analysis corresponding to open coding in inductive content analysis is called reduction (Kylmä & Juvakka, 2007). Here I have searched for meaningful units which answer the research question of how leaders and social work followers see effective leadership in social work. The first analysis round produced open codes (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004), summarising the data into more minor descriptions describing effective leadership. The original text is in Finnish. The content was translated at this stage, and the open code was written in English.

In the second round (grouping) of analysis, open codes were connected and subcategories formed according to content analysis procedures (Kylmä & Juvakka, 2007). As the axial coding phase suggests, I later assembled these subcategories as a process (Charmaz, 2006). I formed the categories by searching for differences and similarities in the open codes. Under some categories, I have differentiated the subcategories into lower and upper, as this appears to be a justified way to organise the data logically. In the analysis process, the saturation point (Kylmä & Juvakka, 2007; Saaranen-Kauppinen & Puusniikka, 2006) was achieved. This means that the data does not produce new categories, i.e. themes find their place in already existing categories with ease without forcing.

The analysis process was conducted with the help of the NVivo program. I have included an example of the research process in the figure underneath. Here “Leader with follower” (B) is the category. “Relationship to followers” (20) is an upper subcategory, and “AA trust – AE interaction” is a lower subcategory. The verbal descriptions underneath these are open codes. An example of the analysis is presented in Appendix 5.

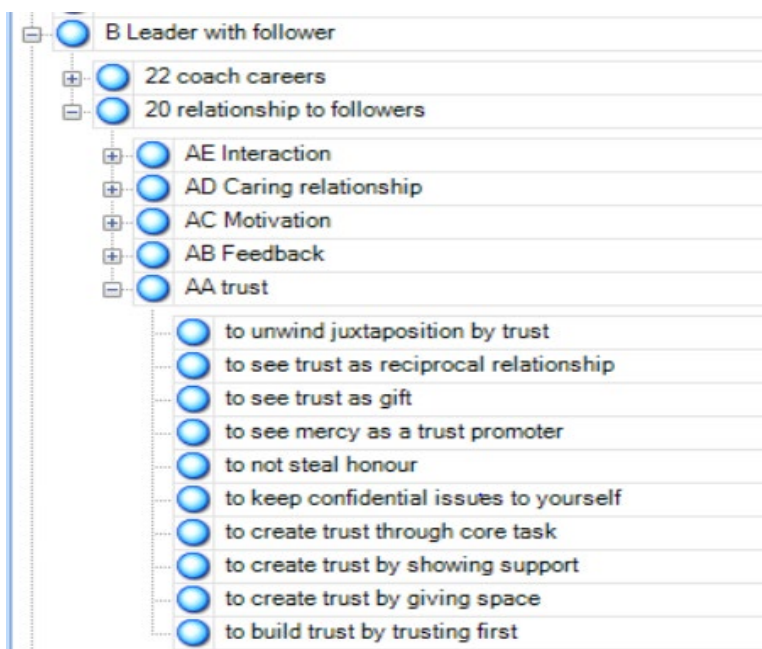


Figure 4: Example of the analysis process, category B with subcategories and nodes

The open coding phase produced five categories, A–E, forming the basis for the axial coding, where the findings were presented through their relationship.

As mentioned, these categories describe effective leadership as leaders’ relationships with a) themselves, b) their employees, and C) their environment. Category D shows findings as different managerial work procedures that help achieve the strategy. Finally, the findings are examined from the values (E) viewpoint, which sets leadership guidelines.

Most of the data fell into the first three categories (A–C), and these appeared to relate to one another intensely. These categories represent data from the interviews, which describe leadership themes that are essential specifically in one-on-one interaction (A) with a leader and an employee (B). Category C, “leader with the environment”, adds the perspective of group and community to leadership. In this category, data is presented which is relevant specifically in leadership with groups and communities. These categories are not boxes

which contain leadership skills and qualities needed for certain types of situations only. Instead, they are attached to a leader and “carried along” forward in their leadership identity development journey. Types of relationships to oneself, one-on-one, and environment are contexts where these leadership aspects most often occur and are most often needed.

The fourth category D, “work procedures”, describes the knowledge, regulations etc., necessary to master leadership and management. The content of these work procedures comes closest to the idea of management. As management and leadership are not strictly separated from one another in literature, such division does not exist in categorising the findings.

Category E, “values”, describes essential values in efficient social work leadership. These are philosophical lenses through which leaders must always examine all leadership and management.

### 3.3.4 Axial coding and emerging insights

The axial coding phase generated an understanding concerning leadership as a process and phenomenon. This is a larger context of leadership, and both the open coding findings (A–E relational understanding) and selective coding findings (the three storylines) fall underneath axial coding findings, i.e. process description of leadership.

The categories need to be connected in a particular coding paradigm, axial coding. According to Strauss (1987), this is central to coding procedures. The researcher needs to code the associated subcategories.

Axial coding in GT tradition draws connections between codes, as does grouping in content analysis. The first procedure, grouping, builds meaningful connections between open codes, and in the second stage, the process is described in terms of axial coding. The categories in axial coding were phenomenon (which phenomenon is investigated), causal conditions (why did this phenomenon happen), strategies (what was done), consequences (what happened as a result of the strategies), context (details that describe the circumstances in which strategies take place), and intervening conditions (attributes which may influence the strategies). (Charmaz, 2006).

In the findings chapter, I have illustrated how these categories relate to one another when examined as a leadership process. The relationship between subcategories is presented in the Figure 5 below.

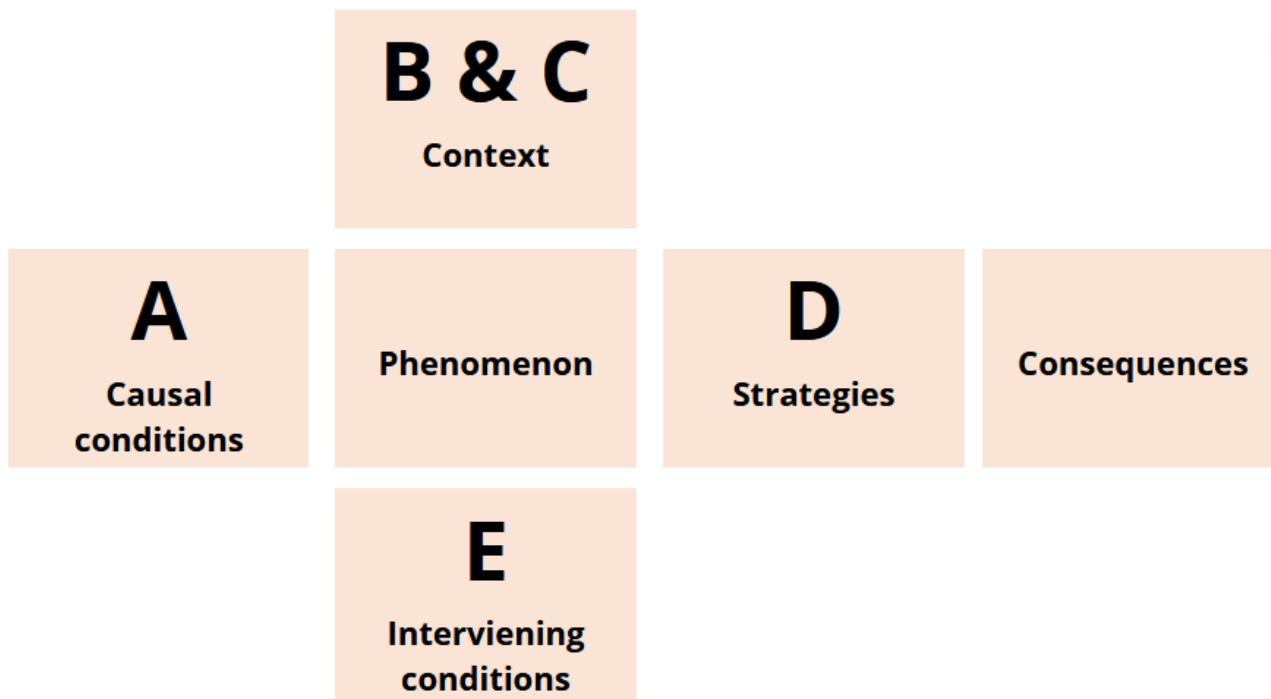


Figure 5: Subcategories placed in the axial coding process

In this research, I have applied the chart as follows. Findings are organized according to the chart below. In the centre is the phenomenon of efficient leadership, which results in consequences; a stable status quo in an organization where the set objectives are met. The results are presented as a process to point out the relatedness of the categories, i.e. which elements follow one another on a timeline. Efficient social work leadership is seen here as a process where different phenomena (categories) follow one another and arrive at achieved objectives in a successful outcome.

In “causal conditions”, “leaders as self” implies simply being aware of leadership as a profession and the task requirements. If this recognition does not happen, not much happens in leadership, at least not in an organized way. The subjective motives for leadership positions should be acknowledged. If motivation is more based on your position and will to have power than serving your followers and social work clients’ interests, the starting point for the rest of the phases is ethically challenging.

As “strategies”, leaders use different processes to achieve the objectives. They can relate to both management and leadership, though more often these are managerial processes concerning the finances of the organization and HR.

“Context” means that all work procedures live and exist in interaction, manifesting human relationships at work. Successful interaction leads to a good atmosphere, which creates the abstract context of leadership.

Values constitute the category of intervening conditions which affect strategies. This connection makes leadership social work leadership. All other components could describe leadership in any field.





Figure 6: Axial coding findings

### 3.3.5 Selective and storyline coding and insights

In selective coding, the main idea is to form particular categories or codes that form some core. These codes have the power to elucidate lots of aspects central to the phenomenon. In this phase, the researcher builds a storyline, a conceptualization of the story, upon which the core category is established. The core category should be systematically related to other categories that need further refinement. (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Dey (1999) asks whether selective coding is strictly based on axial coding or an independent process, i.e. is theoretical coding a part of substantive coding or a different activity?

Allowing axial and selective coding to emerge from the original data independently is a more reliable choice in this study and allows different levels of abstraction to emerge. Of course, these two coding processes cannot contradict one another. I base this decision on my conclusion regarding the level of abstraction and on breaking down and reassembling data, which can be done in different ways. When an abstract phenomenon such as leadership is broken into small nodes and reassembled, the decision to organize this reassembly is one of many options regardless of the researcher's expertise. If selective coding is continued from axial coding, the same pathway of choice is deepened. The result is valid if the analysis is done correctly, but substantive elements from data may need to be recovered in this process. This is because the mass of nodes represents all interviews in small components. The same data is seen when original interviews and memos are looked at again, but the

elements have different weights. Each interview had essential messages, which are seen in the axial coding. When a core category is selected, it becomes inevitable to select. Selecting also means leaving something out. The most relevant content does not only rely on the written transcript text but on memos as well. One interviewee might have emphasized a particular aspect of leadership several times, spoken more slowly, had more eye contact, and so on. The essence is more reliable from many different things when the pragmatic analysis from open coding to axial is set aside to look at the interviews as stories. This also allows more artistic research settings to enter the research design. This complements the pragmatic process and enriches the data as the data was looked at from two different directions.

In this stage, I read all the interviews once more and wrote descriptions of a few sentences on each interview. This process produced the core category to connect subcategories, presenting the highest level of abstraction as a result of this analysis. I named each interview with an individual headline, which describes the core content of the interview, and the most critical input I found each interviewee had expressed.

I used “storyline” as a tool to conduct the phase of selective coding. In this research, this tool is presented here by this original term “storyline”, otherwise I refer to this paradigm also by the term “narrative”, since it allows me to bring this view to a larger context. Common for these is that they describe experience. Storyline as an aid to analysis was described as an integrative tool by Strauss and Corbin (1990). It is a strategy for facilitating integration, construction, formulation and presentation of a grounded theory. Through the use of storyline, the researcher can explicate the relationships between the concepts that make up the theory. Storyline is the explanation of the researched phenomenon and in turn provides an explanation for the studied phenomenon (Birks & Mills, 2023).

Birks & Mills (2023) advice to use the strategies which have been used throughout the analysis when writing a storyline. I have read each transcribed interview and inspected them from a narrative angle. I have utilized my memos and observations I have made in the interview situations. I have looked at each interview like it has one significant point the interviewee brought to light. In addition to words, this might include tones of voice and referring to a particular side of the leadership phenomenon several times.

I have written a one-paragraph short story of each interview following the guidelines provided by Strauss & Corbin (1990). I have given each short story, i.e. each interview, a heading describing this core content. In these eight headings, I have combined three roles (“understander”, “caregiver” and “designer”) based on the consistencies and connections I saw between them. In the “Findings” chapter, I will explain how I have come to this conclusion. Eight original storylines were formed as illustrated in the Figure below.

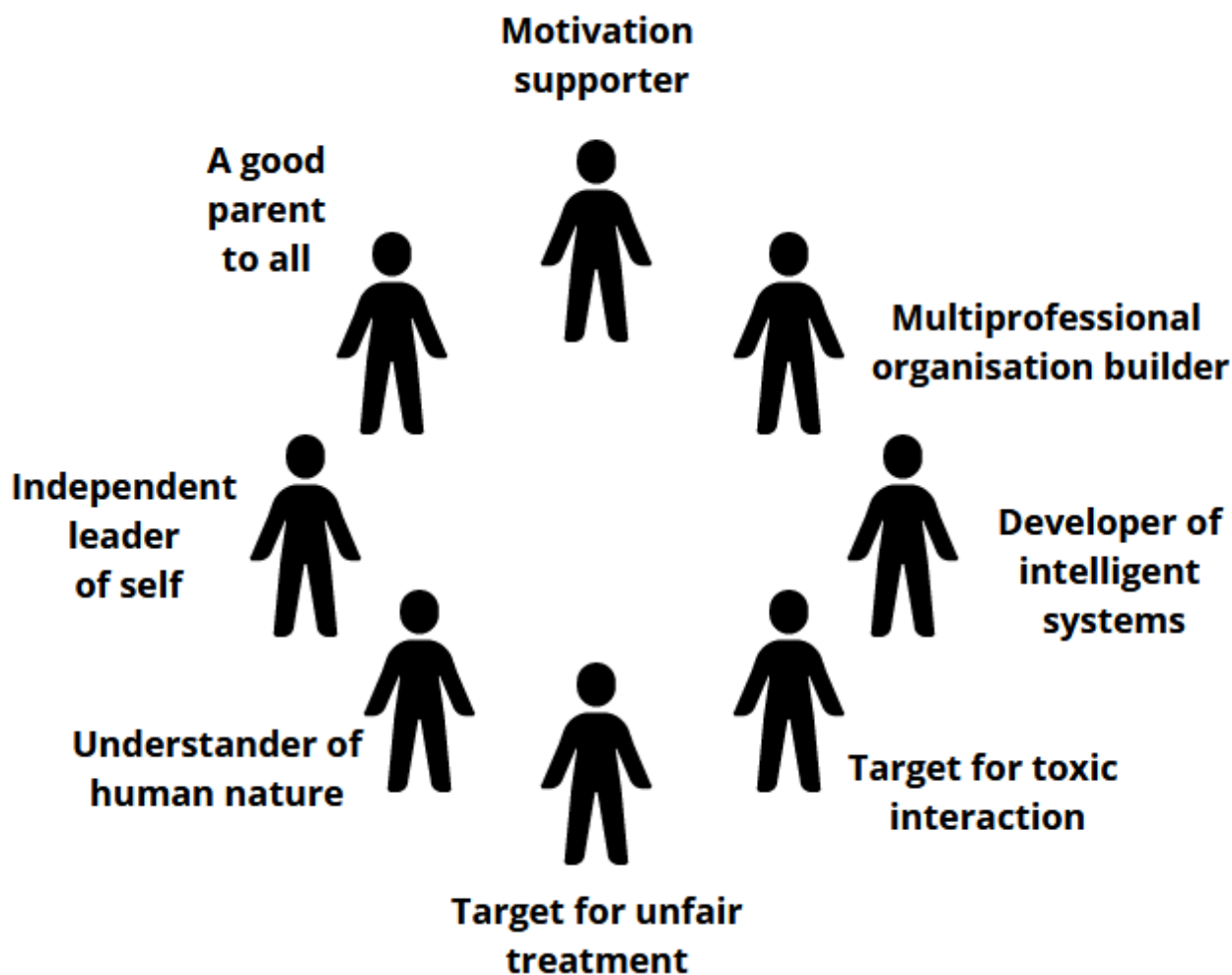
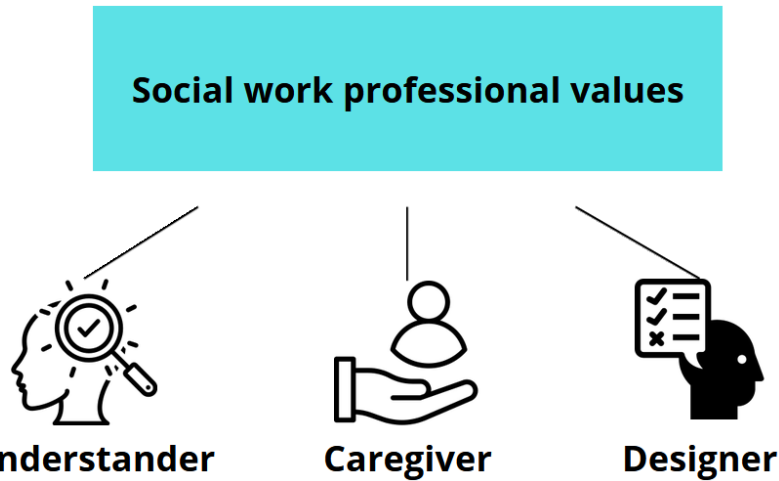


Figure 7: Original eight storylines in selective coding process

The final aim of the selective coding phase is to crystallize the analysis process by forming a leadership theory. There are three subcategories, which follow the logic of three leadership roles. These are “Understander”, “Caregiver”, and “Designer”. The core category that connected across each of these storylines was related to values. I have therefore chosen “values” as a core category in this suggested substantive theory for social work contexts in Finland. As Birks & Mills (2023) suggest, the core category is something you “keep coming across with”. Professional values are also something that makes social work leadership *social work* leadership. Having experience from researching leadership in other professional fields, I see that “professional values” is the component that differentiates social work leadership from leadership in general or leadership in other disciplines. This is important in constructing the curriculum, as I will explain later.

To conclude, I have explained the rationale for my methodological choices and ethical considerations. I have explained the research process and provided insight into the findings on the level of headings. In the next chapter, I will deepen the findings and start to tie these to what is already known of social work leadership. This integration is continued more thoroughly later in *discussion*.



*Figure 8: Core category subcategories in selective coding*

This research has provided new insights into the phenomenon of social work leadership. These themes will form a foundation for the social work management and leadership curriculum in the next chapter. I see the final aim of a curriculum as my practical contribution to serve the professional field through developed working life practices. These practices may best change through changes in education policies.

## Chapter 4 - Findings

In the literature review (Chapter 2), I argued for the need for greater insight into the social work leadership styles and approaches that are valued by social work managers/leaders and social workers in practice in Finland, to understand what these deliver and how these might be integrated into a social work leadership curriculum. In the methodology (Chapter 3), I described how data were generated and analysed in order to address these questions. In this chapter, I report the findings from the analysis in response to the first two questions – the leadership styles and approaches valued by social work managers/leaders and social workers and what these deliver.

In this chapter, as described in the methodology, the findings are developed from the three stages of grounded theory analysis. However, the findings are presented in a different order to the analysis process outlined in the methodology chapter. I do this because the axial coding process revealed the complexity of the way in which different elements of leadership come together in any one instance of a leadership phenomenon. As shown in Figure 5, leaders' relationships to themselves, to others, and to communities, contexts and intervention conditions all come together alongside work tasks or processes that leaders have a responsibility to fulfil. In this chapter, I therefore first present the storylines of how leaders and followers perceive leadership (4.1), and I then look into relational aspects (4.2) and work processes (4.3) before pulling this together to provide an overview of the key messages from the interviewees.

In the first section (4.1), I describe the three dominant narratives that emerged from the selective storyline analysis. These are leader as understander, caregiver and designer. From the eight storylines in the interviews, narratives in relation to these three roles were combined based on the similarities in their meaning. These findings show that leadership and management are seen as a phenomenon, which, in order to be executed successfully, needs to pay attention to all three aspects of designing, caregiving and understanding. Although all aspects were reported as necessary in effective social work leadership, in practice, the emphasis between one role/narrative or another varies.

The axial coding analysis also revealed that these narratives all interweave with different ways of being in relation to oneself, to others and to communities. The second section of this chapter (4.2) therefore explores these relational understandings. I consider leaders' relationships with themselves, leaders' relationships with employees, and with their environment. The next section of this chapter (4.3) addresses the work procedures which leaders are tasked with. This shows the overlap between what research participants described as expected from social work leaders and what tends to be described as management tasks (e.g. Field, 2020; Rousu, 2021) in leadership literature.

In the final section (4.4), I conclude by drawing together a picture of how the findings fit together, to start to form the structure for a social work leadership and management curriculum.

After this, in the discussion chapter, I point out how these findings relate to the appropriate approaches and styles of social work leadership which were described in the literature review. This is then synthesised into further elements for a curriculum to highlight what is essential for future social work leadership education, as described in the implications chapter (6).

## 4.1 Three narratives of leadership

As explained in the methodology chapter, selective coding produced eight storyline headings according to interviews. Of these storylines, “a good parent to all”, “independent leader of self”, and “motivation supporter” constitute the leadership role of a *caregiver*. This leader role is decisive in caring relationships with employees and supporting their *growth*. Storylines “multi-professional developer of intelligent systems” and “multi-professional organisation builder” constitute the *designer’s* role. This leader, or manager, role is vital in organisation understanding, defining strategy and different, primarily managerial, processes. Storylines “understander of human nature”, “target for toxic interaction”, and “target for unfair treatment” constitute the role of *the understander*. Understanding concerns knowledge of human nature and interaction and different psychodynamic pathways through which the quality of relationships is affected.

In this section, I will provide details of how the research participants understood each of these roles.

### Caregiver

The caregiver narrative was present in all interviews, in some more strongly than in others. The caregiver narrative combines narratives of being a good parent to all, a motivational supporter and being a coach, as illustrated by the examples below taken from three interviews. I show examples of how care is represented in different contexts within the interviews, then outline the three narratives which are the root for this classification.

#### *Notions of care*

Notions of care were also present when the interviewees described themes of empathy and support. Empathy was present in the workers’ wishes for understanding the problems they experience, both in emotional and practical challenges. Empathy connects to both practical and emotional support. Employees wished for practical support, when they were uncertain of which decision to make usually in terms of a client case. This relates to responsibility. The employees discussed both the need for the leaders to carry responsibility in the most difficult cases and also the need to grow towards independency in decision making and taking responsibility. A caregiver sees putting the interest of the worker ahead of their own as their ethical responsibility.

