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Expedition Leadership: Lessons for Corporate Management

Leadership in mountaineering and in the corporate environment

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Abstract

Expedition Leadership: Lessons for Corporate Management

The study of leadership has sparked much interest among researchers over the last decades. One approach to increase the value of leadership research for practitioners is to explore it in a cross-sectional context, such as mountaineering. However, most of the literature on mountaineering leadership practices are not empirically researched, but based on the individual experience of an alpinist. This thesis seeks to define a connection between expedition leadership and corporate management by bridging academics and management practitioners. It provides critical insights into the key drivers of expedition leadership practices by exploring three research questions: how expedition leaders become leaders, how they manage group dynamics and how they make decisions.

The study took a constructivist position using a qualitative methodology analysing interviews with 13 expedition leaders to obtain - narratives. This expert-sample included respondents from eight countries between the ages of 39 and 97 years. A thematic analysis was followed by narrative analysis, whereby power emerged as a new lateral and overarching theme.

The importance of emotional intelligence was shown in the literature, including servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977), distributed leadership (Gronn, 2009; Bolden, 2011) and conversational leadership (Groysberg & Slind, 2012). Team building, trust and communication were also identified as success factors and empowerment was also shown to be critically important.

This thesis contributes to existing research knowledge in the area of leadership with the following learnings. In many respects, expedition leadership was ahead of the curve: (1) The development of leadership away from hierarchical, big organizations towards small, light, and agile teams. Distributed leadership based on empathy and emotional intelligence was often applied. (2) Most expedition leaders lived through many qualified experiences early on. Expert power grew into referent power and supported their authenticity. (3) Expedition leaders developed strategies to create an ecosystem for remote communication, necessary for a successful expedition long before this topic was relevant in the corporate world. (4) The hardest decisions to manage were not the ones following critical incidents, but the "wicked" ones, which were people related, especially involving summit politics.

Author's declaration

I declare that the work in this thesis was carried out in accordance with the regulations of the University of Gloucestershire and is original except where indicated by specific reference in the text. No part of the thesis has been submitted as part of any other academic award. The thesis has not been presented to any other education institution in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Any views expressed in the thesis are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University.

Signed: Date: August 29, 2021

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To my parents

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Chapter 1 Introduction and Rationale

1.1 Introduction

It was one particular book which provided the seeds of this research – "A high achiever" (Curran, 1999), which describes Chris Bonington's journey to become one of the best know alpine expedition leaders. I read this book during an expedition in the Indian Himalayas in the summer of 2010, when the similarities between expedition management and corporate management appeared to me. This idea was of keen interest to me since I am a passionate alpinist myself and have also been an executive for many years.

As corporate leaders, we are exposed to an increasingly complex and fast changing environment. We have to take decisions in a short time, often without having all the information in place. These are typical challenges in the VUCA (volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity) world of today. Reflecting on the challenges for expedition leaders in organising, funding, and staffing big expeditions to the highest peaks of the Himalayas lasting several months, it occurred to me that the corporate world could learn something from their experiences. They had to overcome cultural and language differences, master logistical challenges, which in earlier times were months of land-based transport, and select a team of excellent climbers, before the climb even started. Once at the base camp the interaction with the team became more difficult whilst they were spreading over the mountain installing high camps and the risk of accidents increased. Finally, the decision of who could try a summit attempt while keeping the team together as a bonded top team was the last challenge to overcome. Moreover, the life and death question was always present. Who, if not these expedition leaders, would be better suited to help corporate leaders find some answers in our fast-based corporate business environment?

My idea was to combine my practical knowledge of management and leadership as an executive with the theoretical aspects of leadership and of the lived experiences of expedition leadership in alpine environments. I soon discovered that there were few materials that combined these two topics. I found a very remarkable book (Morrell & Capparell, 2001), which analysed the arctic journey of Shackelton, the rescue mission of his crew, and which analysed his leadership role in this critical situation. Morell provided a detailed analysis of the famous South-Pole expedition, which only evaded disaster due to the strong leadership of Sir Ernest Shackleton and developed some principles on his leadership. Morell and Caparell (2001)

studied diaries and old expedition accounts and transferred this into an analysis of Shackleton's leadership and draws conclusions for corporate management. He combines the results in eight lectures of learning, which should provide managers with guidelines on how to behave as a good leader. Morrell and Caparell (2001) provided much inspiration for this research, which focuses on mountain expeditions and their implications for corporate leadership. In contemporary leadership research it is increasingly common for researchers to transfer learning from other areas to leadership theory. Examples can be found in different geographical and cultural areas, such as "worldly leadership" (Turnbull, 2012) or from different activities, such as sports (Katz, 2001) or music (Gabriel, 2016). In that sense I believe there are parallels and similarities between corporate management and expedition leadership. The main objective of this thesis is to fill the gap that still exists in connecting expedition and corporate leadership experiences, especially in the top management. This chapter introduces the reader to the topics of alpine leadership and corporate leadership, but also will show my identity as a woman, alpinist, and top manager in the corporate world. It seeks to connect it all and to explore the literature research as well as the approach from a methodological point of view.

In this research, I draw on the experiences of renowned mountain leaders, who led important expeditions during their careers. They all tackled numerous challenges as leaders, and even more importantly had to adapt their leadership styles and focus facing unexpected situations in a hostile, dangerous and unforgiving environment. Their experiences highlight the impact leaders can have when having developed and applied leadership skills with their teams. This study invites the reader to explore real life leadership challenges in the mountains and to embark on their own journey of leadership.

Different leadership styles, besides factors such as economic environment, competition, the regulatory environment etc. and the use of power or influence, affect success in the corporate world. This is also true in the world of mountaineering where additionally weather, accessibility and technical skills are crucial. However, as soon as there are groups involved in climbing a mountain, leadership also becomes a crucial factor for success. If we want to learn what parallels exist between successful approaches in the mountaineering world and in corporate leadership, we also need to examine the environment and the history of mountaineering. This will be done in Section 2.2.1.

1.1.1 Background

I have been an executive in the corporate world for more than 25 years and a member of several executive and nonexecutive boards in six countries. I therefore have a good insight into executive leadership in the corporate world and have been able to experience, observe and experiment with different forms over many years. Depending on the country, the leadership styles were always very different. One CEO I appreciated most as my direct superior acted more as my coach, (Ibarra & Scoular, 2019) and led me step by step through my first months of my own first CEO role. These examples all had an impact on my own leadership style, where I tried to adopt what I appreciated and to avoid what I disliked. (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.3.7 and Section 2.3.8).

Over the past 30 years I have climbed in the Alps, the Andes, in Africa and in the Himalayas during several expeditions. During these tours, I have experienced and witnessed different forms of leadership and have also had the privilege to get to know a couple of experienced guides, some of them well-known climbers and expedition leaders. During commercial expeditions and treks I have witnessed a whole range of leadership styles from top down, directive approaches (Evans, 1970) to some leaders who were so focussed on finding consensus that they did not lead at all (Bass, 1985).

Due to all these mountaineering experiences and my professional background, I find myself in the rare position of having access to both environments of leadership, which are explored in this research (see Figure 1). At first glance these two worlds might seem very different and the risks involved not comparable. On the mountain one is dealing with life and death situations and the stakes are high. In corporate management risk management involves more financial and operational risks which need to be mitigated in order to keep the company stable and minimize economic impacts. Mountaineering being a high-risk physical environment has an immediacy in its leadership demands whereas corporate risk manifests itself rather in terms of operational, reputational, regulatory, and financial risks. These situations are, however, rather the exception than the norm. The leadership aspects in everyday life in the mountains and in corporations are comparable. One must deal with leadership styles, leadership development (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.4.), team building (Section 2.4.4), decision taking (Section 2.6.3), communication styles (Section 2.4.5), and the use of power and influence (Section 2.6).
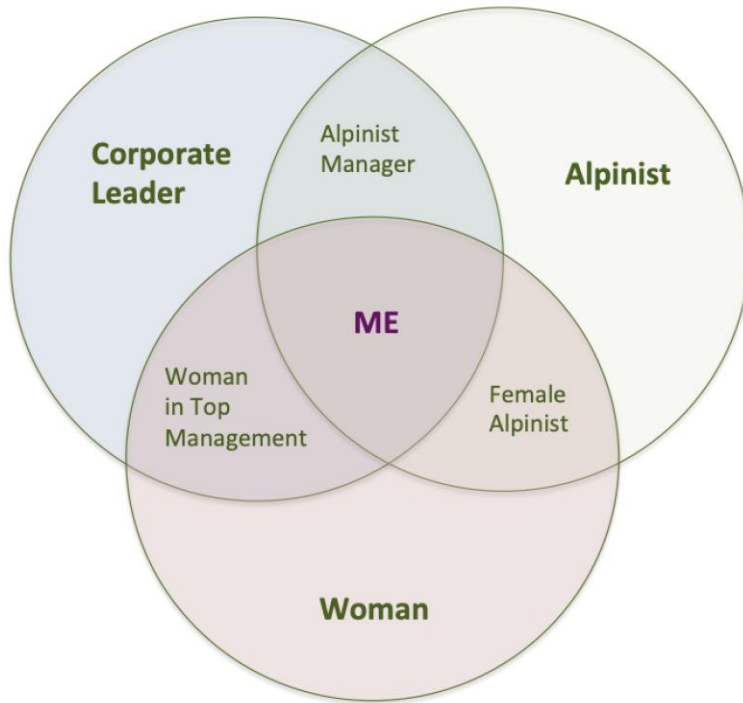
Figure 1 : The unique position of the author for this research

As a woman, I am also interested in the topic of women in management and in expeditions. Women have been the exception rather than the norm in alpine history (Jackson, Stark, 2000) and have started playing a role only recently (Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2.2and Chapter 5, Section 5.3.3.1). In top management as well as in mountain expeditions women had to fight to have a place (Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2 and Chapter 5, Section 5.3.3.2). Whereas women were not even allowed to participate in expeditions unless they came along as the wives of a climber (Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2.2), they are still a minority presence in top management today (Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2.1). In management and mountain expeditions, the leadership of women is usually questioned (Bohnet, 2016; Elliot & Stead, 2012; Ely, 2010), see Chapter 5, Section 5.3.3. My interviews included experiences of a female leader of the first generation (Blum, 1980) and one of the current generation (Pasaban, 2011). My interviews took place over a time span of several years. More about women in this particular environment will be said in Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2.2 and women in the corporate environment in Section 2.5.2.1. I also reflect on female leadership in literature in Chapter 2, Section 2.5.1 and in Chapter 5, Section 5.3.3.

1.1.2   Literature review

As a senior leader inspired by Morrell, with experiences in the mountains and top management (executive leaders, leaders in executive boards and directly reporting to the CEO; see also Chapter 2, Section 2.1 and Section 2.4.4), - I wanted to explore these facets of leadership. My literature research consisted of a thorough review of leadership literature, whereby I was first researching the history of leadership to be able to form a rounded opinion on that topic. Also, since my corporate experience has showed me that remote working and communication has developed into a major trend, I was interested in how teams operate remotely, regarding remote communication as well as team building and bonding (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.10.3 and Section 2.4.5). As a woman, I questioned the female role in leadership in both worlds and therefore also reviewed feminist leadership (Chapter 2, Section 2.5.1). This was followed by specific research into alpine literature, which consisted of many expedition reports and autobiographies of climbers and expedition leaders, some of whom I interviewed later in my field study (Blum, 1980, 2005; Bonington, 1976, 1987, 2001; Diemberger, 2001a, 2001b; Messner, 2001, 2004, 2014; Oelz, 1999; Pasaban, 2011; Venables, 2001, 2007). This step was necessary to get a good understanding of their leadership styles and the situations expedition leaders went through and helped shape my interview guide. In the third step of the literature research, I looked for literature showing the overlap of leadership in the mountaineering or expedition area. To broaden the field, I also read leadership sources in high- risk areas other than mountaineering, such as Shackelton's arctic expeditions. Morell and Capparell (2001) were particularly inspiring as they pointed out how the success of Shackleton's leadership was based on his ability to create teams, team spirit, and to be a calm, optimistic and a servant leader. He was also authentic and a role model, showed accountability, but also took risks where it was needed.

1.1.3   The research

This research uses a qualitative approach based on the research questions and objectives. The reasons for this approach are discussed in detail in Chapter 3, Section 3.6.3 and 3.4.1, which describes the expert interviews with expedition leaders.

1.1.3.1 Research design

It soon became clear that an interpretivist research philosophy would be a suitable approach, taking into consideration the socially constructed and subjective nature of my subject as well becoming part of the research myself as a researcher (Crabtree, 1992; Sanders, 2007). In this context, this research was value bound and data collection consisted of qualitative in-depth interviews.

The research is divided into two distinct phases. In the first stage, I conducted 13 face-to-face interviews, which were semi-structured, based on a guideline and followed by an inductive process. As snowball sampling (Chapter 3, Section 3.5.3) approach (Marshall, 2011) was used, whereby I started by interviewing expedition leaders I had access to, followed by others who were recommended to me by these leaders. At the end of the interviewing period of 3.5 years, I had interviewed 13 expedition leaders from eight nationalities, carrying out the interviews in five countries and in three languages (Chapter 3, Section 3.6.2). The interviews were recorded. I mainly had discussions with leaders of mountaineering expeditions, which took place from the 1950s throughout the 1970s. However, I also met some who represented more recent developments, up to 2010, which added to my understanding of leadership factors especially those of women leaders and team development. In the second stage, the data was extracted from the transcripts and analysed in detail. I used mind maps (Biktimirov & Nilson, 2006; Tattersall, et al., 2007; Wheeldon, 2017; Chapter 3, Section 3.7.5) and lateral theme analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006; King, 2004) methods, including triangulation methods (Section 3.7.4; Jonson and Jehn, 2009; Manion, 2000; Shenton, 2004) such as primary literature of the expedition leaders, autobiographies, reports, journals and films (Wells, 2007) (Section 2.4.3) to enrich the findings of the interviews. Examples of films, which provided further insight were for example the IMAX movie "Everest" (Breashears et al., 1998) or "Frauen am Berg" (Fink, 2019), but also several interviews with Chris Bonington on leadership (Costello, 2020; martinwells interview, 2007) to further structure, analyse and validate the data.

Research questions and objectives

The aim of this research is:

- To establish whether there are any leadership lessons in an expedition environment that could be transferred to the top management in the corporate world.

To add extra focus, this will be explored by answering the following questions:
- How do expedition leaders learn to lead and how do they define and practice leadership?
- What are the dynamics and subgroups within an expedition team from a leadership perspective?
- How do expedition leaders make decisions? (Critical incidents, summit politics).

The research objective is therefore:
- To identify the parallels that could be taken from expedition leadership and applied to the corporate top management environment.

To focus more closely, this will explore the following objectives:
- To reflect on how expedition leaders have learned to lead and examine their leadership styles.
- To explore the dynamics between the expedition leader and the team and understand sub teams.
- To uncover some of the decision-making processes during an expedition through examples of critical incidents and summit politics.

1.1.3.2 Key contributions and outcomes

Key findings in this thesis were learnings based on servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 1995, 1998, 2004, and Laub, 1999), distributed leadership (Gronn, 2009; Bolden, 2011), emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000; Mayer et al., 2002) and the importance of communication manifested in conversation leadership (Groysberg & Slind, 2012). Within this context several models, such as the Expert-Manager-Leadership-Model (EML), the Expert-Manager-Authenticity-Model (EMA) (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2), and the Power Communication Model (Sections 5.2.2., 5.2.5.2., 5.3.2.3) have been developed. These models help to better

understand the practices of leadership for top managers and expedition leaders in 21st century, as they further show and extend our knowledge of the importance of both and the managerial and technical skills for a leadership role and the development process for a leader. Also, these models may provide a different perspective on knowledge of the leadership phenomena because they are extended by the communication dimension and add another power base.

Regarding remote communication, team building, and bonding was identified as an important enabler. These findings were integrated into a new model, the Communication-Complexity–Maturity-Model (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2). This model shows the link between the maturity of a team based on previous bonding, the complexity of the content and the impact on successful communication in a remote environment. These findings are specifically important in times, when remote working takes a new importance in corporate life (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.4.5). Bonding seemed to be particularly important for someone wishing to exercise servant leadership (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.6).

The types of decisions have been analysed (Grint, 2005; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; Vroom, 2000) and a Power-Decision Model has been created (Chapter 5, Section 5.4.3)

1.2   Introduction to the chapters

Chapter 1 provides the general introduction and explains the rationale for the thesis. It provides background on the topic and a short overview of the study.

Chapter 2 describes the literature review, including the literature strategy. The applied leadership theories, some background of leadership studies as well as mountaineering and alpine history including expedition literature are also discussed. The third part analyses the existing literature on expedition leadership and theoretical leadership theory or applied management.

Chapter 3 analyses methods and methodologies and explains the choice of methodology and research design. It describes how this study was carried out, from the sampling, interviewing and transcribing to the final analysis and interpretation.

Chapter 4 describes the findings based on the analysis according to a lateral theme analysis and relates this to the original research questions. The Chapter also includes several narratives

and quotes which directly relate to the interviews or books of expedition leaders. Any parallels with corporate management were identified from these findings.

Chapter 5 discusses the findings and compares it to the literature. It describes the contribution to the research, outlines the limitations of the study and identifies topics for further research.

Chapter 6 defines the contributions of the study and the answers to the research questions. It also identifies the limitations to the research and areas for future research.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Leadership requires a strategic vision and a sense of mission. It requires an ability to excite and to execute. It requires unflinching determination, impeccable character, and a commitment to common cause over private gain. But it also requires an exceptional capacity to make good and timely decisions. (Useem, 2010, p.507)

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will deal with general leadership theories used in the corporate environment and literature on mountaineering expeditions, to explore leadership approaches used by expedition leaders and how mountaineering leadership informs or transfers into the corporate environment. It is important to identify the relevance of both early and newer leadership theories regarding the leadership experiences of mountaineer leaders, since their experiences also stretch over a longer time span. Many leadership theories helped to set the scene but were not used in the final framework development, thus they were not used for my investigation or did not feature in my data analysis. This thesis is an exploration of the world of leadership in mountaineering expeditions in order to seek possible similarities and differences to leadership research in the corporate world, including my own experiences. This chapter will provide a short overview of some leadership theories, mainly current theories from late 20th century and 21st century. It will then link the available literature on mountaineering expeditions and the review of existing leadership research with the intention to close the identified gap between the two worlds of leadership.

The concept of learning about leadership from areas other than corporate management has been analysed by Morrell and Capparell (2001) using examples from the Arctic explorer Shackelton. Gabriel (2017) draws parallels to leadership found in opera, which shows actions and emotions from crowds of people and the rules in troubled times of crisis and in uncertainty. He suggests that opera can offer insights into the actions and emotions of leaders and followers by showing examples of the anxieties of leaders facing challenges to their legitimacy and the need of followers for clarity and protection. Corrigan (1999) analyses leadership using characters in classic works of Shakespeare and their personalities in relation to power. Barrett (2012) derives lessons for leadership from jazz musicians, who must

improvise all the time and need to be able to unlearn, adapt as they go and experiment simultaneously to develop a "*jazz-mind-set*" (Barrett, 2012, p. 37). An example of "*worldly leadership*", the pooling of the combined leadership wisdoms from all parts of the world, as suggested by Turnbull (2012) is shown in Annex H, Table **34**. Turner and Hamstra (2018) and Berry (2015) examined parallels to the military with regards to servant leadership. The transfer of learnings from the outdoors, mountains and expeditions to corporate management emphasises that there is something to learn from such a cross-functional analysis. Also, Guenzi & Ruta (2013) show what business executives and sports coaches can learn from one another. This assumption has also been taken for mountaineering and this simple idea is the basis for this research.

Katz (2001), however, also points out, that there are limitations of transferring leadership lessons from sports, such as the fact that in corporations building bridges and working together is often more important than finding boundaries. Also, a workplace is more complex than a player field with more stakeholders and not just "willing" participants. When mirroring sports teams it is important to pick the right sport for the right team and corporate teams need to be managed and not only coached.

In this research I will focus on transformational leadership theories including servant leadership, ethical and conversation leadership. Moreover, I will point out, wherever possible, research that reviews top management and corporate leaders since expedition leaders are also the top decision makers and leaders in the mountaineering world, comparable to The Top Management Team (TMT), which usually refers to the CEO and his direct reports, therefore the most influential executives in a company (Canella, 2008). Also, Kempster's (2009) work, which has been used in this research generally focuses on senior leaders. In the context of expedition leadership, I argue that an expedition leader is comparable to the leader of an organization rather than a mid-manager. She or he has the responsibility for the entire operation from the beginning until the end, and the responsibility for the participants, thus the people. This is what top management is about.

2.2   Understanding the topic

This section provides an overview of mountaineering expeditions, alpine literature, and alpine history. Mountain climbing in the Alps and the first expedition in the Himalayas were initially dominated by Western European climbers, often British, who explored the Himalayas

in the 1920s to attempt first summit attempts before subsequently having climbed all fourteen 8000m peaks until the 1960s (see also Table 2, p. 19). Therefore, the scope of this research is mountaineering expeditions carried out by European or American expedition leaders, since leaders and climbers of these two continents represent the majority of mountaineering and climbing expeditions in the Himalayas.

Some expeditions are better known than others because they were successful or because they involved tragic accidents. All expedition leaders, however, who have participated in this study were accessible at the time of the research and the expeditions were well documented.

2.2.1 History and background

In order to understand the context of expedition management better, one needs to go back and study alpine history. This research aims to find possible lessons for leadership from the field of mountaineering.

The first expeditions were not specifically targeted to climb mountains but to explore and measure the topologies of the territories for scientific research. The first expedition leaders led reconnaissance expeditions with the participation of scientists, geographers and the military. Documentation on these expeditions is therefore mostly embedded in military reports or scientific papers. The British especially were strongly engaged in the surveys of the Himalayas, as India was a British colony at the time of the exploring trips in the mid and late 19th century. The highest mountain on earth, Mount Everest, was named after Sir George Everest, surveyor-general of India, who was responsible for the trigonometric survey of India. Names of other mountains also show the close link of the military and the scientific community to the first expeditions. The second highest mountain in the world was named "K2" by Montgomerie, also a British surveyor, who served as a lieutenant in the second half of the 19th century (Montgomerie, 1872). "K" stood for Karakoram, the name of the mountain range in modern day Pakistan. Only later did an interest in mountain climbing itself become a reason to organize expeditions.

According to Hawley and Salisbury (2007), mountaineering history can be divided into four periods as shown below in Table 1.

1850-1889	Golden Age of Alpinism
1890-1949	Exploratory period in the Himalayas
1950-1969	Expeditionary period in the Himalayas
1970-1989	Transitional period in the Himalayas
Since 1990	Commercial period in the Himalayas

Table 1: Periods of Climbing

(Hawley & Salisbury, 2007; authors' adaptations, 2018)

One of the first documented journeys to the high mountains in the former Indian colonies was the expedition of Albert Frederick Mummery, a British Alpinist. After several difficult and successful climbs in the European Alps, he ventured in the Karakoram to climb Nanga Parbat, one of the 14 peaks in the world over 8000 meters high (Märtin, 2002). Mummery was a merchant, not a military man and left with a private expedition for this bold idea in 1895. He disappeared on the mountain in the same year during a summit push. His death was a shock for the mountaineering world of the late 19th century because he had the reputation of being one of the best Alpinists at the time. His failure shaped how to approach the giants in the Himalayas over the next 75 years (Märtin, 2002). Mummery failed to climb an 8000m peak by nearly the same means and strategy used for summits in the Alps and showed the need for a new approach to climb these high mountains. The new style was the Expedition style represented by a huge number of participants and staff and an elaborated strategy for logistics, military style (Märtin, 2002). The concept of leadership became an important topic in the mountaineering world because of this development. The period of the large expeditions exploring possibilities of how to get near to newly discovered mountains, so-called reconnaissance trips, started at the beginning of the 20th century, after the end of the First World War. The expeditions to Mount Everest in the 1920s under British leadership gained a lot of attention and publicity. George Mallory, a famous British alpinist of his time, was a leading member of these early expeditions to Mount Everest (Mallory, 2011; Messner, 2001). The expedition where Mallory disappeared in 1924 has been particularly well documented in several books and articles because there are speculations whether Mallory reached the summit of Everest or not before he died (Hemmleb, 2009; Messner, 2001). The

body of Mallory was found in 1999, more than 70 years after his disappearance by a specially commissioned expedition at 8160m on the north face of the mountain (Squires, 2010).

In the 1930s there were some unsuccessful Siege style attempts to conquer the first 8000m peak (Märtin, 2002; Dyhrenfurth, 1942). Expedition leaders at that time often had a military background or were sent to the mountains with nationalistic motives, such as the expedition leader of the two German attempts to Nanga Parbat, Merkl (Märtin 2002). The organization of these expeditions was therefore generally set up like a military operation. Keller (2016) analyses the history of the Alps and observes that the mountains were ideological icons, and the geopolitical context of the interwar years influenced sport and tourism in the German Alps. He also argues that mountaineers and the Alpine Clubs were often the driving forces of nationalist ideas at that time.

The Second World War put a halt to the mountaineering explorations in the Himalayas and it was not until the 1950s that the next attempts to conquer the highest mountains on earth were continued. Among these were the first successful climb to a summit of 8000m, the Annapurna, in 1950 by Maurice Herzog (Herzog, 1952) and the first climb of the highest mountain, Mount Everest in 1953 by Edmund Hillary and Tensing Norgay (Hillary, 1999). All other 8000m peaks were successfully climbed within the next decade.

The Expedition style or Siege style sometimes involved more than 1000 people, including porters, guides, other staff and climbers. These large numbers required impeccable planning and military execution. It also involved setting up a fixed line of camps on the mountain, which are kept continuously stocked with supplies (Graydon et al., 1997). Leadership in these expeditions was vital since their sheer size meant thoughtful organization made the difference between success and failure.

In the 1960s there was a new focus on mountains that had already been climbed, but on more difficult routes (Curran, 1999) and expeditions of the 1970s excelled in promoting the purist Alpine style. In the 70s and 80s, the purists, like Hans Kammerlander, Peter Habeler, Stephen Venables and Reinhold Messner, started climbing the high mountains in the Himalayas in Alpine style, meaning in small teams of two or three, often without a dedicated leader or high-altitude porters.

The introduction of Alpine Style radically transformed mountaineering by changing two assumptions: the need for artificial oxygen and the need to stock the higher camps with

supplies (Allen, 2015). Messner was the pioneer of this style, climbing the mountain only once and bringing all food and equipment with him, thus completely reducing the duration risk. McCurdy (2013) described how improvements in modern mountaineering have reduced costs, time and risk and so made it accessible to non-professional climbers. To create similarly lean processes is also discussed within agile leadership in Section (2.4.2, p. 51)

There was a development in mountaineering history from the Expeditions style mountaineering from the 1920s to the early 1970s involving large scale operations and top-down leadership to the smaller scale Alpine style expeditions engaging in a different kind of leadership, which followed (see Figure 2). A similar leadership development can also be observed in the corporate environment.
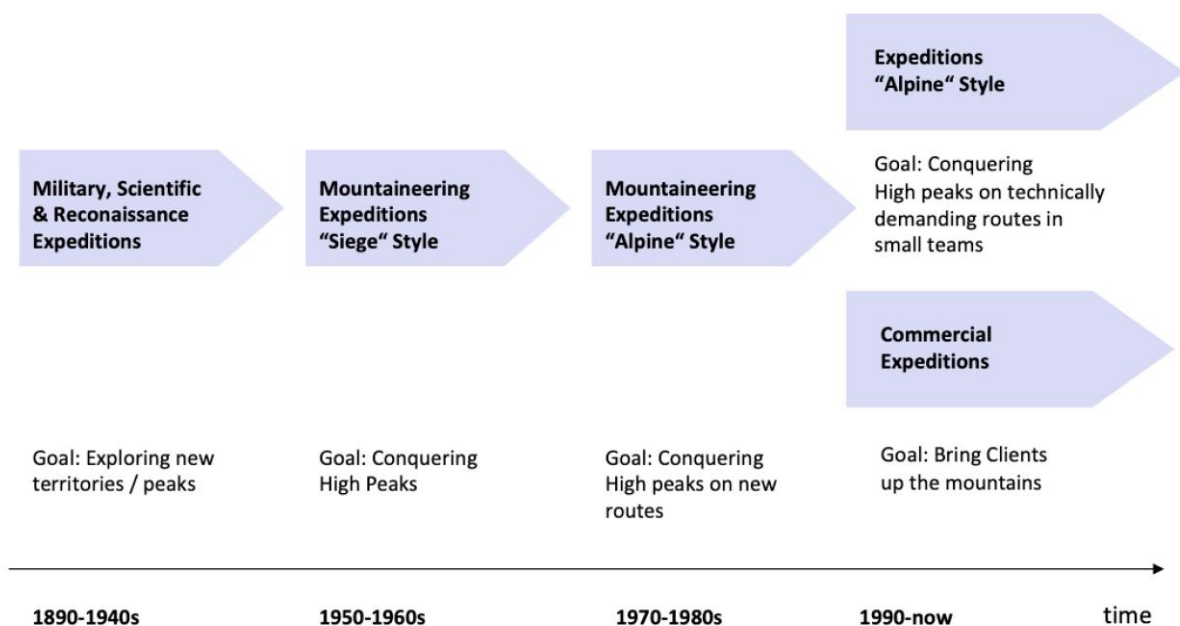
Figure 2: The development of expeditions in mountaineering
(developed by the author based on different sources)

This research explores mountaineering narratives about leadership in Expedition style rather than Alpine style, as leadership involving a leader and a team is the topic of interest. The first style is mostly to be considered and referred to the senior management team of and corporate leadership. So, expedition leadership is more like top management individuals rather than Alpine style, which is more like entrepreneurial organizations, which is not the focus of this study.