*Well, a leader like that who listens and is able to understand if there is, then when... And has the ability to empathize and of course like that... And, sure, like that when... Treats everyone as equals, then I say that there is already a lot. (Employee)*

A particular area where care was needed according to the employees was emotional support when workers experienced extreme hostility from a client.

*If clients are, like, difficult, threaten you or something... then you want support from the leader (Employee)*

The leaders added a HR view to care in the form of safeguarding employees' rights particularly by avoiding the use of fixed term work contracts when it is possible and assuring the continuity of careers.

*When the handling of income allowance applications was moved to the Social Insurance Institution, we had to find new positions for 50 workers. The principle was that nobody's work contracts will be terminated. This was well prepared and we succeeded (Leader)*

#### *A good parent to all*

One leader interviewed said their most important task as a leader is to support the professional growth of their employees. I described their narrative as a "parent figure to all". On many occasions, this interviewee emphasised that a leader's main task is to help their followers grow and move forward in their careers. They believed that a leader's primary responsibility is to put the interests of others before their own. Their satisfaction in an employee's progress seems to mirror what a parent might say in relation to the development and growth of their child's capabilities.

*My workers, to whom I have been a leader... when they advance in their careers. I do not think that it is because of me, but... just now, I spoke to one of my people who got a job in a high position elsewhere, and it is so great to see how people grow professionally and their leadership grows. (Leader)*

In this quote, it could be read that there is a contrast between what is said and what is implied. The leader says of the employee progression that 'it is not because of me'. But, at the same time, there is an implication in 'to whom I have been a leader'. I suggest that the implication is that the leader, as they also describe themselves as a good parent, feels that there is some relevant support that they have provided.

#### *Motivation supporter*

One leader interviewee I named "motivation supporter". This interview highlighted understanding and encouraging motivation in the workforce, precisely inner motivation, as the cornerstones of good leadership.

*A leader must understand the role of motivation... when we thought together why we are here in the first place. External motivation is one thing; there is money, respect and these aspects. However, inner motivation is what drives people forward in this work. It is imperative that we like our work. This often comes in the form of succeeding with a client; not necessarily that they give positive feedback, but they start to trust and you see the small positive changes. (Leader)*

In my interpretation of the narrative, motivation links to growth and progress. Motivation is the spark for any activity. If an employee's professional growth is the aim of the leader, assuring this growth is hardly possible if the employee is not motivated. A key to motivation is recognizing small achievements.

### *A coach towards growing independence*

In one of the employee interviews, I named the qualities they wished for in a leader as “a coach towards growing independence”. The interviewee expressed respect towards the type of leadership “a good parent to all” practices, but placed a stronger emphasis on a coach-like style, where the possibilities for independent work and support according to need are strong.

*In this field, the most important skill is the ability to make decisions. Decision making should be shared and distributed. We are on the wrong track if no decision can be made without the boss. (Employee)*

These three themes (parent figure, motivation and growing independence) formed the role of the caregiver. In this kind of leadership, the leader has a responsibility to care for their employees, to support employees’ motivation to grow, to provide structural possibilities, such as career shifts, and take care of the employees’ growing independence to make decisions.

To conclude, the role of “caregiver” involves parent-like care, which supports motivation and leads to the increased independence of an employee. Data suggests that care is both psychosocial as empathy and practical as correct HR measures. Successful care supports employee motivation. The caregiver narrative strongly resonates with the literature review findings of transformational leadership (Choy-Brown, 2020; Nanjundeswaraswamy, 2014; Bass, 1997; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Conger & Caningo, 1998; Tafvelin et al., 2014; Djourova, 2020; Park & Perce, 2020; Gellis, 2001; Mary, 2005; Tham & Strömberg, 2020; Lawler, 2007; Mizrahi & Berger, 2005; Pearlmuter, 1998) as it emphasises growth. Servant leadership (Winston & Fields, 2015; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Brown et al., 2005; Spears & Greenleaf, 2002; Peterlin et al., 2015; Marmo & Berkman; 2018) is also strongly present since being able to care involves putting the interest of the other before one’s own. Compassionate leadership (Schaub et al., 2022 ; West et al., 2017; Kouta et al., 2019; West & Chowla, 2017) also resonates with this role since empathy is a vital element in care. I will conclude the significance of these further in the Discussion chapter.

### *Understander*

This role consists of three narratives describing the need and ability to understand the basics of human behaviour and the consequences different interaction events may have. This role has similarities to the caregiver, but the core is different. Whereas the caregiver supports individual growth, the understander sees the significance of emotions and the countereffect different emotions have in the community.

As in the section of caregiver, here I will first introduce the three narratives which constituted this role. After this I will move on to examine what themes other interviews constituted to this role.



### *Understander of human nature*

One leader's interview I have named "systemic understander of human nature". This interview strongly resembles the relationships between people and questions of humanhood.

*I visit the offices of these people a lot for all kinds of things to discuss. Sometimes if a worker says they have had a rough weekend, for example, I check how they feel later. They are people. In addition to leadership books, I have read many books on humanity and novels. I am unsure whether the leadership books helped me more than the novels in this work. (Leader)*

In my interpretation, showing empathy is an important core here. Just as empathy is important to the caregiver, the understander links empathy and emotions to human nature in a larger context of human nature and mental well-being.

### *The target for unfair treatment*

Not all human interaction is good, and there are bad examples too. One employee interview I have named "target for unfair treatment." (I wish to remind in this context that the leaders referred to in these examples are not any of the leaders interviewed for this research). Unfair treatment becomes visible when rules that concern all are applied differently to different employees. Practicing unfair treatment is considered inadequate leadership.

*Inequality as an example... Person A can work remotely from home more often than the general rules from the top management allow, and person B is not allowed to do so. A does not have to report what she has done during the remote day, but B does. I experience this so that I am not trusted at all. Maybe it is because I am loud. I point out grievances quite straightforwardly. (Employee)*

### *The target for toxic interaction*

One interviewed employee I named "target for toxic interaction". These lifts bring to the discussion the negative tones of interaction. Sometimes behaviour can qualify even as bullying.

*In my last place, my boss had gone through a divorce and poisoned the atmosphere. I came to this place as a positive and happy person. I stayed a lot in my room and cried that year. I never want to see her again. She yelled, threw papers on my desk, humiliated me, and said I had done everything wrong and had not.... I usually get along with people, but then I collapsed. (Employee)*

### *Contribution of other interviews to this role*

The leaders discussed caring relationships as fair and assuring equality between different employees. This includes avoiding favouritism.

*Well, managers who take favourites, even though I have had the same experience where I did not know this... I was one of those favourites, and this manager seemed really good to me, but then it's revealed to me at another time that that is not how he treated others, and it was pretty creepy, to be honest, how the non-favourites were treated. But that I don't know now, it's pretty self-evident that it's not good management manners to yell at people or yell at them or embarrass them or bully them, but there are, of course, people like that in these positions. (Leader)*

The leaders saw that it is wise to acknowledge negative emotions in the community and intervene when needed.

*... you have to sometimes choose a direction and say, this is the way we are going to. It can feel bad (for the employee) when it is not your own direction, and people can keep dwelling in disappointment. (Leader)*

Support is needed in understanding and resolving emotionally difficult situations and conflicts.

*... in conflict, support is also needed from other instances. It can be occupational health care, supervision or collegial support, but it is crucially vital never to be left alone. Situations can escalate to complex conflicts. In the worst cases, people stop talking to one another. I hope, and I know, these support forms are used. (Leader)*

To conclude the role of understander, I interpret these quotes from both employees and leaders to concern the need to understand emotions and react to them accordingly when needed. In my interpretation, this is a reminder that also negative emotions are present in the work communities, and they may be manifested through e.g. unfair treatment and even bullying. I will discuss the meaning of these in the discussion chapter to weigh the different sides and contribution to social work leadership curriculum. Of all the leadership approaches, the role of the understander benefits specially from the compassionate approach (Schaub et al., 2022 ; West et al., 2017; Kouta et al., 2019; West & Chowla, 2017), though in the curriculum design the compassionate approach is primarily connected to the caregiver role. The role of the understander benefits from the psychodynamic approach, which was introduced in the literature review in general leadership approaches (Northouse, 2016). As I will demonstrate later, this approach should be strengthened in social work leadership.

### *Designer*

The designer's role consists of management-rooted processes and activities. The designer is a strategist who masters organisation forms and designs different managerial processes. In the social work context, this mainly concerns financial skills such as budgeting.

Of the literature review findings, strategical leadership and evidence-based practice (Colnar & Dimovski, 2019; Colnar, Dimovski & Bogataj, 2019; Hicks, Dattero & Gallup, 2006; Kahn, 1993; Henttonen et al., 2016; Ekeland et al., 2019; Pekkarinen, 2010; Johnson et al., 2014; Byars, 1992; Ollila, 2006; Seeck, 2012; Huotari, 2009; Field; 2020; Field & Miller 2020) mainly connect to this role. The literature review presents distributed leadership in the context of the "designer" role. The original storylines were "multi-professional developer of intelligent systems" and "multi-professional organisation builder".

### *Multiprofessional developer of intelligent systems*

One leader interview I named “multi-professional developer of intelligent systems”.

These parts of the interviews, to my understanding, describe the structural side of leadership, where the leader’s (or manager’s) responsibility is to design or lead design processes for the delivery of services.

A multi-professional perspective is promoted. The delivery of services should be effective, and the services should be based on evidence-based needs.

*We have a client segmentation model where we have more able clients who can themselves read instructions and use the internet, support clients who need help with services... cooperation clients who have a lot of heavy services at use but are in balance. What requires our attention is that the fourth segment needs services from multiple providers, and the services are not in balance; these same people place much workload on many service providers both in the health and social sector and still, their welfare does not increase. (Leader)*

Interdisciplinary work cannot be avoided in social work because many clients have multiple challenges that need to be encountered by different professionals. The social sector and the healthcare sector are the most common pair.

*...it (interdisciplinary work) is as difficult as always. The basic problem with the municipal sector is that everybody has enough on their plates. It is not an appealing job to think how I could expand this further and take the networks in so... this cooperation, solidarity, consultations... they are challenging. From the leadership viewpoint, it feels strange that they cannot call there and ask for help. Nevertheless, for some reason, they do not call... To achieve a genuine and trusting relationship with some organisation, you must have done something together, know what they look like, and at least have heard from a friend that they are ok and you have some history. Nevertheless, when people around you change all the time, you never achieve this history. This network song we have sung for decades, but it does not become easier. (Leader)*

In my interpretation, this narrative contributes to two main lines: client needs have to be carefully investigated and known. This knowledge, which I call the identified core task, should be processed in an interdisciplinary setting.

### *Multiprofessional organisation builder*

“Multi-professional organisation builder” puts much effort into organisation design. Low hierarchy and matrix organisations are preferred.

*There have been a few star moments... planning and delivering an organisation where ten organisations from social and health sectors work together in the same place was a success. This requires a matrix organisation where you can create trust. You have to persuade people on your side to see a common goal and work together towards it. (Leader)*

Interdisciplinary work also relates to this story enormously, as it does to the “developer of intelligent systems”. Multiprofessional work is often also referred to as network social work. Multiprofessional work was seen as inevitable, but challenges were notable.

I find that this narrative adds up the question of organisation model to the previous narrative of knowledge based core task and interdisciplinary work form. This lifts the designer role to a larger structural context.

#### *Contribution of other interviews to this role*

Strategy, or the lack of it, was connected to the theme of trust and participation of the employees in contributing to the creation of strategy.

*We have come a long way, so when I was having a breakfast meeting with the service manager today, I once again used the ship analogy: who should be there on the command deck and why should they be there, and who and why should we trust that the things on the ship will work anyway and that the report reaches the bridge. I still see that, here, the ship analogy is related to the fact that this ship has been sailing in the fog for a long time, without the radar showing anything at all. We have been in a reactive state, where we have only reacted, and there has not been any long-term, further-reaching vision of what we should do and where we should go, when the previous leader has not done such a thing, but led everything himself without strictly trusting, apparently. Or maybe he did trust, but it gave the image and feeling to these employees that they have not been trusted.*

*(Leader)*

To conclude the role of designer, I interpret the quoted parts of these interviews to present a leadership role which nurtures the knowledge based core task and its execution in adequate interdisciplinary processes. The greater context for the designer is organisation form (preferably flat) and participative approach in a trustful atmosphere. Of the leadership and management approaches, the designer role is informed by strategic management and knowledge based management. (Colnar & Dimovski, 2020; Colnar, Dimovski & Bogataj, 2019; Hicks et al., 2006; Kahn, 1993; Henttonen et al., 2016; Ekeland et al., 2019; Pekkarinen, 2010; Johnson et al., 2014; Byars, 1992; Ollila, 2006; Seeck, 2012; Huotari, 2009; Field, 2020a; Field & Miller, 2020)

## 4.2 Relational understandings

This section “relational understandings” results from the “open coding” process as explained in the methodology chapter. The inductive content analysis data revealed views describing the interaction know-how needed in the leadership profession. This is presented in three sections. “Leader with self” refers to a reflective dialogue a leader should first engage with themselves. It is about knowing one’s own strengths and limitations. The findings indicate further what the topics for this reflective interaction are. Secondly, the findings reveal what is essential to understand in one-on-one interaction with leaders and employees. The third section tells us what is essential when leading a community and its relations outside of the community.

None of the descriptions means that a particular way of interacting would only appear in that context; all types of interaction occur in all situations. These are contexts where these interaction forms have strongly risen into the light. The most logical way to present these is the original contexts, where they fit the best.

### *Leader with self*

Leaders described the importance of reflecting on themselves before examining other aspects of leadership. The subcategories are *leadership as a profession, acknowledging personal motives and character, personal substance know-how and self-care*.

Acknowledging personal motives and character is about self-awareness. The interviewed leaders thought that there are features of personality and character which are essential to leadership positions. The interviewees did not take a firm stand on many of these features, claiming a leader should be x but not y, but rather were strongly encouraged to go through this process of reflection. There are, of course, patterns of behaviour, such as bullying, which are wrong in all interactions. However, many features are not black or white when the “ideal” leadership character is discussed.

People in social work leadership positions should acknowledge their motivation for leadership positions. This connects strongly to the question of power. The interviewees discussed the question of *authority* in their answers. The leader has power, but wanting it for personal reasons was considered a wrong motive for a leadership position. Examining one’s own relationship towards power was seen as an ethical responsibility.

*There is a difference between wanting to influence and wanting to be in power. If I want to be in power, it connects to my position and what I wish for myself rather than for this community and society. If you want a job where you can tell what to do, as a leader, you can, but is it the right motive? (Leader)*

Employees need freedom around them, and leaders should only interfere when performance is poor or procedures are objectively estimated as false or harmful. Micromanagement, where the leader holds all the strings in their hands, was considered harmful.

*Employees vote with their feet. (Leader)*

The leaders find that there are negative feelings directed towards them. These emerge from employees and also from social work clients. It is a part of a leader’s work to tolerate these

feelings, and it is a necessary leadership skill to develop a way to tolerate these negative feelings rather than try to remove them from the work community.

*We all have a natural and very understandable need to be loved, and we do not want to hurt anybody's feelings. As a leader, you will cause disappointment to people. When you free yourself from the need to become accepted, your work as a leader becomes easier.*

*(Leader)*

Naturally, there are limits to acceptable behaviour in the work community, and a leader does not have to tolerate everything. It is beneficial for a leader to learn the principles of human behaviour. This helps to understand how people might react when they are disappointed or feel like they are treated unfairly.

The leaders discussed *personal traits* which they find helpful in the leadership profession. They found that it is helpful to be *determined* and *firm*. These traits should occur in democratic decision making and hearing everyone out, but sometimes democratic leadership turns into indecision.

Leaders should acknowledge that leadership is a profession in itself, which requires a lot of different competencies. It is beneficial for leaders to know the *historical development* of leadership starting from Taylorism. Knowing the historical development helps in reflecting on your leadership approach. The interviewees mentioned that the difference between management and leadership is good to acknowledge.

*...if I think about today, it would be very beneficial if leaders, on whatever level of leadership, would understand the mechanism management has in the history of the Western world... like, why today we make 360-degree estimations and things like these.*

*(Leader)*

The question of substance knowledge was considered interesting. Leaders see themselves as something other than needing to be substance experts in the area their organisation represents. However, they have to know how their substance knowledge relates to the organisation's core task. Leaders should seek reliable consultation in the substance areas which are not of their expertise.

*...when we for example think how we should utilise lean management, it just is so that you have to understand the significance of substance. (Leader)*

Leaders felt that they should tune in to listen to themselves in terms of self-care and avoid working in their free time and find sustainable ways to support their mental and physical well-being.

*What I try to avoid in my leadership is working on evenings and weekends... if I have to write an e-mail on Saturday because I got the idea on Saturday, I do not send it forward, since it gives a wrong impression to the workers; I am working on my free time, so would I then anticipate that others do so too. (Leader)*

Like leaders, the employees discussed the leader's ability to tolerate difficult emotions. Leaders should not have a so-called sensitive skin, meaning they should not become provoked even when negative and difficult feelings emerge. They tolerate criticism. A good

leader is flexible and takes responsibility. They value diversity. Employees appreciated leaders' ability to make decisions and authorise followers to make decisions where appropriate.

The employees spoke of power as well. They thought power has to be under surveillance, and personal use of power originating from a leader's subjective motives is harmful.

*It is good that (in conflicts) there is a third person in a higher position who can take a stand. (Employee)*

### *Leader with employee*

This category consists of theme areas most leaders thought one should reflect in themselves, specifically their relationships with their employees. The data revealed four areas which are essential to recognise in this context. These are *interaction, trust, feedback and care*.

Regarding interaction, a leader should consider how emotionally close or distant they should be to their employees. Leaders think distance from followers is needed. Otherwise, objectivity would be jeopardised. Too much distance creates an uncaring and cold atmosphere. This theme has an interactional tension; you should be distant and easily approachable simultaneously.

Objectivity is also needed to separate the employee (and others) from the matter discussed. All voices should be heard, and leaders even worry they might become deaf towards complex issues.

*You should specifically hear out the voices against your agenda (Leader)*

In interaction relationships with followers, leaders can help their followers with negative emotions.

*It is wise not to let people keep on dwelling in disappointment (Leader)*

A good leader cares for their followers. This is manifested in being genuinely interested in the followers and investing time in them. Care is also about taking care of justice and fairness. Followers should be treated as equally as possible.

Feedback was discussed. Followers want feedback from the leader but understand feedback as merely positive feedback.

*Followers want to receive more feedback. However, this discussion often has a tone that feedback is positive. This is not the case. Feedback is feedback. (Leader)*

Leaders wished for feedback for themselves as well but felt they needed more of it.

*Is it the case that people think leaders cannot be criticised in our culture? That would be very sad. (Leader)*

A fundamental element in an excellent leader-follower relationship is trust. The leaders saw that trust is created by trusting the employee, giving space and showing support, giving followers credit for their success and keeping personal issues to themselves. Trust received many mentions in nearly all interviews.

Trust was connected to decision making and carrying responsibility in different situations.

*...leaders who are totally indecisive about, for example, encountering employees substance abuse problems. Who cannot say that this is how it goes. They go on and on forever and think they are democratic, but employee sees they are not capable of making decisions. And trust is lost there. (Leader)*

Trust was seen as a lack of fear of consequences when things do not go as planned.

*Mistakes are mistakes... I respect my own leader in that mistakes are not attached to my personality. I can trust that I can make mistakes without being punished. This is how trust is created and, from there, the braveness to suggest all kinds of things on how you could do things differently. (Leader)*

Trust was seen as a reciprocal relationship.

*If you want to be trusted, trust first. Show trust, and then you can build trust. I am here for you when you need me. And then you get trust back. It is reciprocal, it does not go only one way... it is an old fashioned idea that you should trust a leader or a doctor or a police because of their position. You have to build trust. (Leader)*

It was experienced that trust requires openness.

*... to trust, you first have to be able to talk about all kinds of things, this is not the KGB. Excluding personal things which we naturally don't share to all. Breaking trust is abuse of power. Like leaving your team on their own. That is also abuse of power. I am totally just ignoring you. (Leader)*

Trust also requires freedom.

*When somebody says all the time, do this like this and that like that, I get the feeling that they do not trust me, when they dictate things like that?... I need space and I cannot stand micromanagement at all. (Leader)*

The ability to build trust seems to be linked to successful leadership in interdisciplinary work.

*In social work, leaders "breathe down the necks" of clients when things are complicated enough. Then there are upper position holders and politicians attached. I have felt successful when I have been able to create trust and co-operation in situations where all bridges have been burned and the juxtaposition has been very strong... just to stick to that situation, I am here, I treat you with respect, I don't provoke you or become provoked... slowly this kind of behaviour pays off. (Leader)*



The leaders saw that they had a specific task to be career coaches for their followers. This happens through motivating the follower and supporting their growth. Structurally, it is essential to offer vertical and horizontal opportunities to explore different client segments and move forward in careers.

*I enjoy the feeling I get when I see that my followers advance and grow. (Leader)*

The employees' responses fell very quickly into the same categories of interaction, feedback, trust and care as the leaders' answers.

*Just like this. Similarly, maybe you also learned from that experience that, in a way, it was great for the supervisor and me to experience that you learn a lot more from someone else in this kind of work. He trusts a subordinate to be responsible. He joins in a bit like playing around with the idea, but what you know as an employee is that there is complete trust in what I am doing right now, what I am planning and how I will carry out and present things. It is a great feeling when you do that concrete work. (Employee)*

Regarding interaction, followers named the bullying and splitting negative interaction phenomena. Favourable features positive to interaction were being easily accessible, helping in reflection, listening, and respect to promote open communication.

#### *Leader with environment*

In this category, leadership connects to a more holistic context of group, organisation and outwards from the organisation. This category also links strongly to "D work procedures" since processes and all activities are inevitable parts of the organisation.

The leader should know *different organisation forms* and investigate their organisation in light of this knowledge. According to the interviewees, a flat organisation type is the most functional in the social work setting. This allows best for leaders to enable participation in decision making and sharing responsibility, which interviewees saw as a favourable style in social work.

The leader also looks at the organisation from the viewpoint of *atmosphere*. Leaders promote a positive atmosphere because of positive and well-functioning relationships with followers described in the last category.

The leader is responsible for maintaining good connections with stakeholders outside the organisation. On the level of client work, this is manifested through *interdisciplinary work*. Client cases require professional cooperation, which crosses the borders of traditional lines of disciplines. The leader has to have a positive attitude towards this cooperation. Multiprofessional work was experienced to create tensions due to different views different disciplines value as necessary. Leaders should, in dialogue, help work with these tensions. It is also important to create structures for this type of work.

Working outwards from the organisation also involves the political environment and the public. Leaders should maintain a good public image of the organisation when presenting it outward. The leader is also responsible for supporting structural social work, i.e. reporting

the harmful phenomena and difficulties their clients experience to political decision-makers. Leaders should also encourage their followers to do the same.

*You have to look at things also from the viewpoint of your organisations interest. We don't want our municipality to look bad outwards. Media starts writing and so on... (Leader)*

Successful leadership was seen to be a result of many different small components described in these categories. Often in everyday language, this is called "seeing the big picture".

*When I think I have felt that I succeeded as a leader, it is the times I see I have managed to run this orchestra. (Leader)*

Multiprofessional work was discussed in all the interviews. It was considered valuable but was also experienced to consist problems. These relate to the experienced lack of resources, but also to different values.

*...a direct quote, I do not remember who it was, maybe it was a doctor or someone...*

*"Social workers care for health, and healthcare takes care of illness." How can one person's life somehow become more empowered and everything like this? And then the healthcare stares at it, saying that because he has this disease, he cannot do this or this or that. When these things meet at the same table, an argument starts quickly.*

*...Moreover, all these roughest shocks somehow became visible. Not when he is so sick that he cannot do this and that. Well, he can if we get this kind of aid and an assistant. Well, it's not going to work. The other puts health before illness, the other lays emphasis on autonomy. (Leader)*

At a group level, the leader is as equal as possible to their employees. Some rules and regulations should concern all followers equally. Making exceptions to these rules for subjective reasons caused feelings of hurt in other employees.

*We have a rule on the number of remote working days, and they should not exceed x days per month. My colleague, who does the same work, does not have to report her presence at the office; I have to report daily. I cannot understand the reason for this. (Employee)*

Employees saw that leaders should understand how teams work and lead the team. This also applies to multi-professional work, although the team aspect was discussed more in the context of the followers' teams.

Employees also respected it if the leader organised informal time for workers to spend together.

The interviewees experienced that, in addition to understanding the structural side of interdisciplinary work, the question of diversity factors, such as age, should be acknowledged and valued in forming and leading teams.

*So here is also the fact that this is what you hear a lot these days, that we are taught that it is really good that we are different people. But is it actually being used? And where?*

*Because this is the fact that it's been a really interesting journey up until now, that I've come to understand these things better only now that I've come to this small unit. ... I also*

*think of the same difference in terms of age, that it is also good in our work that we have employees of different ages rather than a homogeneous group... since there are different people of different ages. (Leader)*

### 4.3 Work procedures

This category consists of management-related functions. The content of this section partially overlaps with the role of designer, but the process is explained thoroughly here as it took place in the open coding phase. As mentioned before, these need to be aligned, and many of the themes presented in the categories mentioned above require managerial thinking, as many themes here also relate to leadership. This categorisation aims to describe concrete activities that need to be recognised and organised in the organisation in order for the organisation to meet expectations. Managers may run management, but it is a leadership task to organise management.

Careful consideration of the core task is the starting point of planning work procedures. The core task is based on the precise and legally justified conception of what kind of services and to which client groups the organisation is expected to produce.

*Not to think how you can change the structure just for the sake of changing it, but to think how the structure serves people. So that service pathways, treatment pathways and consultation policies are flexible and cooperative and have an attitude of favouring finding solutions rather than finding all the stipulations from the law which deny and restrict  
(Leader)*

*We have a client segmentation model where we have more able clients who can themselves read instructions and use the internet, support clients who need help with services... cooperation clients who have a lot of heavy services at use but are in balance. What requires our attention is that the fourth segment needs services from multiple providers, and the services are not in balance; these same people place much workload on many service providers both in the health and social sector and still, their welfare does not increase. (Leader)*

The core task should be considered also a part of the greater network. This builds a bridge to interdisciplinary practice, since social work organisations need to also consider what other nearby organisations are doing.

*The work spreads easily to the side of specialized medical care. However, we are part of primary health care and provide social work there. The basic task must be so compact that it can be compressed into a diamond. To find out what we exist for. That's how we can think of ways, and this group is capable of that. (Leader)*

Leaders should have *strategy awareness* and ensure the organisation has a strategy based on the core task. In the ideal case, the strategy has been created in cooperation with the followers. One leader described strategy as the persistent will to keep the direction even when it is questioned by others.

*From a management point of view, building the matrix was like bringing a bold leader-like genre to the fact that you had to show the direction, to be boldly leading in a certain direction with a coaching grip... it was a challenge to bring the matrix organization to the line organization, and there were people who were questioning your choices like the Finnish cross country team... I myself had a clear image and vision of what it becomes, and it was easy to move forward when there were good partners in it who shared the same understanding. We talked to the doubters and slowly things began to settle down (Leader)*

Leaders should organise the route from core tasks to strategic goals with different work procedures and tools. Lean management was considered a valuable tool to organise these work procedures. Ethical context was considered important when lean is applied, since social work environment requires ethical consideration.

*Well I think lean management suits social work just perfectly. You just have to understand what you are leaning. I know there are good lean examples in health care of how you send elderly patients back home, and in adult social services concerning income allowance their work has become more fluent (Leader)*

The same leader saw that turnover in staff makes lean practices challenging.

*When they (employees) are in that leaning process and something starts functioning and they leave, and new employees have to execute same processes (Leader)*

Leaders should understand what kind of *knowledge* is needed to answer the demands of the core task. In defining this, leaders should use outside consultation if needed. Know-how on economics and HR were mentioned as necessary substance areas for leaders to cover. Economical know-how was widely discussed. It was connected to the questions of values, responsibility, and sustainability.

*If you use money irresponsibly, your cash register will soon be empty. This leads to cuts in the next budget, and cuts from all, not just your segment (Leader)*

It was experienced that the times have changed in social work attitudes towards the role of **finances**. Financial decision making has to be ethical, but it was considered problematic that social work education in university did not include enough economics.

*More financial management is needed in social work education. You have to know what services cost and how they are cost-effective. This would be healthy to bring to education. We have a responsibility toward the taxpayers for the use of this money. (Leader)*

*Workers should have skills to plan and monitor services and understand what they cost. This is where I have changed my mind in the past x years. When I was fresh and just out of university, I thought making adequate decisions from the client's perspective was important, but what they cost was not so important. However, we should consider what they cost and the value for the money. Are the services nice versus are they necessary, and are they influential? We must consider this because if we do not, our cash register will be empty, leading to cuts from all. Then cuts are made because of a lack of cash and not because of cutting according to service needs. Awareness of costs should be in social work studies. Then you are not a slave to the financial figures, but you can interpret them and estimate and do your work so that people who buy the services know what they are buying and the effect of these decisions in the big picture. (Leader)*

Work procedures should have been more widely discussed in employee interviews. However, there were mentions of handling the **administrative** side of the work so that the organisation functions efficiently and everyday life flows smoothly. Employees underlined the importance of understanding and defining the core task and fairly delivering the tasks. It

was considered problematic when the leader does not fully understand the content of the work processes.

*And then when our leader doesn't really understand what we are doing. The content of our work is not entirely clear to them. Which is what I think, maybe... Yes, maybe it's bad leadership for the fact that it should be like that when... Sure, we get to be experts in our own task beyond the leader. It's the working life today... But the manager should understand what we do so that they can direct our work more. The really do not understand what this is. (Employee)*

Some employees wished that leaders would join them occasionally to work on the front line with clients to see for themselves what the current everyday reality is like.

*Maybe I'm just somehow still thinking of it (working together with leader) as a good experience... Somehow I was left thinking about a situation where the manager has somehow made it his priority... When there have been some personnel difficulties or there have been absences and so on, that he has just made a decision that "now I'll come and do this grass root job". For example, I have been able to lead a customer group together with a leader, so of course it's always a completely different experience. Somehow it's been a really positive experience for me... Of course, we understand that the leader has a lot of other tasks, but you don't take that time, because you also experience the everyday basic work and make customer work so important that he makes himself a possible substitute when it is needed. (Employee)*

To conclude "relational understandings", I will summarise here what the leaders and employees saw would be worthwhile for leaders to reflect on themselves when entering or already practising their leadership profession. The respondents saw that leaders should reflect on a personal level relating to their relationship to power and how they see their features help or hinder their success in their leadership profession. On a concrete level, it is advisable to examine one's own substance and know-how reflected against the core task. This relates to understanding leadership as a profession, which can be separate from the substance expert duties they might have previously possessed.

This reflection expands to personal reflection relating to interaction skills, understanding the significance of trust and know-how on promoting trust, and examining their own relationship to giving and receiving feedback. Willingness to care was highlighted.

The respondents wished for more reflection in relation to a greater environment, concerning the structural side of leadership, such as knowledge of organisation forms, and on the personal side concerning maintaining good connections to networks.

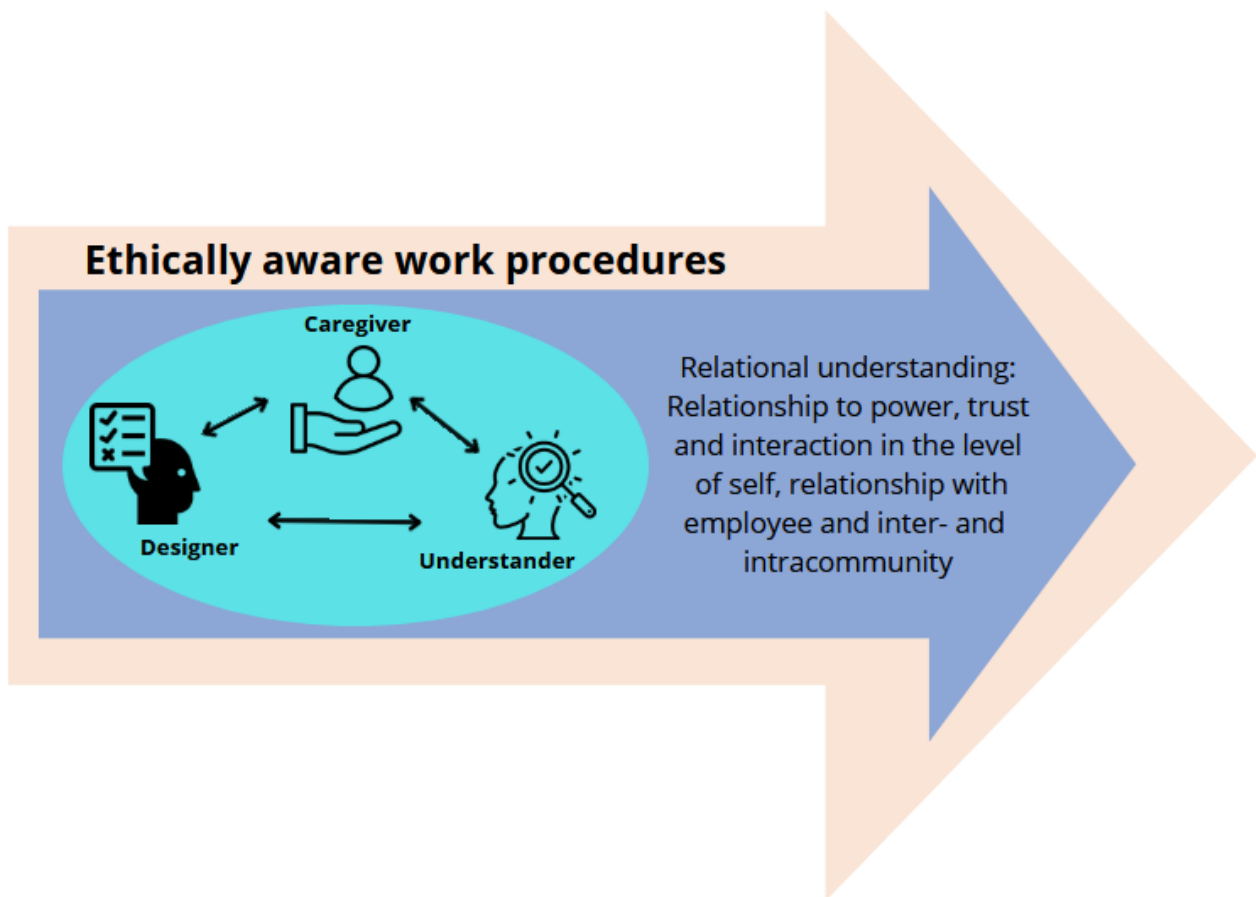


Figure 9: Relatedness of different categories

#### 4.4 Drawing together the themes of the findings

This Figure 9, relatedness of different categories, should be interpreted so that the bottom arrow describes the different work procedures, which direct how the concrete work is organised. Inside the arrow, there are three leader roles, which are all needed in an organisation for it to function effectively. These roles exist as features in one individual leader or as a team of different persons holding leadership tasks. All the leaders need, in addition to organising the work procedures, to solve their relationship to power, dialogue and trust, which they manifest in their interaction at the level of themselves, employee and community.

## Chapter 5 – Discussion

In this chapter, I will discuss the findings in the light of what is known from the literature review and indicate how the insights emerging from the integration of literature and findings provide deeper understanding in relation to four key themes, where new insights have arisen from this study. As noted in the literature, the understanding of leadership in social work has been evolving, but there are some key approaches, styles and conceptual issues that are recurrent. These key themes reveal ways in which existing leadership approaches, styles and conceptualisations can be brought together, and provide clarity about how these might be operationalised in a Finnish context.

The first theme is the importance of some leadership approaches over others, explored in section 5.1. Elements of all of the leadership approaches recommended for social work leadership in the literature review (see subsection 2.2.3) were supported as suitable by the data. They may not have been worded in the exact same form, but the aspects of each of these approaches is evident in some ways. However, some approaches are more present in the data than others, emphasising the importance of the psychodynamic (see subsection 2.2.9). Here the importance of dialogue and trust (see 2.2.10) is also evident. This theme also provides insight into the importance of attending to emotions in the neoliberal contexts in which Finnish social work is pursued. Leadership styles are discussed in the context of distributed leadership in section 5.3, where their contribution suits best.

The second theme, in section 5.2, explores in more depth the political and business contexts of Finnish social work. It draws out insight into how interviewees view the ethical challenges (introduced in section 2.3.2) and the need to include ethically sustainable substance content and managerial strategic thinking and financial thinking into social work leadership curriculum (see section 2.5).

The third theme is clarity about effective participative leadership, as explored in section 5.3. Of the reviewed common leadership styles (see section 2.2.4), one – *laissez-faire* – was not present in the interview data but autocratic and democratic styles were combined in the ways in which they relate to participative leadership. Pedagogical literature (2.4.4) relates to this, hence clarity in roles was advised to be strengthened in social work leadership education.

The fourth theme concerns the development of interdisciplinary practices, outlined in section 5.4. This theme engages with the literature on ethics and values (see 2.3.2) and diversity and gender (2.2.6). Pedagogical literature (see 2.4.4) confirms the need to include interdisciplinary content to social work leadership education both as a substance content and also as a pedagogical solution in teaching leadership with other disciplines, business management in particular.

In each theme, I first examine what is confirmed from the literature review and any gaps. I then review what the data reveals in relation to these gaps to show where it produced new insights into the phenomenon of social work leadership. I conclude each theme by showing how existing knowledge and new insights in each theme can form a foundation for a social work management and leadership curriculum.



I see the final aim of a curriculum as my practical contribution to serve the professional field through developed working life practices. For that reason, I conclude this chapter with a discussion and potential framework for how the insights from the four identified themes might be balanced in practice (section 5.5 ). I acknowledge that these practices may best change through changes in education policies and opportunities for reflection and learning in practice changes, but these implications will be discussed further in Chapter 6.

## 5.1 Leadership approaches for social work in Finland

In subsection 2.3.5, I reviewed the literature on leadership approaches that are currently seen as appropriate for social work. In the subsections below, I identify the aspects of this literature that are reinforced by my findings, and discuss how understandings are extended in relation to the centrality of the transformational, servant, compassionate and psychodynamic approaches (5.1.1) and the importance of a strengthened focus on the psychodynamic (5.1.2). The implications of these are discussed in Chapter 6 - Implications.

### 5.1.1 Compassionate, servant, transformational and psychodynamic approaches and the narratives of caregiver and understander

The compassionate (West et al., 2017), servant (Brown et al., 2005; Spears & Greenleaf, 2002; Peterlin, 2015), transformative (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014; Conger & Canungo, 1998; Tafvelin et al., 2014; Djourova, 2020; Park & Pierce, 2020; Lawler, 2007; Peters, 2018; Tham & Strömberg, 2020), and psychodynamic (Northouse, 2016; Kets de Vries & Miller, 2016) approaches are confirmed by my findings as appropriate approaches for social work leadership.

The compassionate approach was discussed in the literature review drawing particularly on West et al. (2017) who write that the attributes attending, understanding, empathising and helping are desired from a social work leader. The importance of these attributes in a Finnish context is confirmed by the data. In the role of the “caregiver”, followers want empathy and direct help from leaders, showing that these are relevant attributes in Finland. Empathy was referred to as emotion, and the need for empathy showed particularly when followers experienced difficulties in their private life or experienced difficult work related, emotionally charged interaction events, such as facing a hostile client. Followers also wanted concrete help on whether they make right decisions.

The compassionate approach connects to the servant role of a good leader, described in literature (Brown et al., 2005; Spears & Greenleaf, 2002; Peterlin, 2015). This is evident again in the data, particularly in a leader’s attitude in the “caregiver” role. In the caregiver role, the leaders themselves highlighted their duty to be in the service of their followers and through this link as a server of the community and clients.

The interviewed leaders stated that social work leaders need to work on themselves and examine their own motives to lead. This echoes the work of Lawler & Bilson (2010) where they refer to types of power and altruistic motives to leadership position in the first place (LeGrand, 2003). The data confirms this need, in the Finnish context, for critical self-reflection. The interviewed leaders themselves stated advice to others to think why they were seeking a leadership position in the first place.

Whereas compassionate and servant approaches describe “a way of being”, transformative approach describes “a way of doing”. Similarly to Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy (2014) and others, the findings show the relevance in the Finnish context, of factors such as individual influence, spiritual encouragement and intellectual stimulation supporting followers’ professional development (Tafvelin et al., 2014). This can again be most directly seen in the findings in the role of the “caregiver”, which supports their followers’ career development and is dedicated to motivate their followers towards their professional goals.

Also in answer to followers, the “caregiver” was seen to support their followers’ growth towards independency. In the category relational understandings, the subcategory “leader with employee” describes the concrete ways in which a leader needs to put the transformative style into action. Particularly this is seen in the data as the theme of trust and importance to construct and maintain trust, also confirmed in the literature (2.2.2.9) by, for example, Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy (2014).

The four tensions (Figure 11) found in this study do not exist alone as islands, but are in relation to one another, as I have later demonstrated in Figure 12, Relatedness of tensions and relational understandings. Transformational leadership links this approach to business orientated styles as Choy-Brown suggests in chapter 2.3.2. The transformational leadership style helps in executing a recovery orientated approach in mental health care social work and therefore strengthens also the role of ethics of care (Juujärvi, 2007) and helps in balancing out the tension between social work ethics and business oriented leadership and management approaches. Towards the end of the research, I have combined the interdisciplinary theme to distributed approaches, hence their content interact strongly with one another. This shift becomes visible in Figure 13. Interdisciplinary practices and the participative approach both resonate strongly to structural analytical paradigm where under examination was the organisation’s entity: planning, grouping tasks into departments and units, forming communication channels, and organising hierarchy and control. The underlying idea is that organisations are like organisms, open systems, and must form a functioning relationship with their environment to survive. The operational environment was not considered in earlier paradigms, and organisations were seen as closed systems (Seeck, 2012). As referred to in chapter 2, the structural analytical paradigm was popular in Finland.

In the literature, the psychodynamic approach (see 2.2.2.8) was discussed by Northouse (2016) and in more detail by authors such as Kets de Vries & Miller (1984) and Kets de Vries & Cheak (2016). In these, the subconscious world is seen as a strong influencer of organisational interaction. This connects to the role of emotions as referred to by Peters (2018, p. 10), who defines leadership as “behaviours that effect positive change in order to address client and societal challenges through emotional competence”. Of the authors in the literature review, also Lawler & Bilson (2010) discuss emotions in many different contexts, as reference to the work of Maturana (1988), who sees that, in the Western cultural tradition, the role of emotions is played down in an attempt to maintain ‘rationality’, and Goleman’s (1996) emotional competence framework. In the context of the psychodynamic approach, the role of early caregivers was also acknowledged (Erikson, 1950; Kagan 1984 & Kohlberg, 1981), as was the trauma-informed view (Sarvela-Auvinen, 2020; Nyberg & Lindroos, 2020) which creates emotional challenges for many workers in work communities and therefore for leadership.

The significance of these perspectives on the importance of emotions in leadership, and their dynamic chain reactions, was strongly supported, in the Finnish context, by the data. This was most clear in the role of the “understander”. The sub-roles of “understander” (“understander of human nature”, “target for toxic interaction” and “target for unfair treatment”) confirm the before mentioned psychodynamic movement of emotions and the systemic nature of interaction. In the findings category “relational understandings”, emotions are a central theme. As mentioned, the compassionate and servant approaches pair with the subcategory “leader with self”, the transformational approach with “leader with follower”, and the psychodynamic approach is confirmed well in “leader with environment”, where the

emotions do not only exist for a while in one-to-one interaction, but move in time and between more than one people as chain reactions. At best, this is manifested in the data by the understander's subrole of "target for toxic interaction", where followers see that the personal problems of a leader result in ill treatment resembling projection described by authors such as Juuti (2018) and Kets de Vries (2016) in the literature.

### 5.1.2 A strengthened focus on the psychodynamic

In light of what is known of psychodynamic leadership (Kets de Vries, 2016; Northouse, 2016) and what is confirmed by data, I suggest that the role of the psychodynamic approaches in social work leadership in the Finnish context should be strengthened.

The findings from the open coding process highlighted how emotions are not "simply existing", but rather emotions are "circulating in chains". Two recurring themes throughout the data were "trust" and "interaction". These occur in many different contexts and are not attachable to any particular style or approach. Together with the power relationship, these themes form an entity a leader should reflect on themselves. As the axial coding procedure suggests, and the section on relational understandings describes, this reflection of a leader's relationship to self is a prerequisite for any other leadership activity or context. Suppose a leader does not master interaction, does not support trust in the community, or has a negative relationship to power, i.e. misuses power to drive their own interest forward. In that case, any later use of any single leadership approach, style, paradigm etc. is in danger of becoming useless. A leader must therefore know how to see themselves as well as how to change.

Again, there is a connection to psychodynamic traditions. This approach was introduced in the literature review by Northouse (2016), but it is missing or receives little attention in social work leadership literature, particularly in Finland. The data strongly suggests that there is a place for this approach in social work leadership practices. There are many mentions of the role of emotions, such as in Peters (2018), but the bigger picture, dynamics, is only latently present and should be made more explicit. It appears as if the term "psychodynamic" has been "dropped". The fact that emotions affect and have dynamical consequences is present, but it tends to be referred to as emotional leadership. Does this mean that the subconscious connotation has been forgotten?