Mountaineering and mountain tourism

Mountaineering has a long-established history as an adventure sport combined with physical activity, challenge, and risk. Therefore, when mountains became important tourist destinations, the distinction between mountaineers and tourists became more blurred. Beedie and Hundson (2003) argue, that existing tourist theory suggests a commodification of the mountains take place and that some alpine areas assume some urban characteristics. This development also reached expeditions in the Himalayas that started being run as commercial expeditions in the 1980s and not only for expert climbers. Figure 2 shows this development on a timeline.

The period of large Siege style expeditions on the mountains was over, but a new type of expedition filled the gap and took paying clients to the highest peaks of the world, mainly Everest. This period of commercial expeditions started slowly, fully gained ground in the 1990s and has increased year by year since then. The main difference between commercial expeditions and traditional expeditions is that for the latter the climbers were invited as participants due to their expertise in the mountains. These climbers usually had an excellent climbing track record and followed an invitation by the expedition leader, who was not only in charge of leading the expedition up the mountain, but also had to organize it and take care of the funding, PR and logistics (Blum, 1980, Hunt, 1954; Dyhrenfurth, 1942; Märtin, 2002; Nickel, 2007a and b; Reinisch, 1997). The climbers usually needed to contribute financially to the expenses of such an expedition. Today, professional climbers[1] do not climb in a big expedition environment anymore, but mostly in their small, national, and often international teams.

The other newly emerged group of climbers were "tourists" (Dobel, 2018) who wanted to climb mountains outside of Europe and were willing to pay substantial amounts for that experience. The beginning of this development is said to be the expedition when the US guide, David Breashears led a wealthy 55-year-old Texan with limited mountaineering experience to the summit of Everest. Before this, Everest was considered to be exclusively

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[1] Professional climbers in this context are climbers, who can live from their climbing activity (as opposed to mountain guides, who guide clients for their livelihood) Some examples would be the late Swiss, Ueli Steck and the Swiss Roger Schaeli, the Spaniard, Kilian Jornert, the US American Steve House, the Austrians Gerlinde Kaltenbrunner, the late Austrian David Lama and Italian Hansjörg Auer, Tamara Lunger and Simone Moro, but also climbing couples, such as the Italians, Nives Meroi and Romano Benet or the Germans, Alix von Melle and Luis Stitzinger.

reserved for elite alpinists. This climb opened the doors to the commercial business on a different scale with average climbers. The only limit besides financial resources and a reasonable level of fitness is the necessary time of two months needed for such an endeavour (Krakauer in Malik, 2013). This new generation of guided or commercial expeditions took climbers up to the mountains as paying clients, sometimes regardless of their physical strength and capability. An example of the unfortunate consequences can be seen in the "1996 Everest disaster" which was described in Krakauer's bestseller, *Into Thin Air* (Krakauer, 1997). Expedition leaders of these commercial expeditions are often former professional mountain climbers who develop their own business when their active mountaineering career is over. Sometimes they are climbing guides, sometimes simply businessmen (Kodas, 2008).

The huge increase in number of more or less experienced climbers and expedition leaders resulted in a higher number of casualties, including the tragic season of 1996, with eight victims on the slopes of Everest (Haley, Salisbury, 2007). This event is well documented by eyewitnesses, climbers and an IMAX movie in 2015 (Krakauer, 1997; Boukreev& Weston, 1997; Gammelgard, 2003; Weathers & Michaud, 2000; MacGillivray, 1998). More recent developments included many casualties due to unfortunate weather events and the high number of people on the slopes of Everest. A deadly avalanche killed 16 Sherpas in 2014, and an avalanche triggered the huge earthquake in 2015, which left more than 20 people dead on or near the Solo Khumbu glacier on the South Face of Everest. This earthquake was a national disaster that left nearly 20,000 people dead in Nepal (Indian Express, 2015; Wikipedia, 2014, 2015).

To summarise, today we see two types of expeditions. Commercial expeditions, where clients can participate, and which are carried out in a Siege style like the traditional, pioneering expeditions used to be organized with the difference that they are commercial undertakings with clients and not alpine professionals as participants. On the other hand, the professional alpinists have organized themselves in small scale operations Alpine style, utilizing a very light and fast way to climb mountains, comparable to the climbs in the Alps.

2.2.2   Expedition Leadership

Great leaders of expeditions from the end of the 19th century until the Second World War include Günther Dyhrenfurth, Eric Shipton, Bill Tilman, Charles Bruce and Wilhelm Merkl (see

Table 10). Many of these expedition pioneers are well documented and still available in libraries and antique books. The expeditions in the Himalaya in the 1950s, which led to the conquering of most of the 8000m summits, were logistical masterpieces, led by leaders like, John Hunt (UK), Herbert Tichy (Austria), Maurice Herzog (France), Ardito Desio (Italy), Karl Maria Herrligkoffer (Germany) and Norman Dyhrenfurth (Swiss). These leaders were often nominated or supported by the respective national states and organized like a military operation. The leadership approach in those huge, military like operations was mostly autocratic, focussed of the execution of the summit goal and transactional in its style. In corporate management usually the leaders do not need to have a military background as used to be the case in the early mountaineering expeditions. But also, in the corporate environment there are examples where leaders were chosen based on their military ranks and achievements (e.g., in Switzerland, where in many financial institutions the military track record has been the base for a corporate career until the beginning of this century; NZZ, 2019). In the next phase, after having climbed the highest peaks in the world, the more difficult routes on them were the target. The Britons, Chris Bonington, and later Stephen Venables, the Austrian, Wolfgang Nairz, but also some women, like Wanda Rutkiewicz from Poland and Arlene Blum from the US, played an important role in alpine history. And, mostly being civil leaders and mountaineers, they brought a new nuance to the role of leadership. The operations were less organized and led in a military, autocratic way, but built on team spirit (Section 2.4.4) and forms of participative leadership, such as distributed or servant leadership (section 2.3.6). When civilians became expedition leaders, more learnings for today's corporate management can be found, as a different management style started prevailing. Books and reports of expedition leaders shown in Table 2, page 19 were helpful in understanding different leadership styles of expedition leaders in the past (see also Figure 2; p. 15).

For me, besides learning form the expedition leaders, it was important to get an insight into the opinions of the participants of these expeditions. To do this, I mostly studied books about their expeditions, but also articles in Alpine Journals (e.g., Dyhrenfurth, 1961; Giller, 1983), and films of such expeditions.

Most of climbers of the newer generation have never participated in any traditional or "siege-style" expeditions, but mostly went on small expeditions, in Alpine style. Many climbers, however, who applied this style later, also had experiences in earlier expeditions from the

1950s through the 1980s. They either participated in one (Buhl, 2005; Messner, 2004; Diemberger, 2001a and 2001b, Bonatti, 2011) as participant, or because they were professional mountain guides in commercial expeditions like Anatoli Boukreev (Boukreev, 2001), Rob Hall and Scott Fischer (Krakauer, 1997), comparable to trained, corporate managers with a good formal education and training.

Mountaineering expeditions: Traditional / Siege Style		Mixed mountaineering expeditions: Alpine & Siege style	Commercial expeditions Siege style
Expedition leaders as pioneers and early explorers of the Himalayas	Expedition leaders as conquerors of 8000er peaks	Expedition leaders in transitional phase	Commercial expedition leaders and expedition companies (former and present)
Günther Dyhrenfurth (CH)	Norman Dyhrenfurth (CH/US)	Wanda Rutkiewitz (PL)	Günther Härter (GE) Top Mountain Tours
Eric Shipton (UK)	John Hunt (US)	Arlene Blum (US)	Kari Kobler (CH) Kobler & Partner
Bill Tillman (UK)	Ardito Desio (IT)	Chris Bonington (UK)	Eduard Koblmüller (AT) Bergspechte (Hauser)
Charles Bruce (UK)	Karl Maria Herrligkoffer (GE)	Karl Maria Herrligkoffer (GE)	Rob Hall (NZ) Adventure Consultants
Wilhelm Merkl (GE)	Maurice Herzog (FR)	Kurt Diemberger (AT)	Scott Fisher (US) Mountain Madness
Charles Granville Bruce (UK)	Herbert Tichy (AT)	Edurne Pasaban (SP)	Lukas Furtenbach (AT) Furtenbach Adventures
	Max Eislin (CH)	Reinhold Messner (IT)	Dominic Müller (AT) Amical Alpin
	Maki Yūkō (JP)	Stephen Venables (UK)	Dave Britt (UK) Adventure peaks
		Wolfgang Nairz (AT)	

Table 2: Some selected expeditions leaders
(using and compiling different sources; blue interviewees for this research)

It was therefore worthwhile to consult material from this category of climbers as well as to complete the overview on leadership approaches and learnings. Expedition reports and autobiographies of expedition leaders (e.g., Blum, 1978; Buhl 2005; Curran, 1999; Eiselin, 1960; Herrligkoffer, 1954; Hunt, 1954; Mazeaud, 1978; Reinisch, 1995; Höfler & Messner, 2001; Nickel, 2007a&b) also provide a good insight when trying to understand the history, and context of mountaineering expeditions.

It was especially important to be well prepared for the scheduled interviews as those expedition leaders nearly all had published either autobiographies, expedition reports, articles or films before. I read the original books and watched their films with original footage of those expedition leaders whom I later met for my research interviews (e.g., Blum, 1980, 2005; Bonington, 1976, 1987, and 2001; Diemberger, 2001a, b; Messner, 2001, 2004, 2005, 2014; Nairz, 1978; Oelz, 1999; Pasaban, 2011; Venables, 2007). All these expedition leaders

are well known in the alpine community and their climbs are well documented (Nickel, 2012). Bonington even insisted that I read all his books before he would schedule an interview with me (see also, Chapter 3, Section 3.1).

Movies such as *Americans on Everest,* Dyhrenfurth (1965) or *What is leadership to you?,* Wells (2007) also helped me to understand the context. Messner has participated in or produced mountaineering movies such as *Mount Everest – Todeszone* (1978), *Still Alive – das Drama am Mt. Kenya* (2016), *Nanga Parbat* (2010), *Messner* (2012), and *AmaDablam, der heilige Berg* (2018), which all show remarkable alpine events or his own experiences in the mountains.

Commercial expeditions that started to develop in the 1980s involved a different set of leaders and participants when it was shown that average climbers could also climb Everest, if the expedition was led and prepared commercially with a lot of support for the clients. Since commercial leadership styles were also of interest for this research. My reading also included voices of clients, who are paying participants of expeditions (Gammegard, 1997, Krakauer, 1997; Weathers & Michaud, 2000). All these books helped me to picture of what seemed to be the important leadership, power, decision-making concepts and issues that I decided to explore in my conversation with the leaders in the interview questions and then to formulate my own theoretical model. Most of the views on leadership, which have been described in these books have been confirmed in my interviews with these leaders, maybe with a stronger focus on the topics of transformational, servant, and conversational leadership.

2.3   Leadership concepts

In this section some traditional leadership paradigms were revisited to situate the proposed study within the body of existing theory and identified several leadership styles, which have been relevant to this research. The concepts of transformational, servant leadership as well as conversational leadership, drove this research and will be discussed in this section. They will be explored in more detail in order to identify gaps that might support the need for further research in order to develop existing theory.

More than 20 years ago McCollum (1995) already argued that in previous decades companies had tried to apply outdated leadership theories from the industrial age. Contee-Borders (2003) sees change as the only constant and leadership research must therefore consider different

approaches to leadership. Given the proliferation and compartmentalization of leadership theories, Figure 3 is an attempt to provide an overview of leadership theories over time and the development from leader centred approaches via transactional towards transformational theories. This visualisation shows the theories most relevant in this research (coloured) and should not imply, that the different approaches were applied at one defined point of time only. Instead, existing theories have been continuously amended.
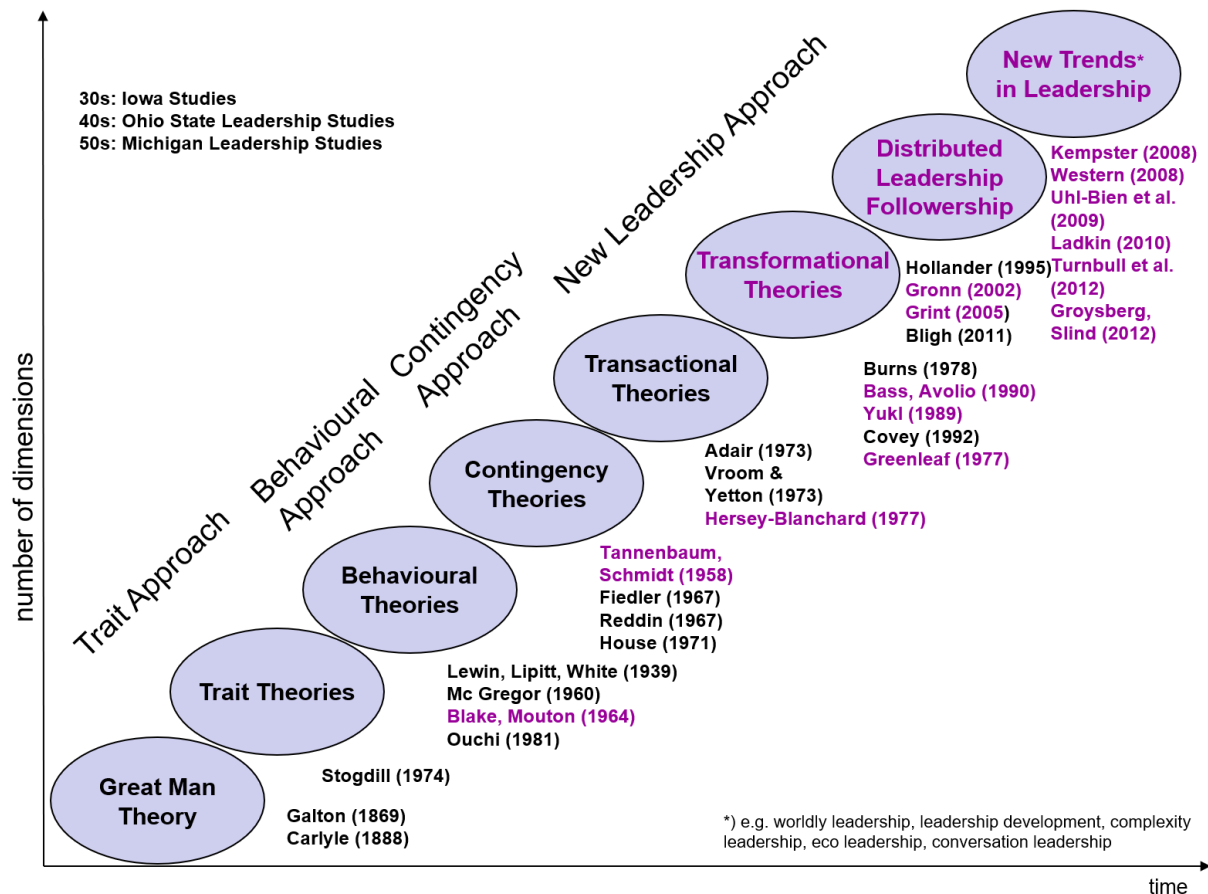
Figure 3: Leadership Theories composed and derived from different sources

There seems to be a general lack of standards to compare theories in the academic environment. Leadership literature is often developed completely independently from each other, whereby scholars continue to act in their silos and *"different theoretical perspectives are neither compared nor combined in meaningful ways"* (Glynn & Raffaelli, 2010; p. 390). Leadership, as a field of research has witnessed a proliferation of theories over the last decades (Meuser et al., 2016). A review of leadership literature resulted in 66 different leadership theories as published work since 2000 (Dinh et al., 2014). Although findings show a growing maturity of the field, many scholars have argued that integration of these different leadership theories is missing (Hoffman & Lord, 2013; Avolio, 2007; Dansereau et al. 2013;

Eberly et al., 2013). Leadership scholars are working on many different topics in a related way. An analysis revealed, however, that few researches integrate more than two theories, which proves the need for further integrating work. The topics that contained more than two theories were the following (see Figure 4 as example): charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, strategic leadership, leadership and diversity, participative or shared leadership, and trait approaches to leadership (Meuser et al., 2016).
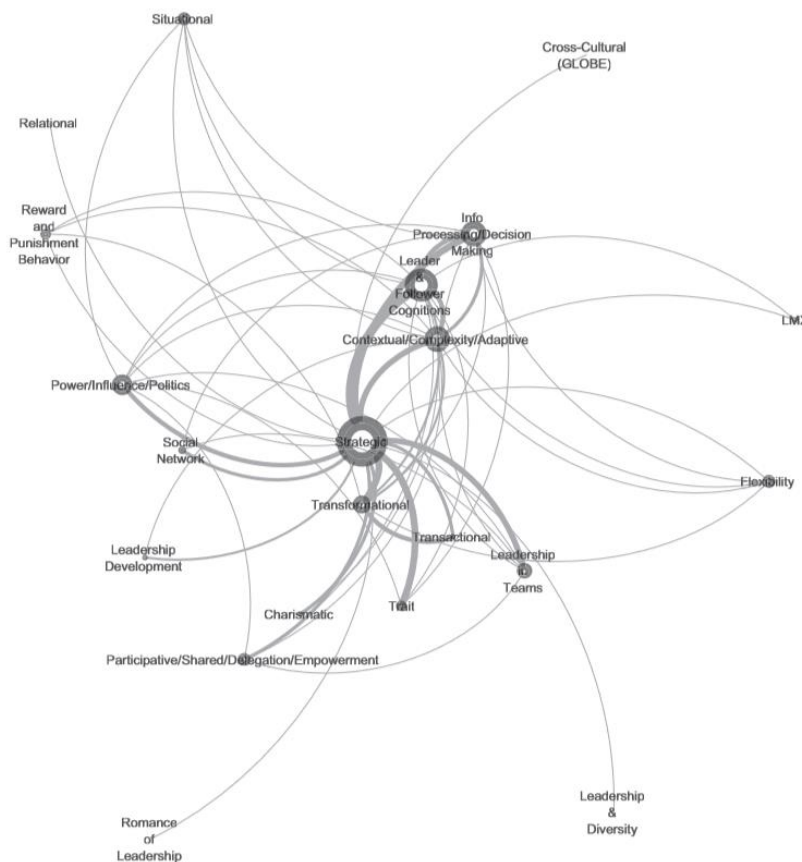
Figure 4: Visualisation of network graphs of strategic leadership
(Meuser et al., 2016; p. 1384)

Transformational leadership research had mostly examined how leaders transform followers, but this analysis showed a focus on reciprocity inherent in the leader-follower relationship. Findings in relation to strategic leadership suggested an interest in how leaders share influence with and within teams. Also, the study of this shared leadership style is very similar to the research of leadership in teams. This suggests that there is a high interest in this type of research within the context of team dynamics (Meuser et al., 2016). This focus on the importance of teams in the leadership discourse made me include this aspect in this research and in the interviews. To put all the different leadership theories in a context, an overview of

leadership theories until the beginning of the 21st century, characterized by new approaches with a greater focus on transformational thinking, servant leadership, and putting the follower a bit more at the centre of thinking, which have impacted my research, is provided in greater detail in the Annex, Section H, page 321.

2.3.1 Definitions of leadership

Leadership is sometimes not seen as a science but rather as an art (Grint, 2001) or a craft (Taylor, 2012). Taylor understands leadership as a creative process and argues that only if the craft of leadership is carried out at a high level can it develop into the art of leadership. Therefore, leading is not considered easy and it is difficult to choose just one approach in all leadership roles and situations. There is a marked interest in leadership studies and a steady increase in articles and books published on this topic. Nevertheless, most scholars note that despite the volume of information written on leadership, less is known about it than other topics in behavioural science (Wallick, 2014). Most scholars have focussed on the literature on leadership, which deals with historical figures rather than followership, which deals with the audiences (Wallick, 2014). Most of the current research is leader centric, something which also appears in my data. Some scholars such as DeRue and Ashford (2010) noted that leadership is a product of interactive and reciprocal identity. These authors propose that a leadership identity is co-constructed when people grant but also claim leader and follower rights in their actions within corporations. Individuals create an identity as leader or follower by claiming or granting leadership. These identities become recognized and endorsed within the organizational context through the recognition of these roles. This opinion has been taken up in my interview guidelines in order to explore the leader-followership relationship (Chapter 4, Section 4.1.2; e.g.: Messner, Eisendle).

Others suggest that most people cannot necessarily state what leadership is and argue that leadership is based on people's perceptions (Grint, 1997). Stating a common proverb, they argue that, "*just like beauty, leadership is in the eye of the beholder*" (Billsberry, 2009, p. 2). Leadership has been defined in many ways in literature, and often as a process, such as in one of the earliest definitions, by Stogdill (1950, p. 3) stating that "*leadership may be considered as the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement*". Cohen (1990), Zalenik (1992), and Hersey & Blanchard (1988) described leadership as a process of influencing between a leader and the

followers. Northouse (2010) defines leadership as *"a process whereby an individual influence a group of individuals to achieve a common goal."* (Northouse, 2010, p. 3). Authors such as Drath and Palus (1994) took a constructivist approach to leadership, describing the essence and leadership process as a way of establishing values and the setting in which meaning is given to individual actions and their social interaction. One of these types of theories is servant leadership, noted above, and discussed in Section 2.3.6, along with the quality of the social interaction between leader and follower. One definition well suited for this research is given by Yukl (2016), who defines leadership as *"the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives"* (Yukl, 2016, p. 8), which implies that leadership is a process and involves influencing others. This happens within a group and includes a shared goal.

Robinson's definition: "*Leadership is exercised when ideas expressed in talk or action are recognized by others as capable of progressing tasks or problems which are important to them*" (Robinson, 2001; p. 93) seems to be very comprehensive for several reasons. As mentioned above, leadership can be seen as a process of influence and grounded in task accomplishment (Robinson, 2001), the focus is not only on communication, but also on leadership processes (Yukl, 2002), leadership is influenced and shaped by followers, and leadership as a means of influence is not performed by one person but can shift and distribute itself among several actors (Gronn, 2002). So, there are more leadership actors, which includes those who are in the follower position.

2.3.2   Executive leadership

A theory of executive leadership was discussed by Day & Lord (1988) when they proposed guidelines for developing such a theory. Today scholars consider executive leadership as an important domain. There is, however, still considerable room and need for more research to enable a full discussion (Ireland & Hitt, 2005). Executive leadership research also has significant potential to inform general leadership theories.

Closely related to executive leadership is the notion of strategic leadership, which refers to the ability of a leader to "*anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, think strategically, and work with others to initiate changes*" (Ireland & Hitt, 2005, p. 63). Boal & Hooijberg (2001) state that it is rather the "leadership of" organizations, as opposed to "leadership in" organizations.

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This refers to the highest levels of organizational leadership (e.g., CEO, top management teams). The main differences between mid-level or low-level management and strategic management have been proposed in the following five activities unique to top leaders: set the strategy, engage in activities outside of the organization, create organizational structures, indirectly affect lower-level leaders, and serve a symbolic role as a public person (Hiller & Beauchesne, 2014). All those activities are also relevant for expedition leaders, when they set up an expedition, recruit the participants and the staff, represent the expedition and serve as the face to the outside world.

The presence of traits of leadership suggests that scholars have not lost sight of traits deemed essential for succeeding at the top corporate level (Peterson et al., 2009). Absent from these reflections are a number of more recent entries into the leadership literature (e.g., ethical, authentic, and servant leadership; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Brown et al., 2005; Liden et al. 2014), as well as the contrasting form of leadership, destructive leadership (Einarsen et al. 2007). It is important to consider these gaps and to contextualize this research with respect to the upper echelon theory discussed later in Section 2.6.2.

2.3.3   Leadership and management

Burns' (1978) conceptual work laid the foundation for various ways of viewing leadership by differentiating between leadership and management, particularly when considering the values and relationships that they form with their followers. Much of the leadership theory development and research does not, however, distinguish between senior leaders and middle management leaders or make a difference in gender. Sometimes, leadership is seen as something superior to management (Kotter, 1987; House & Aditya, 1997; Bennis & Nanus, 2007) and certain terms in relation to the experience and the differences between management and leadership that may have been evident throughout the corporate environment have not yet been made explicit. The debate about the difference between leadership and management (Lunenburg, 2011) and whether there is a distinction between leaders and managers (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Yukl, 2002; Gronn, 2003) is ongoing. Some people argue that managers and leaders perform different tasks although there is a certain overlap between them. This overlap is still a subject of discussion (Yukl, 2010). Others state that managers and leaders are both necessary for an organization, but that their contribution is

different (Zaleznik, 1977), and that leadership deals more with change, whereas management deals with complexity (Kotter, 1987, 1990a, 1990b) as shown in Table 3 below.

Leadership	Management
(a) developing a vision for the organization (b) aligning people with that vision through communication (c) motivating people to action through empowerment and through basic need fulfilment	(a) planning and budgeting (b) organizing and staffing (c) controlling and problem solving
The leadership process creates uncertainty and change in the organization.	The management process reduces uncertainty and stabilizes the organization.

Table 3 : Leadership and Management based on Kotter (1990)

House (1997) argues in similar terms like Kotter, stating that a leader provides a vision and the manager implements it and handles day-to-day problems. Kempster (2009), who in his work focussed on top management, argues that it is not so much the difference between management and leadership that needs to be discussed, but the experience itself. This ongoing discussion triggered my interest and made it a discussion topic in my research during the interviews.

2.3.3.1 The "good" leader

A second-rate executive will often try to suppress leadership because he fears it may rival his own. I have seen several instances of this. But the first-rate executive tries to develop leadership in those under him. (…) The ablest men of today have a larger aim, they wish to be leader of leaders. (Kellermann 2010, p. 95).

This discussion by Kellermann (2010) of the qualities and behaviours of a good leader was also a topic in most of my interviews. In contrast to a "good" leader, a "toxic" leadership style is sometimes mentioned. Toxic leaders are "*those individuals who, by virtue of their destructive behaviours and their dysfunctional personal qualities or characteristics, inflict serious and enduring harm on the individuals, groups, organizations, communities and even the nations that they lead*." (Lipman-Blumen, 2005, p.2)

There are also several attempts to define the ideal leader in extreme environments such as in the Antarctic (e.g., Palinkas & Suedfeld, 2007; Morrell & Capparell, 2001), among combat aircrews (e.g., Halpin, 1954), mountaineering (e.g., Bonington, 1987) and in combat

(Anderson, 1980; Otis, 1950). Table 4 below shows a summary of a "good" leader in extreme settings, a question, which has been a topic within the interviews with expedition leaders in this research as well (Chapter 4, Section 4.1.5.2). This research focusses rather on leadership effectiveness, which does not necessarily correspond to the "ideal" leader.

Attributes of "Good" Leaders in Extreme Settings

Personal Attributes
    Highly task oriented and industrious
    Aggressive
    Self-reliance and self-confidence in the lonely responsibility of command
    High need for dominance
    Emotional control
    Flexible
    Impartial
Task management and leadership style
    Flexible, though predominantly democratic
    Able to tolerate intimacy and status leveling without losing authority or respect of the group
    Able to delegate responsibility and trusts followers
    Encourages discussion and involves others in decision making as appropriate
    Defines and reinforces expected norms
Group maintenance skills
    Works to maintain harmony in the group
    Concerned for subordinates overall well-being
    Sensitive to clique rivalries
    Frequent contact with subordinates
    Liked by followers

Table 4: Attributes of "Good" Leaders in Extreme Settings
(Fisher, 2010, p. 92)

The discussions of the "qualities" of a good leader (Table 4) still often relate to trait theories (Stogdill, 1974), but also behavioural theories (Blake & Mouton, 1964). The latter have proven to be a better indicator for a leader effectiveness than traits (De Rue et al. 2010).