Peters (2018) speaks of themes with some similarities when she writes of emotions and specifically the need to recognize and reflect on these, although she refers to these as emotions and does not place these in the psychodynamic context. The context of this discussion is more within the emotional burden caused by difficult client situations, although the principle is the same in leader-employee interaction: All emotions deserve room and may need "airing".

Emotions as a psychological concept receive their social meaning when their effects are "added up" or, as I referred to earlier, "exist in chains". As the psychosocial theory suggests, our tendencies to experience emotions in different contexts is affected by our early relationships. All emotions expressed by individuals in the community interact with the emotions of others. Emotions have a dynamic nature and they occur as subconscious themes. Subconscious processes such as transference (Keski-Luopa, 2011) explain why it

is difficult or easy to get along with other people. Emotions affect atmosphere, positively or negatively.

From the viewpoint of emotions and interaction in relation to one's self, a leader who has worked on their own experiences on a deep level has the ability to empathically understand other people. When they understand, they have to step into the other person's shoes and throw themselves into the emotional processes that the other person's story awakens in them. The leader's reactions also cause counterreactions in the other person. If the leader has been able to find the right way to interpret the other person's message from the depths of their own internal stories of experience, they can react in ways that evoke the desired response in the other person. If they have been unable to understand the other person's message adequately due to haste, lack of empathy, differences in cultural codes, or rejections and gaps related to their own experiences, their reaction may cause confusion, irritation or efforts to invalidate the message (Juuti, 2013).

Lawler & Bilson (2010) discuss self-awareness in the context of Goleman's (1996) Emotional Competence Framework. The framework is based on four domains. The first domain is self-awareness, where the goal is to recognise and understand one's own emotions. Self-awareness includes the dimension of self-confidence as having a positive self-image and belief in one's own abilities. Second is self-regulation, which connects to effectively managing and regulating one's own emotions as staying calm under pressure. Thirdly, motivation refers to achievement orientation as striving for excellence and setting challenging goals. Fourthly, empathy refers to understanding, service orientation and developing others, as sensing their needs in order to develop, and bolstering their abilities. Understanding emotions helps particularly in understanding negative leadership consequences, which employees consider harmful for their wellbeing at work.

There are descriptions in the data that are severe in a negative sense, mostly in the "Understanders" subroles of "target for toxic interaction" and "target of unfair treatment". There is bad behaviour, there are always better and worse days for all of us. Unfortunately, the previously described negative pathways do exist and are confirmed in the data. Direct bullying exists, as does objectively unfair treatment, where rules are not applied in a same way to followers in the same position. Psychodynamic phenomena, such as splitting (dividing people into "good" and "bad"), might explain problems such as favouritism. In addition to splitting, chapter two also presented the harmful themes of projection, displacement and denial (Kets de Vries & Cheak, 2016; Juuti, 2018).

Negative tendencies in interaction have many reasons. Nowadays there is more discussion on the effect of traumas in interaction. Nyberg & Lindroos (2020) remind that clients of social work bear many traumas, which affects their interaction. As Juuti (2013) and Field & Brown (2020) remind, leaders should reflect on themselves and examine what their own history is like in light of possible traumas and not only clients' challenges in interaction. In a contemporary trauma informed (Sarvela & Auvinen, 2020) work community, acknowledging trauma-based challenges is part of everyday leadership.

The psychodynamic theory seeks to explain human behaviour largely through understanding unconscious processes, that is, forces that lie outside an individual's awareness. Referred to as depth psychology, the psychodynamic thought attempts to explain phenomena that, on the surface, may appear unrelated or to serve no obvious purpose. The theory is considered deterministic in that early intrapsychic and interpersonal

experiences shape personality and determine later life choices. This theory's primary emphasis is on individual behaviour, although it is also used to explain dyadic relationships, particularly the parent-child dyad and small groups (Deal, 2007).

To my understanding, psychodynamic theories "fell out of fashion" around the 1960s, and there are many understandable reasons why this happened. Over-analysing behaviour may give us false assumptions of anybody's behaviour, and these guesses often intrude in very private areas of people. This is an ethical problem. Kets de Vries & Miller (2016) see that one problem with the psychodynamic approach is that it originates from clinical observation in connection to serious mental issues. The approach focuses on abnormality and dysfunction. Abandoning psychodynamic views, however, may cause a different problem of over-simplifying problematic interaction situations.

Kets de Vries & Cheak (2016) write of the challenges concerning the psychodynamic paradigm as well. They see that, historically, many organisational researchers and practitioners have tended to avoid treading in the emotional and psychological realm of organisational life because they are afraid of real-life complexities and the relationships within (Kets de Vries, 1980, 2006b; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984; Volkan, 1988). The downside is that many meaningful organisational phenomena are left unexplained. Both irrational and rational lenses are needed when leadership is investigated (Kets de Vries & Miller, 2016).

It is notable that the message of the interaction findings theme can be considered negative and somehow dark by nature, presenting issues such as traumas and ponderings of negative experiences. This might understandably cause rejection in readers. I think many views polarize between two extremes easily. In terms of interaction, it is worthwhile to think whether the view to the subject is merely positive or negative. When we wish for positive progress, it seems self-evident that we need to focus our energy on positive assets and strengthen these. This goes along well with the sociopedagogical mindset. Many traditional psychological views are considered negative. An approach called positive psychology contributes an opposite view (Ojanen, 2007). If psychoanalysis is seen as the opposite of positive psychology, it could be called negative psychology. Psychoanalysis and sociobiology are united by the human image, in which the negative aspects of a person are emphasized. They describe a person's aggressiveness, desire for power, neuroticism and susceptibility to many types of delusions and symptoms. Positive psychology as a name indicates views of feelings, happiness, wellbeing, autonomy, confidence and self-respect, virtues, meaning, culture, religion, and so on (Ojanen, 2007). All of these are valuable attributes to pursue.

As many views, these elements (positive and "negative") should integrate situationally into sustainable social development. The outcomes (good atmosphere and trust) are positive. In many occasions, the tools and procedures can be positive.

Psychology alone, regardless of its value emphasis, is not enough. Individual mindsets differ, and work communities consist of individuals. The data confirms that individually experienced, socially inadequate behaviour exists.

I believe most people can cope with positively orientated tools in interaction, but not everyone can. Here trauma-informed thinking is useful. Workers or leaders who carry excessive emotional burdens need deeper tools than what the nowadays popular lighter

wellbeing tools can offer. A leader is not a therapist or a resolver of all problems, but acknowledging the common reasons for socially inadequate performance allows leaders to monitor the interaction in the community from this perspective and seek for supervision if needed in individual challenging situations. Perhaps this could be called “realistic psychology”. The danger in this lies in possible denial. It can also be the leader’s own difficulty in handling difficult emotions, fear of rejection or bad feedback that might drive them to favour merely positively solution centred tools. I think we need to remember that also the structure of the work, such as amount and quality, affects the emotional mindset in which we operate. Too much of anything regarding work burdens any person regardless of their emotional capabilities.

Kets de Vries & Cheak (2016) see that psychodynamic leadership as such does not lend itself to training in a conventional sense. This is due to the fact that a lot of the core content deals with the individual need to grow in self-awareness in order to find better ways to relate and behave. In the conclusion chapter, I will explain how I see work with trust and interaction to partially resolve this problem.

In addition to understanding emotions, managing social work in neoliberal contexts and enabling participation and interdisciplinarity, there are other aspects leaders should carefully examine in themselves to develop leadership skills and balance the competing roles they are asked to undertake. Relationship to power was considered an essential question to examine at the very beginning. What is a leader’s motivation to lead in the first place? Lawler (2006) quotes Le Grand’s (2003) comparison of a chess board which divides leaders into “knights” and “knaves” based on whether their primary interest is altruistic public-spiritedness or self-interest. This seems to be a crossroad to be faced very early in the development of personal leadership identity. It is justified to consider, whether a situation of self-interest as a case makes all later leadership choices empty or inadequate.

To conclude, a combination of these concepts; emotions in their subconscious meaning, trust and dialogue are all existing in literature and data. Their relatedness to one another and being attached to a leadership concept in Finland is a discovery and adds to the body of knowledge: It is important to understand how leaders may monitor and positively develop the atmosphere in their work communities in an ethically sensitive manner.

## 5.2 Political and business contexts in social work

As I wrote in the literature review chapter (2.3.2), there is a research gap concerning how social work leadership should address the contradiction between social work ethical values and business-rooted management styles. The future challenge is to find models where these two are balanced and to include these in social work leadership learning opportunities, including a curriculum. The findings provide some insight into how this can be achieved by accepting that reconciling business and social work ethics is possible (5.2.1) and by then considering how to combine an ethical approach (5.2.2). I will address the implications of this for a curriculum in section 6.2.2.

### 5.2.1 Accepting the reconciliation of business and social work ethics

The amount of literature discussing the connection between managerialism and social work leadership and management is vast. Lawler (2007) saw that the aim of business orientated approaches has been modernising public services and making them more accountable, transparent and flexible. Lawler (2016) discusses managerialism, by which he means prioritising the interests of management in organisations, emphasising the role and accountability of individual managers. In this development, the assumption is that most organisations have a great deal in common and that business approaches to management have equal applicability in public service organisations (Lawler & Bilson, 2010). Primarily the focus is on managing resources effectively and efficiently, in organisational and individual performance, and the role of the service user as a customer rather than a client. Pekkarinen (2010) shares the worry and sees managerialism might jeopardise human work values.

These views were partially confirmed but also contradicted by the data. The importance of common management tasks was confirmed, as shown by the data in relation to 'work procedures'. Managers needed competence in HR, economics, strategy and administration. However, the interviewees were not very worried about business-rooted management conflicting with social work management. They asserted that business thinking has to be connected to values to apply it correctly. The role of ethics is also discussed by Lawler & Bilson (2010) in this same context. Lawler (2016) also discusses the constant demand for innovation and enhancing self-determination as a practical approach rather than autonomy. Finnish research, as explained in chapter two, has found that social workers experience feelings of powerlessness and meaninglessness when business orientated approaches are used in a way that workers experience they have to compromise their professional ethics (Tammelin & van der Kuip, 2015). As explained below, this argument is modified by my findings.

The findings confirm these themes best at the "caregivers" subrole "growth towards independency", where employees need to think independently and have possibilities to influence their own work. The concern over the straightforward application of business rooted styles was shared in aspects of the data. Innovations and participation were seen as possible solutions to the problem. As stated in the literature review and confirmed by the data, there are good experiences with lean-based technologies but, importantly, this is when practitioners participate in managerial innovation processes and plan their work. Emphasising innovations is also in line with Seeck's (2018) innovation paradigm, an ongoing need to renew and bring better products and services to the market. The innovation paradigm further resembles the principles of commissioning (Field & Miller, 2020) discussed in the next chapter.



The findings also provide further insight into these issues. In the findings, the essence of this theme is best visible in the narrative of “the designer” and its subroles of “multiprofessional developer of intelligent systems” and “multiprofessional organisational builder”. Of these, the former looks at mainly managerial processes and the latter the organisation where these processes exist. The findings section “relational understandings” confirms that a leader needs to connect with their environment and acknowledge different organisation forms, particularly their own. The findings describing different work procedures deal with the importance of strategical awareness, administration and finances. Workers also expressed a wish that leaders would occasionally join them at the front line themselves. Here the findings strongly link to participatory approaches to leadership, discussed further in the next section. So, the interviewees expressed positive views on using the business management-rooted processes in social work, as long as they are examined through social work professional values, modified according to need and context, and pursued with some attention to participation.

### 5.2.2 Achieving a combined ethical approach

The fact that the interviewees described the need to balance business motivations with social work ethical values has implications for what leaders need to know how to do. There is a need to consider how to bring together managerialism, innovation, and self-determination with values, ethics, and social work values to create possibilities to react to shrinking financial resources as well as possible. Leaders need to learn a mechanism to connect ethical thinking with managerial processes. This study sought detailed information on the managerial processes that should be mastered. But, since core tasks differ within the field significantly, giving an overall description fitting all situations would not be possible. However, there were some challenges which are recurrent in different situations, related to finance, self-determination, commissioning, managerialism, and understanding economic contexts.

Financial social work management relates to social work ethics. There are textbooks and material on the subject, such as Field (2020), where budgeting principles in social work are explained. Due to austerity measures, Field (2020a) sees that public sector agencies are forced to see that old incremental budget preparations, particularly reductions, are no longer workable. The size of the demanded cut rules out the “salami slicing” much favoured by managers and politicians over the years. In this metaphor, small pieces of resources are “sliced” off from many different places frequently. The data confirms that one of the work procedures that managers are asking social workers and systems to take on is in relation to becoming ‘leaner’. In “relational understandings” subcategory “leader with employee”, this theme also connects to the theme of trust as a reciprocal relationship. Leaders have to trust their employees and this relates also to power; acting in a financially responsible manner requires that the employee has access to resources and has possibilities to affect their own work. These can only be achieved by trust. Therefore new ways of thinking are needed in this area. In the literature, ethical concepts such as virtue ethics (virtues as guidelines), Kantian ethics (autonomy vs paternalism), utilitarianism (quantity of service receivers and “total amount of happiness”), Ethics of care (responsibility based on agreed professional relationship), and radical social work (Juujärvi et al., 2007) have all been suggested as potential balancing approaches to put against managerial processes. They may reveal the nature of possible problems and help in estimating the usability of managerial processes. Of these ethical approaches mentioned above, ethics of care and radical social work (Juujärvi

et al., 2007) highlight social workers' responsibility to provide care services for those who are in need of help and care. Utilitarianism helps us measure how the services are distributed between different care needers. Themes to consider when ethics of the decision are being estimated can be found also from the work of Banks (2021) who has formed four themes through which ethical dimensions can be examined through; individual rights and welfare which highlights the service users right to make their own decisions; public welfare; the rights and interests of others than service users; equality, diversity and structural oppression and professional roles, boundaries and relationships.

In the data, self-determination was desired, but autocratic leadership and decision making by leaders were also desired, as well as the freedom to do one's own work. For example, the subrole of "growth towards independency" in the "caregiver" narrative describes the employees' need to be able to make independent decisions but at the same time for the leader to set limits, even in an autocratic manner when needed. This may seem contradictory, but these functions follow one another rather than compete with one another. It should be considered carefully when autocratic leadership is in order and when freedom is. If the employees' boundaries of processes are determined, they are happy to execute their autonomy in the given frame. This relates to Kantian ethics, where autonomy is weighed against paternalism.

The concept of commissioning is also in focus. Commissioning means "the means to secure the best value and deliver the positive outcomes that meet the needs of citizens, communities and service users" (Field & Miller, 2020). The interviewees described that when commissioning is done well, it differs from traditional practices in many ways. Traditionally the focus is on objectives, whereas successful social work commissioning focuses on outcomes when we estimate what is desired for individuals and communities. Services, activities and support should be remodelled for people, communities and practitioners to the best of their assets to jointly deliver improved outcomes (Field & Miller, 2020). Here an ethics of care appears to be present.

Commissioning is at its clearest present in the data in the designer subrole "multiprofessional organisation builder", where a matrix organisation is seen as the best platform to cocreate value to multiprofessional services.

Although the opinions on New Public Management were mostly critical (Peters, 2018; Lawler & Bilson, 2010), the Finnish participants in this study had a more positive attitude towards business as far as values and ethics were concerned. In the literature review, Lawler (2007) quoted Harris (2003) and pointed out that managerialism might turn social workers into care managers. When care management is reflected against the social work core task and definitions of social work by ISWF and Ministry of Social Affairs and Health (2018), it is clear that care management covers only a small part of the social work core task. Social work tasks which have been allocated to social work by the Social Welfare Act (2018) include a wide range of tasks, which can be "handled" through efficient care management, but only apparently. By this I mean that the case with the client may be technically solved but in reality, many needs which have not been concretely pointed out are left unmet in the shadows.

I think this area has changed rapidly over the few years, and even sources that are a few years old might no longer represent the culture correctly. The changes around us, economic and environmental, are fast and turbulent and may have affected this issue as well. Finnish

leadership researcher Hannele Seeck (2012) has organised leadership development into five paradigms following one another, starting from Taylorism and ending with the innovation paradigm she thinks is the current one. According to this idea, workers in expert positions must constantly renew their position in the work market through innovations. In this cultural context (Finland), this innovation paradigm might also affect the current trend in the Finnish public sector.

Of the Finnish context we learned in the literature review that managerial themes such as scientific management and management by results (Aaltonen, 1999) are strongly present in the Finnish social work field. Social workers have, for example, been involved in lean projects where they have been able to participate in renewing the managerial processes (Heinonen & Lajunen, 2018). Lean thinking allows employees to organise managerial tasks themselves in a way they see best supports achieving the objectives of their work. The challenge then in reconciling social work ethics and business ethics, in line with my conclusion to section 5.1.2, is also linked to participative leadership. Lean policies can be integrated within social work values where they run alongside an ethic of care and where they support the process of distributing decision making.

Although Taylorism as a paradigm (Seeck, 2012) is recognised as outdated, the spirit of recognising different tasks in processes and monitoring these is visible in the data in the role of designer, in particular in its subrole “multiprofessional organisation developer”. Problems seem to appear when this view is used solemnly, as happened in historical development (Seeck, 2012).

### 5.3 Clarity about participative leadership

I concluded in the literature review (2.3.5) that participative leadership is seen to suit social work practice (Vito, 2020; Scourfield, 2020; Sullivan, 2016; Lawler & Bilson, 2010; Spillane, 2006). I now find, having reflected on the data, that in the literature the discourse regarding distributive leadership moves on three layers. Here, I call these the “conceptual”, “attitude” and “client” views. In the data, participative leadership as a topic was not extensively discussed directly as an approach. But reflection on the data revealed latent meanings and had implications which relate to this approach. As noted in the two previous sections, it is a facilitating factor in appropriate leadership approaches and in reconciling business and social work ethics. In the first sub section below (5.3.1), I therefore review the literature on the conceptual, attitude and client views of distributed leadership and show how these are taken forward by my findings. I then propose an approach to integrating different perspectives on distributed leadership (5.3.2). I will discuss the implications for a leadership curriculum in section 6.2.3.

#### 5.3.1 Conceptual, attitudinal and client views on distributed leadership

In the literature concerning participative approach in chapter two and through reflection on the findings, it is evident that the broad concept of distributive leadership has many branches and the notion needs further clarification. On the “conceptual” level, distributed leadership is described as a wide umbrella concept, which describes a way of seeing leadership as a wider concept rather than one person leading and moves away from focusing on the leaders on to thinking about leadership (Lawler & Bilson, 2010). Lawler & Bilson also referred to Ancona, who sees distributive leadership as sensemaking, relating, visioning and inventing, and Raelin (2003), who described distributive leadership as concurrent, collective, collaborative and compassionate. Of the Finnish authors, Juuti (2013) saw distributive leadership to be constructed of goal orientation, symbolism and discussion. These conceptual themes to distributive leadership also concern many other aspects referred to in this study, and as a theme distributed leadership is conceptually very broad. Finnish leadership researcher Pauli Juuti (2013) believes that successful commitment to servant leadership is the path to and precondition for successful distributed leadership. The emergence of shared management requires a specific skill from the manager. They are adopting a leadership style that serves the group and its people. If the supervisor does not adopt such a leadership style, their efforts will remain only their efforts, and the group will not adopt them as their own. Suppose the supervisor uses a management style related to equal treatment, valuing others, and serving customers well. In that case, they can get everyone involved in the activity behind their efforts. Servant leadership is also needed to balance the asymmetric relationship between supervisor and subordinate. In the servant approach and the helping relationship (Schein, 2009), a person places himself below the person he serves. Serving requires a humble attitude. A serving supervisor balances the symmetry of the supervisor-subordinate relationship. This allows shared leadership to emerge.

On the level of “conceptual”, the findings of this study related to the narrative of “understander” and the narrative of “designer” are relevant to the idea of participation in leadership. The “Understander” needs to conceptually engage with participatory leadership as a tool to monitor the chain of emotional events within the work community, which affect the atmosphere collectively. The “Designer” needs to conceptually acknowledge the value of different know-how from different people to construct processes needed to efficiently run

the core task. The data on “relational understanding” and “leader with self” confirms that a leader or manager should also acknowledge their own know-how. In participatory leadership, it is therefore essential to recognise where in the organisation the know-how exists and how it is utilised in practice. This links strongly to the interdisciplinary theme, and the integration of these will be further discussed later. The new discovery here is that the participative approach to leadership should be examined alongside interdisciplinary practices. Activities attached to these approaches should be simultaneously examined both from the viewpoint of structure and processes and atmosphere.

On the level of “attitude”, use of distributive leadership requires an attitude shift from individualism to collectivism. Distributed leadership is recommended, yet the organisational form favours a style where there is one leader whom the others follow. Lawler (2016) discusses the question of individualisation and sees an increasing emphasis on individual leaders in several aspects of public service. Individualisation seems to be a phenomenon of the post-modern era. Just like the previous generations, we find ourselves more self-sufficient and independent (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 2002). Bauman (2000) sees that casting members as individuals is a trademark of modern society. This casting is re-enacted daily. Beck & Beck-Gernsheim (2002) see that individuals support each other, but only to support each other’s individualism. Neo-liberal governments reinforce individualism by emphasising individual choice, self-determination and personalisation (Newman et al., 2008). In this kind of individualisation development, the ties to the professional community are weakened, and leaders as individuals become responsible for their work (Lawler, 2016).

The findings at the “attitude” level connect to the participative and autocratic leadership styles. The interviewees, both leaders and followers, found it very irritating if a leader cannot make firm decisions. This is in line with Scourfield’s (2020) criticism of “too many cooks and one recipe”. Democratic leadership and participation were appreciated by the interviewees, but sometimes it felt like an excuse for indecision and avoiding responsibility. The notion of shared leadership/participative leadership in social work leadership can therefore usefully be developed to include reflection on where and when it should be combined with non-participation. There is a place even for an authoritative leadership style in social work leadership inside the distributed leadership approach. This is situation-specific rather than a question of personal preference of leadership styles. Again, there is a solid link to work procedures, and a question should be raised: What kind of leadership styles and approaches suit different procedures?

The third view, client view, is the most concrete and concerns client participation in decision making, where decision making should be brought as close as possible to the clients (Sullivan, 2016; Scourfield, 2020 & Hafford-Letchfield, 2014a). The role of client participation in literature was seen controversial (Scourfield, 2020), since legislation places requirements for decision making in this area.

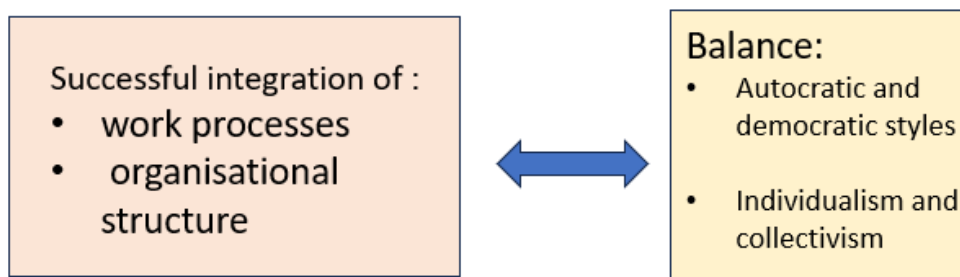
On the level of “client”, from the findings of this study, it cannot be said that distributive leadership with clients would not be suitable to social work or appreciated; it seemed to be implied that taking employees and clients into account in decision making was self-evident based on social work values and the dialogical manner of interaction. In the data, this shows as an attitude of respect.

Given the support for a participative leadership style, if properly executed, we need to understand the root of structural challenges that may act as a barrier to taking distributed

leadership into use in organisations. We must analyse more deeply the means to promote this approach in practice, and this raises questions on how distributed leadership should be organised. There are challenges connected to experienced indecisiveness and client participation. The theme of power is relevant to examine in all these layers. What is power on a conceptual level? Does the leader lead for the wrong reasons as LeGrand (2003) puts it, as a knave guarding their own interest? Or use coercive power (French & Raven, 1986) to threaten employees? On the level of attitude, these kinds of problematic relationships to power should be eliminated, if well-functioning distributed leadership is to be achieved. Nonetheless, my findings already demonstrate that conceptual, attitudinal and client-inclusive distributed leadership is possible in some Finnish contexts, where it is accompanied by moments of authoritative decision making and a commitment to distribute power as well. Ways of achieving this are explored in the next subsection.

### 5.3.2 Integrating distributive leadership as attitude, style and structure

In Figure 10 below, I have illustrated how a balance between autocratic and democratic styles and balance between individualism and collectivism needs to be achieved in work processes and organisational structures.



*Figure 10: Work processes and structure in relation to styles and individualism*

First, the new insight from my findings concerns redefining authoritative leadership versus a democratic style. The participants said that even if authority is hidden and “not in use”, it should exist and be used if needed. Some “pull in case of emergency” handle is in place in case the environment around us changes and shows signs of crisis. Distributed leadership as a strategy becomes burdened with heavy responsibility, which is not directed to anybody in the worst case. The unclear division of tasks and responsibility resembles the democratic style, where the experienced ambivalence of leaders has negative consequences. A finding then is that in a distributed approach, the democratic style can resemble the laissez faire style in the eyes of the followers, if distribution of leadership is not clear.

Drawing together the literature and findings from the data and examining distributed leadership alongside autocratic and democratic styles, as noted, although the democratic style is favoured, there appears to be a place for the autocratic style – but in specific situations which need clarification. The data suggests that the autocratic style is perceived as justified when it existed before the use of distributed leadership. Distributed leadership requires clear-lined areas of responsibility. Otherwise, the division of tasks could be imprecise, and the boundaries of responsibility are unknown. This might lead to a chaotic situation where leadership vanishes because of unclarity. The core tasks in social work differ

greatly from one another. Hierarchy might be justified in some work procedures, such as handling urgent concerns in child protection services.

A key finding of my study is therefore that leaders need to provide clarity about decision-making lines, boundaries and responsibilities in relation to each area of social work practice. If they do so, participative leadership can be experienced positively alongside moments of an authoritarian approach. This is not directly stated in the literature, but is stated in the data in the caregiver subnarrative of “a coach towards growing independence”.

## 5.4 Development of interdisciplinary practices

Since distributive leadership within clear boundaries was confirmed as a desirable approach, looking at the context where it is best suited, interdisciplinary teams, is worthwhile. Interdisciplinary work was widely discussed in the literature review (Bishop, 2018; King Keenan, 2018; Edmonstone, 2020; Reeves et al., 2010; McCray & Palmer, 2014; Healy, 2002; Smith et al., 2018; Peters, 2018). The need for interdisciplinary work was also confirmed by the data. Most questions of interdisciplinary work connect with notions of “participation” since interdisciplinarity is impossible without it. As mentioned before, questions of interaction are a cross-cutting theme to all activities as well. I see interdisciplinary work well-suited to network social work. The core content is the same; workers with different professional backgrounds work together to promote the well-being of a client, family or community with multiple challenges. According to the data, interdisciplinary work has two significant challenges: lack of time and different value bases. Lack of time was quoted in the selective coding section. To return to the literature review, Hafford-Letchfield et al. (2013) also confirm that value conflicts in interdisciplinary work exist.

This section engages with an overview of the literature concerning interdisciplinary practices, taking forward themes that appeared in section 2.3.4 in discussion with my findings. As in the previous sections, I have defined the key themes proven most relevant and later, in section 6.2.4, explain how these inform the curriculum (Appendix 7).

### 5.4.1 Dimensions of interdisciplinarity

I see interdisciplinary work to structurally have both horizontal and vertical dimensions. Vertically, interdisciplinary work happens on different hierarchical levels. The literature (LeChurch et al., 2010; Day & Lord, 1988; Hunt, 1991; Hunt & Ropo, 1995; Jacobs & Jacques, 1987; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Zaccaro, 1996; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001) does not articulate clearly on what levels each leadership and management approaches are most relevant. Leadership skills relating to human interaction are essential at any level, but managerial processes such as strategic management are still referred to in the context of top level leadership. The data suggests in the caregiver approaches narrative that leaders at all levels should maintain their connection to the grassroots level where the frontline work is done. The interviewees hoped that leaders and managers could occasionally join the workers to do client work with them. It may be concluded that more attention should be directed towards the vertical dimension of interdisciplinary work and leading it.

The data provides an exciting insight into the vertical dimension in the “Designers” subrole “multiprofessional organisation developer”, where the vital need to promote interdisciplinary work is rooted in the top management. However, interdisciplinary work does not flow as wished among workers. This was believed to be a lack of trust, which ties this theme strongly to the psychodynamic need to promote trust. This finding strengthens the view that different dimensions are firmly connected, as shown in Figure 12, the relatedness of different categories.

I interpret from the data that time resources are tight, but the use of time is a value-based decision. A deeper look at the many different terms used in cooperative forms of work raises an interesting question: What do we mean by interdisciplinary work, and what kind of values do we attach to it?



Both data and literature confirm the ultimate importance of interdisciplinary work. The social work core task requires interdisciplinary work (Bishop, 2018; King Keenan, 2018; Edmonstone, 2020; Reeves et al., 2010; McCray & Palmer, 2014; Healy, 2002; Smith et al., 2018; Peters, 2018). In Finland, the requirement is stated in legislation (Social Welfare Act 1301/2014). Even without legislative requirements, the historical development of leadership has favoured increasing interaction between individuals. Reflecting on Seeck's (2018) view on paradigms, leadership has moved from scientific management to human relations schools, to cultural theory paradigm and further on to structural analytic paradigm. As time has moved on, organisations have shifted from monotonous, heavily controlled and standardised work towards more interaction and interest in the systemic nature of organisation.

In the data, the roles of "designer" and "understander" are most connected to interdisciplinary practice. The "Designer" needs interdisciplinary platforms to execute the various work processes needed to achieve the agreed social work objectives. The "Understander" sees the psychodynamic undercurrent of emotions which circulate in an interdisciplinary team and sees the need to monitor and intervene, if needed, in interactions in the community.

I find that interdisciplinary work also has a horizontal dimension, which is described in Marilyn Stember's 1990 paper 'Advancing the social sciences through the interdisciplinary enterprise'. In an intradisciplinary setting, people work within a single discipline. Multidisciplinary work is in question when people from different disciplines work together, each drawing on their disciplinary knowledge. In cross-disciplinary work, workers view one discipline from the perspective of another. Interdisciplinary working means integrating knowledge and methods from different disciplines, using a natural synthesis of approaches. On a transdisciplinary level, the target is creating a unity of intellectual frameworks beyond the disciplinary perspectives. This means that knowledge from different disciplines forms synthesis and creates new frameworks for social work practice.

If there are requirements for greater depth of interdisciplinary practice, more time and effort is consumed. The two ends of this continuum, transdisciplinary and multidisciplinary (where any shared activity occurs), are very different. The various levels between these concern the amount of cooperation and the depth of synthesis created from the theory formation of different disciplines and their theories. Organisation type should be considered when possibilities for interdisciplinary work are estimated. As a flat organisation was considered favourable to promote interdisciplinary practices, the organisation's role should be further investigated when these practices are further developed. The structural issues concerning possibilities for cooperation should naturally be resolved before value discussion.

If different members of interdisciplinary teams have very different expectations according to the depth of this synthesis, there is likely to be disappointment and value-based conflicts. My findings show that valuing the values of other professions varies. Even within social and health care, social and health values are not all the same. For example, protecting life can easily collide with social work's value of protection autonomy. Dialogue is needed in setting shared values. Here is a link to the interaction, which I will further examine in the next section.

Interdisciplinary work requires acceptance of all individuals as referred to for example by Peters (2018). We also learned from the literature (House et al., 2008; Dorfman, 2012) that

cultural attributes and conceptions of what is valued leadership by social workers and social work leaders/managers vary. According to the GLOBE study, trustworthiness, decisiveness and information are leadership qualities that are appreciated in all cultures. In the data concerning interdisciplinary work, respect for multiprofessional partners was confirmed by “relational understandings”, in particularly where “leader with environment” was discussed. Here the data on respect for different professional values and persons in general is relevant. To conclude, I return to the question of time consumed. If the working practices, organisational structures and shared values necessary to interdisciplinary working are to be developed, time allocation to these needs further consideration.

#### 5.4.2 Attitudes and values

The most essential aspects of interdisciplinary work, as estimated, are attitudes and values. These were strongly present in both the literature review and data. Finding ways to functionally work together is essential and mandatory by law. Attitudes towards both interdisciplinary work forms, the professional values of other professions or the personalities of others can jeopardise well-functioning interdisciplinary work. This has implications for learning about leadership.

As noted in the literature review chapter, Hafford-Lethcfield et al. (2013) suggest that different values in the different disciplines of the social and health care fields can cause pressure to set different objectives. To guard against this, in interdisciplinary situations, the values of each organisation working together might be examined before developing some collective respect for the work each achieves in the community. After this, the value base should be examined collectively. In section 2.2.5., I wrote about cultural aspects. Alongside these, questions of diversity should be examined. Here writings on factors such as gender, race, sexual orientation and disability status (Chin, Sanches & Hucles, 2007) also raise issues that should be named and confronted when the value base of a social work organisation and interdisciplinary setting is estimated. In the data, diversity was discussed most strongly in the “leader with environment”, where for example the role of age was referred to. In the literature, particularly gender and the role of women was discussed in Chapter 2 (Lawler & Bilson, 2010; Chernesky, 2003; Dewane, 2008), and it was noted that there are too few women in senior management positions. In previous research on the Finnish context (Pekkarinen, 2010), the question of gender was not as strong. In my data, there are a few mentions that women do not seek leadership positions themselves even if they were experienced to have potential for leadership duties. Rodrigues et al. (2023) pointed out that there is intersectional relatedness in the gender question and more than one diversity factor usually affects at the same time. Ethical sensitiveness is needed in examining the diversity factors.

Both literature (e.g. Hafford-Lethcfield et al., 2014) and data confirm that interdisciplinary work can be challenging due to different values. Data also suggests that interdisciplinary work is challenging due to inadequate time resources. Data shows that trust should be built between different agencies and persons who are expected to co-operate. Therefore I see that leadership of trust and interaction directly benefit from better execution of interdisciplinary work as well. I discuss the theme of trust in more detail in chapter 5.5.

## 5.5 Integrating the new discoveries

In this section I will explain, how I have formed the new discoveries into four tensions and what kind of process has led to combining these into three themes and holistic view to leadership. In Figure 11 below are the four tensions, and the generated end result is shown later in Figure 12.

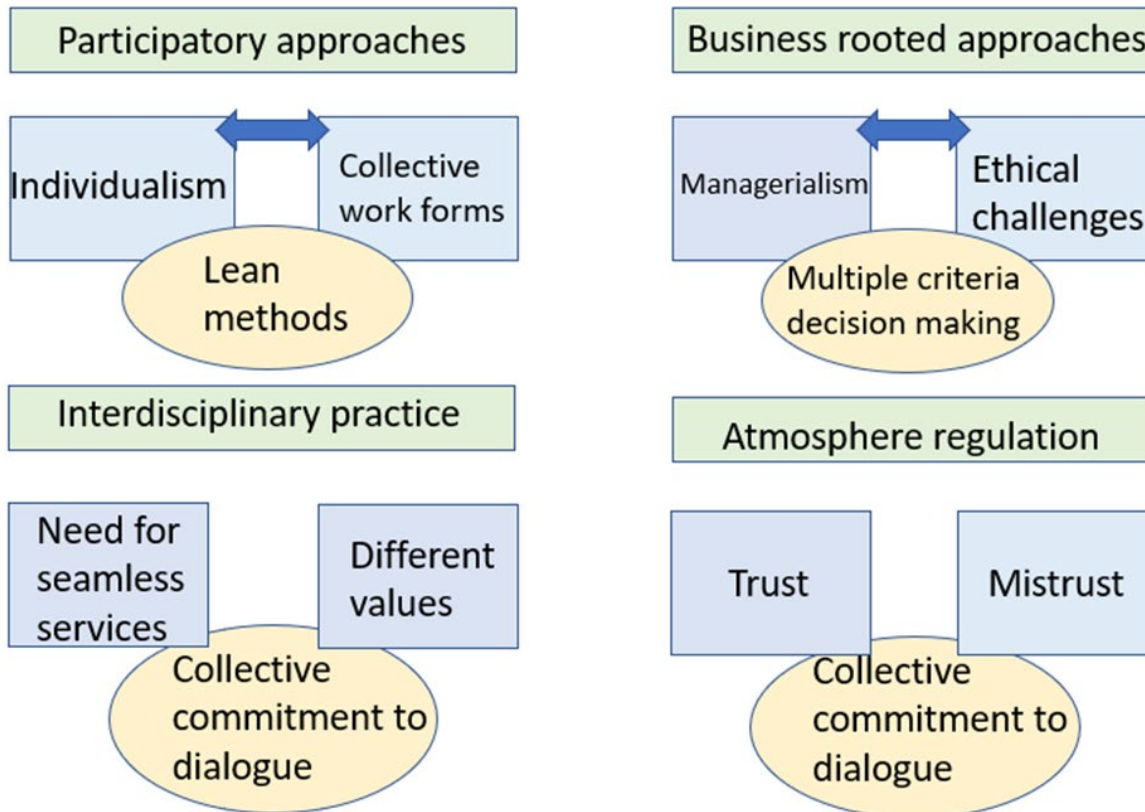


Figure 11: Findings as four tensions with tools to solutions

These findings emerge from the open coding process and the synthesis explained in this chapter. Two recurring themes throughout the data were “trust” and “interaction”, which form a tension to atmosphere regulation. “Trust” and “interaction” occur in many different contexts and are not attachable to any particular style or approach. In addition to reflecting on their own attitude towards trust and dialogue, leaders should also reflect on their relationship to power (French & Raven, 1986). The axial coding procedure suggests, and the section on relational understandings describes, that this reflection of a leader’s relationship to self is a prerequisite for any other leadership activity or context. Suppose a leader does not master interaction, does not support trust in the community, or has a negative relationship to power, i.e. misuses power to drive their own interest forward. In that case, any later use of any single leadership approach, style, paradigm etc., is in danger of becoming useless. A leader must therefore know how to see themselves as well as how to change.

The challenge then is to engage in self-leadership and reflection on one-self. This self-reflection might be seen as having two dimensions: 1) knowledge based, i.e. phases of leadership development in history, and 2) emotional, which includes both subjective relation

to power and overall understanding of emotions, and their effect on the work community and therefore on the necessary leadership tools. The diagrams below propose ways in which the insights from the four sections of this discussion can be brought together.

First, in Figure 11 *Findings as four tensions with tools to solutions* I suggest that trust and mistrust can be thought of as consequences of emotional movement in a community, and dialogue could be seen as a tool to affect movement between trust and mistrust in the community.

Trust and interaction form the core and the starting point of the curriculum. Here this theme is described as a tension concerning “atmosphere regulation”. The other three tensions discussed in chapter five are also described here.

Tension between managerialism and ethical challenges form a tension of “business rooted approaches”. The background for this tension has been referred to in previous sections. Here, they are connected to multiple criteria decision making (MCDM) where ethical challenges may be specified as criteria following the contextual guidelines of Juujärvi (2007), Banks (2012) and Talentia (2019).

At this stage of the process, I have partially combined the tensions “Participatory approaches to leadership” and “Interdisciplinary work” as their contents are partially parallel; both require collaboration and estimation regarding balance between values concerning individualism and collectivism. Both of these also relate to the centre (Figure 12), to the leader’s capability to guide dialogue concerning diversity, attitudes and values concerning collaborative work forms. In the area of distributed leadership, this also concerns organisational discussion on how decision making is distributed, possibly with help from lean thinking.

Strengthening the holistic nature of leadership is the result of the selective coding process and narrativeness. Bringing roles back into this integration, the integration of different tensions becomes more clear, as all activities are run by people. In my reasoning, the first discovery relates to the holistic nature of leadership and the relatedness and dependency of different themes to one another. Certainly, a holistic approach to leadership has been discussed before, but a holistic narrative approach to the question through leadership roles is new in Finland. The narrative approach reveals the “big picture”, hence stories in their continuity show that single concepts are inadequate alone. “Designer”, “caregiver” and “understander” need one another for effective relationship. These roles are not single persons, but features we possess in ourselves, some more, some less. “Designer” alone would have the bank balance right, but would have dissatisfied employees who are not emotionally encountered. “Caregiver” and “Understander” alone would run into practical organisational problems, most likely with severe financial consequences. In the field of leading people, “caregiver” alone is in danger to lose the big picture in the community level when concentrating on one individual at a time, and the “understander” could lose the individuality of their employees. These findings in the data return my mind to Seeck’s (2012) paradigms. Of these Taylorism, structural analytical and (current) innovation paradigm are all present in the roles. “Designer” easily gets a hold of Taylorism, “Understander” is a systemic thinker and would be appreciated by the structural analytical paradigm, and “Caregiver” favours innovations as they encourage individuals to participate. It appears that these paradigms are not sequential, but live holistically inside one another.

All these tensions and roles relate to relational understandings, which calls for continuous reflection on how a leader relates to these themes and roles.

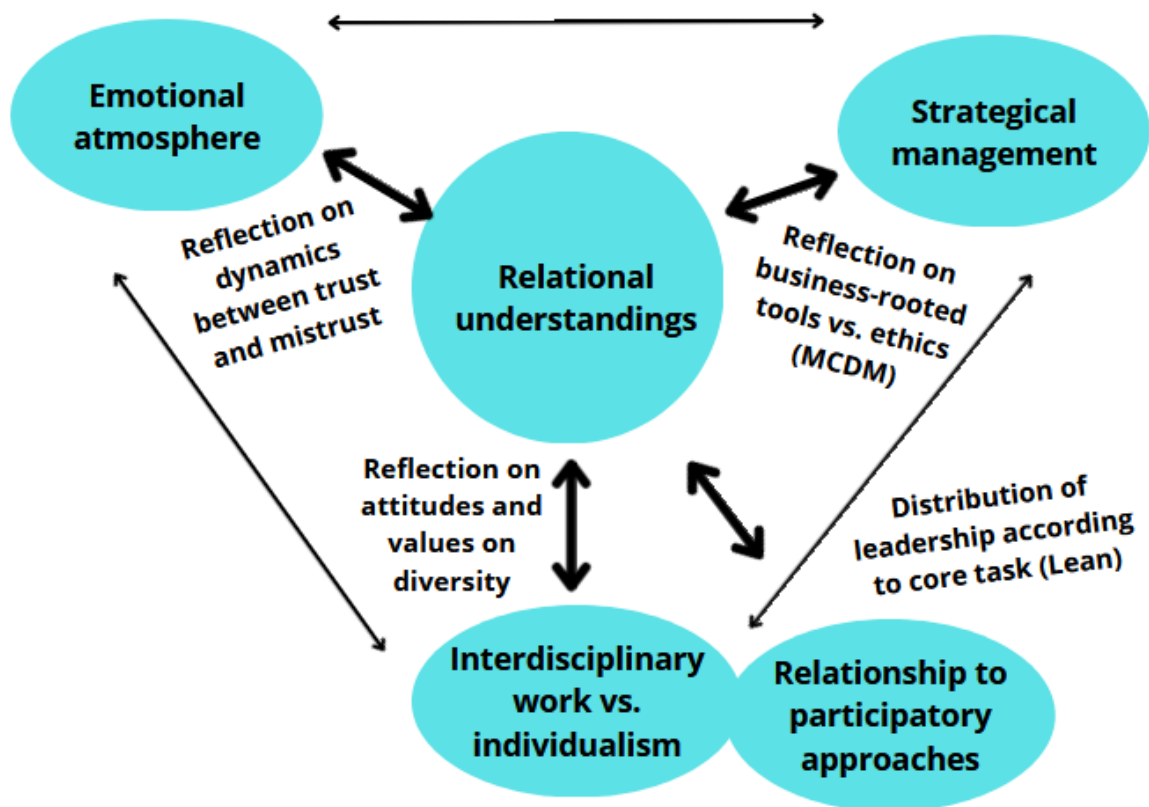


Figure 12: Relatedness of tensions and relational understandings

Later in the curriculum, these tensions exist in four different modules as explained in the next chapter: I *Myself as a leader*, II *Atmosphere* (tension of atmosphere regulation), III *Community* (tensions of Interdisciplinary practice and participatory approaches combined), and IV *Strategy* (Business rooted approaches). More precisely, this curriculum and their example narratives are presented in Appendix 7.

## Chapter 6 – Implications for Social Work and Interdisciplinary Leadership Pedagogy in Finland

This research has identified four key ways in which social work leadership training in Finland could be developed. This insight arises throughout this thesis and particularly from integrations of the literature and findings from the interview data. In Appendix 7, I introduce a framework for how these insights might be integrated into a social work leadership curriculum in Finland, demonstrating the practice applicability of my work as is befitting of a professional doctorate. The work, however, has wider implications, in terms of how a social work leadership curriculum for Finland might be developed (6.1), and critical content of such a curriculum (6.2). In this chapter, I review these implications and discuss related actions that have been or can be undertaken (6.3).