2.3.3.2 The effective leader

A discussion of such qualities took place during the interviews with the expedition leaders and will be mentioned in Chapter 4 (Section 4.1.5.2) in more detail.

Another finding in relation to the leader was that the assessment of the leaders by his followers greatly differed, depending on the context although the behaviour did not change. Flanagan (1952) realized during his military research that leaders who took fast decisions, prompt action, and build a structure in threatening situations, were seen as more effective than those military leaders who delayed action. On the other hand, officers who used

consultative power in non-crisis situations were considered more effective by their followers. In crisis situations, however, this style showed no correlation with effectiveness (Mulder, 1986). This led to the belief that different leadership styles might be required at different moments during extreme events. This might be linked to the fact that leadership is contextualized differently before, during, and after extreme events (Hannah et al., 2009). Some of these findings were reflected in the interview guideline, when situations before and after critical events have been described by the expedition leaders (Chapter 4, Section 4.3.3, p. 206), but also the way how decisions were taken depending on the situational context.

2.3.4   Leadership development

Learning is subdivided into the different concepts of social, situational and personal learning and cognition. Social learning is based on understanding by observing, including the notion of self-efficacy. Situational learning is based on participation, cognition and memory, which analyses how external stimuli are translated into internal learning patterns. All these concepts are interlinked and in the centre is experience - personal learning. Figure 5 shows how individuals learn (Kempster, 2009).
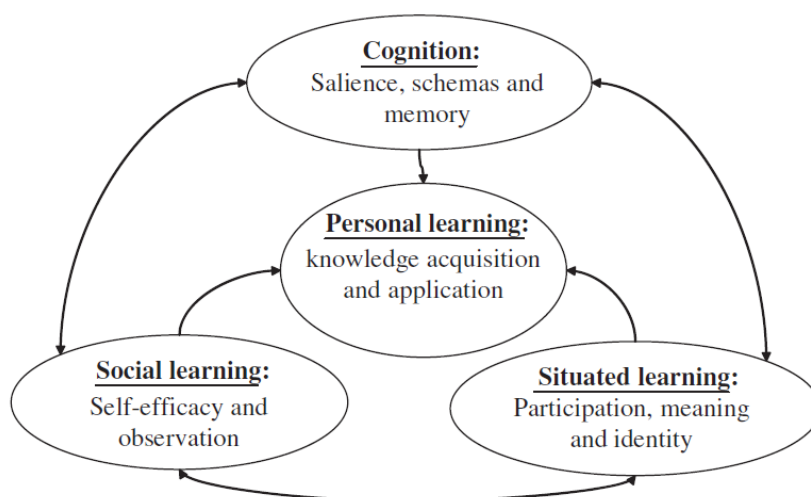
Figure 5: Learning concepts
(Kempster, 2009, p.53)

Kempster also states that there are not enough empirical studies on leadership learning about lived experiences to clarify the topic (Kempster, 2009, p.14). This study of the experiences of mountain leaders through their own books and through interviews contributes to this learning about lived experiences. This will show the connection between Kempster's acknowledgment of this lack and the findings of this research, which seeks to fill

this gap. Also, part of my objective is to show how leaders learn and to provide some indication how mid-level managers become top managers.

Nicholson & West (1988) suggest that challenging experiences could lead to significant development of leadership ability. After having analysed the data of more than 2000 managers, they came up with several core elements of powerful development experiences, such as job transitions, levels of authorities, managing diversity, adverse business conditions or lack of management support.

> *"Specialist to Generalist:*
>
> *Understand the mental models, tools, and terms used in key business functions and develop templates for evaluating the leaders of those functions.*
>
> ***Analyst to Integrator:*** *Integrate the collective knowledge of cross-functional teams and make appropriate trade-offs to solve complex organizational problems.*
>
> ***Tactician to Strategist:***
>
> *Shift fluidly between the details and the larger picture, perceive important patterns in complex environments, and anticipate and influence the reactions of key external players.*
>
> ***Bricklayer to Architect:*** *Understand how to analyse and design organizational systems so that strategy, structure, operating models, and skill bases fit together effectively and efficiently, and harness this understanding to make needed organizational changes.*
>
> ***Problem Solver to Agenda Setter:*** *Define the problems the organization should focus on, and spot issues that don't fall neatly into any one function but are still important.*
>
> ***Warrior to diplomat:***
>
> *Proactively shape the environment in which the business operates by influencing key external constituencies, including the government, NGOs, the media, and investors. Supporting cast member to lead role: Exhibit the right behaviours as a role model for the organization and learn to communicate with and inspire large groups of people both directly and, increasingly, indirectly."*

Table 5: Seven seismic shifts from managers to leaders
(Watkins, 2012, pp.4)

Certain experiences in general management theory are said to have a greater impact than others. McCall (2010) collected and clustered such experiences to create a list of experiences, which have substantial impact on the development of a leader (Table 6).

It is the quality and type of experience, which makes the difference as to whether they contribute to the learning curve of a leader or not.

"Setting the stage	**Hardships**
Early work experiences	*Traumatic events*
First supervisory job	*Career setbacks*
Leading by persuasion	*Changing jobs*
Special projects	*Mistakes*
Staff assignments	*Difficult subordinates*
Headquarters posting	*Culture shock*
Leading on line	***Miscellaneous events***
Start-ups	*Courses and programs*
Turnarounds	*Family, school, community*
Growing the business	
Other people	
Excellent bosses	
Terrible bosses	

Table 6: Experiences with leadership development
adapted from McCall et al., (1988) and McCall and Hollenbeck (2002) in (McCall, 2010, p.685)

McCall (2010) argues that these types of "valuable" experience are not always available at hand to develop someone. Also, this value of "experience" in learning to lead is intuitive but not straightforward when it comes to arguments and proof of evidence. This is called "The Experience Conundrum", stating that leading cannot be taught in the classroom and learning can only take place through experience (McCall, 2010). *"Some people have twenty years of experience, while others have one year of experience twenty times. Experience is said to be the best teacher, yet the number of years of experience does not predict expert performance, executive effectiveness, or, ironically, teaching ratings."* (McCall, 2010, p.679). Therefore, it is not only the experience, which helps the learning process, but the quality of the experience.

2.3.5   Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is a widely studied leadership theory (Yukl, 2010). Burns (1978) first introduced the concept of transforming leadership in contrast to transactional leadership more than 50 years ago. Bass (1985) then further developed the nature of transformational leadership. He also argued that transactional leadership constitutes a relevant aspect of effective leadership and developed the theory categorizing transformational leadership transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership.

Bass and Riggio (2006) argued that transformational leadership is defined by change and transformation. According to Bass (1985) transformational leadership behaviours consist of four components (idealized influence, individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation), which address the higher-level needs of followers for self-realization (Hackman & Johnson, 2013). There are many ways transformational leaders can act. They can provide individual feedback to their followers, acknowledge their accomplishments, involve them in decisions, and help them with opportunities to develop (Fuller et al., 2006; Grover, 2013; Sommer & Kulkarni, 2012). These measures are likely to make employees feel that they have an elevated status in the workplace, thereby making them more likely to reciprocate with improved performance. The following theories in Table 7 are considered relevant to this research.

Transformational leadership attributes	Servant leadership attributes
Idealized (charismatic) influence	Influence
Vision	*Vision*
Trust	*Trust*
Respect	Credibility and competence
Risk-sharing	Delegation
Integrity	*Honesty and integrity*
Modeling	*Modeling* and visibility
	Service
Inspirational motivation	
Commitment to goals	Stewardship
Communication	Communication
Enthusiasm	
Intellectual stimulation	
Rationality	Persuasion
Problem solving	*Pioneering*
Individualized consideration	*Appreciation of others*
Personal attention	Encouragement
Mentoring	Teaching
Listening	Listening
Empowerment	*Empowerment*

Table 7: The difference between transformational and servant leadership attributes
Stone et al. (2003) p. 353

Sometimes servant leadership theory is considered a part of transformational leadership (Stone et al., 2004; Reinke, 2004). It seems that transformational leadership and servant leadership have many similarities. Stone et al. (2004) argue that the difference depends on the extent to which a leader can change the leadership focus from the organization to the follower.

2.3.6 Servant leadership

"The servant-leader is servant first (…). It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice begins one to aspire to lead. That person is sharply different from one who is leader first, perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions. For such it will be a later choice to serve – after leadership is established. The leader first and the servant-first are two extreme types. (…) The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant first to make sure that other people´s highest priority needs are being served." (Greenleaf, 1977, p.22)

Servant leadership is seen as a logical development of transformational leadership (Stone et al. 2004). The main difference is the focus of the leader. Servant leaders lead an organization with a focus on their followers, as opposed to transformational leaders who focus on results (Stone et al., 2003). There is no consensus on the definition of servant leadership and servant leadership theory is being researched in different contexts using multiple measures to explore servant leadership (Parris & Peachey, 2012). Servant leadership theory is usually discussed by citing one or all three of the following: Greenleaf (1977), Spears (1995, 1998, 2004), and Laub (1999). Generally, authors describe servant leadership by quoting one of these three authors, but Greenleaf (1977) is seen as the founder of the servant leadership idea (Spears, 1995, 1996). He suggested that the main goal of leadership is to fulfil the needs of others. Stone et al. (2004) propose that whereas the focus of the transformational leader is the organization, the focus of the servant leader is the followers. Spears (1995, 1998, 2004) identified ten characteristics of servant leaders from Greenleaf's research. Laub (1999) introduced the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA). The OLA assesses and defines an organization based upon six servant-minded areas by exploring the perceptions of top managers the employees, but not the servant leadership of an individual leader.

Greenleaf (1977) states that the followers have to grant the authority to the leader to be led, which underlines the servant stature of the leader. This leads to the assumption that this leader is a leader of a bigger group of those led and acting for a higher goal. It does not imply that this would be addressed to a team leader, but rather to a top executive. Also, the interpretation of Parris implies that servant leadership addresses top executives, "*Servant leadership theory's emphasis on service to others and recognition that the role of organizations is to create people who can build a better tomorrow resonates with scholars*

and practitioners who are responding to the growing perceptions that corporate leaders have become selfish and who are seeking a viable leadership theory to help resolve the challenges of the twenty-first century." (Parris, 2012, p. 378).

From the quotes and comments of the authors there seems a strong case for the work to have focussed on senior leaders, although such works do not specifically say so. By providing practical examples, Follett (1933) already observed that an active self-willed obedience is being created instead of a passive obedience. Therefore, she argues, the task of the leader is to help his followers to solve their problems alone and ultimately to train them to become leaders themselves. This view relates largely to "direct reports" of the leader. Stogdill and Shartle (1948) also believe that the use of power and leadership will have a lasting effect on the direct reports rather than all other employees in the company. Pelzer (1952) assumes that the strongest influence of immediate leaders is on their direct reports and on their work satisfaction and employee morale (Elias, 2008). These thoughts are also well reflected in the "Leadership Paradox" (Chatman & Kennedy, 2010; Greenleaf, 1977).

Leaders also need to embrace the paradox of leadership: that their success is unequivocally derived through others. (…) Leaders have arrived in their position by virtue of their exceptional individual contributions (…). Yet, leading others requires recognizing that their main role is to set the context for others to do excellent work. (Greenleaf, 1977, p.20)

Servant leadership might help an executive to avoid the leadership paradox because it helps top managers to focus on the performance of the company and the needs of the followers rather than on his or her own performance or image (Bower, 1997).

Follett (1933) also anticipated later theories regarding transformational and servant leadership. Although her argument reflected the Great Man or Trait theory, she already defined parts of situational leadership theory, not only because of her acknowledgement of different situations which demand different leadership styles, but also in the opinion that they need to foresee all the future trends and bring them together to lead (Kellermann, 2010). In an even more radical view, Follett argued that the power of followers towards the leader needs to be considered. Up to that point, followers were attributed a powerless role. She argues that this is not enough and that followers had the power to play an active part in helping the leader keep control of a given situation. The learning is reflected in the view of Benfari et al. (1986) and his concept of group power, which is formed by and through the

group. The influence of the followers and their power will be reflected again upon in Chapter 2 Section 2.6.2 and Chapter 4, 4.1.6 when the topic of temporary power is discussed.

Turner and Hamstra (2018) analysed the concept of servant leadership as a new leadership style for officers in the US military context and how it can help to improve officer retention and build loyalty. They describe servant leadership as an inverted pyramid with the troops on top and the commanders at the bottom. Patterson (2005) defined seven behaviours and their interactions, which the servant leader uses. These are: love, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment and service. Servant leaders develop relationships where followers are encouraged to follow, and they derive influence from service itself. For Kellermann followers are defined according to their rank: *They are low in the hierarchy and have less power, authority, and influence than their superiors. They generally go along to get along, particularly with those in higher positions. In the workplace, they may comply so as not to put money or stature at risk.* (Kellermann, 2007, p.2)

The resources, which a leader uses to influence the team are referred to as "power bases", are discussed in Section 2.3.8 (Dalglish & Miller, 2010). Servant leadership can transform organizations into a place where individuals are not afraid of taking risks and feel free to make mistakes, a condition that is necessary for learning (Dierendonck, 2011). Servant-power is a kind of influence outside the traditional categories of power, as described in Section 2.3.8. (McKenna, 1989). Servant leadership is a leadership approach which is built on the idea of self-giving without self-glory and a servant leader wishes to emotionally engage and help his followers (Wheeler, 2011). They will empower their followers and support them in their professional and personal growth. A combination of humility and action seems to be the most important factor to obtain engagement, especially in the higher hierarchical levels, whereas with managers in lower levels, the more action-oriented version of servant leadership might be enough to engage employees (Sousa & Dierendock, 2015). Leaders assume a traditional role to set the vision, and strategy for the organization. After having done this, they turn the organizational pyramid upside down so that they serve their staff who ultimately serve their customers. The leader's role to support the implementation is considered the servant aspect of servant leadership (Blanchard & Broadwell, 2018).

There are also several non-corporate examples of applied servant leadership. Reinke (2004) empirically tested an army unit to find out whether defined servant leadership traits

(openness, stewardship, vision) lead to a culture of trust within the military. She found out that this servant leadership model was "clearly related" to trusting relationships and improved organization performance. Also, a study by Joseph and Winston (2005) confirmed a correlation between perceived servant leadership qualities and trust in leaders. Servant leadership, including empathy and compassion, might create a healthy working environment but also transfers a sense of cohesiveness and collaboration to the followers. Servant leaders respect the feelings and emotions of their followers. Such behaviour has been shown to have positive impact on performance and effectiveness (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Ehrhart, 2004; Mayer et al., 2008; McCuddy & Cavin, 2008).

Where transformational leadership principles are applied to servant leadership, they can provide a base to a healthy leader-follower relationship. This could also be seen during the journey of the arctic explorer Shackelton, where the principles of servant leadership (such as empathy, stewardship and building community) were critical in the success of the survival of the crew (Morell, 2002). His crew truly was devoted to him, trusted and followed him. Only because they saw in him a trustworthy leader, who had promised to come back and rescue them, they could keep the motivation to survive a bitter cold winter under the most difficult conditions.

Cox & Warn (2019), in a more recent publication, reformulate several leadership challenges, also based on the story of Ernest Shackelton. They distil lessons learned from the journey in the Antarctic of Shackelton and regroup these leadership lessons into seven topics, the 7Cs (context, consciousness, character, confidence, courage, commitment, capability), which have some similarity to some of the characteristics of servant leadership. They underline in this analysis that Shackelton had to adapt his leadership focus several times because of unexpected setbacks. The "*Seven Seas*" (7Cs) metaphor (p. 9) also states that leadership often is most valued when it is in new and challenges environments and on the borderline of the understanding a changing world (Cox & Warn, 2019).

<u>Critique of Servant-Leadership</u>

Servant-leadership has generally been criticized for the lack of empirical support and structure (Northouse, 2010). Eicher & Catt (2005) for example claimed that there was no coherent conceptual framework, which is seen similarly by van Dierendonck & Heeren (2006). They argued that servant-leadership research has lacked an integrated theoretical

development. Servant leadership theory has also been criticised for being unapplicable in the real business world. Lee and Zemke (1993) argue that servant leadership theory shifts away from the old paradigm of a hierarchical organization, it *"ignores accountability and the underlying fundamental aggression of people in the workplace."* (Lee, Zemke, 1993, p.3).

In response to this critique several scholars (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Laub 1999; Liden et al., 2008; Page & Wong, 2000; Patterson, 2004; van Dierendonck, 2010) have concentrated in the conceptualisation and operationalisation of servant-leadership into tools, research and theoretical models. Also, Parris & Peachey (2012) confirm this assessment in their research and note that servant leadership theory is still not clearly defined, nor does it have a clear theoretical framework but maybe could serve as an ethical base for a leadership framework, thereby helping to address the challenges of the twenty-first century: *"Servant leadership contrasts, traditional leader-first paradigms, which applaud a Darwinism, individualistic, and capitalist approach to life, implicating that only the strong will survive"*. (Parris & Peachey, 2012; p. 390). I believe this is a good reason to use a servant leadership framework despite its criticism.

Women and servant leadership

The topic of women and leadership will be discussed later in Section 2.5.2 . The relationship between women leaders and servant leadership should be noted. Research around leadership and feminism has different facets. Some see gender differences as the basis for feminist research (Eagly & Sczesny, 2009), others analyse on the role of gender in leadership (Parker, 2005) and others research whether and how language and systems are gendered (Calàs & Smircich, 1991). Some scholars argue that servant-leadership has potential as an approach to feminist leadership (Reynolds, 2016). Greenleaf's theory of servant leadership has a lot in common with feminist theory, but he never addressed the gender topic. Traditionally feminine aspects of servant-leadership, such as showing empathy, active listening and supporting others, might be seen as weakness in a leader (Reynolds, 2016). In the context of leadership, women are generally seen less positive as leaders than men due to the gender role congruity (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Research shows that male leaders can use feminine behaviours and not violate gender role congruity, whereas women cannot do use masculine leadership behaviours as this would violate gender role congruity (Johanson, 2008). Nevertheless, generally feminine behaviour is usually negatively perceived in leadership theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The gendered interpretation in the servant-

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leadership style is a paradox, which is revealed by deconstructing the servant-leadership wording. It lies in the attribution of "the feminine to servant and the masculine to leader" (Eicher-Catt, 2005). She argued that because of the cultural embedding of masculine and feminine the servant-leadership discourse could never be gender-neutral or without gender. Although Greenleafs' writing did not include any feminist discussion or intention of addressing gender topics, the servant-leadership approach includes values that are compatible with feminism.

2.3.7 Distributed leadership

"Distributed leadership is first and foremost about leadership practice rather than leaders or their roles, functions, routines, and structures. Though they are important considerations, leadership practice is still the starting point" (Spillane, 2005; p. 144)

Although stories on heroic leadership genre persist, resonating closely with antiquated archaic leader archetypes of greatness and glory, (Barnard, 1938; Gronn, 2009) and although there is still a focus on individual leaders, there seems to be a change to a more collective theoretical view through theories of shared leadership (Avolio et al., 2003; Conger & Pearce, 2003; Houghton et al., 2003; Pearce, 2003). Whereas the previous theories usually deal with the "What" (structures, functions, routines, and roles), the latter focus on the "How" things happened in an organization (Jones, 2014). Distributed leadership is sometimes used interchangeably with "shared leadership", "team leadership" or "democratic leadership", but findings indicate that whilst there are some common theoretical bases, the relative usage of these concepts varies over time, between countries and between sectors (Bolden, 2011). Others argue that it depends on the situational context. Although a distributed perspective might allow for shared leadership, a team leadership approach does not necessarily involve a distributed perspective (interaction of leaders, followers, and situation). Also, a distributed leadership can be democratic or autocratic in its style (Spillane, 2005). This provides a base for different types of leaders depending on circumstances (Day et al., 2004). Distributed leadership is described as *"a dynamic interactive influence process among individuals in groups from which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both. This process often involves peer, or lateral, influence as well as upward or downward hierarchical influence*." (Pearce & Conger, 2003).

Gronn (2009) argues that when scholars accord legitimacy to "distribution of leadership" they only catch up with previous developments in the closely related conceptual domains of power and influence (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.6). Among scholars of sociology and political science, discussions on the "distribution of power" and "distribution of influence" are quite common (Gronn, 2003, pp. 60–62) and Follett's (1933) work on reciprocal influence is closely related (see also Section 2.3.6). Also, it seems that the ideas of some early management research theory and current understandings of distributed leadership do not exclude each other, but rather form a continuum. The theory of distributed leadership can accommodate a variety of analyses, which find themselves somewhere in between concentrated and dispersed leadership (Gronn, 2009). Given the conceptual links between shared leadership and longstanding organizational phenomena such as power and influence, the question is how the idea of shared leadership adds value. It seems that "*distributed leadership has helped to expose limitations inherent in leadership understood individually and has tempered its rather inflated view of human agency"*. (Gronn, 2009; p. 198).

Recent developments argue that shared leadership not only implies collective leadership actions, but has also individual leadership needs in order to adapt to different contexts and environments (Jones, 2014). Gronn (2009) has consequently renamed distributed leadership as "hybrid leadership" to indicate that this type of leadership reflects the needs of a modern organization and can accommodate a range of circumstances and situations. This is underlined by the findings of Jones (2014), who argued that distributed leadership can enable the expertise of more people to be acknowledged and to influence change. It did not work, however, without continuous support and visible endorsement from the top. She suggests that a distributed leadership approach is rather a supplement to than a substitute for traditional individual leadership theories. This finding corresponds to the emergent theoretical literature that shared leadership can help to involve people more, but not necessarily for a more democratic decision-making process. (Jones, 2014).

Therefore, I would argue that shared leadership is not replacing all individualistic leadership theories, but rather building on them, especially taking into consideration its importance for leadership practise and the focus of this research in mountaineering.

2.3.8 Ethical, authentic, and value leadership

Ethical leadership

Ethical leadership as the "*demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making*" (Brown et al. 2005, p. 120) has gained interest due to the trust crisis in corporates since 2008 (Moreno, 2010). Research found that one major problem of organizations is the decline in ethical behaviour and ethical leadership (Plinio, 2010). The gap between what leaders say and what they do creates ethical dilemmas for followers (see also authentic leadership, Section 2.3.8.). Ethical leaders at the top, find their followers by using ethical behaviour, high morality, and doing what they say (Monahan, 2012). An ethical decision-making process involves several steps including complications and contextual pressures, "*Individuals may not have the cognitive sophistication to make the right decision. And most people will be influenced by peers' and leaders' words and actions, and by concerns about the consequences of their behaviour in the work environment.*" (Brown et al., 2005, p. 71).

Transformational leadership (Section 2.3.1), servant leadership (Section 2.3.2) and authentic leadership (Section 2.3.3) focus on the influence of the leaders on the (un)ethical behaviour of followers. Ethical leaders are said to explicitly respect high ethical standards through communication and specific processes (Brown et al., 2005).

An ethical leader who has power needs to be accepted as a credible, authentic and legitimate role model. "*Follower perceptions of the leader's altruistic motivation and creation of a just work environment contribute to the attractiveness, credibility, and legitimacy of the role model.*" (Brown et al. 2005, p. 130).

Moreno (2010) argues that even a small difference between what a leader says versus what he does can create ethical dilemmas for followers and a trust crisis. Moreno therefore notes that an ethical leader makes no difference between actions and words. This is similar to the definition of an authentic leader, "*Ethical leaders can influence followers by consistent conduct, proper actions, moral way of being, and doing what one says*" (Malphurs, 2004; p. 60). This reinforces the importance of values within in a leader's life, which are instilled by the means of practice. Followers observe what the leader does rather than what he says and

if his behaviour is inconsistent, his integrity is lost. Therefore, an ethical leader is developed by practice and by application of his values.

Ethical leadership shows a positive correlation to good behaviour, honesty, and fairness associated with transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Brown et al. 2005). *"(…) Ethical leadership focuses on how leaders use their social power in the decisions they make, actions they engage in and ways they influence others."* (Resick et al., 2006; pp. 345). Shackleton, for example, displayed a high degree of ethical leadership, when he promised his team, whom he left on a remote island, to come back and save them. He took up the tiring journey again, once he was already back in safety to sail back and get his men (Morrell & Capparell, 2001). Also, Bonington showed ethical leadership behaviour, when he raced down the mountain, risking his life, in order to organize a rescue for another expedition member, who was severely injured high on the mountain (Venables, 2001).

Authentic leadership

"Authentic", according to Gruenfeld, means "*acting in a way that feels truthful, candid, and connected to who you really are is important, and is a leadership quality worth aspiring to*" (Gruenfeld, 2011) and could be considered a part of ethical leadership. It is also suggested, however, that authentic leadership does not necessarily include a moral part. A person could be true to a bad value system and still be authentic (Shamir & Eilam, 2005, p.395), which is not necessarily positive.

Bill George, former CEO of Medtronic and a professor of management practice at Harvard Business School, observed: *After years of studying leaders and their traits, I believe that leadership begins and ends with authenticity. This is not what most of the literature on leadership says, nor is it what the experts in corporate America teach. Instead, they develop lists of leadership characteristics one is supposed to emulate. They describe the styles of leaders and suggest that you adopt them. This is the opposite of authenticity (…) they focus on the style of leaders, not their character.* (Zupan, 2010, p.285)

It is quite clear, however, that authenticity and leading by example add to the credibility of a leader (George, 2015; Gruenfeld, 2011; Ibarra, 2015; Zupan, 2010). This concept will be discussed further in Section 5.2.5.2. Establishing authenticity as a leader has two parts (Goffee, Jones, 2005). First, one needs to make sure that words are consistent with the deeds. Second, the leader needs to get people to follow him and to relate to him, which means that one must find common ground with the people you seek to recruit as followers.

The authentic leadership theory (ALT) model is another model often applied in the context of authentic leadership (Tourish, 2019). It consists of four dimensions: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing and an internalised moral perspective that supports ethical decision making. The question remains whether a single person can fulfil all these requirements. Tourish states that authentic leaders therefore must be nearly superhumans, so perfect that they become "*paragons of perfection and candidates for canonization.*" (p. 165)

This ethical, positive side of leadership derives originally from Burns' (1978) transformational leadership, which proposed that this had an inherently ethical component. In due course the notion of "authentic transformational leadership" emerged. In his "*(In)authentic leadership theory*" Tourish (2019) criticised the concept of authentic leadership and the ALT model as a "*little more than a series of fables, designed to reassure us that leadership is simpler than it is and that introspection can lead us all to salvation such idealized notions of authentic leadership overlook the role of power in the co-construction of leader*" (Tourish, 2019; p. 172). Tourish states that the philosopher Martin Heidegger wrote that "*people are neither authentic or inauthentic, but rather more or less so*" (Tourish, 2019; p. 170).

There can also be a negative connotation to "authentic" if the "authentic" leader's real "him" is a problematic person. So, it is not simply enough to be "as you are" without trying to improve yourself. Furthermore, leaders need to better understand what "authentic" means, since not doing so might hinder their growth and limit their impact. Ibarra (2015) calls this the "Authenticity Paradox" describing two types of authentic leaders: "low self-monitors" and "high self-monitors." The former type expresses whatever comes to mind, whereas the latter take care what they say and how it impacts others. This distinction shows a false dichotomy since a low self-monitoring individual is the opposite of authentic and demonstrates insensitivity to the feelings of other people. This has already been discussed by Goffman (1956) who recognized this a long time ago, when he described social interaction as a performance in which all participants play a role on the stage.

A criticism of authentic leadership is that it is not precise (Ford & Harding, 2011) regarding how an authentic leader can adapt to different situations and change according to different followers and at the same time remain authentic (Goffee, Jones, 2005, 2006). Another argument against the concept of authentic leadership is that usually tautologies are

used to prove the authenticity of a leader (Tourish, 2019). Some hypotheses, propositions and statements found in publications he deems to be not more than tautologies, e.g., *"trustworthy leaders are more trusted than untrustworthy ones, it is scarcely surprising that you will succeed."* (Tourish, 2019; pp. 175). He explains this with the widespread confusion between correlation and causation, even in many academic publications. Rosenzweig (2014) offers a critical insight, when he analysed the careers of business leaders and found out that although the behaviours of them had not changed, they were described differently in the media, depending on their knowledge of business results. He argues that one tends to over-attribute responsibility for business outcomes to the leaders.

Generally speaking, Hoch et al. (2016) compare the three emerging forms of positive leadership that focus on ethical ideas (i.e., servant leadership, authentic leadership, ethical leadership) and reflections on transformational leadership. An overlap between transformational leadership and these newer leadership forms has been noted, but there has been little research on the empirical relationship with transformational leadership and the question of whether these leadership forms explain variance beyond transformational leadership. Hoch et al. (2016) show that only servant leadership can be used to explain these variances. Any overlap is simply because authentic leadership incorporates transformational or ethical leadership.