As it has been referred to in many occasions in this research that there is no single best way of leading (Lawler & Bilson, 2010; Juuti, 2013), there is no single proven way to teach leadership or unanimous understanding on whether it can be taught, as discussed in section 2.2.11. Many development programmes have been developed both by corporations and by public sector agencies (Hotho & Dowling, 2010). As Gherardi et al. (1998), Elkjaer (2001) and Örtenblad (2002) explained, leadership education often leans on pedagogical solutions where participants are seen as recipients of didactic input. Hotho & Dowling (2010) made a remark on the significance of the socio-constructivist approach, where the context specific dimensions are recognised in leadership education. In the light of this knowledge, it cannot be stated that the curriculum constructed in this research is the best or only answer to leadership training. Theory-in-use (Argyris & Schön, 1974; Keski-Luopa, 2011) brings the pedagogical element of context specific experience to the training. Theoretical knowledge from literature and empirical data from the interviews together form knowledge competent to utilise alongside the experiences provoked by the narratives. The curriculum (Appendix 7) brings these elements together. Its usability is later proven in practice according to user feedback.

## 6.1 Implications for understandings of a social work leadership curriculum in Finland

The literature provided me with guidance on the kinds of pedagogical insights that should be taken into consideration in curriculum planning. In the pedagogical discussion (section 2.4.3), the need for social work leadership training was well recognised in research (e.g. Vito & Schmidt Hanbidge, 2021; Peters, 2018; Alajoutsijärvi, 2015; Pekkarinen, 2010; McCray & Palmer, 2014; Pecuconis, 2013; Jones & Phillips, 2016; Sonnino, 2016). These sources repeatedly mention the importance of social work leadership and management training, but make few strictly pedagogical statements on *how* training should be delivered. I want to highlight the importance of adding room for personal experience and concentrate on narratives as a pedagogical tool. In this section, I discuss both the questions of “what” and “how” in the light of the pedagogical discussion in chapter two.

The problematic relationship between social work ethics and business management connects to strategical thinking in pedagogical sources. Many sources (Pekkarinen, 2010; Rousu, 2021; Sonnino, 2016; McCray & Palmer, 2014; Alajoutsijärvi, 2015 & Connolly; 2019) state that the role of strategical know-how should be strengthened in social work education. This includes also skills concerning risk analysis (Austin, 2011), marketing (McCray & Palmer, 2014), leading with knowledge (Alajoutsijärvi, 2014), and the need to clarify roles (2014).

Communication skills (Austin, 2011 & Pekkarinen, 2010) were seen important to include in training. Sonnino (2016) and Austin (2011) would extend this to the area of conflict management. Diversity questions (Vito & Schmidt, 2021) were seen particularly important to include in the training, as were ethical dimensions (Sonnino, 2016; Vito & Schmidt, 2012).

The literature findings support this view. Holroyd & Brown (2020) discuss self-leadership and see that it is quintessential for effective management, leadership and supervision. It not only relates to oneself but to the interaction of others. Self-leadership (Manz, 1983) is about influencing ourselves first to generate the best version of self to bring to each intervention and to be responsible for our impact on others and ourselves. Self-leadership is about everyone and not only the person holding the leadership position. Holroyd (2015) defines self-leadership as “the ability to bring out the best in individuals in any circumstances to provide better services”.

Sonnino (2016) suggests tools, such as 360 evaluations and Myers Briggs personality test, to be used for self-reflection in social work leadership education.

The question of “how” to educate on social work leadership is discussed here next, rooting the choices to the literature referred to in chapter two and regarding to the use of narratives in chapters one and three.

Examining *personal experience* relates to theory-in-use (Keski-Luopa, 2011) in the literature review. This view was chosen because no single best leadership or management practice solution has ever been found (Juuti, 2013; Lawler & Bilson, 2010). This thesis aims not to succeed in creating a theory of leadership that would beat the existing ones but to compel and perhaps combine elements. Leadership approaches and styles suit different people and different situations differently. Therefore pedagogically, it would be wise to explain to social

work leadership students what is known of leadership in a social work context and how they relate themselves to this knowledge in light of this knowledge. Another reason to root the learning process to theory-in-use is that it allows the inclusion of experience. Even if a “best answer” was found, people tend to lean partially on their experience. In this pedagogical design, narratives are used to “awaken” the learners’ own experience.

The idea of holding theory-in-use as a core in curriculum planning receives support from Field (2020b), who advises students to develop their own leadership styles. The reasoning assumes that we must relate to a diverse range of people from within and outside our organisations. As some of our groundings are the same and some different, our natural behaviours are reflected in our behaviours. Developing these behaviours teaches us to behave in situations we might find unnatural based on our natural tendencies. This view aligns well with the idea of creating one’s own “leadership speech”.

Writers such as Allain et al. (2023) and Vito & Schmidt Hanbidge (2021) write of their experiences of teaching leadership in multiprofessional teams, and recommend interdisciplinary team work to be utilised in social work leadership and management teaching. Allain et al. (2023) would extend this over the limits of social and health care. They have experience in teaching arrangements, where both business management and social work teachers teach in partnership arrangements in the UK. They have co-organised “leadership excellence forums” where the teaching topics included leading diverse teams and change management. The experiments received good feedback and were considered overall successful.

Narratives as a tool to examine social work leadership experience were discussed by Ironside (2006), Nehls (1995), Diekelman (2001), Brady (2016) and Garrow-Oliver (2017).

In the light of this conclusion, the use of narratives to support experience and interdisciplinary teams in teaching social work leadership are recommended by this research. The theoretical concepts are known and named in the intended learning outcomes, but how they are pedagogically delivered should be up to the teacher conducting the training. The choice to follow a constructivist approach became stronger during the research process. This is mostly for the reason that relational understandings play a great role in curriculum construction, and reflection on oneself can only be retrieved through personal reflection, such as constructing one’s own knowledge. Also the roles of caregiver, understander and designer require personal construction of knowledge, hence their essence is mostly constructed in social relationships. These findings also resonate to the findings of Lawler & Bilson (2010) to favour reflective-pluralist approaches to social work leadership. Although much of the responsibilities of the “designer” role and work procedures relate to the rational-objectivist (Lawler & Bilson, 2010) side of leadership (or management), constructing knowledge is essential in most parts of the curriculum.



## 6.2 Implications for the curriculum

In this section, I will use the integrated literature review and interview findings discussed in Chapter 5 and outline how I see these to have implications to the curriculum. The integration of these themes I have constructed in chapter five, Discussion, and in this section I will further their relationship to practice.

The pathway of studies starts from the centre of this figure, where “relational understandings” is in the centre and will later on be at the beginning of the students’ leadership pathway. These relational understandings connect to the leadership skills of monitoring emotional atmosphere. Here the dynamics of trust and mistrust are the route. Strategic leadership is examined through dialogue, where business rooted styles vs. ethical connotations are central, advisable through tools such as MCDM.

### 6.2.1 Implications for curriculum content related to leadership approaches

The findings from my study confirm the importance of transformative, compassionate, servant and psychodynamic leadership in Finland. This extends the current Finnish conceptions of the important aspects of social work leadership articulated by Pekkarinen (2010), Nyberg & Lindroos (2020) and Juuti (2013) by adding new components.

If these elements are taken to form a part of the foundations of a curriculum for social work leadership, there are certain implications to consider. New tools should be developed in particular to clarify the essence of psychodynamic leadership and illustrate its possibilities in practice. This kind of pedagogical process should at first educate the learner about the significance of emotions in leadership and provide tools to enable leaders to examine their own selves and attitudes and their understanding about the emotional aspects of the work community and therefore the leader’s responsibility to monitor this development. Secondly, this section raises the need to monitor the emotional atmosphere through trust and mistrust. As referred to by Harisalo & Miettinen (2010) in the literature review, there are stages between the ends of this continuum that vary from a pleasant emotional atmosphere to a stage of shared anxiety in the work community. This level of trust may be monitored and directed towards trust through a shared commitment to dialogue, in a practical manner described by Isaacs (1999), such as commitment towards respect, listening, suspending and direct speech. To teach dialogue, it should be analysed and broken into understandable chunks. Dialogue is not just good behaviour or polite conversation, it is, as Isaacs (1999) describes it, a philosophical approach to interaction. He has named four skills as the cornerstones of dialogue: respect, listening, suspending and direct speech. These are positive dynamic forces that counterwork the negative psychodynamic movement in the community when they are collectively committed to. Isaac’s (2001) approach to dialogue is practical, and it is adaptable to many disciplines. Originally, he had adapted these elements of dialogue in business life organisations, from where they have spread to other contexts. Though the origins of dialogue are philosophical, according to my teaching experience, Isaac’s way of explaining dialogue is written in “layman’s” terms. This is important, because to become successful, these themes are present in the curriculum (Appendix 7) in modules I “I as a leader” and II “Atmosphere”.

## 6.2.2 Implications for curriculum content related to business and ethics

The findings from my study confirm the need to resolve the tension between social work ethics and business ethics. Importantly, strategies for achieving this are evident in the data. A commitment to professional autonomy and ethics of care was seen to be compatible with having to make difficult financial decisions.

In the Finnish context, Aaltonen's (1999) findings on the existence of scientific management and management by results confirm these findings. Also discussion around New Public Management has been active for the past 20 years in Finland (Tammelin & Mänttari-van der Kuip, 2022). Discussion around this subject is controversial. Where Haverinen (2000) reports also positive effects, such as possibilities for career development, Mänttari-van der Kuip (2021) found that social workers experienced stress due to NPM measures.

To return to Niiranen's (2004) idea of hybrid leadership, it is wise to integrate here what is known and confirmed and what new can be brought in to the body of knowledge and onwards from there to curriculum and practice. This hybrid, in this context meaning a successful combination of leadership and managerial activities, requires practical tools that a curriculum could utilise. Heinonen & Lajunen's (2018) experiences on applied lean techniques appear worth developing as a balancer, when business rooted management is applied in ethically sensitive social work.

Suitable management tools might then be useful in the context of social work and these could be borrowed from other disciplines. Techniques such as Multiple criteria decision making (MCDM) (Aruldos et al., 2013) could be utilised as structural frames to strategic management in social work. MCDM provides strong decision making in domains where the selection of the best alternative is highly complex (Aruldos et al, 2013). In the spirit of hybrid leadership, tools like MCDM could be used based on both economic and social work professional values and ethics. Defining these criteria brings clarity and balance to the question of managerialism. In the scope of this study are the ethical dimensions of the work processes in social work.

In the future, we need projects and research which clarify, at the grassroots level, what actually happens in the social work processes, which can be considered ethically questionable. As MCDM suggests, there have to be criteria in practice to use this tool. This research provides insight into the ethical dimensions through the work of Juujärvi (2007), Banks (2021), and social work professional ethics. The managerial criteria will be defined in future interdisciplinary development work with business management.

To conclude, questions relating to organisation concern form, the essence of strategy, and work processes concerning organising work. Social work management and leadership students should learn the basics of organisational structure. Financial mechanisms such as budget planning should be included. If/when these work processes are rooted in other disciplines, such as business management, their suitability should be situationally estimated through an ethical lens. The basics of ethics, such as rule ethics (Kant, utilitarianism and virtue ethics) and Ethics of care and radical social work (Juujärvi, 2007), should function as a mirror when the usability of managerial tools is estimated. Structural tools such as MCDM should be developed to create new managerial procedures.

These themes are present in the curriculum in module IV, Strategy. Hence strengthening strategical thinking was named as an important objective by many authors (Pekkarinen (2010); Sonnino (2016); McCray & Palmer (2014); Alajoutsijärvi (2015) & Connolly (2019)), and it serves as a heading for business orientated questions and their reflection to ethics.

### 6.2.3 Implications for curriculum content related to distributive leadership

Of the Finnish authors, Juuti (2013) has studied distributed leadership extensively. To summarise, Juuti (2013) presents distributed leadership as successful goal orientation, discussion and symbolism. All these need to be equally strong, and they have to interact with one another. Goal orientation refers to the traditional elements of strategy and strategic work. Discussion here means that interaction is based on the emotional processes of participants. Symbolism refers to a process where interaction creates different emotions. These interaction related processes relate to one another in an invisible way. They either strengthen or weaken one another. Characteristically in symbolism there is a great amount of emotional phenomena created by a relatively small amount of clearly expressed information. Unconscious codes of behaviour are learned in childhood, and they direct our interaction on a symbolic level.

Juuti's (2013) division into goal orientation, discussion and symbolism all relate to other themes in this study and tie other contexts of other themes together. Discussion relates to dialogue work to maintain trust, symbolism to unconscious psychodynamic attitudes referred to in many contexts, and goal orientation to strategy work recommended to be strengthened (Pekkarinen, 2010, Sonnino, 2016; McCray & Palmer, 2014; Alajoutsijärvi, 2015 & Connolly, 2019).

What is missing from Juuti's (2013) work, however, is guidance on balance and integration. In the discussion chapter, I suggested that balance was required in democratic and autocratic leadership styles and attitudes concerning individualism vs collectivism. By the term integration, I refer to the structural side of distributed leadership.

The curriculum acknowledges when distributed leadership is discussed that balance in the distribution of leadership should be agreed upon in the community. Successful distributed leadership requires balance between individualism and collectivism, and there is tension between collaboration and individualism concerning participative leadership approaches. Clarity on how to achieve this balance in practice is needed in any curriculum.

Shared Lean management might be a useful tool to resolve this balance. As experiences from Heinonen & Lajunen (2018) show, worker participation on designing processes with Lean management methods has proven to be effective. Sobek, Durward & Lang (2010) see that lean is an approach to operations management that considers any resource expended that does not add value to the end customer to be waste. Heinonen & Lajunen (2018) saw that especially reducing waste, such as simple mechanical work, helped social workers use more time on encountering clients.

There is a variety of Lean management methods and tools to help managers and workers in work improvement, each designed for specific types of problems to illuminate and remove sources of waste through systems redesign. Examples of such tools and methods include value stream mapping, Kanban and pull, demand levelling, single-piece flow, 5S, kaizen

events, A3 reports, and visual management. Modig & Åhlström (2013) describe lean as flow efficiency. The most important indicator is time which is consumed from the recognition of a need to answering the particular need.

Based on my recent discussions with field workers, there are for example many administrative tasks that social workers still do, such as organising clienthood by family name, initials and addresses, taking in initial enquiries by phone. There are all kinds of tasks that could be administrated by other professionals, such as secretaries, to free the time of social workers for tasks which are ethically demanding and require competences social work as a profession provides them. In this kind of rationalisation work, whether it is lean or something else, we need to recognise the ethically demanding zone where this tension between managerialism and social work values is most relevant but also recognise simple administrative tasks which can be reorganised.

Surely, this kind of planning and organising work is done in social work all the time. The matter extends to political decision making. As Niiranen (2004) presents in chapter two, social work at the same time takes orders from political decision making and affects political decision making. Therefore the possibilities to develop working processes are dependent on resources allocated by political leaders. On the other hand, social work professionals are responsible for outspokening the developmental needs social work organisations have.

To conclude, the implications for the curriculum and the participatory leadership approaches seem to suit social work leadership well both by literature review findings and interview data. Participative leadership needs to be better planned and specified in social work organisations. Particularly client participation should be reflected against the possibilities and limitations set by legislation. Different work processes should be identified, and organisations should acknowledge processes which require more firm and even autocratic decision making and examine the use of participative approaches critically in times of crisis in the organisation. The student or team of students also needs to estimate which tasks require individual and collective leadership and adjust the work processes relating to autocratic and democratic leadership accordingly. Of the leadership approaches, servant leadership is recommended to be used alongside the participative approach. Lean management techniques may help in clarifying when individual work, collaboration and client participation are in order.

#### 6.2.4 Implications for curriculum content related to interdisciplinary practices

As referred to before, the Finnish law (Social Welfare Act 1301/2014) requires social workers to practice interdisciplinary work. The need to strengthen this work form was also stated by writers such as Alajoutsijärvi (2015) and Pekkarinen (2010) in the literature review. As referred to in 5.4., support for this work form in the data is strong.

As dialogue (Isaacs, 1999) was suggested as a tool to strengthen trust as a means of trust promoter in 5.1.3, it is recommended here as a tool as well but for different reasons. Work with dialogue should be brought to the curriculum to support the development of interdisciplinary work. This kind of work should be first connected to attitudes towards interdisciplinary work in general to clear the motivation towards this work form. Secondly, the concepts of dialogue work, listening, respect, suspending and voicing (Isaacs, 1999) should be directed to values such as diversity factors confirmed by data and literature in this

chapter, such as age, gender and race. All this links in the curriculum to questions on participatory leadership as shown later in the next section.

The student should also acknowledge the depth of interdisciplinary dimensions horizontally and vertically, as I have explained in 5.4.1. This provides understanding for the students to lead interdisciplinary teams; hence, they learn to form a shared understanding of the level of cooperation. This horizontally means considering whether we are doing multidisciplinary work, where people from different disciplines work together, each drawing on their disciplinary knowledge; cross-disciplinary work, where workers view one discipline from the perspective of another; interdisciplinary work, where integrating knowledge and methods from different disciplines; or whether they are working on a transdisciplinary level, where the target is creating a unity of intellectual frameworks beyond the disciplinary perspectives. Vertically, the student should see the connectedness to trust; hence, the level of organisation where the decision to use interdisciplinary practices has been made impacts how interdisciplinary working styles are approached in the work community.

In the curriculum (Appendix 7), the themes regarding both interdisciplinary practice and participative leadership approach are present in module III, "Community".

## 6.3 Implications for practice and steps already taken towards implementation

This research is freely available for anyone interested in the subject and hopefully finds audience within colleagues planning and implementing social work leadership studies in Finland and internationally. I have already taken some steps using the insights from this study to adapt teaching within higher education and to share knowledge with colleagues. There are also wider implications for ways of learning outside of academia.

Practical implications proceed in two stages. First, the training programme is being offered in qualifying education. The reason for this is accessibility to functioning structures and the established need (Ministry of Education in Finland, 2018) for multiprofessional leadership education in social work. By accessibility I mean that there is demand for this training and it can be started with low threshold. A third reason for this is that the students in qualifying education are in the early process of their professional development and easily adapt new know-how without prior bias.

The curriculum works for supervision, mentoring and coaching purposes as well. This is considered after this curriculum has been offered in qualifying training for some time. This requires also marketing, which takes time and can be conducted simultaneously when qualifying training is ongoing.

Use of narratives is likely to be different in these two types of training. Qualifying training uses ready-made imaginary narrative. Hence, they do not share a same working community, but they need a common storyline to attach to in order to be able to discuss their experiences together. In group supervision, the work community has their own narrative which can be explored. This narrative can be written tailor made through a small-scale grounded theory research, as has been done in this research.

### 6.3.1 Adaptations of existing higher education programmes

In my own institution, Laurea University of Applied Sciences, I have taught leadership and management for students in the social sciences bachelor programme for approximately five years. The study unit we offer is mostly generic for students from all disciplines in the university. During the time I have done this research, I have made changes and experiments to the course and added exercises and content on trust and feedback to the course modules where students have included reflections on these to their video diaries, where they reflect on themselves as potential leaders.

In the development work of this course, the focus concerning social work leadership relies in integrating the named tensions in the discussion chapter into this existing course structure. Particularly rethinking the financial skills of future social work leaders, i.e. managerial skills, is under development. Two colleagues of mine have already executed one course, where there are students both from social sciences and business management. Feedback from this has been positive. We believe that, in addition to the content of the curriculum, this kind of interdisciplinary way of arranging courses promotes students' professional growth towards cooperative working manners.

This research process was originally an interdisciplinary process within the construction industry. Due to decisions referred to in the methodology chapter, the construction field data

served two different projects instead of this research. However, there are future interdisciplinary possibilities, i.e. use of this study outside of social work, resulting from this research process. At the moment, I have planned with a colleague of mine from security management to construct a multiprofessional course to be offered in the open university offering and inside our institution. This version is open for students from all disciplines and utilises the components of this study which are common to all disciplines; cooperation, interaction and trust. The managerial content connected to discipline specific themes will be specified situationally as project learning. The first course is offered in Autumn 2024, and other channels are currently being planned with Laurea management.

### 6.3.2 Adaptations beyond the academy

The training described in the proposed curriculum (Appendix 7) has also implications beyond university teaching. The content and approach could also be adapted for other learning situations – including supervision at work, coaching and mentoring – since it enables participants and communities to set clear, concrete objectives and to establish a shared conception of trust and dialogue in a community. When a work community works together through this training, it benefits the participants as a community in addition to supporting individual growth.

The uptake of the insights from this thesis in social work leadership learning where ever it takes place is dependent on awareness and resources. For this reason, I will share information about the results through social media and directly to stakeholders whose work is connected to the subject of social work leadership. I will write a press release of the main results and deliver this through media channels. I will also distribute this information to selected members of parliament who I know to be interested in promoting more resources for social work and education.

## Chapter 7 - Conclusion

In this chapter, I summarise the content of this research, answer the research questions, discuss benefits, challenges and limitations of this research. In the end, I will summarise the original insights this research has conducted and give suggestions for future research.

### **7.1 Overview of the study**

In the introductory chapter, I summarised my starting points and the fundamental concepts of social work leadership and social work as a context. The second chapter introduced a literature review, which provided an overview of current research on social work leadership, organized around key concepts. The review revealed aspects of social care leadership that still need to be known. The research highlighted the Finnish social work context to see its similarities and differences compared to the European context.

In the methodology chapter, I explained how I had utilised the principles of qualitative research and grounded theory as a methodological frame to examine interview data provided by social work leaders and employees in the social work field. The methodology chapter included a schematic overview of the findings to illustrate the whole research cycle for the reader. This chapter was followed by the findings chapter, where I explained in more detail how the interviewees experienced effective social work leadership and how their perspectives resonated with the literature review.

In the discussion chapter, I further reflected on these findings, what was learned in the literature review, and on new insights into how social work management and leadership might be understood with reference to other theory. In the implications chapter, I reflected on the pedagogical insights against the literature review and empirical findings and discussed the different practical applications of the research. In this last chapter, I conclude how this research journey has answered the research questions.