Values leadership

Another similar perspective on leadership is values leadership. In this case, leadership is seen as a reciprocal connection between the leaders and the followers. Leaders in this case try to achieve their personal goals, organizational goals, and the goals of their followers. Value based leaders merge people's concepts and development as well as their growth (Stewart, 2006). These leaders are the value setters and spokespersons for the values that they have set, and the outcomes held in common with other group members. These shared values are the guiding principles of the leaders and their followers towards the agreed outcomes. The value leadership approach contends that leaders need to integrate a variety of individual needs into a cultural unity and the shared values guide their individual behaviours as well as the behaviours of their followers towards an agreed outcome. Shackelton, for example, displayed this kind of leadership style, when he made the well-being, morale and safety of his crew his top-priority and allowed everyone in the ship a voice (Morell & Caperell, 2002

and Section 2.3.6, p. 32).

Another perspective in a leadership view is trust. In an approach based on trust, the leader shows willingness to commit to a relationship before knowing its outcome. As stated earlier, if the individuals and collective actions of employees and leaders in an organization are aligned with the organizational culture, this results in mutual trust between the leaders and their followers (Stewart, 2006). Gleeson (2017) also recommends communicating the values at all opportunities and paying specific attention to the recruiting process in order to make sure the company culture is protected. Leaders who use this approach ensure that their employees share a mutual understanding and that they accept and appreciate the culture of the organization. Trust is also an important factor for remote communication, as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.4.5 and Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2.1.

2.3.9   Conversation leadership

Biraghi et al. (2017) claim that there has been a shift in focus of leadership from the traits and the personality, the behaviours, and the situation to the way of exercising leadership. This has created a constructionist perspective that sees leadership within a context and considers the person and the context as interwoven social constructs.

Conversational leadership, which implies commitment and an interest in human dynamics (Grosberg & Slind, 2012), helps to promote more democratic processes, away from a pure top-down monologue and allows for more democratic participation in the process (Raelin, 2012). This is essential to deal with a contextual environment, which is constantly redefined. It also seems that the rise of conversational leadership is a constructionist response to the rise of organizational complexity (Biraghi et al., 2017). In that sense, a conversational leader could be understood as an executive characterized by the capability to form relationships with people through conversations and to achieve hard corporate results by mastering soft skills.

Leaders today, who consider communication a top priority, engage with employees as a two-way conversation rather than giving orders in the old command style. Furthermore, conversational leaders start practices and support cultural norms creating a conversational sensibility throughout the organization (Groysberg & Slind, 2012). One benefit of this leadership method is that it allows a large or rapidly growing company to operate similarly to a small one. Four basic elements of organizational conversation can be defined with this

leadership style: intimacy, interactivity, inclusion, and intentionality (Groysberg & Slind, 2012). Leaders who use conversation-based practices may use some or all of these interdependent elements which form an integrated process. Conversational leadership is the emergent constructionist response to the dramatic increase of organizational and stakeholder complexity (Biraghi et al., 2017). Conversational leadership should not be an art supported by soft skills, but by helping to achieve corporate results. Personal conversation flourishes so that the participants stay close to each other, figuratively as well as literally. Similarly, organizational conversation requires leaders to minimize the distances, whether institutional, attitudinal or sometimes physical, that typically separate them from their employees.

Where conversational intimacy prevails, those with decision-making authority seek and earn the trust, and therefore the careful attention, of those who work under that authority. They do this by cultivating the art of listening to people at all levels of the organization and by learning to speak with employees directly and authentically. Mental and emotional proximity is important (Gynsberg & Slind, 2012).

2.3.9.1 Active listening

"Listening well. Leaders who take organizational conversation seriously know when to stop talking and start listening. Few behaviours enhance conversational intimacy as much as attending to what people say. True attentiveness signals respect for people of all ranks and roles, a sense of curiosity, and even a degree of humility." (Gynsberg and Slind, 2012, p. 2)

The importance of active listening for leaders has also been mentioned in recent research (Riordan, 2014). There are different ways of actively listening and *"The ability and willingness to listen with empathy is often what sets a leader apart. Hearing words is not adequate; the leader truly needs to work at understanding the position and perspective of the others involved in the* conversation" (Riordan, 2014, p.3). Nulty (1994) even positions the ability to listen as a distinguishing part between an ordinary and a great leader stating that most leaders remain ordinary leaders because they listen only sometimes, but some are always listening, and they are the great leaders. *"They are hear-aholics, ever alert, bending their ears while they work and while they play, while they eat and while they sleep. They listen to advisers, to customers, to inner voices, to enemies, to the wind. That´s how they get word before anyone else of unseen*

problems and opportunities". (Nulty, 1994, p.118). And Bower (1997) describes the value of active listening and emphasizes that, *"Active listening helps the other person that he or she is being heard and understood. That involves not only paying close attention, but also asking brief, nonleading questions. These convey interest and understanding without necessarily implying agreement."* (Bower, 1997, p.9).

2.3.9.2 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is also critically important for corporate leadership, as outlined by Mayer et al. (2002) in their MSC-Emotional intelligence test. The authors define four branches[2] along which the criteria are assessed. Another model introduced by Goleman (2000) distinguishes four different abilities that comprise emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management). He defines emotional intelligence as *"the ability to manage ourselves and our relationships effectively"* (Goleman, 2000, p.80) and confirms that it takes a high commitment to improve this over time. It is not easy but possible, because emotional intelligence can be learned and improved at all ages and is not as genetic as IQ. *"Growing your emotional intelligence takes practice and commitment. But the payoffs are well worth the investment."* (Goleman, 2000, p.88). Others emphasize that successful leaders have the ability to manage their emotions and those of others to positively influence the corporate space (Gardner & Stough, 2002).

An indicator of emotional intelligence is the applied leadership style. People who show passive forms of non-leadership could be interpreted as having low emotional intelligence and would not make effective leaders (Gardner, Stough, 2002). The above attributes are all relevant to a servant leader who creates a sense of cohesiveness, collaboration, and sustainable relationships among the followers by understanding and addressing their feelings and emotions. (Jit et al., 2017)

All this shows that emotional intelligence, empathy and active listening are not only relevant in the expedition environment, but also important concepts in corporate leadership.

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[2] Perceiving emotions, using emotion to facilitate thought, understanding emotions and managing emotions

2.3.10 "In extremis" leadership

2.3.10.1 Extreme events

As Hannah et al. (2009) noted, the number of extreme stories, which are used to explain leadership would suggest that there has been a lot of research done in this field. This, however, is not the case. Leadership in extreme contexts is a little researched area (Hannah et al., 2009). While extreme events are seldom in many organizations, they are quite common in some environments, such as in military, medical, mountain rescue or fire-worker organizations. It is true, however, that extreme events can occur in any organization, regardless of acting in an extreme context.

Leadership studies in extreme contexts have been identified as an area of growing interest. It has several important implications for public and corporate organizations, which involve leading in dangerous, unpredictable environments (Morrell & Capparell, 2001). One leadership approach that could be applied in the mountaineering environment is "in extremis leadership (IEL) defined "*as giving purpose, motivation, and direction to people when there is eminent physical danger, and where followers believe that leader behaviour will influence their physical well-being or survival*" (Kolditz & Brazil, 2005, p. 347). This theory describes the type of leadership that is used in life threatening circumstances and which offers helpful models for more mundane situations. Although Sorokin (1943) had already carried out some important studies regarding reactions in extreme situations in 1943, when he examined the reactions of groups to catastrophic events, leadership approaches in extreme situations were rarely addressed in leadership research (Dixon et al., 2017). More importantly any leadership theory for extreme contexts should never be generalized, but that "*different forms of extreme contexts exist, and different types of organizations engage in extreme contexts; with both creating patterns of dynamics that influence leadership through unique contingencies, constraints and causation.*" (Hannah et. al., 2009, p. 897)

There is little empirical evidence on leadership *in extremis* situations, which in the context of crisis management is also relevant for corporate management. The extremis leadership approach focuses on the leader-follower relationship that emphasizes the mutual trust and respect received from humility and shared risk (Podell, 2013), which links back to the discussion of servant leadership (Section 2.3.6).

Fire fighters' accounts of leadership in extremely dangerous, ambiguous situations reveal themes of both behaviour and processes. The overall social process of leadership produces positive results during events characterized by high levels of ambiguity and risk, including the threat of physical danger (Baran, Scott, 2010). Research shows that leadership is contextualized differently before, during, and after extreme events, and that differing mixes of such leadership may also be required across time (Uhl-Bien et al., 2009).

2.3.10.2 Flexible leadership

This flexible way of leading as just described, is close to the management approaches of Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) and the Contingency Theory (Fiedler, 1967). These types of research assume that leaders or managers should adapt their style based on the circumstances (i.e., type of follower and/or external factors). It was first introduced as "life cycle of leadership" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969), which meant that one dealt with newer employees differently (more directiveness) than with more senior employees (more supportiveness). In an updated version (Blanchard, 2007, 2010) follower development becomes more important for the relationship between leader behaviour and efficiency (Thompson & Glasø, 2018). The positive contributions to the understanding of leadership are made by emphasizing the significance of flexible, adaptive behaviour, which has become an important topic in recent contingency theory research (e.g., regarding political skill) (Broueretal, 2013; Yukl, 2010). Also, the contingency theory has further developed and although the reasons for the relationships it describes might not be revealed, it is considered as a valuable "*conceptualisation of leadership effectiveness as the product of an interacting between personality and situational factors and empirical support for this proposition.*" (Fiedler, 1991, p. 503).

These different ways of reflecting on flexible leadership approaches and this way of leading inspired my conversation and was reflected in the experiences of the expedition leaders (Chapter 4, Section 4.1) and resulted in a new model (Chapter 5, Section 5.2, Figure 34, page 228).

2.3.10.3 Physical distance

Physical distance between the leader and its team is an interesting topic given the context of mountaineering, where the expedition leader often remains in the base camp and the climbers move up to the different high camps only connected by virtual communication tools. This will also be further discussed in Section 2.4.5 (remote leadership) and Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2 (remote communication). Antonakis & Atwater (2002) found out that physical distance has an influence on how leaders' behaviours are perceived and interpreted. Little (1964) found out that in war, those leaders who share all risks with their soldiers are often considered "more effective, trustworthy, and in touch". Similarly, Shamir (1995) argued that leaders, who were physically closer, were seen as more open to feedback, than those who were further away from their followers. Also, Yagil (1998) noted that leaders who were physically closer to their followers might be better role models compared to more distant leaders. Howell et al. (2005) observed that especially transformational leaders were seen more positively than those in distant positions and concluded that being physically close might help leaders with a transformational style.

Some authors (Bass, 1998; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Yagil, 1998) argue that distance might decrease the level of quality of the interactions between leaders and followers. This may be the case because the leaders have less timely information and cannot immediately provide the direction needed.

As for the frequency of communication, Klauss & Bass (1982) concluded that physical distance in general increased the need for communication but that physical distance does not necessarily translate into less effective leadership. It seems that the kind and quality of relationships built prior to an extreme event, especially trust, may be more relevant than physical distance regarding their leadership.

2.4   Corporate leadership approaches

Most leaders in the corporate world use certain leadership approaches with the aim of achieving the set objectives of the companies they are working in. Leadership in the corporate world has been broadly explored but there is no consensus on which is most effective (Martin et al., 2017). As such, there are a variety of perspectives on leadership

theory that, when taken together, can contribute to the understanding of leadership practices. Recent changes include globalization, advancement in new technologies, and the ways through which companies create value, and interact with their customers. These changes have reduced the efficacy of having a purely directive and top-down leadership approach in the corporate world (Groysberg & Slind, 2012). These authors suggest conversational leadership approaches may be the best match in the contemporary corporate environment. This suggests that a less directive and more participatory approach to leading in the workplace may be a better fit with contemporary requirements, as servant leadership also implies.

As stated in Section 2.2, leading is a process that involves influencing the activities of an organized group to achieve the set goals through communication with them. Leadership is premised on interpersonal relationships (Section 2.3.3) and for this reason a leader belongs to an organized group (Igbaekemen, 2015). In a corporate context leadership is one of the main pillars for organizational excellence and has been recognized by its inclusion in various excellence models. These are outlined in the following Section 2.3.5.1.

2.4.1   Leadership as part of excellence models

Several excellence awards were established in the corporate word in the 1980s, based on the concept of total quality management. The Malcom Baldridge National Quality Award (MBNQA, 2018) in the US and the European Foundation of Quality Excellence Award (EFQM, 2018) defined what corporate excellence in leadership signifies for them. In over 50 years of wide-ranging research, there has been no consensus as to what constitutes good or effective leadership in the corporate environment. This lack of consistency makes it challenging to compare the findings of most of the scholars and studies that focus on different behaviours (Latham, 2013b). Latham (2013a, 2013b) analyses different leadership approaches and behaviours according to one of the MBNQA model and describes their use in the transformation to performance excellence. He argues that a leader in the organization requires a variety of leadership behaviours. The first behaviour suggested is being a role model to subordinates (Latham, 2013a). Leaders should become the change that they want in organizations. Becoming a role model to others, or being the change, has a positive effect on the leaders' credibility and helps promote trust and reduce the level of resistance in the organization.

Leaders should also exhibit respect and offer others fair treatment and credit - serving the followers needs. This is in tandem with the proposal of being servant leaders, as mentioned in Section 2.3.2, and is consistent with the inspirational motivation and emphasis on other people's needs that is widely proposed in transformational leadership (Smith et al., 2004). Senior leaders in politics and in managerial positions also need to be able to motivate and inspire managers and followers.

A successful leader needs to continuously strive for performance growth and the achievement of positive results. Practicing positive behaviour and interacting with subordinates is key to this success. Humility is also an important quality and a leader is bound to fail if he does not have it, as it shows their human side and their degree of caring and concern for the team members. Leaders who have humility can connect with their followers in an emotional way while accepting mistakes and forming methods of accomplishing team goals and meeting the expectations of the organizations (Akins, Bright, Brunson, Wortham, 2013). *"Humility in the service of ambition is the most effective and sustainable mindset for leaders who aspire to do big things in a world filled with huge unknowns"* (Taylor, 2018, p. 3). This also relates to the idea of servant leadership.

Cathcart (2013) emphasizes that leaders should reflect and engage with their followers, as they can only be effective if followers have confidence in them. Reflection enables a leader to evaluate himself, especially regarding his performance, and to find out whether he has met his personal expectations. Additionally, leaders should be fully engaged with every element of leadership in the present but also be aware of the ways in which the organizational setting affects sustainable development for the future leadership. Berkley and Watson (2009) noted that employer-employee relationships are the foundation for building an organization's ethics and corporate sustainability. Leaders should also learn, empower others, possess the development skills to recognize and develop future leaders and demonstrate passion for sustainable development through motivating others (Akins, Bright, Brunson and Wortham, 2013).

Much of this is already being implemented in the corporate environment. For example, the call for diversity and equal rights for women, quotas on boards etc., although ethical behaviour is still sometimes sacrificed for the sake of results. However, greater transparency is increasing the ethical behaviour of leaders, as it is easier to penalise non-ethical behaviour.

2.4.2 Agile Leadership

Corporate leadership styles have generally become less hierarchical and more distributed, as described in Section 2.2. The same trend can also be observed in mountaineering and will be dealt with in Chapter 4. Agile leadership has also some similarities to flexible leadership discussed earlier (Section 2.3.10.2). Agile working gained importance in IT driven areas, where development cycles are complex, and an agile organization of the processes is a competitive advantage. Its origin is found in the description of the management of a large software system by Royce (1970) and has increased ever since.

According to Allsopp, agile working: *"is about bringing people, processes, connectivity and technology, time and place together to find the most appropriate and effective way of working to carry out a particular task. It is working within guidelines (of the task) but without boundaries (of how you achieve it)."* (Allsopp, 2010). An agile organization consists of a network of teams focussing on customer-centric topics. Shared and servant leadership provides a culture that permits failure and strengthens teamwork and is therefore suitable for agile leadership. Leaders motivate teams to take responsibility for strategic and organizational decisions (McKinsey, Agile Tribe, 2017). Leading and managing agile organizations brings new challenges and requires adjustments. The role and the competences of a leader will have to change if the corporate organization wants to reach its objectives (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). In a VUCA (Volatility, Uncertainty, Complexity Ambiguity) world, companies need to develop new ways of working (Bennett & Lemoine, 2014). Currently entrenched businesses, across the globe and regardless of industry, strive to reach the tempo, vigour and customer focus of digital suppliers (Ducheyne, 2017). Some companies with traditional reporting lines are not able to deal with the current changes in the environment (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). The agile leadership approach leads to a cohesive community, considering followers in a more deliberate and inclusive way and empowering them to decide and to act as a team (McKinsey, Agile Tribe, 2017). This necessitates a change in the organizational culture since it is related to change in power distribution. Companies must create an environment where teams are open to varied proposals and different opinions. Leaders are accountable for providing an environment where employees share their work experiences and are willing to communicate and participate in the team (McKinsey, Agile Tribe, 2017). Agile organizations can react quickly, and are empowered, and make it easy to act, "like a living organism" as shown in Figure 6.

Agile leadership favours an entrepreneurial drive because employees are empowered to take more responsibility and to increase their entrepreneurial ability. The guidance includes support for employees to purpose independent solutions for their day-to-day work (McKinsey, Agile Tribe, 2017).

The individual occupational career and the requirements for leaders are changing profoundly in an agile environment. For example, a controller will not necessarily aim to become a Chief Financial Officer but might want to develop into other non-financial functions. In an agile corporate organization, employees will be encouraged to move within the given hierarchy, but also sideways to gain more work experience. To enable employees to ensure *role mobility,* the competitive environment becomes more transparent regarding employee's capabilities and career objectives (McKinsey Agile Tribe, 2017).
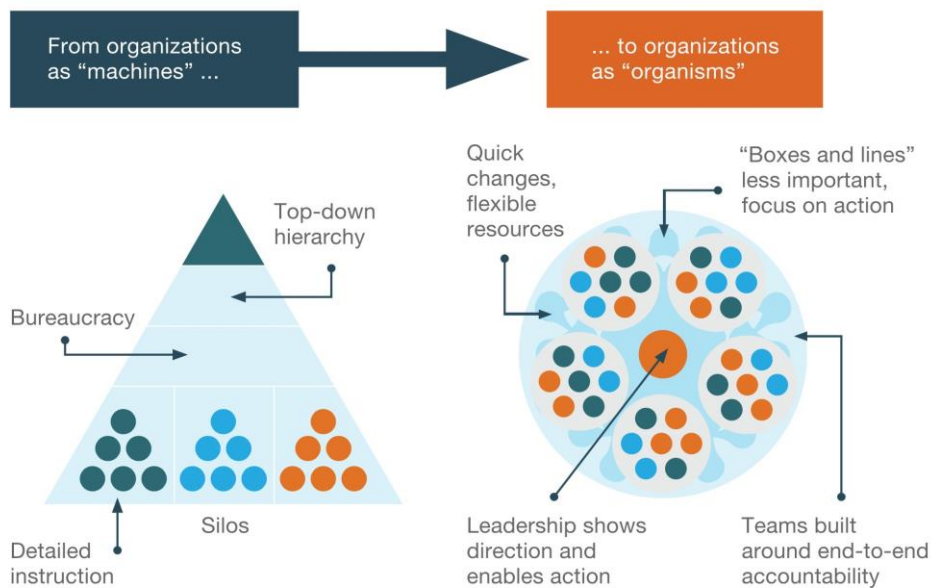
Figure 6: The agile organization as a living organism
(Aghina et al., 2018, p.5)

It is important for leaders to form an inclusive and collaborative environment where employees feel that they have a part to play in the future of the organization (Chahal, 2016).

2.4.3 Corporate leadership development

These different perspectives of leadership show some of the best, but no one can use them all. It has been noted that leadership capacity is founded on a person's self-awareness and self-confidence and their ability to take a broad view of life, work in a social system, think creatively and learn (servant leadership, distributed leadership, transformational leadership,

ethical leadership, authentic leadership).

Nevertheless, assessing leadership potential in all these approaches is quite cumbersome. Hence, the above-mentioned approaches would benefit from a behaviourally based approach, which assesses the behaviours of individuals instead of broad personality constructs. The ability to work in current social systems needs to take a behavioural point of view in assessing leadership in the corporate world. Furthermore, current society requires that leadership needs more than just classroom training (van Velsor et al., 2010). Educational learning systems for leaders should increase leadership capacity in the organization by promoting individual leadership behaviour. This could include teamwork, team leadership, development opportunities, and team psychological safety, i.e., addressing the needs and demands of the followers in a more democratic and participatory way. Moreover, leadership is a day-to-day interactive process that involves various tools to support the performance of leaders in the organization, including supportive communication techniques and the interaction of the leaders with their staff. This implies that they assist in improving corporate leaders' abilities, strengths and competencies (Reichwald et al., 2005). Expedition leadership could offer some guidance on how to help corporates. Another important factor in the leadership discussion is defining how leaders influence others and the identification of sources of power. Section 2.6.2 and 2.6.3 address the role which power plays in the leadership context. Different leadership styles are associated with different forms of power, which in turn are used to reach objectives by influencing people.

2.4.4   Teams

Teams of people working together for a common cause is of high relevance for this research since the summit success is often an outcome of a team effort. In Chapter 1, Section 1.1.3.1, the importance of the team aspect is described and its relevance to the purpose of this research. A team can be defined as more than two individuals with social interaction and work towards common objectives. They are together to perform organizationally relevant tasks, have interdependencies, are organized with specific roles and responsibilities, are together embedded in a system, with links to a broader system context (Alderfer, 1977; Argote & McGrath, 1993; Hackman, 1992; Hollenbeck et al., 1995; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003; Kozlowski et al., 1996; Kozlowski et al., 1999; Salas, et al., 1992). And teams are at the centre of how work gets done in modern corporate life (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). The focus of this

work is the top management and parallels to expedition leadership. Only 4q0 years ago an academic interest started in Top Management Teams, where the interest of the individual moved to the examination of the team. The "Upper Echelons theory" (Hambrick & Mason, 1984) proved that the TMT often serves as a good indication of the performance of a company (Klein, 2009), which will be discussed also in Section 2.1. For the purposes of this thesis, I define "teams" as "top teams": groups of executives or decision makers, responsible for either the entire organization, a large business unit or division, but not boards of directors or supervisory boards. More was said on this topic in Section 2.3.3.1, when talking about strategic leadership.

In the context of teams, the question is how teams are formed and whether team building works. Kozlowski & Ilgen (2006) and Klein (2009) argue that team building improves team outcomes. The typical components of team building, such as role clarification, goal setting, interpersonal relations, and problem solving had a moderate effect on outcomes. The largest impact had, however, the goal setting and role-clarification components. It also seems that large teams benefitted the most (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). Changing teams can have an impact on what the new team dynamics will look like, since adding a new member changes the team formation in such a way that the phases (forming, storming, norming, performing, adjourning model) will start again (Tuckman, 1965; Tuckman & Jensen, 1977). Only when a certain level of bonding and confidence and trust has been reached can more complex topics be discussed virtually.

Team cohesion

There are several different definitions for team cohesion. Gross and Martin (1952) described cohesiveness within the dimensions of task and interpersonal cohesiveness. Task cohesiveness is "*a group's shared commitment or attraction to the group task or goal*" (Hackman, 1976) and is thought to increase commitment and the effort by the team members. The definition of interpersonal cohesiveness is the group members' attraction to the group (Evans & Jarvis, 1980). This is the reason why it is easier for teams to coordinate their work together. More recently a third dimension, which was first mentioned but not further investigated by Festinger (2015), was introduced by Beal et al. (2003). This found that group pride also plays an important role and can contribute to the effectiveness of a team. Regarding the focus on top management teams, several authors found that the level of cohesiveness is positively related to growth in sales and return on investment (Smith at al.,

1994, Hambrick (1995), and Katzenbach and Smith (1994). Also, other research has consistently proved a positive relationship between cohesion and group performance. A meta-analytic review by Evans and Dion (1991) focussed only on group-level cohesion and group performance and showed a positive relationship. The best top teams will begin to take collective responsibility and to develop the ability to maintain and improve their own effectiveness, creating a lasting performance edge (Kruyt & Tuffield, 2011).

Research in the army suggests that cohesion, commitment and identification with the team can help to reduce anxiety, mitigate stress, and maintain performance (Hannah et al., 2009). This seems particularly important as it suggests that teams must build up "*social accounts*" before an extreme event or crisis hits. Team bonding is very important for the performance and improves substantially, if leaders provide clear guidelines, team goals and member roles (Zaccaro et al., 2001). Also, team cohesion and performance might be improved if the leaders succeed in creating a climate, where constructive discussions regarding the strategy within a team can take place. Trust is also a key component and a metaphor in climbing where the team is usually physically connected with ropes as an indication of togetherness. In traditional mountaineering expeditions, the team members are usually together physically and mentally if one emphasizes their common belief in the same objective. In commercial expeditions, expert power is the main influence due to the imbalance of expertise between the expedition leader, the climbing Sherpas and the followers or clients. However, the research base to help identify techniques for enhancing group cohesion is yet not sufficiently developed to be able to make specific recommendations (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006).

Lorinkova et al. (2013) suggest that empowered teams as opposed to directed teams not only improve their performance over time, but even exceed the performance of the directed teams. They argue that this is due to the fact that empowered teams have more team learning opportunities and collective experiences to gain knowledge and coordination of group behaviour.

2.4.5   Remote leadership and communication

The increased use of computer and communication technologies has intensely affected the way organizational relations outside and inside a company operate. As organizations and employees become increasingly dispersed, communication is the means by which teams can be led (Penley & Hawkins, 1985). Remote communication encompasses communication

through telephone and the internet (e.g., Skype, Zoom, Teams, Google Meet, etc.). Remote leadership by managers has increased over the past years and organizational leaders have been holding virtual meetings and were managing remotely, which permitted remotely working employees to make their individual decisions on how to accomplish diverse tasks (Larson et al., 2020).

With the job landscape shifting and given the technical possibilities, the future number of employees working remotely will rise. A remote team in this context could mean just one remote team member or include everyone in the team. It also may be a hybrid model between the office and home-based team-members or perhaps the leader is the one separated from the team (Chang et al., 2014). Leaders of remote teams must lead differently in order to reach their objectives. One effect of this shift toward virtual work arrangements is that leaders must work more with their staff who is at a distance (Antonakis & Atwater 2002; Avolio et al. 2000). There is also the question on the productivity of remote work. "Effective leadership "also depends on physical proximity, networks of easily accessible communication channels, and social and organizational closeness (Bass, 1990). Spearheading remote teams faces different challenges than leading in person. Interrelationships and interactions are more limited and less spontaneous when remote (Schwartz et al., 2020) and for remote leadership to be successful, leaders must build systems and processes to make sure that they are always well connected with their teams. Clear communication is even more essential if leading remotely. Physical distance in general increases the need for communication in order to maintain sufficiently high levels of coordination (Klauss & Bass, 1982). Also, more trust by the leaders towards their teams is required in remote settings, which is why remote leaders must build trust with their staff before they start working remotely. Relationships are crucial and must continue to be built whilst working remote (Chowell & Mizumoto, 2020). It has been shown that possibly a transformational leadership style was associated more strongly with perceived leader performance than transactional leadership (Neufeld et. al., 2010). Also, communication effectiveness seems to be a strong predictor of leader performance. According to Senge (1990) distance, however, does not have any influence on either communication effectiveness or perceived leader performance. These results show that corporate leaders should not assume that distance automatically has implications for perceived communication or leadership effectiveness. This means that remoteness is not necessarily a barrier to effective communication, or effective leadership. Whatever the leadership style is, however, *"It is not*

enough for managers to have strong leadership convictions, they must also act on those convictions through effective communication. Without effective communication, leadership is essentially irrelevant." (Neufeld et. al., 2010). And high correlation between leadership behaviour and communication effectiveness constructs suggests a high conceptual overlap, such that the act of leadership appears to be tied intrinsically to the act of communication (Neufeld et al., 2010). What is important is also the regularity of the communication in remote leading situations. Remote leaders should guarantee that their followers understand how important they are as part of the organization and interact frequently with them (Contreras et al., 2020). As organizations and employees become increasingly dispersed, communication is the principal means by which managers exercise their leadership (Penley & Hawkins, 1985). Basically, leadership is carried out through communication (Barge, 1994).

Also, the creation of a workplace culture could be problematic when a given team is scattered, possibly even in different time zones. This makes it even more problematic to find times when employees join a meeting or just have a chat together (Schwartz et al., 2020). Further, miscommunications could occur where the body language and tone obtained in in-person conversations are not available from chat messages, email, and texts. Therefore, video calls could be preferable (Schwartz et al., 2020). Remote leaders inspire and motivate their workforces to become more productive and collaborative besides improving in attaining a given goal. As such, transformational leaders are focussed towards motivating their workforces to effectively apply monitoring tools, communication tools, and web-based productivity (Eagly et al., 2003).

Remote leaders need to communicate very clearly what they require their staff to carry out. Remote leadership brings new challenges. The leaders need to invest in technology, undertake virtual trainings, recruit proactively, assess performance benchmarks, stipulate what to be executed remotely, and ensuring that the workforce is ready. A survey of the Top 50 leaders in a financial institution showed that whilst working remotely the interactions with the teams were more frequent and sometimes more personal than during times of physical meetings (AXA, 2020). Trust is seen as a key prerequisite for remote working and a clear, frequent communication on previously set objectives. In summary, remote leadership and thus remote communication in the workplace has gained importance over the last years. Several tech organizations (e.g., Twitter, Facebook etc.) (Friedman, 2020) but also well-established corporations (e.g., Siemens, SAP) have announced that they will operate to a

large extent remotely, which shows the need for a concept of remote leadership and communication (Siemens, 2020; Miller, 2020).

The topic of remote leadership and communication within the context of mountain expeditions is not obvious at first glance. It is, however, an important part of any expedition in high altitude to communicate remotely (via walkie-talkie or satellite phone) between the Base Camp and the different high camps as well as between the different high camps. Very similar principles as for remote working in an organization could be applied here.

This research will help to contribute by suggesting a communication model for remote corporate leadership (Section 2.4.5 and Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2).

2.5 Contextualizing Women and Leadership

The relationship between women leaders and servant leadership has been discussed in Section 2.3.3. and shows how closely these two topics are linked. In this section I will focus on the theoretical aspect of feminist leadership and women's leadership in the corporate and in the alpine word. The latter will be of special importance when analysing the narratives of the two female expedition leaders in Chapter 4.

This contextualisation of women is mentioned and shown because it emerged during the research. It is important to mention it here, but it is a topic too broad and too important to be included in its entirety in this thesis. Exploring this topic more and deeper could be the focus of further research.

2.5.1 Feminist leadership

Women are increasingly involved in and leading mountaineering expeditions and there are also more women in the corporate world. It is therefore important to consider the research on feminist leadership. Feminist theory shows little theoretical analysis of women leaders but there is research on feminist theories of power, representation, and ethics that overlaps with feminist leadership (O'Connor, 2010). It is only relatively recently that women have made it to the top ranks of corporations (Colvin, 2015; Fortune 2018). The interest in women leadership has increased as well as the research to define models to understand the intersections between leadership and gender (Chin et al., 2007). Much of the leadership research can be interpreted differently if the reader tries to see it from the women's angle.

Men are known to be more likely to employ autocratic leadership styles as opposed to women who often use a more transformational leadership style. Women score higher than men in terms of communication, feedback and developing an effective relationship with their followers or subordinates, according to a survey (Vasavada, 2012). However, these assumptions do not necessarily correspond with contemporary behaviours of men and women. There are factors, other than gender (age, education, experience etc.), which also have an impact on the behaviour of leaders (Chin et al., 2007).

Women are already playing a vital role in the corporate organizations of many countries. Leadership has been a masculine concept in society and the workplace because, gender roles and the hierarchical power have always been socially constructed and reinforced using social interactions where power is linked to males and masculinity. Organizations have downplayed the importance of women's values and preferred the reinforcement of masculine stereotypes.

Batliwala, Bhogal, Mehra (2018) maintain that, when attitudes towards women change, the organization must also change. Social transformation, they argue, cannot exist only at the level of the individual – it must also address organizations and the larger society. Therefore, leadership development is key to support this change and needs to produce a clearer understanding of organizations and their deep structures.

"Leadership development programs must strengthen inputs on organizational behaviour, culture, and organizational power dynamics, including – or especially – the deep structure dimension, and equip participants with tools to address these." (Batliwala, 2011, p. 45) organizationorganization. The gendered nature is partly hidden by blurring the nature of work, which is represented in abstract hierarchies and common concepts assume a universal, male worker (Acker, 1990).

2.5.2   Women in leadership roles

Women are underrepresented in the corporate environment and changes happen slowly. Similar patterns have been seen in alpine expeditions. Often the leading or hierarchically higher roles are related to men, whereas the lower ones are left to the women. For instance, in mountaineering, "trekking guides" are associated with women and "climbing guides" with men.

2.5.2.1 Corporate women leaders

Although more than 36% of the MBAs are now women (Forte Foundation, 2019), they only comprise 5% of the Fortune 500 CEOs (Fortune, 2018). At entry-level women and men are in the same range with a difference of five percentage points, whereas in the C-suite the difference becomes 49 percentage points (Figure 7). These statistics are echoed in the interviews and seen in Section 3.5, where only two participants in the sample were women.

1 = Entry level   3 = Senior manager/director   5 = Senior vice president
2 = Manager   4 = Vice president   6 = C-suite

Women

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 31 | 27 | 26 | 24 | 19 | 19 |

Men

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 36 | 46 | 52 | 59 | 67 | 68 |

Entry level ————→ C-suite
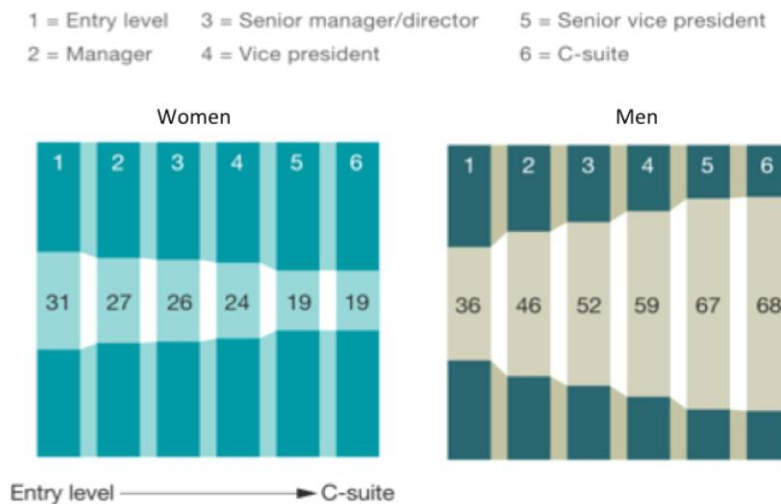
Figure 7: Representation by corporate role and gender in 2018 in percent
McKinsey (2018)

Only 16% of Board Directors in the US in 2013 for example are women (Ely & Rhode, 2010). Female CEOs have doubled in the last decade, but remain very low at 4.8%, based on the January 2018 S&P 500 list (Catalyst, 2018), as shown in Figure 8.

CEOS 4.8%
TOP EARNERS 11.0%
BOARD SEATS 21.2%
EXECUTIVE/SENIOR-LEVEL OFFICIALS AND MANAGERS 26.5%
FIRST/MID-LEVEL OFFICIALS AND MANAGERS 36.9%
TOTAL EMPLOYEES 44.7%
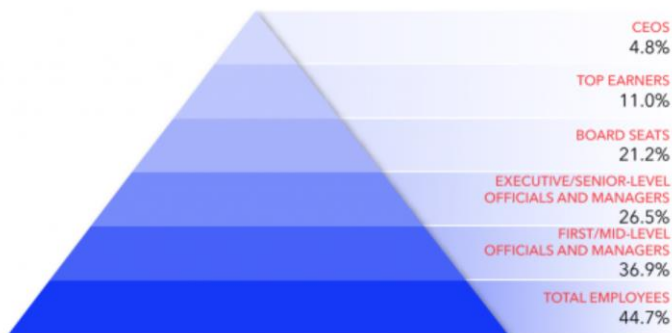
Figure 8: Women in S&P 500 Companies
Catalyst (2018)

Figure 9 shows the development of female CEOs and Board Chairs. Legislative quotas have moved the rate of women upwards slightly, but in all but one European country it is still below the target of 40%. Regarding the representation of women on the top of executive boards as

CEOs, however, the figure is much lower and has even been decreasing in recent years. This shows that the empowerment of women via a legal quota and therefore by giving legitimate power to them seems to work.

According to the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE), which publishes the Gender Equality Index each year progress towards equality is moving very slowly and sometimes has even moved backwards compared to 10 years ago.
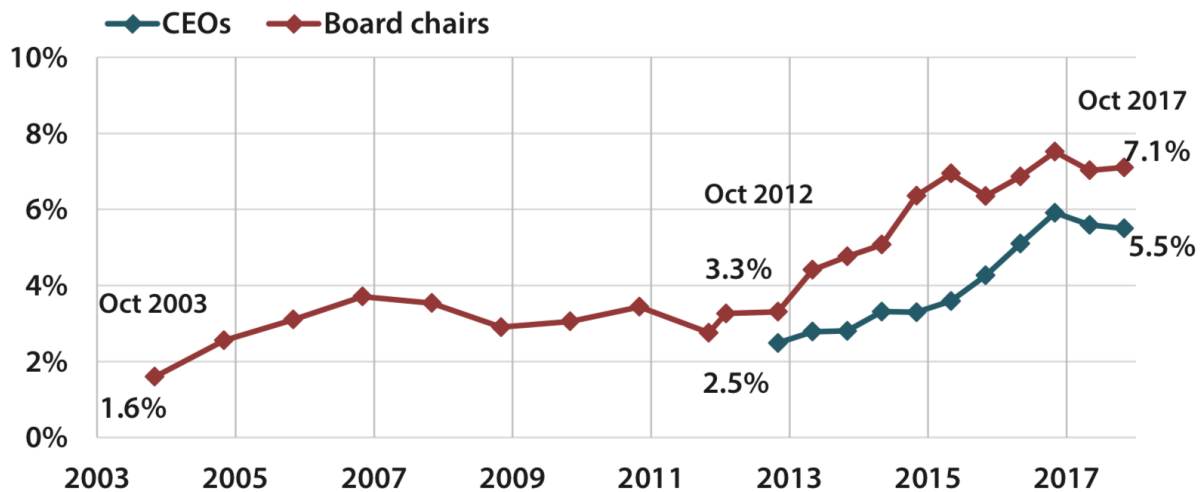
Figure 9: Share of women in largest publicly listed companies
(EIGE Database; European Union, 2018, p. 33)

The power domains consist of "political, economic and social power in sports, media and research funding organizations" (The European Union, 2018, p. 25). According to the latest Global Gender Report of the World Economic Forum, the prospects for a change in the new future are rather gloomy, "Projecting current trends into the future, the overall global gender gap will close in 108 years across the 106 countries covered since the first edition of the report" (World Economic Forum, 2018, p. vii). One of the reasons for this still weak representation of women is certainly the thin pipeline of women in corporations. Even today, only 22% of the top management pipeline is female (Women in the Workplace, 2017). On the positive side, the transformational leading style, mostly attributed to women, can be considered an asset for them.

Recent theories of leadership have stressed the importance of interpersonal qualities commonly attributed to women, such as cooperation, collaboration, and interpersonal sensitivity. An emerging body of scholarship suggests that the most effective style of leadership in today's world is "transformational." Meta-analyses of studies involving thousands of leaders suggest that women are somewhat more transformational than men,

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especially in providing support for subordinates (Eagly et al., 2003; Ely & Rhode, 2010). This goes even further when Bower (1997) recommends adding women to leadership teams to increase the quality of the outcome. There seems to be a mismatch between "female traits" and "qualities usually associated with leaders". Ely & Rhode (2010) argue, however, that the transformational leading style that is mostly attributed to women, is supposed to be an asset (see also Section, 2.3.6). It is also argued that the most effective leadership style is "transformational" and that women usually lead in a more transformational style than men. (Eagly et al., 2003; Ely & Rhode, 2010). As shown in Figure 10 there are clearly different perceptions of opportunities between men and women. 88% of the men are convinced that women have the same or more opportunities than men whereas only 57% of the women believe this (McKinsey, 2015).

Eagly et al. (2003) suggest that women tend to be more transformational in their leadership approach than men. They looked at transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles and found that women leaders used a more transformational style behaviour. Male leaders rather used management by exception and laissez-faire leadership, which are defined as ineffective leadership styles (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Some theorists (Garner & Stough, 2002) state that leaders, who apply "laissez-faire" styles of leadership, are those who lack emotional intelligence and are usually unable or unwilling to put up with other people's feelings.
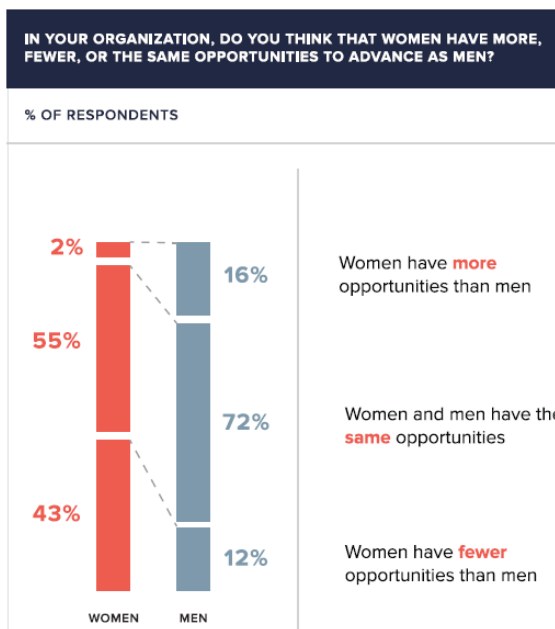
Figure 10: Opportunities of advancement related to gender
(McKinsey, 2015)

There are many well-researched reasons, some of which involve structural barriers and some attitudinal barriers. When it comes to the latter one of the issues in the corporate, but also to a certain extent in the alpine environment, is the mismatch between "female traits" and *"qualities usually associated with leaders."* (Ely & Rhode, 2010; p. 378).

There are several biases with which women must deal in management (Bohnet, 2016), such as the "likeability bias", which means success and likeability are positively correlated for men and negatively correlated for women. This means women can only be perceived as competent or nice but not both. A typical example is that a woman is perceived as "aggressive" or" "ambitious" and a man as "confident" and "strong" (Elliot & Stead, 2012, p. 389). Masculine leadership norms ask for a certain type of behaviour to align to masculine attributes, whereas societal norms would like women to behave and show more feminine traits. The "performance evaluation bias" shows that male performance is often overestimated compared with female performance. This is especially true if it is in a male area of competence, such as climbing and expedition management There is also the performance attribution bias that shows that women are often given less credit for successful outcomes but blamed more for failure.

Another reason for the perception that women are not suitable leaders might be the pattern in the phrases used to describe female leaders.

England´s Margaret Thatcher was called ´Attila the Hen´, Golda Meir, Israel´s first female prime minister, was ´the only man in the Cabinet´, Richard Nixon called Indira Gandhi, India´s first female prime minister, ´the old witch´. And Angela Merkel, the current chancellor of Germany, has been dubbed ´the iron frau.´ (Ely & Rhode, 2010, pp.378)

Research by Ely and Rhode (2010) shows that the distinction between "egosystem" and "ecosystem" motivations could be important. Performance goals are part of individuals´ egosystem that defines self-worth dependent from desirable qualities and having those recognized by others. Collective goals may therefore be a more suitable approach to leadership for women. To put collective goals in the centre rather than -image might help women leaders to avoid this double standard.

2.5.2.2   Alpine women leaders

The alpine environment is not a very female-friendly place, quite like corporate life. Even

today there are very few mountain guides in Austria and Switzerland and only about 1- 2% of them are female (Schweizer Bergführerverband, 2018; Verband der österreichischen Berg- and Schiführer, 2018). This research revealed the same imbalance between genders in expedition management and leading in alpine environments as in the corporate world.

Early women pioneers are described in expedition accounts like Fanny Bullock Workman at the end of the 19th century and the travel diaries of Hetti Dyhrenfurth, who participated in an expedition in the 1930s (Workman, 1900; Dyhrenfurth, 1931). Both could only participate in mountaineering expeditions because they were travelling with their husbands. There were also some very good women climbers in the early 20th century, although female-only climbs were the exception. Women climbing alone without a man would be considered a scandalous act in those days. But there were also some women who climbed mountains without husbands such as Lucy Walker, who climbed the Matterhorn as the first woman, or the American, Annie Smith Peck, who did the first ascent of Peru´s highest mountain, Huascarán. Often these were British women, from wealthy families, and climbed with male, local mountain guides, which, men in this period of alpinism also did.

Underbill (1934) was a famous US female climber in the 1920s and 1930s and author of an article on "Manless climbing". She writes: *"I saw no reason why this pleasure should be closed to women, although some of my friends among the French men mountaineers tried patiently to explain to me why it was theoretically impossible for a woman to lead a mountain climb, taking the entire responsibility herself without at least masculine 'moral' support."* (Underbill, 1934, p.131). French Alpinist, Etienne Bruhl commented on the return of Miriam O'Brien Underhill and Alice Damesme from their successful women-only ascent of this difficult climb, the Grepón. *"The Grépon has disappeared. Now that it has been done by two women alone, no self-respecting man can undertake it. A pity, too, because it used to be a very good climb."* (Underhill, 1957, p.153).

The first all-female Himalaya expedition only took place in 1955, by three Scottish women. They climbed a new peak over 7000m high and named it after their climbing Sherpa, "Gyalgen" (Jackson & Stark, 2000). It is remarkable that these three women did not organize this expedition to be the first women, but for the sake of the adventure to climb in the Himalayas. We *were quite pleased, since it seemed to us that this might improve our chances of obtaining financial backing. On the other hand, we thought it would mean that we would have to contend with a good deal of prejudice at first. Both these surmises proved correct."* (Jackson &

Stark, 2000, p.17). They only found out afterwards that this expedition was a first-time endeavour in women's climbing history.

It was difficult to find female expedition leaders for this research, since there were no women participants, let alone female expedition leaders in the 1950s and 1960s. The first all-female Himalayan expedition took place in 1955, only two years after the historic first ascent of Everest, by three Scottish women (Jackson, Stark, 1956). It took more than two decades until the first successful all-women expedition of an 8000m peak took place in 1978 (Blum, 1980). I had the unique opportunity to interview the expedition leader, Arlene Blum, for this research.

Only in recent years have women teams climbed alone or as equal team members like the two strong women climbers, Papert and Steurer (Hufnagl, 2015). The first all-female Sherpa expedition on Mount Everest took place only in 2018, a milestone in Nepalese mountain history (Woman's Empowerment Expedition 2018).

A study carried out by Stead & Elliot (2012), showed that the main leadership learning approaches place women in a disruptive position. The history and the present situation of climbing women has been analysed and show that there are still a number of challenges faced by women (Bachinger, 2013; Fink, 2013; Messner, 2012).

2.6   Power, influence and decisions

There is an on-going debate about the theory of power as supported by Dubin (1951) and more recently by Farmer and Aguinis (2005). Previous research fails to identify a standard view on power. In Google Scholar more than 4.4 million hits are generated for "power" and 3.4 million for "power and leadership" (August 2, 2020). The Oxford dictionaries define power as "*the ability to do something or act in a particular way*" and "*the capacity or ability to direct or influence the behaviour of others on the course of the events*" (Oxford dictionaries, 2018). Another definition is as follows: "*A simple but conceptually correct definition of power is the capacity to influence the behaviour of others. Power in this sense is value neutral. We can judge the effectiveness of the use of power only by observing the context of the social relationships involved and the outcomes of attempts to influence*" (Benfari et al. 1986, p. 12). Weber (1978) states that power is the ability to get another person to do something

he or she would not otherwise do, whereas Gardener (1990) points out that power is "*the capacity to ensure the outcomes one wishes, and to prevent those one does not wish*." (p.15)

The authentic use of power, as described in Table 8, means that "*power is used to share information and resources in a responsible way and to foster mutually beneficial relationships*" (Scott, van den Herik, 2008, p. 31).

The concepts of power and influence in relation to leadership will also be discussed later in relation to distributed leadership (Section 2.3.7)

Authentic			
Inauthentic ←	Initiative	Responsive	→ Inauthentic
Using Spin Supplementing truth with self-serving distortions.	**Influencing** Using reason, arguments, true data and the relationship with others to direct the course of action	**Offering** Creating and exploring options, providing resources for others to implement their ideas.	**Manipulation** Rigging options by playing to the needs of others dishonestly.
Exploitation Deceiving others and taking more than one gives.	**Negotiating** Seeking a deal between relative equals which levels the playing field for each person's perceived benefit.	**Negotiating** Supporting and being responsive to a proposal between relative equals to each person's perceived benefit.	**Using Others** Taking advantage of the others in a pseudo deal, which may look real but is not.
Tyranny Demanding which is arbitrary, capricious, unfair, or without legitimate authority.	**Insistence/Requiring** Utilizing recognized and legitimate authority to persuade others to act in accordance with your position.	**Resistance** Refusing to participate or giving advice against a course of action that would violate authenticity.	**Revenge/Betrayal** Transforming refusal into sabotage or deviously or unfairly punishing others.

Table 8: Activities of power (Scott, van den Herik, 2008, p. 31)

2.6.1   Influence

Influence is currently an important factor in leadership, as opposed to Machiavelli's view that a prince should dominate. Niccolò Machiavelli in *Il Principe* discussed the different facets of power and influence in the early 16th century. He describes power as a purpose and tries to raise strategic advantages from power in a military context. The essence of power observes that a prince usually needs to dominate the situation in a confident way. The basis for action is rational decisions. Machiavelli questions the view of political and ethical considerations arguing that the absolute requirement for success is expertise and energy (King, 2009). This cynical view of power gave rise to the term "Machiavellianism" which is used today with negative connotations to describe the abuse of leadership and unscrupulous behaviour of statesmen and corporate leaders in power.

The concept of influence goes alongside that of power and has been highlighted in recent leadership discussions. The ability to influence in leadership therefore reveals the process of producing an effect on somebody's behaviour and attitude. Follett (1933) suggests a strong connection between influence and leadership because it is crucial to support a group to reach the goal. Leadership, she suggests, always involves influencing the behaviour of others and one cannot be a leader without followers. Gardener (1990) emphasises that leaders always have some power whereas there can be individuals who have power without being leaders (e.g., air traffic controllers). To understand the development of the theory of power, it is essential to look at the history of the research and the incisive authors who were accountable for the further development of the theory of power.

Schedlitzky (2014) suggests that the categories of influence, persuasion and authority also need to be considered when power and leadership are linked. Influence is the process of changing the behaviour or attitude of somebody. This is a leader who actively uses his power to achieve his goal with the support of a group. Persuasion is seen as a form of political or tactical acting and authority, which comes with formal ranks of leadership.

2.6.2   Power

In 1959 the social psychologists French and Raven developed a taxonomy showing the different sources of power available to leaders to secure the compliance of their followers. This framework included a five-field typology of power including reward, legitimate, expert, referent, and coercive power. The original model was extended to include four further categories of legitimate power (position, reciprocity, equity, dependence), two each for coercion and reward power (personal, impersonal) (Raven 1969, 1989, 2001). Subsequently, information and connection power were also added. This conceptualization of social power is among the most popular in literature, as demonstrated by Podsakoff and Schriesheim (1985), even though French and Raven's original aim was not a final taxonomy of power (Elias, 2008).

More sources of power: Morgan (1998) describes 14 sources of power which includes the broadened French and Raven taxonomy. He argues that the control of information and knowledge, formal authority, and control of scarce resources could be used as alternative forms of legitimate power, reward power or informational power.

The power of the big picture: In the early 20th century the progressive thinker, Parker-Follett

(1933), developed a completely different perspective on influence and power. Follett argued that a leader not only leads people but owns the entire situation. She postulates that the higher up the hierarchy one is, the greater and more complete the view. The leader sees the big picture and therefore must to relate it and reunite the individual puzzle pieces to release the full power of the whole. She also argues that the leader creates the team, helps them define and serve a common purpose and transforms experience to power. "*And that is what experience is for, to be made into power*." (Kellermann 2010, p. 92).

Power and gender: Research into gender and power usually emphasises that women have less social power than men (Carli, 2001). Several studies based on the French and Raven taxonomy show the importance of gender in social power (Elias, 2004; Elias & Cropanzano, 2006; Elias & Loomis, 2006). *"Evidence showed that that female power holders feel uncomfortable when using power to influence (only) men."* (Elias & Cropanzano, 2006, p. 127). Historically, women have been deprived of power. Communication is power and public speech was always a male attribute (Beard, 2018). She argues that the voice of women is still not associated with power. Women cannot just be put into structures made for men and the structures need to be changed. Power needs to be redefined as something of a common utility, not only with respect to the leaders, but also to the power of the followers. This would imply that the power of women is more likely in a servant leadership approach (see Section 2.3.6 in this Chapter). In the concept of servant leadership, it is possible for women leaders to act in their typical social gender roles as authentic leaders. This can lead to ethical decision making consistent with a feminine ethic of care (see also Section 2.5.2).

Power in the corporate context

Yukl and Falbe (1991) studied the importance of different power sources in corporate relationships. They argued that reward and coercive power down the hierarchy were greater for middle than for lower-level managers. They identify expert power, legitimate power, and agent persuasiveness as the three most relevant reasons for doing what was requested. They also argue that personal power is more important than position power regarding commitment to the job and assessment of managerial effectiveness. Lunenburg (2012) argues, *"the various sources of power should not be thought of as completely separate from each other. Sometimes leaders use the sources of power together in varying combinations depending on the situation"* (Lunenburg, 2012, p. 7). He also mentions the new concept of "empowerment" that has subsequently become more important for improving results at

work, as mentioned in Section 2.3.

Figure 11 shows the context between power, influence, and leadership. Power is subdivided into organizational and personal power. Legitimate, reward, and coercive powers belong to organizational power as defined by policies and procedures, whereas expert and referent power comes from the leader's personality.
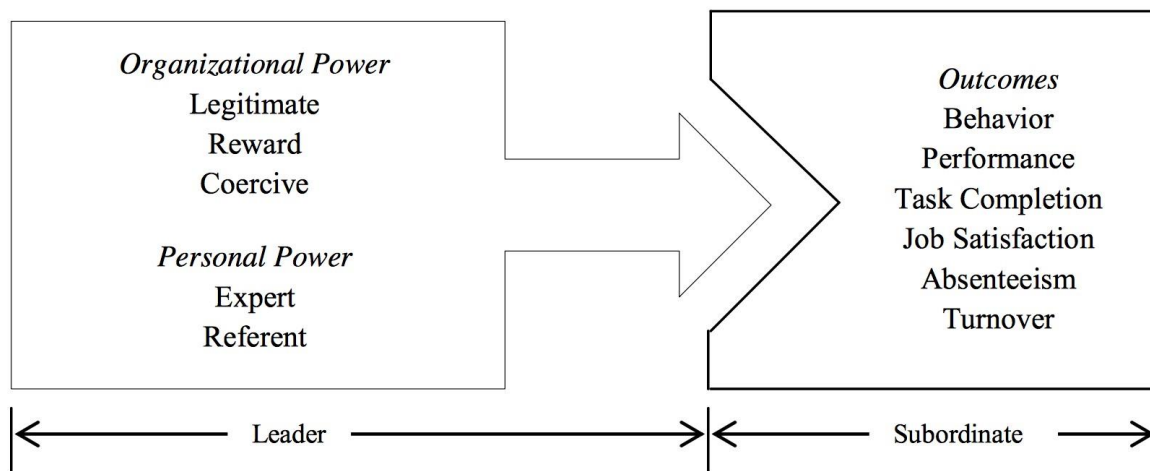
Figure 11: Sources of power of a leader (Lunenburg, 2012, p.5)

Reward power: Lunenburg (2012, p. 3) argues that reward power is "*the ability to influence others' behaviour by providing them with things they want to receive*." The rewards can be financial or nonfinancial, such as promotions, interesting assignments, greater responsibility, or praise and recognition. Reward power in this research was relevant to the Sherpas, who *"are there to do a job"*, whereas, *"the climbers, if you like, are all volunteers"* (Interview with Bonington). Their special form of reward became the right to summit, which is further described in Section 4.2.4. Schedlitzki (2014) identifies the subtler ways for leaders to exercise power in a company, such as curtailing another's career prospects or excluding them from projects or tasks. Research also showed that in the future the power of relationships, "*the influence that leaders have through formal and informal networks inside and outside of their organization*", would have an even higher importance for leaders. One part of building relationships for all stakeholders is investing more time and actively paying attention to what others have to say (Bal, et al. 2008, pp. 8).

Legitimate power refers to the acceptance of a supervisor due to the function defined by the position, the status or the job in general. It is associated with formal positions of authority in society and organizations that can either be inherited (e.g., royalty) or obtained through

performance (e.g., managerial roles). This type of power is described as being associated with organizational structure or position power, whereas expert and referent power are considered to be personal attributes which are not necessarily attached to a certain structure or organizational hierarchy (Dalglish & Miller, 2010; Bolden, 2013; Schedlitzki, 2014).