## 7.2 Addressing the question and aims of the research

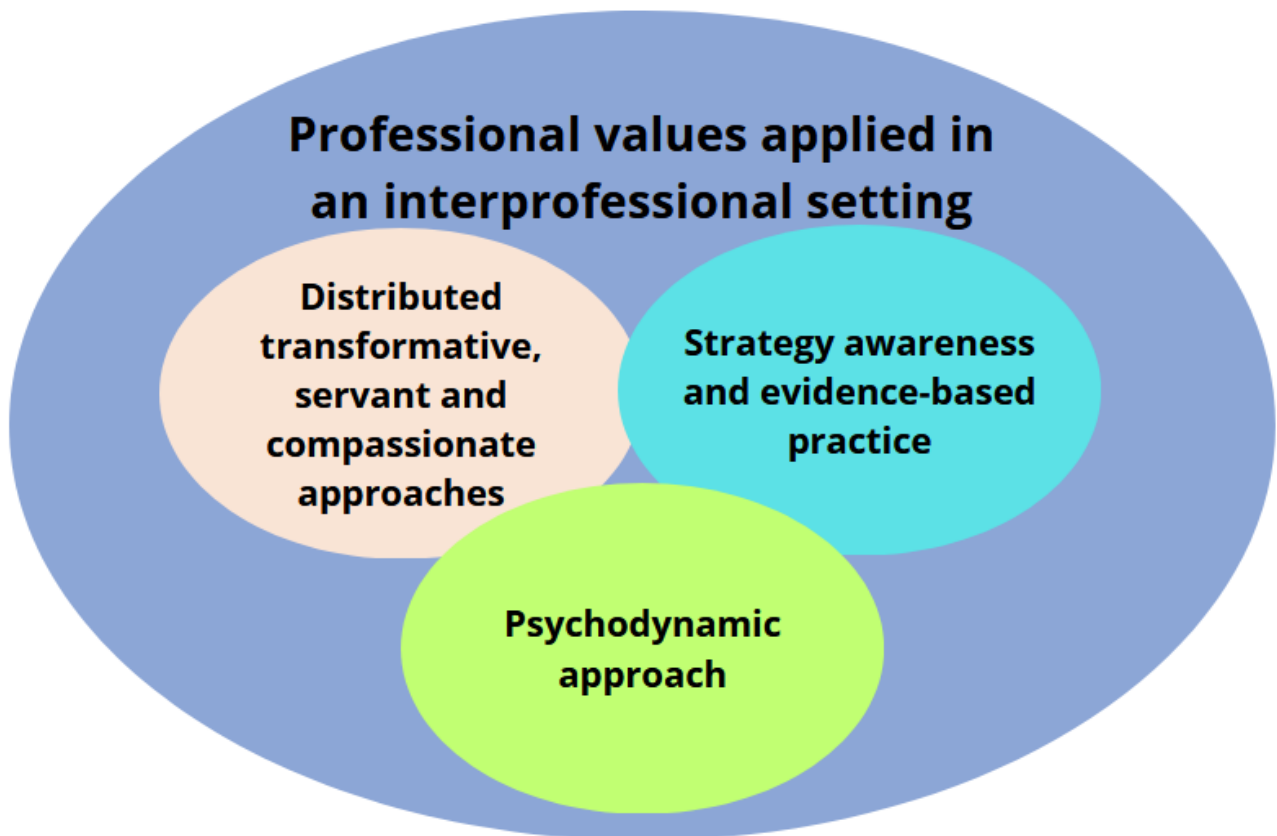
This research aims to create an understanding of social work leadership in Finland and the implications for leadership education, adding new dimensions to the body of professional knowledge in this field. My research has addressed this aim by synthesising evidence from literature and empirical research and grounded theory analysis.

Addressing the first research question: What leadership styles and approaches are valued by social work managers/leaders and social workers in leadership and management processes in Finland? I have shown, as illustrated in Figure 13 below, that distributed, transformative, servant and compassionate leadership approaches were valued by the respondents and the reviewed literature. The psychodynamic leadership approach was also valued. This is a significant step forward because, although the psychodynamic approach was discussed in general leadership literature (Northouse, 2016; Kets de Vries & Miller, 2016), it was not explicitly present in the social work leadership literature. I have also engaged with Peters' (2018) analysis, according to which social work leadership should be examined on individual, group and community levels to outline how this can be applied to a psychodynamic approach. This has involved arguing that a psychodynamic approach requires reflection on self, client's traumas and context.

Of the mainly managerial approaches, strategy awareness and evidence-based practice were also considered suitable in both the literature and findings. Of the many existing leadership styles, the literature review mentions the autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire styles (Jaafar, 2021). The data confirmed that the democratic style was seen as the preferable style for social work leadership. The democratic style is often associated with a participative approach where decision making is pushed as close to clients as possible. However, the data revealed a concern that an overly democratic style might be confused with indecision.

Therefore responsibilities should be carefully considered in distributed approaches, and we should see that the autocratic style has its place in selected duties and in times of crisis. Also, legislation might limit client participation in specific processes, such as child protection cases, where many tasks require authority for legislative reasons (Scourfield, 2020). The laissez-faire style (Jaafar, 2021) is not discussed directly, but the "dangers" of it, in my opinion, are clearly visible in the ignorance of employees' difficult emotions during conflicts, as Kets de Vries & Cheak (2016) explain in Northouse (2016). A laissez-faire style is not supported anywhere in the data either.

Preferred social work leadership and management approaches and styles with their references are revised in Figure 13 below.



- = **Leadership approach suggested by data and general leadership literature** (Northouse 2016)
- = **Management approach suggested by data and social work leadership and management literature** (Pekkarinen, 2010; Johnson et al., 2014; Byars, 1992; Ollila, 2006; Peltonen, 2007; Seeck, 2008; Huotari, 2009; Fields, 2020; Field & Miller, 2020; Colnar & Dimovski, 2019; Colnar, Dimovski & Bogataj, 2019; Hicks, Dattero & Gallup, 2006; Kahn, 1993 (Henttonen, Kianto & Ritala, 2016; Ekeland et al., 2018)
- = **Leadership approach suggested by data and social work leadership literature** (Choy-Brown, 2020; Nanjandeswaraswamy, 2014; Bass, 1977; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Conger & Caningo, 1998; Hyvönen & Westerberg, 2014; Djourova, 2019; Park & Perce, 2020; Gellis, 2001; Mary, 2005; Tham & Strömberg, 2019; Lawler, 2007; Mizrahi & Berger, 2005; Perlmutter, 1998; Winston & Fields, 2015; Peterlin, Pearse & Dimovski, 2015; Van Dierendonck, 2010; Brown et al., 2005; Greenleaf & Spears, 2002; Peterlin et al., 2015; Marmo & Berkman, 2018; Schaub, Hewison, Haworth & Miller, 2021 ; West et al., 2017; Kouta et al., 2019; West & Chowla, 2017)

*Figure 13: Recommend approaches for social work management and leadership based on data and literature*

Addressing the second research question: What do these leadership styles and approaches valued by social work managers/leaders and social workers, and related leadership narratives, deliver for colleagues and clients in Finland? I have shown that the leadership styles, approaches and narratives described enable interaction, development of trust, and the reconciliation of business and social work ethics. These valued versions of leadership also enable colleagues to experience understanding, caring and strategic design – these were the three most fully articulated leadership narratives. In addition, the data and literature consistently highlighted the role of how valued versions of leadership enabled interdisciplinary work and the sharing of professional values. These two themes require

constant attention when the success of social work leadership is estimated. Especially business-originated managerial approaches should be examined through professional values to estimate their usability.

The second research question relates strongly to the pedagogical themes of this research. It was proven in this study that the pedagogical design should include elements from psychodynamic, cognitive and societal views (see Chapter 2.4.4.). The data supports this type of holistic view of leadership, particularly in the theme “relational understandings.” The reflection on self and interaction with others requires skills from the student that go beyond cognitive and theoretical understanding. Here, narratives as revealers of experience were proven helpful in constructing their theory-in-use, further promoting societal and psychodynamic learning dimensions.

Addressing the third research question: How might these styles and narratives valued by social work managers/leaders and social workers be integrated into the essential elements of a social work leadership curriculum in Finland? How might these leadership approaches, styles and narratives valued by social work managers/leaders and social workers be integrated into the essential elements of a social work leadership curriculum in Finland? I have shown that the four recognised tensions were generated in relation to three different themes (Figures 11 and 12) and they can be rooted to four different modules in the curriculum: tensions concerning atmosphere regulation contribute theoretical and empirical data to module I “Myself as a leader” and module II “Atmosphere”; participatory approaches and interdisciplinary practices contribute to module III “Community”; and business rooted approaches to module IV “Strategy”. Pedagogically, the importance of the socio-constructivist approach (Hothi & Dowling, 2010) and theory-in-use (Keski-Luopa, 2011) shows in the use of narratives, which provoke the use of experience and empirical knowledge in learning alongside theoretical knowledge.

The construction of narratives in the context of learning about leadership has been previously proposed, for example, by Lawler & Ford (2016), as explained in section 2.3.11. My research builds on this to show how narratives derived from other people who already have experience of social work leadership might be brought into the process of leadership development. The systematic use of narratives has not found its way in to leadership education in Finland.

### 7.3 The benefits, challenges and limitations

The research was conducted with a relatively limited number of participants – eight. This could be seen as a limitation as it is a small sample size. I chose to limit the number of interviews in order to be able to spend time on analysis, and to allow new meanings to arise from a very detailed examination of the data through a grounded approach. The participants in this study have a long work history and extensive experience on the subject. This means that each interview produced rich data with plenty of abstract levels and well-thought-out content, and a lot to analyse in quality. According to Saaranen-Kauppinen & Puusniekka (2006), the starting point, considering the size and representativeness of the material, is the basic question of whether we are doing quantitative or qualitative research. In quantitative research, it is possible to reach generalizable conclusions if a careful sample has been taken from the basic population under investigation. In qualitative research, the goal is often the understanding of a phenomenon, not the search for statistical connections. This makes it possible that the research material does not necessarily have to be large, sometimes even one case can be enough. This choice is in line with dissertations such as Garrow-Oliver (2017) with five interviews (referred to in the methodology chapter) and Wink (2007), who has researched leadership in the context of supervisor-employee discussions with eight recorded discussions. With more time, I would have extended the sample further. However, the interviewees were from disparate practice settings and had different roles. The diversity of their perspectives was reflected in the data, but there were also significant consistencies, suggesting saturation (Saaranen-Kauppinen & Puusniekka, 2006) was reached in relation to some concepts such as trust. The final three analysed interviews fell to the existing categories “with ease” without forcing the data.

As I have referred to in the “Methodology” chapter, grounded theory offers an opportunity to form a theory which is “grounded” to the social reality experienced by the respondents (Birks & Mills, 2023). This offers an opportunity to create an in-depth theory of the phenomena of management and leadership. The research questions in this study are broad instead of strictly limited to describing some particular management and leadership aspect. I consider this to be both a benefit and a challenge at the same time. A broad and holistic approach to management and leadership allows research participants to speak freely of any relevant aspect under the given topic of management and leadership. This kind of approach provides holistic lines of the main themes the respondents see essential concerning management and leadership. At the same time, very detailed descriptions of these phenomena are inaccurate since the scope is very holistic. This research fills its place in the mass of leadership and management research, where other research settings look at the same phenomena from different angles. I return to this question in the “Recommendations for further research” section.

As this research is conducted in two cities in Finland, the results cannot be generalised to the phenomenon of social work leadership in all geographical and cultural contexts. However, I would argue that the data is sufficient to indicate the presence of the phenomenon described in at least some social work contexts in Finland.

## 7.4 Original insights and recommendations for further research

First, the research proves that leadership is a multidimensional phenomenon, with different areas depending on and influencing each other. Leadership must be understood as a whole and approached from different perspectives in successful leadership. This study makes this holistic diversity understandable through three different leadership roles. A “caregiver” specialising in transformative, serving and compassionate leadership and a sincere altruistic desire to help subordinates. The role of the “understander” focuses on the feelings of the working community, especially their movement and long-term impact on the working community. They are a psychodynamic leader who, in addition to positivity, understands the impact of their subordinates’ worries and even possible traumas on the atmosphere of the work community. They understand the meaning of trust and know how to guide their work community dialogically from the path of mistrust to the direction of trust, thus managing the atmosphere in the work community. The particular field of a “designer” is the planning and matching of various processes between the primary task and goals of the work community.

Secondly, originality concerns balance between managerial techniques and ethical considerations. An effective leader in social work is skilled in strategic management and leads with information. They understand the importance of the economy and know how to take care of it. A unique skill of a planner in managing social work is the ability to understand and mirror the ethics and values of the social sector in the methods used in business management. This can be achieved through utilisation of tools as multiple decision-making criteria, where the ethical view referred to by Juujärvi (2007), Banks (2021) and professional code of ethics (Talentia, 2019) are recognised as clear criteria alongside managerial criteria. Originality concerns the connection to business management tools and ethical dimensions of criteria, which can be used as criteria besides business management criteria in decision making with tools such as multiple criteria decision making (Aruldos, 2013).

A rare individual combines all the roles presented. Thirdly, the originality of this research concerns the importance of cooperation as a prerequisite for successful management. The role division described above is possible with the help of multi-professional work and distributed management. We cannot just decide to adopt these habits, but their opportunities and challenges must be understood and planned for. The novelty value of this research is related to the considerations about the need for multi-professional work and distributed leadership. Suppose the need to increase multi-professionalism comes from the upper level of the organization. In that case, its use at the employee level must be supported by creating trust and involving the employee level in decision making and processes. In the planning of shared management, participation cannot be unlimited, but authoritarian and democratic management styles alternate according to the needs of the primary task. Work processes should be viewed from the point of view of where the place of shared management is. Unplanned shared management and the mere use of a democratic style can, at worst, give the impression of indecisiveness and the inability to carry responsibility. At the horizontal level, multiprofessionalism must be understood and defined together through the depth of cooperation. In multiprofessional collaboration, the activity is guided by examining the other profession’s activities; at the other extreme, the transdisciplinary goal is joint knowledge formation. Different expectations towards cooperation may lead to confusion. Lean management techniques may help in examining work processes to help clarify the role in interdisciplinary work and dimensions of shared leadership. In order to be successful, the employee level should be included to use of these tools and techniques.

As the fourth and most important new insight, the research moves emotional management into the context of psychodynamics and thus identifies the movement and impact of emotional reactions in the work community. The study presents the understanding of trust and mistrust as a measure of this psychodynamic movement and as a means of guiding dialogue to regulate the dynamic level of trust.

Since this research is a professional doctorate work, practical implications to working life are vital. In comparison to previously designed leadership programmes as discussed in chapter 2.4.4., the use of narratives in the context of examining trust with dialogue is the element in the curriculum created in this research, which is a new pedagogical approach to social work leadership training. Also the extended view from emotions in leadership to the psychodynamic movement of emotions has not been a clear focus in previous leadership programmes. The psychodynamic view also extends the view from the individual to the levels of group and community. Hence the movement of different emotions is experienced in different interactions between individuals, i.e. groups and communities. Through the curriculum as a practical implication, i.e. strengthening the role of trust and interaction in social work leadership and management education, psychodynamic leadership can be integrated into education and onwards into working life. Dialogue (Isaacs, 1999) as an accelerator for positive emotional force promotes trust and therefore good atmosphere in the organisation.

The tensions were created through realisation, which the already known approaches seem to fit well to social work leadership, and in which there are tensions. Of the contemporary recommended leadership and management approaches explained in the literature review, the transformational, compassionate and servant approaches (please see Figure 11) function “with ease” as good practices in social work leadership and management.

Evidence-based practice and strategic management (please see Figure 13) are supported, but they appeared with a conflict to social work professional values. For these approaches, this research presents original initiatives for the further development of these approaches through connecting them to business management originated tools such as lean management and multiple criteria decision making. This integration should be made through the careful recognition of social work ethics and social work professional values. In relation to evidence-based practice, we should examine in more detail what the evidence highlighted against each core task in question is.

Distributed leadership was recognised as an important and valuable approach, particularly helpful in organising interdisciplinary work forms and client participation. The counter force for distributed leadership was recognised as individualism (e.g. Lawler, 2016). Here lean management (Sobek et al., 2010; Heinonen & Lajunen, 2018) has proven to be a useful tool based on the data, as the interviewees had experiences of recognising and naming the core task and work processes better and of participating in deciding which parts of the work processes can be individually conducted, and where and how collaboration is used. This kind of accuracy in work planning could help locate responsibility more clearly. This defining work requires more research in the future.

This research makes an original contribution through adding to current social work leadership and management literature the importance of the psychodynamic approach which is valued in mainstream leadership literature (Northouse, 2016; Kets de Vries & Miller,

2016). This discovery can be rooted in practice through an increase of leader self-awareness, such as understanding one's own character and motivation to lead, and specifically understanding the meaning of the dynamical nature of trust and mistrust and dialogue skills directing trust and their relation to atmosphere in the community. Here Goleman's (2001) work on emotional intelligence, as referred to by Lawler & Bilson (2010), is an important root for Peters' (2018) findings of the importance of emotions and the need for airing these in emotionally burdening work. The connection to trust found in the data integrates emotions into collective dynamic emotional processes that have desirable or less desirable end results experienced as good or bad atmosphere in the work community. Shared dialogical skills, as presented for example by Isaacs (1999) in an understandable way, may help in achieving and maintaining trust, and therefore a better atmosphere. More research on this dynamic process and the factors affecting it in social work is welcome.

What I have concluded and referenced in this section is presented in the practical form of a curriculum, which serves the practical needs of working life and education. Narratives, of which I have provided short examples, direct the student to examine their experience alongside theoretical knowledge. The use of narratives in social education should be further examined in practice.

Any of the three roles (designer, understander, caregiver) presented in this research should be studied and clarified further. Specifically the role of "designer" needs clarification. This need goes along with the first tension of ethical and financial values. Both leaders and employees appreciated good management and extreme clarity in managerial processes and strategy, but the content of these processes is not clearly presented in the data. Investigating these processes and management tools would be necessary. Management and leadership are not strictly parallel but sequential. Well-functioning and pragmatic management comes first, and it leaves room for leadership. Organisations' work consists of different tasks, and our performance is measured as tasks. Whether we are handling custody cases in child protection, building houses, or growing flowers, we have measurable objectives, instructions and tools to achieve them. Taking care of these is a prerequisite of good leadership. People who know the task can be led to perform it better.

The role of the understander recalls for further understanding of the role of emotions and their effect on the work community, as suggested in the third tension. It would be useful to train work communities on trust and dialogue and examine whether strengthening these in the work community is beneficial. Practical ways of how care, both emotional and practical, is manifested and experienced would be worthwhile to examine more in practice.

It would be valuable to also develop a course with all materials included, where these processes are described with more intensive narratives. Here, the curriculum presented in the appendix may function as a base providing intended learning outcomes with example narratives to support experience.

The starting point of this thesis was interdisciplinary in a perhaps even unconventional sense, comparing the construction industry and social work. Now, as social work has been looked at carefully, I see that there are many similarities with construction management data, which served the two projects mentioned earlier. Particularly trust with its benefits and problems seemed to be related to being human in a community rather than a professional field. It would be interesting to research the construction management data again and deductively see how well the findings of this research suit a totally different professional

field. My “gut feeling” and partially hermeneutic pre-understanding is that the “designer” role would have changed to suit the different core tasks and processes, even building a block house, and that the “caregiver” and “understander” are respected anywhere people work together. How this “package” of understanding and care is delivered is of course dependent on organisational culture and norms. Social work has a strong interdisciplinary scientific ground and a lot of experience in simply being a human with everyday joys and sorrows. From this understanding, both theoretical and empirical, it has a lot to offer for the professional world outside its own boundaries.



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## APPENDIX 1: Invitation letter

### Developing Leadership: Creating tools to teach leadership skills in social care

#### Who is this leaflet from?

My name is Anu Nordlund-Knuutila and I work as teacher in Laurea UAS. I am studying for a Professional Doctorate at University of Central Lancashire, supervised by Dr Cath Larkins. I am researching leadership practices in both social and engineering fields. I am particularly interested in how interaction between people and in groups is experienced and how this relates to leadership.

I am collaborating with Häme UAS. Our practical objective is to construct new tools for leadership education. We will utilize what we learn during this research to inform this process.

#### What is this all about?

In order to develop education we should find out what is the current need for development and what kind of tools would be most efficient to teach leadership skills.

For this purpose, we will examine development needs both from literature and from those who work as managers in social care field.

We will be finding out about:

- What is essential in good leadership.
- What kind of situations in leadership practices are considered problematic.
- What kind of experiences there are of strategies to resolve these challenges.

#### Why have I been given this leaflet?

We have asked City of Kauniainen to give this leaflet to social care managers and employees who they think have experience and who might be willing to talk to us.

We want to hear your views on leadership development needs and your experiences on these themes

**To find out more, or to ask any questions, please get in touch:**

Anu Nordlund-Knuutila: [anu.nordlund-knuutila@laurea.fi](mailto:anu.nordlund-knuutila@laurea.fi)

Cath Larkins: [CLarkins@uclan.ac.uk](mailto:CLarkins@uclan.ac.uk)

or call/text Anu on: 040 6311987

If you have any concerns about the research, please contact us via

[officerforethics@uclan.ac.uk](mailto:officerforethics@uclan.ac.uk)

#### How can I be involved?

It is your choice whether you take part, but we would really like to hear from you.

I will discuss views you have on leadership in an individual interview. This would take at maximum one hour of your time. It has been agreed with your employer, that you can use your working hours for this purpose.

The interview will be held at Laurea UAS facilities at Metsänpojankuja 3. Interviews are arranged at (time here when specified) or at your facilities in Kauniainen or Espoo.

**If you would like to be involved, please contact [anu.nordlund-knuutila@laurea.fi](mailto:anu.nordlund-knuutila@laurea.fi)**  
**What about confidentiality?**

The results will be published as a written report as part of my Doctoral thesis, in academic articles and presentations. All names and identifying information will be removed so that no one will know it is you. This means that everyone who takes part will be anonymous.

Results will be also utilized on general level when we write example stories to be used at leadership lessons. These combine fact and fiction. Readers will be informed about this.

#### What if I change my mind?

You can change your mind about taking part and withdraw anything you have said at any time until the data analysis starts one week after your interview. Your participation is voluntary.

## APPENDIX 2: Informed consent

### Informed consent

Title of Study: Multiprofessional leadership training– Dialogical group process as a roadmap to personal leadership theory-in-use

Researcher: Anu Nordlund-Knuutila

**Please tick the boxes for each statement to show that you agree and sign on the line below**

By my signature:

1. I confirm that I have read the invitation letter and I have had the opportunity to submit clarification questions.
2. I understand that participation is optional and I can cancel my participation up to one week's time from the end of interview without giving any reason.
3. I understand that questions are asked from me and my answer is recorded in digital format. I know that I cannot be identified or named in the final project reports.
4. I understand that my answers will be part of the results of the study, which will be presented as a written and published report. Results will be presented as generalized themes.
5. I understand that the results of the study will be used as examples in leadership education. Results will be present in stories, where also theoretical literature texts and fictive elements may exist. Readers of these documents will be well informed on how these stories are constructed.