Therefore, referent power, is the ability of a person to make an impact based on other people's appreciation or their desire to gain approval. Expert power and referent power are often seen as contributors to "charisma" (Dalglish & Miller, 2010). It is defined by trust and it is not something the leader can command of others, but rather something the leader earns over time. It has therefore a strong similarity to servant leadership discussed before (Section 2.3.6, p. 32).

Expert power does not describe the position but the competence of the person. People will accept the influence of a person when he has a high level of knowledge or owns a special skillset (Lunenburg, 2012). Followers must believe in the power-holder's credibility, trustworthiness and relevance (Luthans, 2011).

This research has mostly observed the use of legitimate power (commercial leaders and expedition leaders of official "national" expeditions), expert power (top alpinists turned into expedition leaders) and referent power (various expedition leaders using their influence to engage and form teams).

Affiliation and borrowed power

Huczynski and Buchanan (2017) add to the taxonomy of French and Raven with the two power bases of "Affiliation Power", which relates to "borrowed" authority from somebody with more power and "Group Power", referring to the greater power of a group compared to an individual. These power bases are based on the findings of Benfari et al. (1986). They also argue that referent power could be the most powerful if used effectively in organizations and that these positive attitudes are an easy way to work on relationships and do not involve any costs. Examples they note are to respect the opinions of others and to get to know your subordinates and be interested in their personal goals and values. These thoughts are fundamental to the concept of servant leadership, mentioned in Section 2.3.2 and value Leadership in 2.3.3.

Similarly, Lunenburg (2012) argued that personal sources of power show the highest

correlation to job satisfaction, commitment and employee performance. Table 4 provides an overview of different authors, power taxonomies and their respective power bases.

Table 9 provides an overview of the power bases of French and Raven (1959) and other authors.

Power	French & Raven	Raven (2001)	Schedlizki (2014)	Dalglish (2010)	Huczynski (2007)
Reward	√	√	√	√	√
Personal		√			
Impersonal		√			
Coercion	√	√	√	√	√
Personal		√			
Impersonal		√			
Legitimate	√	√	√	√	
Position		√			
Dependence		√			
Reciprocity		√			
Equity		√			√
Expert	√	√	√	√	√
Referent	√	√	√	√	
Information	√		√	√	√
Connection				√	
Ecological			√		
Affiliation					√
Group					√

Table 9: Overview of different models of power bases

Institutional Power

Studying an organization or institutional scheme through the power lens reveals a new structure, which helps leaders make decisions. It puts, however, French and Raven's power bases into question. Lukes (2005) studied the strategy of institutional power on leadership and critical leadership scholars have determined his research further. Gordon (2011) challenges the leadership literature because he concentrates on the existing influences in literature that, as Collinson (2011) described, are strongly linked to the United States. Gordon (2011) suggests classifying the ruled leadership literature into theories that are "traditional" in their understanding of leadership and "non-traditional". He proposes characteristics, styles, opportunities and transformational leadership theories using a traditional comprehension of leadership in cooperation with a less traditional approach. He further examines the focus on hierarchical structures in organizations and institutions that show the influence of leader-follower relationship as binary – the understanding that leaders are in a higher position than their followers (Collinson, 2006).

Power is a natural process in any organization. Getting things done requires the utilization of power and every day managers use power and influence to accomplish organizational goals. There are different tactics to exercise power and influence, as shown by Dalglish (2010) in

Figure 12. He uses the theoretical concept of French and Raven (1959) as one of the dimensions in his model to describe influence tactics.
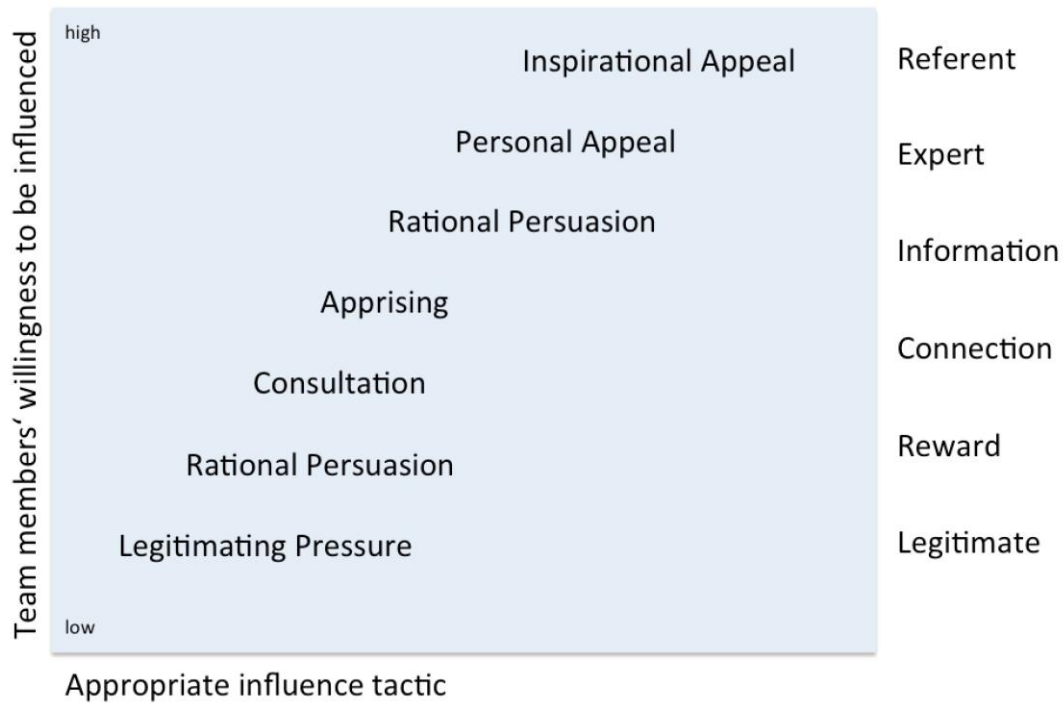
Figure 12: Influence tactics (Dalglish, 2010, p. 186)

Leaders use power as one means of attaining group goals. Understanding how power operates in an organization enables individuals to become more effective leaders. Leaders can use different types of power, such as reward power, to influence the behaviour of others in the organization and increase their job satisfaction. Kempster and Carroll (2016) argue that there is a relationship between attraction to power (as measured by social dominance orientation) and reduced empathy. It is suggested that businesspeople have higher levels of social dominance than people in professions such as teaching, implying that businesspeople will be more power oriented and less compassionate.

In the Upper Echelon Perspective, Finkelstein (1992) showed how power might also extend from a manager's personality (Waldmann et al, 2004) to his participation. Whereas previous research by Hambrinck and Mason (1984) suggests that the outcomes in organizations can be partially predicted by the background of the management, Finkelstein (1992) extends this theory by including the concept of power and how it affects organizational outcomes. He indicated that, *"power may emanate from a manager's personality"* (Finkelstein, 1992, p. 510). However, the upper echelon theory cannot explain the behaviour of managers by using only demographic variables. House and Schamir (1993) complement this view further by

indicating the influence of charisma on a company success.

Gordon (2011) also recognizes that dispersed leadership theories assume that power is equally distributed between the leader and the followers, but they do not explore power topics further. He suggests that power relations between leaders and followers are asymmetrical and shift. Power flows both ways as a leader is dependent on the followers and the power relations are not fixed. Lunenburg (2012) suggests that power operates under the principle of empowerment. Dong and Sosik (2002) show that a transformational leadership style has a positive relation to empowerment, which positively correlates to collective efficacy. This approach is closely linked to the leadership theory mentioned above and in Section 2.2 and Section 4.1.5

The work of Max Weber (1978) adds organizational thinking to the theory or power development and suggests that a person usually enforces his will despite resistance. Weber underlines the theme of domination in combination with economic and authoritarian attributes. He developed a framework based on three types of authority: traditional authority derived from customs and tradition (e.g., a king), legal-rational authority, derived from rules and decisions (e.g., CEO), and charismatic authority, based on the willingness of others to follow advice (Bolden, 2013). The outcome was a discussion regarding power in connection with the organization and its structures (Brennan, 1990). Dahl (1961), who based his work on Weber's research, claims that power is an attribution of the human factor. He describes its existence in a general societal focus, whereby a concrete individual exercises community power while others are prevented from doing what they prefer. In this sense, power the central societal focus of producing obedience to the preferences of other individuals. Weber also suggests that power is important in the leadership of organizations and has a close relationship to the intensity of authority that leaders desire. A great deal of a leader's power comes from the special position they hold. These positions might not be challenged at any time, however as Field (2014) argues that, according to Hobbes (1994), the leader is constantly challenged to maintain his power over new emergent powers created. She claims that all these powers are a potential threat, although there might not be any virulent reasons.

Strategic Power

Clegg (1989) studied the essentialities and correlations between power and leadership. His

model integrates different views and perspectives, including concepts from sociology and political science. He also included the notion of disciplinary power, studied by Foucault (1980). Clegg's framework applies Machiavelli's insights and implies that the conception of power is strategic. He considers the motivations for actions, and also argues that power in an organization is a means of leading by having strategic advantages, mostly corresponding to information power. He also supports Weber's view that power is having a position to influence others.

An individual in a leadership position can choose to use all or only some sources of power. Smircich and Morgan (1982) studied the social understanding of leadership and argued that the influence of a leader helps followers gain better understanding of the sense making of an organization's day-to-day business.

Information power

Information power was suggested by Raven (1963) and is exercised by providing relevant information to an individual, is temporary and conditional to the group of recipients. He also points out that the influence of information power decreases when more people have access to the information.

Ecological Power

Schedlitzky (2014) proposes "ecological power" as yet another power base that is exercised by influencing the physical environment e.g., access to technologies or workspaces. He also emphasises the fact that the power types, which are associated with organizational structure (reward, coercive, legitimate) are commonly regarded as notions of management, whereas the personal attributes (expert, referent, information) are related to leadership. The most important finding in a recent study by Moodley et al. (2015) was that *"the use of personal power instead of positional power will achieve more meaningful results*." (Moodley et al., 2015; p.115). This view is also the outcome of a study carried out by Gargalianos et al. (2003).

2.6.3   Decisions

Tannenbaum and Schmidt proposed a leadership model showing the interaction of leaders with their followers (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). As a continuum, the models show that a leader can have almost total freedom to decide and the same can be true for the team. In-between these two extremes, they defined seven types of different leadership styles, which

need to be applied correctly. Vroom's adaptation of Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Taxonomy can be applied to reflect the different situations in decision making, as shown in Figure 13. (Vroom, 2000, p.84)

0	**3**	**5**	**7**	**10**
Decide	**Consult individually**	**Consult group**	**Facilitate**	**Delegate**
You make the decision alone and either announce or „sell" it to the group. You may use your expertise in collecting information that you deem relevant to the problem from the group or others.	You present the problem to the group members individually, get their suggestions, and then make the decision.	You present the problem to the group members in an meeting, get their suggestions, and then make the decision.	You present the problem to the group in an meeting. You act a s a facilitator, defining the problem to be solved and the boundaries within which the decision must be made. Your objective is to get concurrence on a decision. Above all, you take care to ensure that your ideas are not given greater weight than those of others simply because of your position.	You permit the group to make a decision within prescribed limits. The group undertakes the identification and diagnosis of the problem, developing alternative procedures for solving it, and deciding on one or more alternative solutions. While you play no direct role in the group's deliberation unless explicitly asked, your role is an important one behind the scenes, providing needed resources and encouragement.

Figure 13: Adaptation of Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Taxonomy on Decisions
(Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; Vroom, 2000, p.84)

The levels of control and freedom are like the development levels of a team. Immature and unskilled team members would be on the left-hand side and teams which are motivated and skilled, on the right.

Grint (2005) developed a model based on Rittel & Webber (1973) where he links the different types of power needed to the different types of decisions. This power typology goes back to Etzioni (1968). He distinguishes between coercive power, related to totalitarian organizations such as the army or the police force, calculative compliance found in "rational" organizations (e.g., companies) and normative power based on a common set of values (e.g., client or an association). The requirement for collaborations rises from coercion via calculative to normative. These typologies are put into a relationship by plotting them on an axis showing the power and the increasing need for collaboration. "Soft" power signifies the degree of

influence which comes from legitimacy, whereas "hard" power refers to formal power, physical superiority and domination, such as that applied in the army. On the second axis the types of problems are plotted. In critical incidents the first reaction is command, coercion, providing an answer and hard power, whereas the follow-up decisions on what to do in the aftermath involves leadership and a team in a collaborative solution. This indicates that a problem can trigger different patterns of reactions, either regarding the requirements for collaborative or the degree of uncertainty of a solution. This topic will also be discussed in Section 4.3.4.
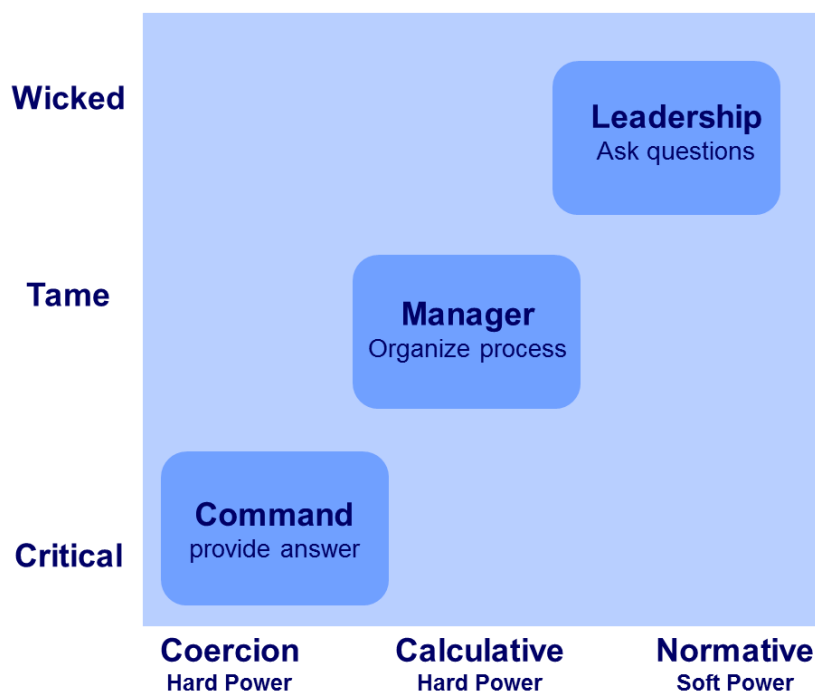
Figure 14: Typology of problems, power and authenticity
(Grint, 2005, p. 147)

Decision-making is a central topic in this research. It involves some form of power or influence and endorses the relationship between leadership, power and decisions. The research of French and Raven (1959), Bachrach and Baretz (1963) claim that a view of power and its manifestation in the organization is incomplete without the "other face of power" - non- decision-making. They argue that it was assumed that power could only be observed in "decision-making" situations, whilst the limitation of the scope of making a decision is another "face" of power. They describe the way decisions are made and prevented, underlining suggested strategies of mobilizing bias to prevent discussions in decision-making. They claim that this helps to separate important from unimportant cases. The important action with the non-decision-making process is to show what stays in and what

stays out of an organization. In this case, power conflicts are bonded to certain values, rituals or beliefs that tend to favour the vested interests of one group over another (Bachrach, Botwinick, 1992).

The decisions are highly dependent on when the problem occurs, which is also shown in the data of this research (Chapter 4, Section 4.3) and depicted in the model (Figure 14) by Grint (2005).

Powerlessness

Lukes (2005) questions the study of power through observing which person was dominant in decision making processes and argues that power should not only be understood in terms of who participates, but also in terms of who does not. He also introduces awareness into the model and claims that power has three sides – the public side (Dahl, 1961), is the ability to influence decisions, the hidden side is helping to include or keep topics away from the decision-making agenda (Bachrach and Baratz 1962) and the institutional side is where the participants without power might be unaware of how to represent their interests. Lukes also suggests that groups who are "powerless" are unable to recognize if something does not play to their interest. This shows how power has an impact on both those who do and do not participate in the decision-making process. This point seems to be a very important discussion topic, which sparked my interest and which I also took up in my interview guideline as I wanted to find out how this play into summit politics (see also Chapter 5, Section 5.4.2.2).

Power as temporary phenomenon

Knights and Willmott (1999) counter Lukes' assumption (Lukes, 2005) that power can be owned and exercised at any point. They propose that power is something which one holds only temporarily and is embedded in a network of assumptions, such as the way of being and thinking. Knights and Willmott's theory is rooted in the "power knowledge theory" of Michael Foucault (1980). Foucault studied the concept of power in the context of sociology and all fields of the social sciences and humanities. His approach systematically rejects the belief in the existence of an ordered and regulating, rational agency. He argued that actions are an infinite series of practices and do not stem from a unique source. Decentralization of the position of power is one of his achievements (Sadan, 1997). He suggests that domination exists, but power is exercised upon the rulers as well as the ruled and argues that power only exists when it is exercised. Political philosophy according to his theory is focussed on the

power of the sovereign and its legitimation. He built on Bentham's 'panopticon' - an architectural design with which one guard could observe all prisoners at the same time without being seen and thus exercising disciplinary power. In Foucault's opinion, power is distributed through social interactions and executed in more than one direction. It is not something that only one person can hold or lose as it is distributed in very complex social networks (Foucault, 1980). This type of power is exercised in servant leadership (Section 2.3.6), whereby the leader receives power by his followers. Also shared leadership is referred to a form of leadership that is distributed and shared among multiple participating individuals, and not produced by a single individual (Carson et al. 2007; Conger & Pearce, 2002). This aspect of leadership has been discussed in some interviews, when describing different leadership style (e.g., Eisendle, Messner in Chapter 4, Section 4.1).

Foucault (1980) also argues that power can have a negative correlation when associated with prohibition, for example, the reduction of power to the law, such as limitation or censorship. *"The manifestation of power takes on the pure form of 'Thou shalt not'"* (Foucault, 1980, p.193). Whereas Foucault sees power disseminated through institutions and the surveying of individuals creates a disciplinary society, Bourdieu (1992) sees power as an economic category, whereby each has its own capital, which is disseminated and exchanged unequally according to the field's rules. For example, growing up in a socioeconomically high-ranking household, one might be better able to enter the business networks necessary to become a successful businessperson, than coming from a blue-collar environment. This is what Bourdieu calls social capital.

Power and resistance are one and dependent on each other and that power is to be found everywhere, not only on the top of the hierarchy since it is fluid (Western, 2008). This is also evident when the Sherpas exercise their power as followers to negotiate better conditions or when participants in an expedition take over the power (Blum, Messner, Diemberger; see also Section 4.1.2). Small teams, which have been the form of expeditions instead of big alpine operations since the 1990s, the participants have taken over the power. These individuals are all focussed on one goal: the summit of a specific mountain. This definition has a lot of commonalities with the transformational leadership style, already discussed in Section 2.3.5 in this Chapter. The primary difference between transformational and servant leadership theory is the focus of the leader (Section 2.3.5 and 2.3.6). Whereas the transformational

leader's focus are organizational goals, the servant leader's focus is on the followers (Stone et al., 2003). In commercial expeditions of today, Foucault's idea is still used, since the expedition leaders are also responsible for pointing out the clients' limitations (Foucault, 1980). At the same time the expedition leaders also serve their clients in the way how servant leadership is be defined (Section 2.3.6). Therefore, the more individualistic approach to climb a mountain has possibly also changed the leadership style.

2.7 Leadership and mountaineering

The leader played a vital role in siege type expeditions. As with the CEO of a company or a programme manager, the expedition leader organizes and manages a climbing project with the aim of conquering a summit. In many cases the expedition leader has not climbed the summit himself but remained at base camp or a lower camp in order to manage the group and the logistical efforts to get his team up the mountain. Sometimes expedition leaders exclude themselves from summit aspirations or hoped for a chance for a summit push themselves. The primary goal, however, is to have at least one team member stand on the summit, and personal ambitions are put behind. Eiselin, the leader of the successful Swiss Dhalaugiri expedition in 1960, hoped to summit but was not surprised when he did not have the chance after all. "*For me the chances were quite small,*" he says, "*as I was the leader dealing with logistics.*" (Hagemeier, 2010, para 30). This attitude is typical for servant leaders, who do not focus on themselves, but the good of the followers (Stone ed al., 2003).

My research revealed that there is very little literature explicitly connecting the topic of leadership with the topic of mountaineering. Ernest Shackleton's voyage to the Antarctic and his exemplary leadership during the rescue is often used to demonstrate how leadership lessons in an expedition environment can be applied to corporate management (Lansing, 2000; Morell & Capparell, 2002). This research focusses on mountaineering rather than Antarctic expeditions but I want to mention it for completeness. Morell & Caparell (2002) define learnings for management from Shackleton, who saved himself and his entire crew from a dangerous situation in the Antarctic in their work.

Of the few books and articles comparing leadership situations in an alpine setting to leadership situations in corporate environment, "The Leadership Moment" (Useem, 1999) uses the situation to analyse the Annapurna expedition led by Arlene Blum. This leads to

some interesting learnings, but only relates to one expedition and the experience of one expedition leader. Donkin (2005) adds some learnings on leadership traits by trying to show how the qualities of expedition leaders should be defined. He argues that Larson LaFasto (1989) found eight characteristics regularly associated with team excellence, which is an example of how corporate leadership is teaching mountaineers. He argues that they could be applied to high mountaineering teams: *"(a) clear, elevating goal; (b) results-driven structure; (c) competent team members; (d) unified commitment; (e) collaborative climate; (f) standards of excellence; (g) external support; and (h) principled leadership"* (Northouse, 2010, p.211).
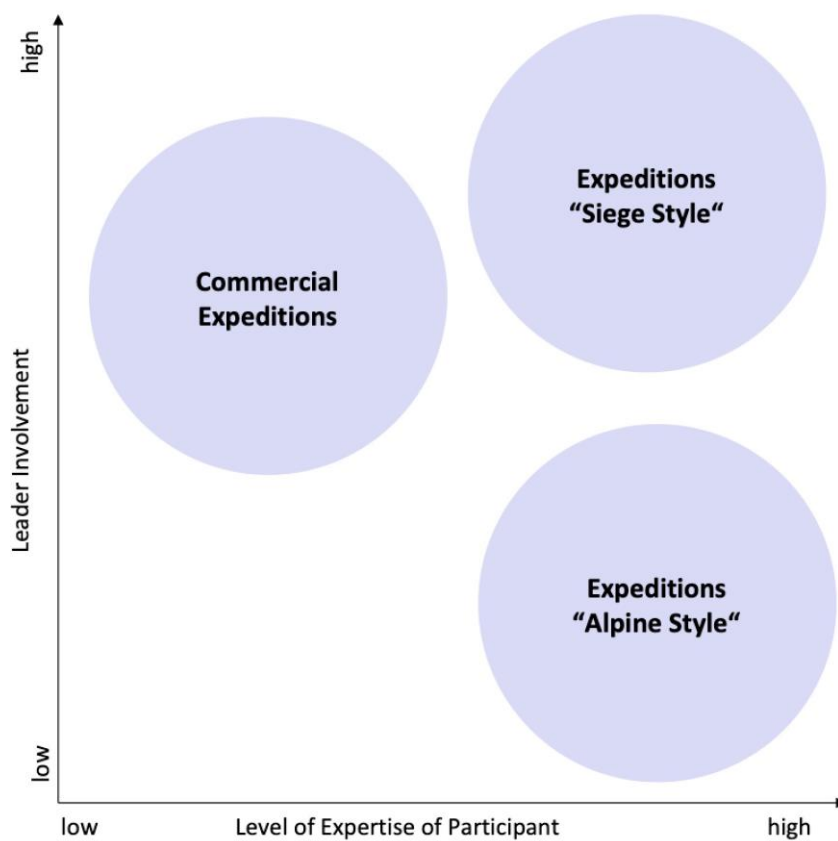
Figure 15: Leader Involvement and Level of Expertise of Climbers

Others, like Maxwell (2015, 2016) interviewed several mountain guides and combined it with his personal experience to define "six leadership strengths" including a checklist with action steps, which he argues could add value to the corporate management of today. These learnings, whilst valuable to learn about traits and the transfer of these traits from the alpine into the expedition world, are only focussed on the leader and do not provide the insight expedition leaders can bring in relation to decision making processes and team dynamics. Several books and articles (Keller, 2007; Tempest, Starkley, Enner, 2007; Kayes, 2006) analyse

the Everest disaster of 1996 in the light of situational leadership, limits of leadership and goal pursuit respectively. This tragedy provides some insight into the human decision-making process in extreme conditions and shows that the lessons learned might prove useful in teaching leadership principles or helping to avoid future catastrophes (Keller, 2007). Many Everest summiteers also turned into keynote speakers and tried to transfer their alpine knowledge into motivational speeches and leadership lessons for the corporate world (EverestSpeakersBureau, 2020).

Warner and Schmincke (2009) compare mountaineering skills with leadership expertise and alpine leadership with corporate management. In the book "High Altitude Leadership" parallels between the two worlds are sought in comparing dangers of climbing with dangers in the office, which sometimes seem a bit farfetched. The findings, however, are limited to what happened to the two authors, a commercial expedition leader and coach. Their experiences in the mountains (which are subdivided into "danger to avoid" or "traps not to fall in" with real life examples from the mountains and transfer examples into corporate life) are easy to read but limited to the experiences of themselves. I argue that it misses the experience of professional expedition leaders, a team aspect, a geographical spread and the development over time. Malik (2014), a business professor and a mountaineer, also draws parallels between climbing and leadership lessons. He refers to his own experiences in the mountains and as a professor to his research on leadership topics. He argues that certain traits such as endurance, trust, courage and stretching your performance are common themes in management and in mountaineering. These learnings are very insightful, but based on the experiences and learnings from one single person, who is a management coach and a climber, as Warner and Schmincke. This research is different, mainly due to the personal interviews with highly experienced expedition leaders, gaining individual stories which are not recounted in that variety in such motivational speeches. As an insider able to talk to so many expert mountaineers, I was able to get a different angle from that which these leaders might have given to a public audience.

This research will fill all these gaps, having a base of the experience of 13 professional expedition leaders, having climbed between the 1930s and 2010 and the interviews being spread over five years.

In order to gain more insight into different approaches to leadership, it seems necessary to study different expedition reports. The next step of the literature review therefore consists

of researching expeditions and focussing on their leaders. Annex 8.3 depicts the most important expeditions to 8000m peaks as evidence of the logistical and managerial and leadership effort is higher than on lower peaks - the altitude, size of the operation and length of the expedition it represents a bigger challenge to leadership.

Autobiographies and biographies of important mountaineers, who were climbers and expedition leaders stretching over six decades, were another valuable source of input. Details from these (auto)biographies are used to support or sometimes contradict (if they do) the responses from the interviewees (see findings chapter 4). Plus, a discussion of the value of autobiographies in research is discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.2.2 and Chapter 3, Section 3.5.3.3 and 3.6.

To understand mountaineering leadership and compare it with corporate leadership, the power contexts need to be considered. In the early and mid-20th century, Western society accepted a more authoritarian approach, compared to today where there is more debate and less acceptance. This is also perhaps indicated by newer leadership theories. When carrying out the literature research, the identification of existing leadership literature in the field of mountaineering is an important part. The assumption is that there is a potential gap in the literature examining expedition narratives with the goal of identifying similarities and differences between mountaineering leadership and corporate management. There is no evidence that anyone has ever chosen the approach used in this thesis to research the link between expedition leadership and corporate management as I have chosen in this thesis.

2.7.1   Outdoor Leadership

A source of inspiration and guidance were guidebooks for outdoor leadership, since they also relate the topic of leadership and guiding in the outdoors (The Mountain Club of South Africa, 1994, Gifford, 1984, Humberstone et al., 2016; Martin et al., 2017). These handbooks and blueprints on how to guide in the outdoors rather seem to be more operational in its approach and not referring to top leaders so much than the topic I research about. Outdoor leaders could be seen as an equivalent of team leaders in the corporate world, whereas an expedition leader rather has the same tasks and challenges as CEO or a corporate top manager (see also Section 2.3.3.1).

Planning is described as one of the key tasks of outdoor leadership for the outdoor leader.

Planning on an operational level, however, is typically associated with mid-managers and not top management (Steiner, 1979), which is the focus of this work. The outdoor leader needs to ensure that all planning is flexible and an ongoing process that does not stop once the climbing begins as he seeks to anticipate difficulties or problems and consider possible action in such scenarios (The Mountain Club of South Africa, 1994). Outdoor leadership is largely based on expert power (Dalglish & Miller, 2010; Yukl & Falbe, 1991), which is the reason for the legitimate power of the guide. Outdoor leaders should naturally also make decisions that are important and safe for the group, a characteristic found also in servant leadership (Section 2.3.2). These decisions based on the assessment of the present situation and experiences in similar situations, are largely based on legitimate and expert power. Another leadership requirement for mountaineering leaders is control and delegation. Such control is needed in cases where the mistakes may prove dangerous or even fatal (The Mountain Club of South Africa, 1994). This might constitute a wicked problem as defined by (Grint, 2005), where leaders then revert to a more autocratic style or still use a servant style in these circumstances (see Section 2.3.6). This has inspired me in my interviews with the mountain leaders, to find out what they thought about the role of a leader and the follower as well as the different components of that role.

There are mistakes that can be dangerous also in a corporate context, but usually the severity in terms of life and death situations is different. Mistakes in the physical arena can quickly lead to danger whereas mistakes in organizations are likely to be more of a slow burn. Not always though, as Ratner found when he told a group of businessmen that his company's products were poor quality and described one of its products as "total crap". Mr Ratner's ill-judged comments made him lose his job and accelerated a spiral of decline for Britain's biggest jewellery group which plunged £122.3m into the red in the year to February and closed 330 shops in Britain and the US (Buckingham & Kane, 2014).

Ultimately, a balance between legitimate, expert and referent power as discussed in Section 2.6.2 (Greenleaf, 1977; Laub, 1999; Spears, 1995) could be observed in the leadership situations described in this research.

2.7.2 Leadership learnings from mountaineering

Several universities link learnings made in the alpine environment to leadership already in leadership development courses. Corporate and top management leaders are taught using mountaineering and physical situations, as does the military, with examples and illustrations of examples. At Universities such as Wharton, Harvard and George Washington University, there are several initiatives to make connections between leadership and management and which use the analogy of mountain climbing and leadership taken from case studies in leadership development (see also Section 2.3.4). Useem (2001) links a leadership program to shape future leaders; Roberto (2002) analyses failures on the mountain with management tools. These Universities teach leadership styles through the example of world-class mountain guides (Maxwell, 2015). Rodrigo Jordan, whom I also interviewed for this research, is one of the leaders teaching leadership based on his experiences as a mountaineer. These teachings include building positive relationships and making authentic connections with the people in the team. An adaptable leadership style is another key element as world-class mountain guide adapt their leadership styles to the situation, which is similar to situational leadership and contingency leadership as discussed earlier (Section 2.3.10.2). It is critically important to switch leadership styles as they move to riskier territories, which is an idea also suggested by the adaptive and situational leadership in the sense that decision making processes are a function of the respective situation you are in (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Fiedler, 1967; see also Section 2.3.10.2 and Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2.3) they empower their team knowing that this will enable them to reach the summit faster and safely.

Kayes (2004) researches the role of teams in organizations considering team learning as the basis for success in complex and changing organizations (Useem, 2001). Jordan, whom I interviewed as an expedition leader, uses leadership ideas from expeditions to design MBA classes for future top managers at Wharton University and takes the students on expeditions to learn leadership lessons derived from situations lived in the wilderness.

Kempster also interviewed Chris Bonington to find out more on leadership development and linked the narrative to general corporate management theories of corporate leadership. He argues that the dominance of informal and naturalistic influences shape leadership learning and that "*the lived experience illustrates the rich depth and nuances of research that is required in order to understand better the opaque nature of the phenomenon that is*

leadership learning" (Kempster, 2009, p. 12).

These are all examples of attempts to find possibilities to transfer know how to leadership development strategies from the alpine to the corporate world. This is therefore of interest for leadership development, a question which also inspired me to discuss how to become a leader with my interview partners.

2.7.3 Expeditions and corporate leadership

As mentioned previously, there are only a few examples that link concrete cases of expedition leadership to corporate management. Two examples will be briefly discussed here, which demonstrate the rise of distributed leadership (Fairhurst, 2014).

One example of research linking corporate and mountaineering leadership is how leaders with different expertise lead together through their activities (Allard-Poesi & Giordano, 2015). In this research, the authors examined case studies of two commercial expeditions (Everest, Broad Peak; both in 2012), dealing with decisions based on weather forecasts on the mountain. Throughout the expedition the leaders used a coordinated and collaborated style of leadership. While one leader enacted and continued to use coordinated leadership during the expedition, the other guide under the same conditions started using a coordinated leadership approach first and then a collaborative after. This shows that there is need for a change of leadership approach when faced with certain situations. The team leaders of the expedition did not rely on the forecasts. Thus, the team leader decided to pursue and maintain a coordinated leadership approach. This has shown that distributed leadership is something that has grown in value in more recent times in both mountaineering and in top management and it is part of the reason why I selected distributed and servant leadership as key theories for this research.

Berger (2011) describes another expedition and how its leadership approaches can be applied in the corporate environment, although he notes that it is not easy to identify the desired leadership traits. He assesses Ernest Shackleton's 1914 polar expedition from a trait-based perspective. His approach would make some organizations shift from using skilled-based approaches to leadership to using trait-based promotion of leaders (Berger, 2011), which is deemed to be a rather outdated approach. One of the theories linked to Shackleton's leadership style is the contingency theory (Berger, 2011). In the leader-member theory, mentioned in Section 2.2, whereby a leader tries what he could to match the situation, the

efficiency of a leader is dependent on how well his style fits the context. The theory examines in greater detail the finding that a leader must have the right style to match the existing situation. This prompted me to ask questions around whether the interviewees perceived their style matched or did not match the situation they found themselves in.

<u>Destructive goal pursuit</u>

De Oliveira (2009) also compared the leadership approaches during the 1996 Everest disaster where over eight people from three different expedition groups perished in bad weather. Kayes (2006), who was trekking in the Himalayas when the disaster took place, tried to examine the leadership principles that resulted in these failures leading to the death of the eight climbers. He argues that the death of some expedition leaders like Rob Hall and Scott Fischer together with their clients were due to destructive goal pursuits (Kayes, 2006). The results point to this little understood and alarmingly critical aspects of leadership. Leaders must set goals that are challenging but the pursuit of these goals can go too far and turn into destructive Goal Pursuit and an unparalleled analysis of leadership under crisis. This reading also prompted me to ask questions about whether they set challenging but appropriate goals as leaders or did they get it wrong sometimes. This, together with the pressure of getting the clients successfully to the top and gaining publicity to guarantee their businesses, led to the disaster.

Similarly, in 2015, in the Caucasus on Mount Kasbek, the renowned guide and expedition leader, Edi Koblmüller, a well-known Austrian climber, died with one of his clients, because they did not turn around in a snowstorm to make it down the mountain in time (Der Standard, 2015). This disaster has real implications to anybody in leadership especially in areas where the leaders need to attain particular goals. Most of the clients that accompanied Hall and Fischer believed in their success as they were successful and experienced climbers and paid a lot of money to go with them on an expedition. The two leaders were eager to reach the summit with their clients (Hällgren, 2010). De Oliveira (2009) argues that most corporate leaders spend too much of their time thinking of the goals that they need to achieve, like the need for growth or profit at all costs and disregard the learning process. Leaders in the corporate environment need to learn that they are not infallible and need others to make decisions or be capable of stepping in their shoes when necessary. Such an example can also be found in the expedition tragedy of 1996 on Everest, where the

expedition leaders (Hall and Fischer) instead of teaching the climbers to make sound decisions on their own, made them overly dependent on themselves as leaders, which a dramatic result (Krakauer, 1997). Most of the climbers who survived the 1996 Everest tragedy described the group dynamics and how the organizational structure of the expedition was set up. The two leaders of the expedition had failed to reach the top of the mountains on a previous expedition and both might have wanted to prove themselves as leaders. Elmes & Barry (1999) proposed that consensus decision making during high-altitude climbs is needed and a key feature of effective leadership. They note that the problem with leaders in such scenarios are that they cannot guide individuals who are highly skilled and experienced climbers unless they willingly want to listen to them and engage in dialogue.

2.8   Identifying and closing the gap

Mountaineering expeditions have certainly used some military know-how of leadership style. By the same token, corporate leaders can possibly learn from the world of mountaineering. These simple ideas are the guiding inspiration for my work. I set out to discover if expedition leadership shows some patterns or can be transferred to the corporate word. As Guenzi & Ruta (2013) argue that sport can use some managerial knowledge and managers have a lot to learn from the world of sport. The assumption of their research is that this is also true for mountaineering. The idea of using leadership learnings from expeditions for corporate leadership has also been the basis for the development of this thesis several years before Guenzi's and Ruta's book has been published. They showed what business executives and sports coaches could learn from one another, whilst the focus of this research is what corporate leaders could take away from experiences made by alpine expedition leaders. Therefore, this thesis is unique in its approach and will help to close an existing gap in literature. As outlined in Section 2.7.2 some research has been conducted in this field, but it was mostly based on the experience of one individual mountaineer or expedition leader (see also Table 2, p. 19; Messner, 2014). Other researchers relate their own alpine experiences to leadership (Malik, 2014; Warner & Schminke, 2009).

These approaches can be interesting but have the limitation of offering the perspective of a single person. They might also provide new insights, but do not provide an insight into the learnings of several expedition leaders or a more scientific perspective based on empirical

research carried out in an academic and managerial context. This thesis will close this gap.

There are differences and similarities between business approaches and mountaineering expedition leaders (see Table 10 for an overview), which have an impact on the structure, nature, and functioning of teams, shaping the priorities and the critical success factors of teams. Consequently, some successful leadership models from sports (Guenzi & Ruta, 2013) can be used in business contexts. As mentioned before this is true for mountaineering, too. One must keep in mind that the greater the similarity between the specific sports and business teams, the more suitable a comparison will be. Those who look to sports or mountaineering for useful ideas for their business should consider whether the type of sport would really be comparable with their business model.

Key factor	Business	Expedition leadership
Performance priority	Profit	Reaching the summit
Interpretation of results	Often subjective, because results can be interpreted using different parameters; sometimes objective if only linked to financial outcomes	Almost always objective (reach the summit or not)
Talent	Primarily mental, cognitive	Primarily physical, but also strongly mental, cognitive
Career	Typically formed over a long time period and peaking when managers are older	Typically, shorter, but still based on a history of first-hand experiences. Can last long.
Learning	Typically, formal education with training on the job through different management levels and often different companies completed by executive training	Either autodidactic learning as a climber or some formal, technical education as a mountain guide. No formal training as expedition leader is available.
Level of education	High	Low to medium
Team	The team of a leader in a company is the executive board or the top team of the organisation	The team of an expedition leader are the climbers and the Sherpa team, led by a Sirdar
Remuneration	Fix plus variable. Usually increasing with age.	Usually no remuneration but funding of the expeditions or in the case of commercial expeditions remuneration per expedition based on number of participants.
Level of risk	Medium to low; usually financial or reputational	High and not only financial and reputational, but risk for the lives of the climbers
Duration	Ongoing. From one business cycle to the next.	Clearly defined time and duration with an end.

Table 10: Comparing Business and Expedition Leadership
(own analysis, based on Guenzi & Ruta 2013, p. 9)

An examination of the literature on leadership and the literature on mountaineering expeditions, consisting of biographies of expedition leaders and climbers and expedition reports, revealed common themes which are of interest in both areas and which have not

yet been researched together systematically through mountaineer leaders' own personal experiences.

Some of the leadership literature referring to leadership theories could be related to expedition leadership (e.g., Fiedler, 1967), stating that there is not only one way to lead but that it depends on the specific situations, as it does in expeditions. Furthermore, Tannenbaum's Leadership Model (Tannenbaum, 1958), as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3 and in Chapter 5, Section 5.4.2.1 can be seen in an expedition context and might be used very differently depending on the expedition leader. Referring to some expedition reports written by expedition leaders, one could also argue, that some mountaineering leadership work does refer to leadership theory (e.g., Blum, 1980; Bonington, 1976; Bonington, 2001).
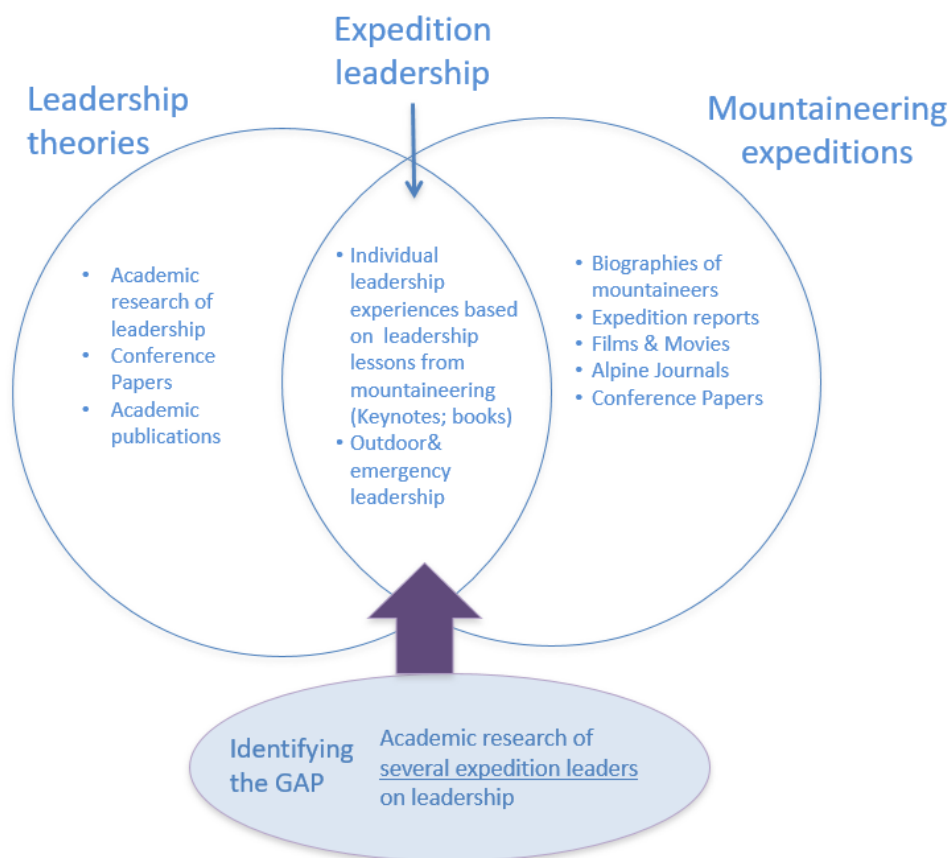
Figure 16: Visualisation of the identified gap

Leadership development, as described by Kempster (2009), is a topic that has been considered in this research (Section 2.3.4; Chapter 4, Section 4.1.3). Also, Bolden (2011) argues that there is a gap (Figure 16) between theory and practice of leadership and that this

is a trend within management. The practical significance of any research on leadership is rarely covered in leadership research, apart from outdoor guides and trainings.

The leadership theories mentioned in Figure 17 served as a base for my research since they have a similarity in terms of a more democratic or collaborative, collegial basis. To explore this in a more general way by asking the participants questions about their leadership not specifically related to the theories themselves. The ideas of Bolden (2011), Eagly & Carli (2007), Ely & Rhode (2010), French & Raven (1959), Greenleaf (1977), Grint (2005), Gronn (2009), Grosberg & Slind, (2012), and Parker & Follett (1933), and Spillane, (2005) were especially relevant to underpin my exploration.
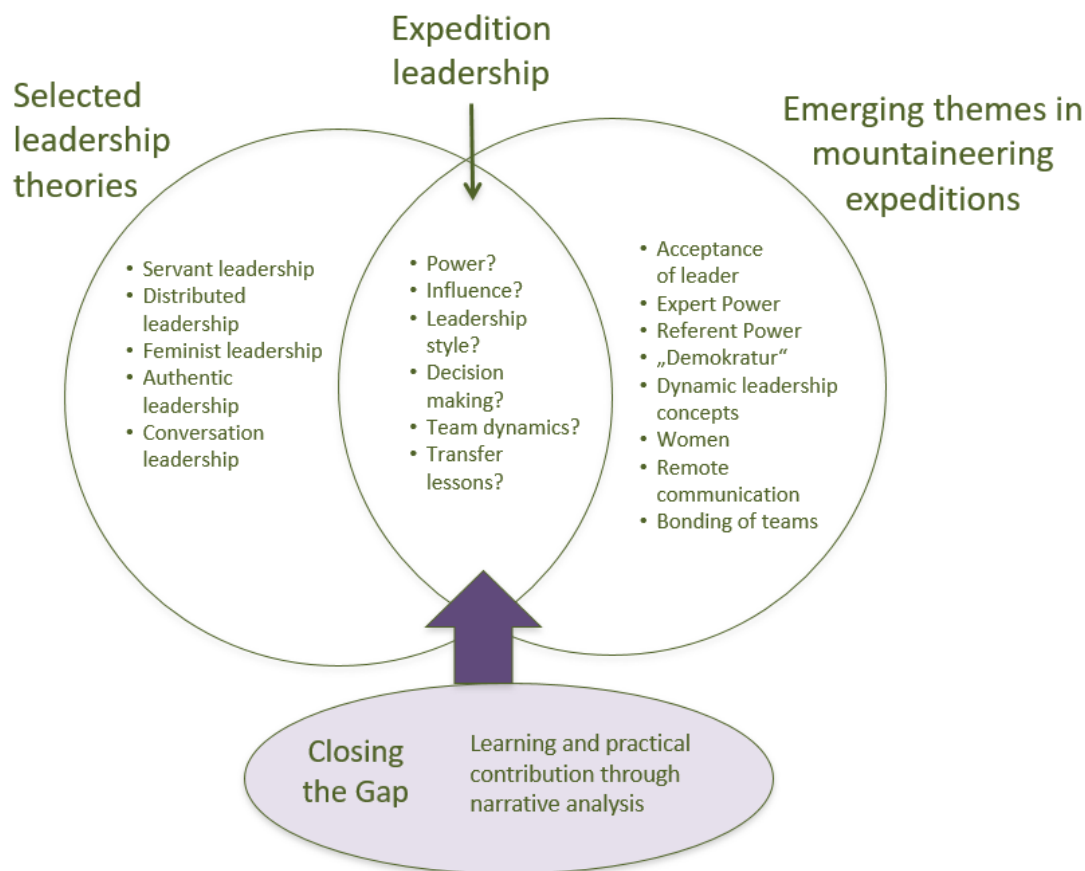
Figure 17: Visualization of closing the gap

One of the key points revealed in the literature and drawn from corporate studies is that leadership is more about influencing, teamwork, collaboration and sharing and less about coercive power. Decision-making is also pushed further down the line. The gap is that the same degree of detail is not available from pure mountaineering leadership literature and

more research is needed to assess whether corporates can learn from mountaineers. I argue that systematic research through the exploration of expedition leaders' experiences of leadership has not been carried out, yet and that this gap should be addressed by this research (Figure 17). I want to emphasise that, being an interpretivist and interested in all the stories of the respondents, I remain open to their views and to the expression of any other leadership style, lessons for the corporate environment or new perspectives.

The aim of this empirical research was to obtain further insights and to get a deeper understanding of the phenomenon of leadership and its complexity in the unique context of mountaineering expeditions and to provide learnings for practise. Different models have been developed, which will be discussed in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6.

Chapter 3 : Methodology and Methods

This chapter provides an overview of research methods that were followed in the study. It provides information on the participants, such as who they are, how they were sampled and the reason for their inclusion in the research. I will describe the research design that was chosen for the purpose of this study and the reasons for this choice. This is followed by an analysis of the data collection and sampling. Then I will discuss the introduction to the research framework and methods used to analyse the data, whilst also ethical issues that were followed in the process are being dealt with. The data collection and the sampling are also described as well as the procedures that I followed to carry out this research.

3.1   Introduction and overview

My assumption was that this first-hand information together with the respective biographies or expedition reports of the expedition leaders could provide insights and help explore parallels or transfer possibilities to corporate management. I decided that the best way to obtain more in-depth knowledge about expedition leadership was to talk with the expedition leaders. To be able to choose this approach I had four factors, which were in my favour and which would be difficult to replicate in the way I did this research for any other researcher. Firstly, from the time of the research until today I have made a steady and steep career in the insurance industry in different roles (starting from global roles to executive and CEO roles as well as non-executive director roles). This has provided me with a lot of insight into corporate management and placed me as an insider on the practical side of leadership. Secondly, I am an alpinist. I have climbed a lot in the Alps, but also have participated in over a dozen expeditions or trekking journeys outside of Europe. I could therefore relate in a specific way to the life of expedition leaders and their experiences during the expeditions having been a part of them. Thirdly, I had access to some well-known mountaineers and former expedition leaders from the start. Only by having this access and in combination with my corporate position I was able to interview several of the participants. During the research, which stretched over more than four years, it became easier to obtain access as I had an important reference list to refer to. Fourthly, I was a woman in all of this. This fact did not play a part at all in my initial reflections on the topic, but then crystallised as an important theme, which was confirmed through my research, but also through my development in the corporate space

and in a higher sensitivity for this topic from myself (see also Chapter 1, Section 1.1.1 and Figure 1, p. 4).

Scheduling the interviews brought about the difficulties which you would expect from setting up elite interviews (Rockman & Aberbach, 2002; and see also Section 3.6.2 and Section 3.6.3). I went with the flow and adapted my interview schedule as much as possible to the participants in terms of time and place. This involved some travel abroad and a great deal of patience when interviews were changed multiple times; all while having a very busy schedule in my own career.

Before conducting the interviews, I usually did some reading as the expedition leaders were mostly public people and therefore several publications about their expeditions were available. Such thorough preparation was even required by some participants. Chris Bonington for example asked me in our email exchange leading to our encounter, "*Make sure you have read all my books before you come to interview.*" This is a typical attitude encountered within elite interviews, because the elites might challenge the interviewer on their subject and its relevance (Zuckerman, 1972). This thoughtful preparation made it easier to build confidence at the beginning of the conversation as suggested by Kezar (2003) and helped to focus during the interview, on those things new to me and not seen in any other literature, yet. This provided a substantial additional value from the interviews. I also tried to come up with an overview on potential topics related to the research questions (Figure 25, p. 129), which helped to create an interview guideline.

We usually started the conversation by my explanation of the reason for this research, a self-introduction and some references to people we commonly knew, if this was the case. This created some level of confidence. The interviews were semi-structured interviews with a loose interview schedule, which enabled the participants to provide responses in their own terms and in the way that they thought about certain things (Qu & Dumay, 2011). After each interview I immediately created a mind map by pulling together the main themes, which emerged throughout the interviews and helped to contribute knowledge to the research questions (see an example Figure 26, p. 132).

After having carried out the interviews, which were recorded with the consent of the interviewees, they were transcribed, and I revisited the master mind map to add topics I might not have recalled the first time. I then started carrying out a thematic analysis. When I had

derived the dominant topics from the interviews (e.g., teams, leadership styles, learning leadership, a manager and a leader, women, decision making) I went back to the individual transcripts to colour code them accordingly. I not only marked the topics, which I had identified, but also marked the liveliest anecdotes and narratives, in order to provide richness to the data. Based on this analysis I created a new overview per theme and including all views of the different participants (e.g., a document on "decisions") and a segmentation within the theme into subtopics (e.g., within "decisions": conflicts in decisions, team decisions, summit politics, etc.). Besides the consolidated versions of each theme, which made the reflections per theme easier, I created a data overview in spreadsheets to be able to get a concrete overview on each theme and subtopic with one click. I also discovered two previously not considered themes, which I included in the analysis. Those were the topics *communication* and *power & influence* within leadership. I then matched the identified themes with the research questions to provide some structure for the further analysis. During this process I used triangulation by going back to literature from the participants as a way to provide more details and to increase the credibility of the data (Altrichter, 2008).

The interview period lasted nearly four years and the analysis of the data another three years with all the interruptions due to new professional positions (I have worked in three companies in three countries and six positions since I started this project) I also developed myself further, especially because I had a lot of leadership experiences myself and became fonder of certain topics, such as women in corporate management. Regarding the latter topic, I launched initiatives to reinforce gender equality in two different set-ups and countries. I also had the opportunity to attend executive leadership courses at the London Business School and at Wharton University as well as enjoying having a personal executive coach for some time. This has certainly also shaped the interpretation of this research.

This all leads me to the assumption that this research is not easily duplicated, in the sense that I had the unique combination of senior management experience and experience in the topic of research where the transversal learning was taken from. This is not to discourage young researchers from choosing a similar path for a research, but rather to manage expectations and define prerequisites to make it a success.

3.2   Research questions and objectives

This research is exploratory in nature as it attempts to investigate the experiences of expedition leaders. It seeks to understand leadership practices and situations of leadership in alpine expeditions and to identify the links to contemporary management and corporate leadership theories. The questions and objectives are defined in Section 1.1.3.1., page 6.

A researcher's personal biography is often the inspiration and source for framing the research scope and question (Flick, 2006), and for me, it is my passion for leadership and alpinism (see also Section 1.1.1., p. 3 and Annex B.a, p. 306 and B.b, p. 309) I have a formal academic training and experience in corporate management as a manager and as an employee, as well as experience in expeditions and believe that there is an overlap between these two worlds that needs to be further understood and explored.
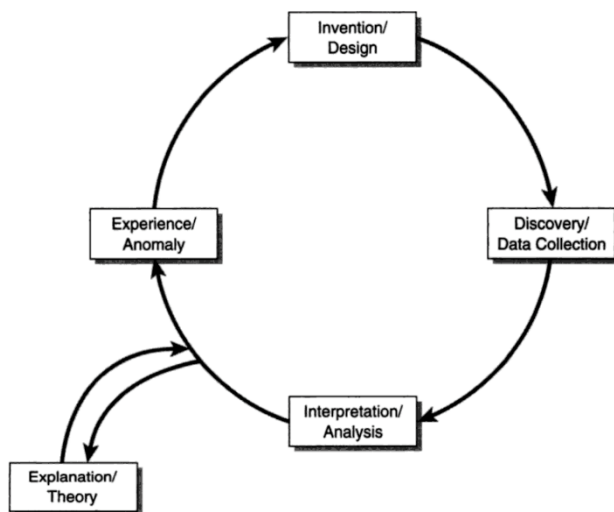
Figure 18: Shiva's Circle
(Crabtree, 1992; p.10)

Figure 18 shows "Shiva's circle", an inquiry circle between theory, practice, personal experience, research questions and explanations. It is named after the Indian goddess Shiva and assumes that the researcher enters the research circle open-minded and with a high sensitivity to context, but not seeking ultimate truths.

3.3   Philosophical discussion

It is important to find the right ontology, which epistemology is acceptable, which axiology should be applied, and consequently which data collection method should be chosen

(Saunders, 2007). These attitudes and line of thoughts have a direct impact on the choice of the methods, data collection, analysis and interpretation of the data. The adopted research philosophy implies important assumptions, which will define the research strategy, and the methods chosen to carry out the research. An overview is provided in Table 11.

	Positivism	Realism	Interpretivism	Pragmatism
Ontology: the researcher's view of the nature of reality or being	External, objective and independent of social actors	Is objective, exists independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence (realist), but is interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist)	Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple	External, multiple view chosen to best enable answering of research question
Epistemology: the researcher's view regarding what constitutes acceptable knowledge	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on causality and law like generalisations reducing phenomena to simplest elements	Observable phenomena provide credible data, facts. Insufficient data means inaccuracies in sensations (direct realism). Alternatively phenomena create sensations that are open to misinterpretations (critical realism). Focus on explaining within a context or contexts.	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus upon the details of situation, a reality behind these details, subjective meanings motivating actions	Either or both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent upon the research question. Focus on practical applied research, integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data
Axiology: the researcher's view of the role of values in research	Research is undertaken in a value-free way, the researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance	Research is a value laden; the researcher is biased by world views, cultural experiences and upbringing. These will impact on the research	Research is value bound, the researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be separated and so will be subjective	Values play a large role in interpreting results, the researcher adopting both objective and subjective points of view
Data collection techniques most often used	Highly structured, large samples, measurement, quantitative, but can use qualitative	Methods chosen must fit the subject matter, quantitative or qualitative	Small samples, in-depth investigations, qualitative	Mixed or multiple method designs, quantitative and qualitative

Table 11: Comparison of four research philosophies in management
(Saunders, 2007, p.119)

A qualitative approach, based on interpretivist epistemology and constructivist ontology, seemed to be the right method for this research. Qualitative data usually emphasises the context and circumstances as well as the individual's experience. There is much research on leadership to consider and many historical descriptions of expeditions available. However, there is surprisingly little about the overlap between them and the dynamics of leadership in

an expedition environment. It is interesting to obtain former expeditions leader's and participant's views on the topic of leadership to understand and explore the respective roles and dynamics and learn about possible similarities to corporate leadership.