---

Date and place

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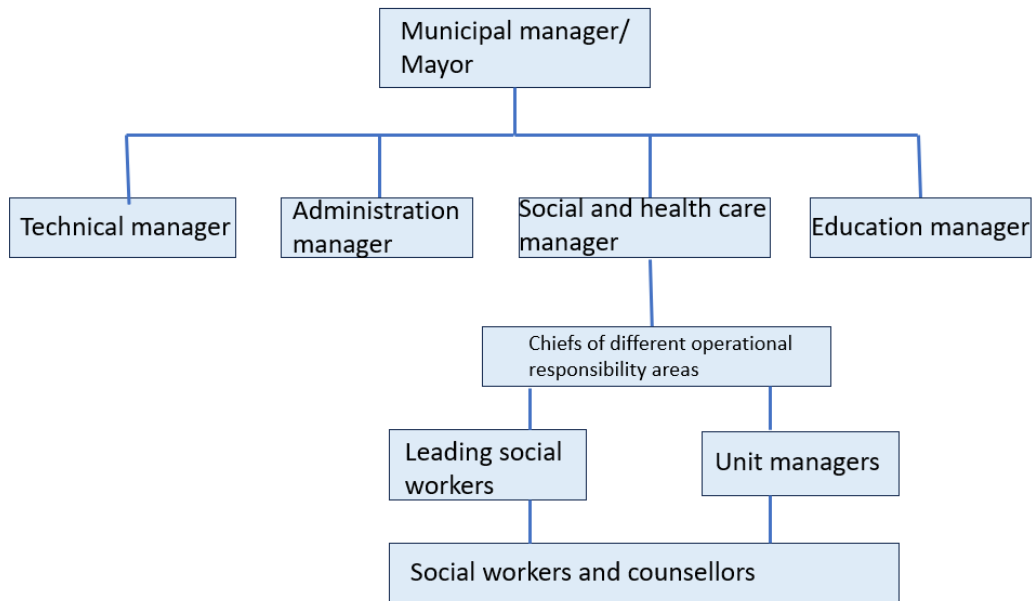
Signature of participant

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Signature of researcher

### APPENDIX 3: Organisational structure location of respondents

Typical municipal organisation structure in Finland at the time of this research (before division into wellbeing services counties)



## **APPENDIX 4: Interview questions**

### **Background questions**

Offer to answer any questions about the study  
Confirm consent

Main question 1:

### **Tell me a bit about you.**

Possible follow-up questions:

How did you get into the work you do?  
What kind of things do you enjoy outside work?  
What do you enjoy in your work the most?

Main question 2:

#### **a) Can you tell me of a situation when you have experienced good leadership?**

Possible follow-up questions:

Who were involved?  
What concrete situation was this related to?  
What was your relationship like to the leader in question?  
What made this special/stand out?  
What did you feel?  
Would you like to tell of another event?

#### **b) Can you tell me of a situation when you experienced poor/inadequate leadership?**

Possible follow-up questions:

What did you feel?  
What went wrong?  
Who were involved?  
How did this process proceed?  
What was your relationship like to the leader in question (explore hierarchy and comfort of interpersonal connections)?  
How was this solved?  
What could have been done to make things better?  
Can you think of other negative situations I could learn from?

Main question 3:

#### **What kind of things would be important to teach students about management and leadership?**

Possible follow-up questions:

What is important in managing processes?  
What is important in leading people?  
What do you think is the significance of managing groups and community?  
What would you tell younger colleagues about interaction?  
What role does trust play?

## APPENDIX 5: Example of a transcribed and coded interview

Main category	Upper subcategory	Lower subcategory	Original wording
Leader with follower	Trust	to unwind juxtaposition by trust	when the clients' challenges are sufficiently complex or involve a sufficient number of politicians and other high-ranking persons, I have experienced success in being able to create the same confidentiality and the same spirit of cooperation also in similar situations where it is as if all bridges have been burned and it has been the same strong confrontation.
		to see trust as a reciprocal relationship	That way, it (trust) is a reciprocal thing, it's not one-way
		to see trust as a gift	in the olden days it was thought that you don't trust or have to trust a leader , but I don't anymore, I've never thought that in my opinion it's specifically that you have to build that trust, I don't know if you have to earn it, but you don't have to [?? 00:27:06]: build. Yes, it arises then, earning is a bit like that, it brings such an image, you don't go into it a bit like you are too stooped to the situation
		to see mercy as promoter of trust	I don't know; maybe that's what you don't hear, and perhaps you accept. The thing where it comes tested that takes it to another level many times is that you don't ... and despite that, it wasn't just a mistake. People are people, and problems are problems. And mistakes are mistakes. It is not the person who is determined through that mistake. Now, it's not always a joke or, of course, you can deal with it out of the agenda and then the next one. That must be the feeling, or I appreciate that kind of leadership. With my boss, feedback is not related to my personality. I can't trust that I can make the same mistakes everyone makes. And that's where that trust comes from, and that's where the courage to make all kinds of suggestions is born because you can do things in another way.
		not to steel honour	Either they don't believe in their abilities, or they take away the honor or something else, then it eats them.
		to create trust by core task	if we think that this (trust) is primarily a sentimental speech or that it's somehow terribly nice. That's not how the trust came. Trust comes from the fact that the supervisor somehow returns you to work. This is what we are here for now.
		to create trust by showing support	I'll support you when you need it, I'll be there for you and after that you'll get your trust back.
		to create trust by giving space	Well, it goes back to that trust and you don't give room for that. That's probably a personality issue, too.
			but if you show that this is a playground for you to operate on, I trust that you will do this, then you will usually succeed here and get to the finish line.
		to create trust	Well, I would say, as I have said it many times before, that if you want to be trusted, then trust first. Show trust, that way you can build trust. Only by showing trust yourself, I trust you

## APPENDIX 6: Example of the field notes

14.7.2020

To reorganise analysis is necessary,  
categorisation does not seem  
logical now.

New categorisation try out:

- 1) Ethical emotional aspects
- 2) Goal orientated strategist
- 3) Knowledge capital designer

16.7.2020

Are 2 & 3 too similar after all -  
to form separate categories...

ASK  
CATH  
&  
STEPHEN

14.8.2020

Agreed to

1) Rewrite theoretical framework.

(Stephen can advise on articles)

Concentrate on what each document  
tells of 1) Social care leadership 2) How to  
teach this 3) What is missing from research  
4) about useful theoretical underpinning

2) to write on the findings, shortly in  
one paragraph and in more detail in three  
paragraphs on the three categories

After this focus on selected views relevant  
to literature review 1) what unique data  
was found 2) how findings relate to  
previous ones.



## APPENDIX 7: Suggestion for a social work leadership curriculum

This curriculum first presents guidelines for ways of learning and then presents suggestions for substance content in four modules. All these solutions are based on literature sources presented in chapter two, findings of the research in chapter four, and most particularly synthesis of these constructed in the discussion chapter five and six. For some of the objectives I have named authors to whose work my suggestions mostly refer. In some objectives as those concerning leadership approaches, I refer to corresponding chapters in the literature review, from where the reader may find more details and ideas for content if they wish to utilise these recommendations in practice.

### Ways of learning: level of individual, group and theory-in-use

The outcome of social work leadership training should primarily be a personal and group-level leadership identity. This means the training should consist of individual and group-level work to reflect on what is vital in social work leadership. As theory-in-use implies, the training should consist of experiential and theoretical knowledge.

In this curriculum, theoretical knowledge is constituted as a result of this research process. Identity is examined and created through the examination of roles/narratives in the orientation module and students'/student groups' reflection towards these. Approaches, styles and other relevant concepts (Figure 14) strengthen students' theoretical knowhow.

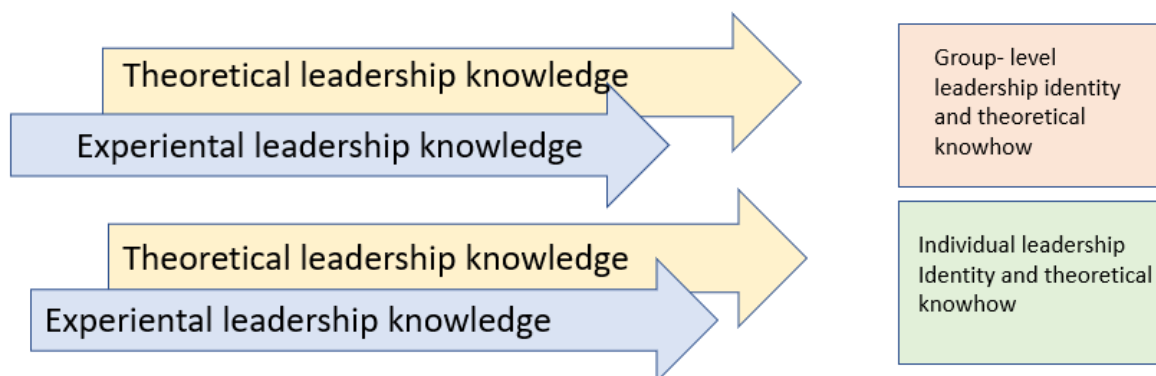


Figure 14: Pedagogical guidelines for the curriculum

I suggest that the pedagogical manuscript consists of a learning diary, which has both individual and group levels. The student should reflect, based on the intended learning outcomes, on their attitudes and values towards the content, which is provided in both theoretical form as lectures and in the form of narratives which can aid in reflection on experience.

The diary can be personal in modules I "Myself as a leader" and II "Atmosphere". Students can share what they wish on these themes, since they are personal by nature. Modules III "Community" and IV "Strategy" are more collaborative and require working in groups. Here the diary can also be collectively written.

The main aim of these diaries is to create a personal leadership narrative, or to use Juuti's (2013) term "leadership speech" which has been referred to throughout this study. That is, one personal speech, and one which has been collectively agreed on.

### *Modules and intended learning outcomes*

The described modules have two objectives. First, I aim to present the intended learning outcomes which are based on both the substantive grounded theory established in this research and the former literature knowledge. Secondly, I aim to provide narrative examples to demonstrate how these could serve the purpose of a social work leadership curriculum. Theoretical knowledge may be taught according to any teachers' own preferences following the approaches, styles and other concepts presented in Figure 13.

In Figure 15 below, I have gathered a summary of how the different viewpoints discovered in the research process can inform a curriculum. The student process starts in module I with content inspired by "relational understandings". This module provides the student internalised reflection through the examination of the different roles rooted in the findings (caregiver, understander and designer) and helps to examine one's own relationship to power and dialogue. The findings of this research categorised leadership into themes connected to interaction (understander), organisation (designer) and participation (caregiver). At this stage of the research, the four themes discussed in chapter five "Discussion" return to these themes and provide understanding of the intended learning outcomes in the curriculum. The learned dialogue skills move along the process with the student to other modules, where they are utilised. In module II, they are connected to the theme of atmosphere regulation and understanding on the dynamic nature of trust and mistrust. Module III concerns strategy, where the tensions between business rooted approaches are ethically examined. Module IV deals with questions concerning community. Here both interdisciplinary practices and the participatory approach are at the centre of attention.

<b>Module I: Myself as a leader</b>	<b>Module II: Atmosphere</b>	<b>Module III: Community</b>	<b>Module IV: Strategy</b>
<b>Key objective: To relate self to different leadership roles and dialogue skills</b>	<b>Key objective: To understand dynamics between trust and mistrust and use dialogue skills to monitor this</b>	<b>Key objective: To examine possibilities for interdisciplinary work and distributed leadership</b>	<b>Key objective: To examine strategic thinking in an ethically sustainable manner</b>
<b>Theoretical anchors: Transformative, compassionate and servant approach</b>	<b>Theoretical anchors: Psychodynamic approach</b>	<b>Theoretical anchors: Distributed leadership, interdisciplinary work, Lean management, commissioning, legislation</b>	<b>Theoretical anchors: Evident based practice, strategic leadership, MCDM</b>
<b>Narrative themes: Dialogue, power, leadership roles</b>	<b>Narrative themes: Trust and mistrust</b>	<b>Narrative themes: Levels of interdisciplinary, individualism and collectivism</b>	<b>Narrative themes: Managerialism, strategy, budgeting, social work ethics</b>

Figure 15: Summary of the groundings for curriculum construction

### *The content of the curriculum*

#### Module I: Myself as a leader

As referred to in the previous paragraph, this module aims to clarify the individual leadership identity. Theoretically it is based on the findings concerning “relational understandings” and specifically the themes of power, trust and dialogue. In this module, the learner reflects on themselves against these themes.

The intended outcomes are:

- student examines the nature of power related to leadership position. They examine themselves as users of power and their personal motives for leadership.
- student becomes familiar with the transformative, compassionate and servant approaches.

- student examines dialogical elements and examines their dialogical skills. (Isaacs).
- student familiarises themselves with the roles of caregiver, understander and designer and reflects on their personal dimensions against these.

In each module, I present a short example narrative which illustrates the way of using narratives as provokers of experience. In this first example, the roles are introduced through three fictive personalities, which receive a new work task in their work community.

Example narrative for the module to be used/expanded in this module:

*The municipality of Golden Valley is an average town of 200,000 inhabitants. About 50 employees work in social services. Life in the Golden Valley Social work department was manageable. People were passionate about their work. There were different views on how work should be done followed by occasional quarrels, but they had been able to settle disagreements thus far. Now for some time, the atmosphere has become more inflamed. Disputes arise all the time, and strong opinions rattle in meetings about this and that.*

*Money was always tight. Leaders and managers often wished for the biblical abilities to divide the five bread and the two fish to all in need, but balancing with a money chest was an everyday job. Successful client stories made enjoying the work easier, though.*

*Things became very different one day, when a very surprising piece of information arrived. A wealthy lady, who had recently deceased, had made a testament donation of 200,000 pounds for work against homelessness.*

*Leadership and management was divided into three areas of responsibility, which three very different personalities have led for years. Let us call them Gary Caregiver, Ollie Understander and Daisy Designer. Read how these three managers reflect on the initial situation of the project.*

*Gary Caregiver:*

*An excellent opportunity for us! We finally have social and health services under the same roof. Let's make new social worker-nurse work pairs. They will gain valuable experience from this. I've been hoping for Sheila to get promoted and advance in her career for a long time. I must remember to book a meeting with her. She could plan the whole thing with me. John is good with customers and gets customers on board with this. It's going to be tough. I must remember to earmark enough money for work supervision so they don't burn out. LinkedIn explodes when we get to showcase this fantastic work and amazing creators!*

*Ollie Understander:*

*We've been waiting for this! The financial pressure will ease for a while at least. But how can we make this work as a team when things are what they are? Sheila and Mark don't talk to each other, and I know why. The previous project went well on paper, but many things went wrong. John worked around the clock and got a good report. Sheila's part was insignificant, but somehow all the glory went to Sheila. John feels he is taking advantage of the underprivileged if he draws attention to himself. Sheila doesn't have this problem.*

*Somehow, our work and successes must be made visible... We should hold work supervision to clarify the matter before we do anything else in the project.*

*Daisy Designer:*

*Now the system of systems will be born! I have been waiting for this opportunity for years. I will rent an old grain warehouse on Harbor Street as a homeless shelter and divide it into sections according to service needs. Social needs coded in red and healthcare needs in blue. Service needs are assessed with a new program and updated every quarter...*

*I must get Sheila and Mark to understand that they must stop their childish whining and act like adults. Someone always gets upset, and things come to a standstill... This will be challenging with Ollie, too. I have to press on in the meeting that there is not enough money. In this project, it is not going to be spent on any useless targets.*

Questions for the students to reflect on in the learning diary:

Gary Caregiver, Ollie Understander and Daisy Designer hold on leadership roles by their imaginary family names.

Personal diary/individual leadership speech:

- 1) What kind of strengths and shortcomings do you feel the three leaders might have in their leadership and management work?
- 2) If you see yourself as a potential leader, how do you relate to these roles they present? Share (what feels comfortable) of your views with your group.
- 3) Think about elements of power. How do you relate your potential leadership towards use of power?

Group diary/group's leadership speech

- 4) Group discussion: If your group was a social work team, which roles would you appreciate the most and why? Write the first part of your collective leadership speech.

## Module II: Atmosphere

The second module, "Atmosphere", deals with the emotional atmosphere of the work community. Here the student learns the dynamic nature between trust and mistrust, and utilises dialogical skills learned in module I to monitor the movement between these continuums.

Intended learning outcomes:

- student becomes aware of Emotional Competence Framework (Goleman).
- student becomes aware of the psychodynamic approach.
- student understands the dynamic nature between trust and mistrust (Harisalo & Miettinen).
- student learns to use dialogical skills to direct emotional atmosphere (Isaacs).

The example narrative in this module describes tensions the new given task of the testament donation is starting to create.

Example narrative and group task:

*Each leader in the team has had some time to think how they would like the money to be spent. Please read about their feelings on their way to the meeting:*

*Gary Caregiver:*

*I am quite confident what the others will demand and it worries me. I need at least 20,000 pounds for further specialization education in the trauma-informed approach for Sheila and psychotherapy education for Mark. They have waited so long for any additional benefits that would help them forward in their careers. I care for them and they are like children to me. And even if I didn't care, who is going to work here in a few years' time if the benefits are non-existing? They will run to the private sector, or some other profession in no time. They are young, they are not like my generation who works with this good Samaritan attitude for ever.... I will retire in 5 years, who will take the charge here? They will probably sell us to the NFC Ltd anyway... New Facilities Care Ltd... We call it Nearly Fair Care Ltd in the coffee room...*

*Ollie Understander:*

*I have to talk to Sheila and Mark and get to the bottom of this... We cannot continue like this. It's difficult to describe, but I can sense the ice in the coffee room and things are just not getting done! Apparently they just wait for the other to finish the Smith home visit report, and apparently this is just not anybody's business. How can I discuss this? I know they used to take long lunches and have drinks in the evening, they were friends. Or god knows what they were. If this is a personal matter, I cannot poke my nose in this, I'm their boss for heaven's sake! This has to be resolved but not by me, otherwise I lose my credibility. Or then I take one of them out of the homelessness project and put the new girl Mary on this. But I can't do that to Sheila or Mark, they have been here for years and it is their turn. An outside supervisor must solve this. 10 sessions to begin with, 200 pounds each, to start with. I can already see the expression on Daisy's face....*

*Daisy Designer:*

*Now my time has come! I went to see the old grain warehouse with the estate agent. It is just perfect! I put different departments there according to the need for care. Once they rehabilitate, they move on to more benefits and better accommodation. The price tag is 150,000 pounds, and this means there is no room for any emotional mumbo-jumbo from Ollie and Gary. I have listened to their complaints for years and they just don't get it. We have to invest in infrastructure like our own real estate, we need the profit from these investments to get Sheila and Mark to run on their whatever unicorn courses in the future as well. Sometimes I wish they just resigned. I can easily get new and more obeying people from college. I heard at the NFC fundraiser that there are lots of good applicants now. I might just join NFC myself if this doesn't work out.*

Personal diary/individual leadership speech:

Think of the dialogical themes of listening, suspending, voicing and respect. Which are your strengths? Where could you develop?

How you find the role of emotions in the work community?

What kind of activities you see would harm or promote trust?

Tasks for the group discussion:

Share together, what kind of dangers and possibilities you see in this work community in Golden Valley that would make them lose trust? What kind of cooperation would support trust?

### Module III: Community

The fourth module, Community, deals with questions of interdisciplinary work and participatory approaches. Here the distributed approach should be covered. Of the leadership styles, the student should understand the democratic style as a desirable style, but understand the possible need for the autocratic style in relation to the core task in question. The known tension between individualism and the need for collaboration should be covered. Based on the data, I recommend lean tools to be collectively used to analyse different processes as practical applications. This is followed by the examination of the core task and reflection on how the processes and tasks should be approached from the viewpoint of distributed leadership. The role of client participation should be tackled here as well.

In the previous module, the student has examined themselves as a leader. In this module, the knowledge on the recommended approaches and management will be introduced for the student to perceive a theoretical understanding of social work leadership and management.

The intended learning outcomes are

- student understands the importance of interdisciplinary work in the social field.
- student understands vertical and horizontal dimensions in interdisciplinary work.
- student reflects on their values and attitudes concerning interdisciplinary work and diversity.
- student knows the principles of distributed leadership.
- student reflects on different social work core tasks and their suitability to distributed leadership.
- student knows the principles of lean management and utilises these in balancing individual and collective work forms in distributed leadership.

Example narratives and tasks to support these outcomes:

*The meeting starts, but it turns out it was too early to celebrate. The testament was not meant for the municipality of Golden Valley without conditions. The lady who wrote the testament wanted value for her money and organised a bidding contest between the two social care operators in Golden Valley. The other bidder is none other than NFC Ltd. According to the rules of the competition, both ethical and financial benefits have to be described realistically.*

*It so turns out that Gary, Ollie and Daisy cannot negotiate with one another on whose idea wins; instead, they must build a design on what value they can offer for the given sum of money in collaboration with each other.*

Personal diary/individual speech

What kind of benefits do you see in interdisciplinary work?

What kind of factors may challenge successful interdisciplinary work?

What are the benefits and challenges of distributed leadership in your opinion?

How do you relate to autocratic and democratic leadership styles? When are they harmful or useful?

Group diary/Collective speech:

Discuss together:

Gary, Ollie and Daisy need to organise themselves differently as a team and cooperate rather than compete with one another. Think, in the terms of distributed leadership, about what kind of interdisciplinary services the centre for homeless people could consist of? Give examples from lean management.

Think of the roles of Gary, Ollie and Daisy; how they relate to collaborative work forms. Where are they strong? Who could develop professionally in which of these roles?

Share your ideas from your individual diaries and the discussion for a third part of your collective speech: Our view on interdisciplinary work and distributed leadership.

Module IV: Strategy

The fourth module, "Strategy", concentrates on the managerial themes. Here financial thinking plays a significant role. The financial connotations, such as budgeting, are reflected against social work professional values. They familiarise themselves with social work ethics, such as rule ethics (Kant, virtue and utilitarianism), ethics of care, and radical social work (Juujärvi et al., 2007) and the four main themes of ethical challenges according to Banks (2021): Individual rights of service users; public welfare; equality, diversity and structural oppression and professional roles. The importance of core tasks, objectives and processes is discussed since they provide concrete tools to understand leadership and management



locations in organisation. Of the approaches and styles, the student internalises evidence-based practice and strategic management/leadership as frames of how social work is conducted in an organisation.

Here I recommend multiple criteria decision making as a practical application, which could be utilised as a tool to identify the criteria, both financial and ethical, which might clarify the chosen solutions and see whether they are ethical when reflected against social work professional values.

In this module, the organisational guidelines learned in the orientation module receive a more precise form. Here, financial know-how, such as budgeting, is taught to students, preferably in co-operation with business/commercial education if possible/desired. Financial know-how connects to ethical knowledge referred to in the orientation module.

The intended learning outcomes are:

- student deepens their understanding of strategic management/leadership and evidence-based practice.
- student learns to codevelop a realistic budget and strategy.
- student identifies ethical challenges encountered (Juujärvi, Banks).
- student learns to use multiple criteria decision making (MCDM) to balance financial dimensions with social work ethical challenges recognised.

*Example narrative and questions for students:*

*This new arrangement placed Ollie, Gary and Daisy into a whole new light. They had to come up with one competitive solution for the use of 500,000 euros.*

Task for students:

Group task for students:

Write an action plan for the project, where you describe the end result of the homeless service. In the previous module, you have described the interdisciplinary services. Describe, in the form of a budget, how you would have used this 500,000 euros to establish these services. In a group, following the principles of multiple criteria decision making, state in the budget what kind of ethical viewpoints you see affecting the financial decisions.