As the researcher, I become part of the research, applying my own experiences, and carrying out interviews with a small, but highly specialized sample of people. The research process reveals underlying patterns and relationships between the multiple realities. The aim of this research is to explore, understand and identify themes regarding leadership, rather than to prove a hypothesis, as in a positivist research. In an objective view of the world, only observable phenomena can provide credibility based on facts and data. But positive research is supposed to be value free and the researcher has to maintain an objective stance as I believe that realities exist as multiple mental constructs and that the researcher is part of the research and therefore value bound. This reflection on the philosophical direction has direct implications on the data creation methods. Talking to expedition leaders creates data. This original intention becomes reinforced by the fact that an interpretivist approach engages in qualitative research methods, based on a small number of participants and in-depth interviews.

The interpretivist paradigm can be also called the "constructivist paradigm" since it is rooted in the fact that realities are multiple and socially constructed. Interpretivists adopt a relativist ontology, where a single phenomenon can have multiple interpretations and there is no basic process by which truth can be determined. They aim to get a deeper understanding of the phenomenon and its complexity in its unique context, not to generalize to a whole population (Creswell, 2007). Epistemologically, interpretivists believe that knowledge is gained through a strategy that *"respects the differences between people and the objects of natural science and therefore requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action"* (Bryman, as cited in Grix, 2004, p. 64). In general interpretivists do not begin with a theory, rather they *"generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meanings"* (Creswell, 2007, p. 9) throughout the research process. They treat people as research participants, not as objects, they make an effort to see different perspectives and to capture the phenomenon from different angles. Constructivists do not want to theorise in order to predict but want to understand a phenomenon only in the context of when it occurred (Grix, 2004; Baronov, 2012; Hughes & Sharrock, 2016).

By carrying out a qualitative research I expected to combine the mountaineers' responses in the interviews into some layered picture of what it might mean to lead in their circumstances. Ontologically I accept that reality is fluid i.e., there is no single version of that reality, but it depends on a number of things that will have happened to my interviewees and how they reflect on their experiences at the time of interviewing. Therefore, I will interpret and then construct a view both theoretically (linked to leadership literature) and practically (linked also to my own corporate experiences). Since my interviewees are not a group or team but single individuals with experiences of differing expeditions this suggests my inclination towards constructionism.

3.4   Research Methods

Research Methodology is a systematic way to obtain a solution to a problem (Philominathan et al., 2013). It explains, systematizes, and assesses the entire specialized procedural instrument for creating and searching the scientific information. Rational and coherent techniques are involved in the research methodology of which, the main objective is to apply methods of acquiring information, categorizing, and approving information and knowledge. The purpose of the methodology is to provide theoretical and procedural support to assure the comparability, appropriateness, pertinence, and reliability of the scientific methods to comply with the subject requirements and protocols. The methodology helps the researcher to pursue further work on the acquired data in real time and reach the conclusion. In the study method, the methodology manages the appropriate and effective utilization of various tools and methods to assure that the study goals are achieved and the research questions are answered with the help of the tools and plans of action of acquiring data more appropriately and consistently to the discipline of evaluation. However, the new facts need to be evaluated at the same time (Philominathan et al., 2013).

3.4.1   Qualitative or quantitative methods

Qualitative and quantitative methods have different foundations, as depicted in Table 12. The way the study is conducted is different, the position of the researcher differs, and the assessment and measurement of the results vary.

	Qualitative methods	Quantitative methods	This research
Philosophical foundation	Inductive, holistic	Deductive, reductionist	I created a sense of the collected data by analysing them. Theories is the outcome of the research.
Aim	To explore complex, human issues	To test pre-set hypothesis	The aim of the survey was to explore different aspects of leadership in one setting (alpinism) and assess whether there are parts that could be transferred to another setting (corporate management). It allows for alternative explanations and findings throughout the research process.
Study plan	Iterative, flexible	Stepwise, predetermined	The organisation of the study was flexible as there was a dependency on the participants and the learning was iterative with regards to the research process.
Position of a researcher	Integral part of research process	Aims to be detached and objective	I as the research have been an integral part of the research in two aspects. As the interviewer I fully immersed in the interviewing process with the participants and their stories, but also as a female executive and as an alpinist being able to relate to these two worlds.
Assessing quality of outcomes	Indirect quality assurance, methods of trustworthiness	Direct tests of validity and reliability using statistics	I have been applying different quality assurance methods and ethical considerations during the entire research.
Measures of utility of results	Transferability	Generalizability	The results of expedition leadership have the aim to be transferred to the corporate management.

Table 12: Comparison of qualitative and quantitative methods
(based on Marshall, 1996; p.524) and own reflections

In general, qualitative research includes a fewer number of cases. They might represent a certain subsample of the population. Qualitative research is person-centred and starts with an attempt to understand the world of the researched.

The basis of each qualitative inquiry is an interview guideline. Not applying standardized processes triggers a much higher individuality and a deeper understanding, without producing statements that would be representative or quantitatively grounded. The objective of the qualitative research is to replicate reality based on the subjective view of the relevant interviewee and to understand the reasons for their behaviour. Whereas quantitative approaches want to test hypotheses and then deduct generally applicable findings, qualitative studies try to provide understanding of complex topics. Therefore quantitative research is useful to answer 'what?' questions whereas qualitative research designs help answering the

'why?' and 'how?' questions. (Marshall, 1996, p.522). Qualitative researchers are look for deeper truths while aiming *"to study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings that people bring to them"* (Greenhalgh & Taylor, 1997; p.740). Therefore, a qualitative research design, helping to interpret and document a phenomenon (Creswell, 1994; Leininger, 1985; Mason, 2006), matched the objectives of this research.

3.4.2   Deduction or induction

Another decision when carrying out research is to choose between the deduction or induction emphasis. There are different scientific methods, but the two main methods are the inductive and the deductive method (Johnson, 2011). An inductive approach is suggested for the detailed analysis and for the research to follow the structure of integrating the study with the problem statement (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). Constructivism follows several phases and strategies that are necessary to accomplish the aim to construct theory from the data collected – induction - rather than collecting data to test an existing theory – deduction. (Grix, 2004). *"Construction is the non-causal generation of the social world through human thought, discourse, agreement, and concepts"* (Collin, 1997, p. 3).

Deductive method is designed to test theories and is usually applied in natural sciences and scientific research. It starts with the statement of a hypothesis and ends with the decision to support or reject the hypothesis (Robson, 2002). The final characteristic within deductive research is that the result can be generalized. Therefore, the samples in such surveys must be of a sufficient size and representative.

Inductive method is often used in qualitative research (Bryman, 1994). The research includes the primary characteristic of the inductive approach and highlights certain characteristics that can be used in qualitative data assessment. The inductive method is an organized process for assessing qualitative information in which the assessment is likely to be facilitated by assessment goals. The inductive approach used in this research refers to the method that utilizes description readings on raw information to acquire ideas or a framework through descriptions derived from the raw data. The knowledge of inductive assessment is consistent with the explanation (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The analyst starts with the field of research and enables the theory to evolve from the collected information. The basic reason for the inductive

method is to enable study results to evolve from the often prominent or important themes present in raw information. The underlying reasons for the random inductive assessment method are as follows:

- To compress broad and varied raw message into a short conclusion.
- To develop good connections between the study goals and the conclusion results extracted from the raw information and to make sure that these connections are both clear (able to explain) and logical (tenable provided the goals of the study).
- To establish a framework or model about the fundamental format of knowledge or methods that are apparent in the message information.

The inductive method involves three steps: observe the world, look for patterns of what is observed and make a generalization about what is going on. The goal is to build a theory with the results. Inductive reasoning is often referred to as "*a 'bottom-up' approach to knowing, in which the researcher uses observations to build an abstraction or to describe a picture of the phenomenon that is being studied*" (Lodico et al., 2010, p. 10). It is used in various types of qualitative information analysis, e.g., in a grounded approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) and is consistent with the random designs of qualitative information assessment explained by other researchers.
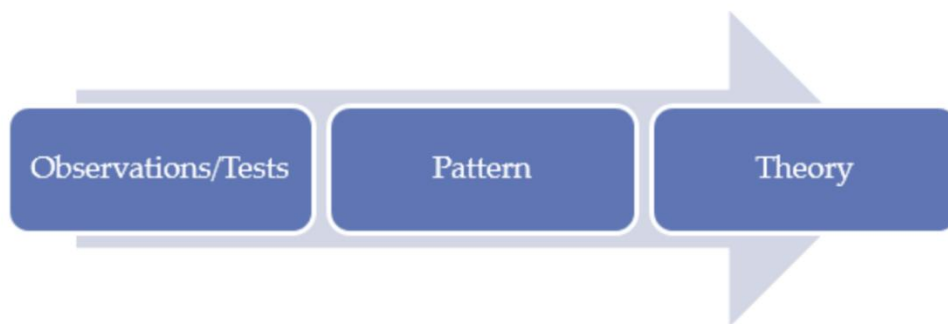
Figure 19: Inductive reasoning as "bottom-up approach" to knowing
(Lodico, 2010, p.10)

The extensive tasks for qualitative information assessment are explained, including information minimization, information display, and summary authentication (Miles & Huberman, 2014). Although the general inductive process is consistent with this logical model, it varies in providing a more explained set of processes for assessing and describing qualitative information (data minimization and demonstration) than is mentioned in their explanation.

These processes are apparent in various explainable qualitative data assessments. Few have explained their methods specifically as an inductive process (Backett & Davison, 1995), while others have used the approach giving it a unique label (Jain & Ogden, 1999). Logical induction is a method primarily used in qualitative assessments. The inductive approach is similar to the pattern coding explained by Miles and Huberman (2014), but the results of the inductive coding method vary from the pattern coding as it may not include reasons, descriptions and connections among individuals who are the main part of pattern coding.

The task of an inductive researcher is to create a sense of the collected data by analysing them. As induction is not as rigid as in the deduction, it allows for alternative explanations and findings throughout the research process. The study of a small sample is appropriate within inductive research, as the context of the events taking place is data rich. Therefore, inductive goes from specific (e.g., a case study or an interview) to the general: devising general principles from specific studies (Gioia et al., 2013).
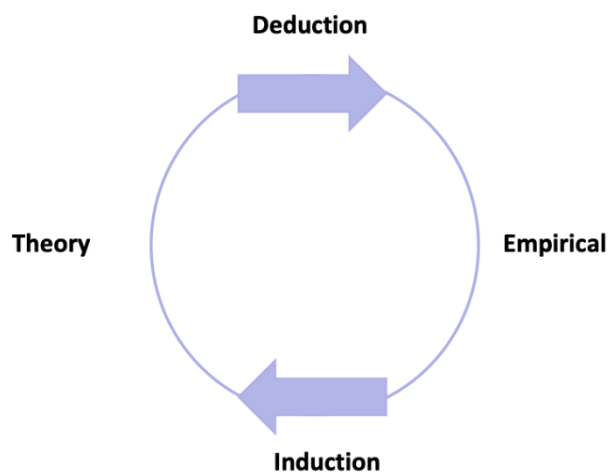
Figure 20: Circular model of induction-deduction
(Rost, 2003, p.9)

Any development in research includes the use of deductive and inductive approaches either in a single study or over time.

Figure 20 demonstrates this process. The inductive method is "bottom up" and helps to generate theories, whereas the deductive method is a "top-down" method that is applied to test theories and hypotheses (Rost, 2003). The circular model of induction and induction is

shown in Figure 20, whereas Table 13 shows the differences between induction and deduction emphasis are the matching needs of this research.

Deduction emphasis	Induction emphasis	Proposed Research	Inductive or Deductive
Scientific principles	Gaining an understanding of the meaning humans attach to events	Tries to understand the meaning of leadership within the context of an expedition.	Inductive approach
Moving from theory to data	A close understanding of the research context	In this research, it is important to have a close understanding of leadership and especially the world of alpine history, alpinism, and expedition management.	Inductive approach
The need to explain causal relationships between variables			Inductive approach
The collection of quantitative data	The collection of qualitative data	Carrying out interviews and other techniques with defined target persons will create qualitative data.	Inductive approach
The application of controls to ensure the validity of data			n.a.
The operationalization of concepts to ensure clarity of definition			n.a.
A highly structured approach	A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses	Within the research process of interviewing experts, the focus of the research might shift, and new learnings are included in the ongoing research and will shape the next interviews.	Inductive approach
Researcher independence of what is being researched	A realization that the researcher is part of the research process	The author of the thesis will be part of the research process, carrying out the interviews, by the own past and present experiences with the topic of leadership in a corporate and an expedition context.	Inductive approach
The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalize conclusions	Less concern with the need to generalize	The stories that will revolve around the topic of expedition leadership are individual narratives, which will help to understand the complex topic of leadership better.	Inductive approach

Table 13: Major differences between deductive and inductive approaches
(Saunders 2012, p.124) and amendments by the author

Deduction is more related to positivist approaches and induction more to interpretivism (Saunders, 2012) as illustrated in Table 13 .

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The inductive method as shown in Figure 21, will be applied in this qualitative research. Theory and practised based considerations will be the outcome of the research and not vice versa.

Figure 21: The Inductive Mode of Research in a Qualitative Study
(Creswell, 1994, p.96)

3.5   Research Practice

Qualitative research combines techniques and methods such as observation, documentation, analysis, interpretation of characteristics of human phenomena (Gillis & Jackson, 2002; Leininger, 1985), which will be further discussed in Section 3.6. The purpose of qualitative research is to describe and understand, rather than to predict and control (Streubert & Carpenter, 1995). It focuses on the entire human experience and the meanings ascribed by individuals living the experience; broader understanding and deeper insight into complex human behaviours thus occurs as a result (Lincoln, 1992; Mason, 2006). Qualitative methods are naturalistic, participatory modes of inquiry that disclose the lived experiences of individuals (Lincoln, 1992). Therefore, "*there are no single, objective reality, there are multiple realities based on subjective experience and circumstance*" (Wuest, 1995, p.30). In any research, researchers need to support validity and reliability. It is important to recall that complete objectivity is rarely given in qualitative research (Karsten & Jehn, 2009). They also remind us that there is a certain degree of subjectivity in all data interpretation. Results of the qualitative analysts involve trustworthiness (reliability, credibility, transferability, and conformability).

Qualitative data usually emphasizes the context and circumstances as well as the individual's experience and is used if phenomena need to be "understood" by involved actors rather than "explained" from the outside. It refers to the investigation of real rather than stated situations and goals and can dive into unstructured interfaces and processes in organizations. In this type

of research, the relevant variables are often unknown and need to be identified, which is the case in this research. Table 14 provides an overview of the elements of qualitative research.

- Qualitative research gives weight to the meaning of situations and circumstances, on how people act and make sense of their lives, their structures of the world. This research contains face-to-face interviews to find this out.
- The primary instrument for data research in a qualitative environment is the researcher, who collects and analyses the data, which is mediated through him more often than through inventories, questionnaires or computers. The research is based on collecting data from living subjects; therefore, the quantitative research method is used.
- Fieldwork is a very important part of qualitative research, as the researcher is physically involved and exposed. Interacting in different settings with them and observing the natural environment, I have conducted semi-structured interviews, which is important in this research method.
- The reason the researcher uses qualitative research is that he is interested in the process, the meaning and the understanding of all different sorts of data.
- Collection of data through interviews. The process of qualitative research is per definition inductive; thus theories or hypotheses are the outcome of the research and are being built from the detailed view of the topic.

Table 14: Elements of qualitative research
(Merriam, 1988).

The research questions involve complex situations that are difficult or impossible to capture quantitatively and which involve tacit knowledge and subjective opinions, interpretation, and understanding. There seems to be a match between leadership and qualitative research: *"Leadership scholars seeking to answer questions about culture and meaning have found experimental and quantitative methods to be insufficient on their own in explaining the phenomenon they wish to study. As a result, qualitative research has gained momentum as a mode of inquiry."* (Ospina, 2004, p. 1)

Although leadership has been studied for many centuries, empirical research only started in the 1930s and 1940s. According to Bolden (2011), a "scientific" inquiry with a broadly objectivist epistemology and a positivist ontology offer a sense of rigor but also might limit the capture of leadership practice in a meaningful way.

Table 15 shows that the research is exploratory with a focus on understanding what is happening. There might also be some explanatory elements where the general research questions match. I am interested in understanding what is happening in different situations and whether certain patterns can be derived.

Purpose of the Study	General Research Questions
Exploratory	
To investigate little understood phenomena	What is happening in this social program?
To identify or discover important categories of meaning	What are the salient themes, patterns, or categories of meaning for the participants?
To generate hypotheses for further research	How are these patterns linked with one another?
Explanatory	
To explain the patterns related to the phenomenon in question	What events, beliefs, attitudes, or policies shape this phenomenon?
To identify plausible relationships shaping the phenomenon	How do these forces interact to result in the phenomenon?
Descriptive	
To document and describe the phenomenon of interest	What are the salient actions, events, beliefs, attitudes, and social structures and processes occurring in this phenomenon?
Emancipatory	
To create opportunities and the will to engage in social action	How do participants problematize their circumstances and take positive social action?

Table 15: Matching research questions and purpose
(Marshall, 2011, p.69)

3.5.1   Design of this research

A research design is the set of methods and procedures used in collecting and analysing measures of the variables specified in the research problem. The research design also reflects the procedures and structures that are followed by the researcher in the data collection and analysis.

The main technique for data collection of this type is semi-structured interviews. These interviews respected several limitations. One of the major limitations is the time, which means that identifying the respondents was not easy. I had to identify the best expedition leaders from the 1950s until the 1980s, who had adequate leadership experience as no big siege-style expeditions have been carried out since then. Only commercial expeditions still have the size of these earlier expeditions. The data collected through the semi-structured interviews were transferred into the themes, which had been generated by thematic analysis, as described in Section 3.7.6 in greater detail. I then analysed the data on the basis of a developed coding method. A detailed description of how the data collection and analysis was conducted will follow in Section 3.6 and 3.7.

The purpose of this research was to understand the leadership role of former leaders of mountaineering expeditions within the leadership context using a narrative analysis. These findings help to identify learnings for corporate management. The comparisons of these learnings were drawn from current leadership and power theories, which are mostly developed from organizational and corporate contexts.

Participants were expedition leaders who were able to share and reflect on their experiences. All of them were also expedition participants and therefore able to share their experiences as leaders and as followers who were exposed to different types of leadership styles during expeditions.

Their experiences were taken from the entire chronology of an expedition, starting at the preparation phase, to the expedition itself and experiences in its aftermath relating to the central subject of leadership. The research collected expedition leaders' and participants' narratives of dealing with leadership and I seek to understand how these people deal with team dynamics, decisions and critical events encountered during an expedition as leaders or as led, constructing these events into episodes and thereby trying to maintain unity with their different situations. The research is a narrative analysis involving living accounts from the research participants of situations related to the research questions.

3.5.2 Leadership research

Ospina (2004) explored the combination of data and analysis within leadership research. According to her categorization, illustrated in Table 16, empirical research practices on leadership studies can be divided into four quadrants resulting from the fact how the data is combined (qualitative and quantitative data), and the methods (qualitative and quantitative analysis) used.

Previous researchers have sometimes tried to mix qualitative and quantitative data and analysis. However, *"while not used consistently, some efforts to mix methods have developed in the leadership literature. Because the quantitative component drives the research, this practice reflects a post-positivist stance."* (Ospina, 2004, p.10)

	Qualitative Data	Quantitative Data
Qualitative Analysis	In this practice qualitative research stands on its own. This "pure" type has taken many different forms in leadership research. This practice may include both a post-positivist stance (grounded theory, traditional ethnography and case studies) and an interpretivist stance (phenomenological life stories, narrative inquiry and action research) to inquiry.	This practice is not used in the leadership field but has potential (e.g. using ethno-statistics or discourse analysis to deconstruct quantitative leadership studies). This practice would reflect an interpretivist and post-modernist stance to inquiry.
Quantitative Analysis	This is the preferred qualitative practice in leadership research, with content analysis of text as the most favoured method. This practice may reflect a positivist or a post-positivist stance to inquiry.	This is the traditional practice in leadership research, with surveys and experiments as the most favoured methods. Quantitative practices usually reflect a positivist stance to inquiry.

Table 16: Qualitative and quantitative data and methods

(Ospina 2004, p.10)

Contemporary scholars such as Johnson (2011), Marshall (2011) and Creswell (2007) state several different types of qualitative research (Table 17). The main approaches are narrative research, phenomenology, ethnography, case study research, grounded theory, and historical research. All are qualitative methods, but each has some specific characteristics, roots, and areas of application. From several methods, which are used for qualitative research (Crabtree & Miller, 2012; Crouch & McKenzie, 2006; Creswell, 2007) and given the research topic and questions it is clear that the narrative model is the most suitable method for this research. It allows me to walk through the topic of leadership with all expedition leaders, and analyse the narratives associated to the themes.

Narrative research collects experiences of individuals expressed in lived and told stories. Usually, these accounts of events are then chronologically sorted and connected. The collection consists of listening to their stories. An example would be bibliographical stories in a form of a narrative study.

Phenomenology tries to describe the "subjective reality" of a phenomenon. It refers to an attempt to understand how the study population (one or more individuals) experiences an event. An example would be to interview 30 survivors of a potentially fatal illness and ask them to describe their experiences of dealing with the disease.

Ethnography refers to a form of qualitative research that aims to describe the culture of a group of individuals. "Culture" refers to the shared values, attitudes, norms, practices, language, and material things of a group of people. For an example of ethnographic research, the researcher might decide to go and live in an indigenous community and study their customs, culture, and traditions.

Grounded theory is an inductive qualitative approach based on the data that the researcher collects in order to create a theory. This type of research may use a variety of data as quantitative data, surveys, records, interviews, and observation. For an example, data might be collected from parents who have removed their children from public schools and develop a theory to explain how and why this phenomenon occurs, ultimately developing a theory of school pull-out. (Johnson, 2011)

Historical research is the research about past events. It provides the possibility to analyse and discuss past and present events within the context of the present situation. This method then possibly allows providing answers or theories to current questions.

Case study research refers to a form of qualitative research that aims to provide details regarding one or more cases.

Table 17: Types of qualitative research
(Johnson, 2011; Marshall, 2011; Creswell, 2007)

In this research, I will concentrate on the method of narrative research (Section 3.7.4), as mentioned by Creswell (2007).

3.5.3   Sampling

Sampling is an important part of a research project as it is rarely possible, practical or efficient to study the entire population of interest for the study. The selection for the type of sampling method largely depends on the aim of the study. In quantitative research, the most common approach is to use probability samples, where all members of a population have the same chance to be selected. This way of sampling provides the best way to generalize the results to the rest of the population. However, this is not the aim of a qualitative research project where the aim is to understand complex topics regarding human behaviour and samples are usually smaller and not normally distributed within the population. This was very important to this research because some respondents had reflected on their leadership style previously and therefore the data from these interviews was more abundant than others (i.e., Blum,

Bonington, Dyhrenfurt, Jordan). This experience echoes Marshall (1996), who states that some interviewees might provide richer data than others and that their opinions and contributions might provide more information and insights to the researcher than others.

In a qualitative framework, research is often based on interviews and tries to penetrate social life in more depth. Crouch & McKenzie (2006) argue that the researcher needs to be knowledgeable about the research field. Using a small number of cases will facilitate the researcher's close association with the respondents. This enhances the validity of the in-depth inquiry in naturalistic settings. For that reason, it was important that I could establish or already had a good relationship with some of my respondents. Some of them I knew from previous mountain tours, which helped me to quickly connect and build trust for the interview, as described in Chapter 1, Section 1.1.1.

3.5.3.1 Sampling in qualitative research

"The purpose is seldom to arrive at statistically valid conclusions (even though it is possible), but rather to understand gain insights and create explanations (theory)." (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2002, p.120)

1. Convenience sample: Convenience sampling is the least rigorous technique. It involves the selection of the easiest available and most accessible interview partners. This method is the least costly to the researcher, in terms of time, effort and money, but may result in poor quality data and thus also credibility.

2. Judgment sample: This sampling technique is also known as "purposeful sample", is the most common sampling technique. The researcher selects the sample that he believes is most productive for his project and to answer the research question.

3. Theoretical sample: Theoretical sampling is an iterative process in a qualitative study and means that samples are usually dependent on the underlying theory. Theoretical sampling means that interpretative theories are formed from the emerging data and that new samples are being built in order to examine and elaborate on this new part of a theory. It is the principal strategy for the grounded theory approach.

Table 18: Sampling techniques in qualitative studies
(Marshall, 1996, p.523)

In qualitative research, sampling is mostly purposeful. The sampling objective in qualitative research is to select information-rich examples to provide in-depth understanding and therefore, targets a specific group, type of person, a process or a specific event. To accomplish

this goal, qualitative researchers use several sampling techniques to reach the target group. Sampling techniques used in quantitative studies are rarely appropriate for qualitative research (Marshall, 2011, Marshall, 1996). Therefore, he (Marshall, 2011) describes three broad approaches to select a sampling method for a qualitative study (Table 18).

Types of sampling	Purpose
Maximum variation	Documents diverse variations and identifies important common patterns
Homogeneous	Focuses, reduces, simplifies, facilitates group interviewing
Critical case	Permits logical generalization and maximum application of information to other cases
Theory based	Finds examples of a theoretical construct and thereby elaborates and examines it
Confirming and disconfirming cases	Elaborates initial analysis, seeks exceptions, looks for variation
Snowball or chain	Identifies cases of interest from people who know people who know what cases are information rich
Extreme or deviant case	Learns from highly unusual manifestations of the phenomenon of interest
Typical case	Highlights what is normal or average
Intensity	Involves information rich cases that manifests the phenomenon intensely, but not extremely
Politically important cases	Attracts desired attention or avoids attracting undesired attention
Random purposeful	Adds credibility to the sample when the potential purposeful sample is too large
Stratified purposeful	Illustrates subgroups, facilitates
Criterion	Includes all cases that meet some criterion, useful for quality assurance
Opportunistic	Follows new leads, takes advantages of the unexpected
Combination or mixed	Involves triangulation and flexibility, meets multiply interests and needs
Convenience	Saves money, time and effort but at the expense of information and credibility

Table 19: Typologies of Sampling Strategies
(Marshall, 2011, p.111)

On top of these three sampling techniques, Marshall (2011) later proposed 16 sampling strategies, which include the snowball and criterion-based sampling (Table 19), which I have applied in this research.

Snowball sampling is the most useful when the population sample is not easily accessible (e.g., elites, delicate topics, difficult accessible groups). One expert refers to the next one and so it

is possible to get hold of a group of experts on a certain theme. This is a chain referral process and allows the researcher to plan little compared to other sampling techniques.

<u>Sampling Size</u>

"Quantitative researchers often fail to understand the usefulness of studying small samples. This is related to the misapprehension that generalizability is the ultimate goal of all good research and is the principal reason for some otherwise sound published qualitative." (Marshall, 1996; p. 523)

An important choice in a qualitative study is the sample size - identifying a big enough sample size and describing the sampling process. There is also the perception that the considerations and interviews have no impact on the analysis of the outcomes. In the case of this research, the sampling size consisted of 13 expedition leaders and since they are all experts in their field, is deemed sufficient to generate a viable conclusion (Marshall, 2011).

Qualitative researchers usually show a low level of transparency regarding sample sizes and the underlying arguments for these (Carlsen & Glenton, 2011; Mason, 2010). Often, researchers just refer to the fact that saturation was achieved, arguing that addition of more participants would not add any new knowledge, without describing a good reason. This saturation concept originally developed by Glaser & Strauss (1999) owes an explanation of how it should be understood in a generally applicable context and how it justifies the number of participants. Therefore, the concept of *information power* of a sample supports the idea that shared methodological principles for estimating an adequate sample size is needed but cannot be found in formulae or assessed redundancy alone. "*Studies may benefit from sampling strategies by shifting attention from numerical input of participants to the contribution of new knowledge from the analysis. Information power indicates that the more information the sample holds, relevant for the actual study, the lower number of participants is needed.*"(Malterud et al., 2016; p. 1759)

13 experts were interviewed with the applied interview method. People who have been expedition leaders are by definition experts and a very selected group of people (see Section 3.6.3). Therefore the "criterion-based" sampling (alpinists with leadership experiences) was mixed with "snowball" and "chain" sampling (referrals from one alpine leader to other potential interview partners) or "opportunistic" if there is the opportunity to have a

conversation with an expedition leader (e.g., during an expedition or following a referral). A number of identified participants were potential targets for this research from the beginning, shown in Table 20, p. 114. The selection criteria for these subjects to be included in the list were their roles within past expeditions.

It was quite straight forward to come up with a selection of potential participants. There are only a handful of expedition leaders from the 1950s that are still alive today and only very few women who have ever led an important mountain expedition. This means that expert sampling was the logical choice because I had access to a few of the expedition leaders at the beginning of my research.

3.5.3.2 Sampling of elites

Careful selection of research samples is essential for a thorough and fair research and sampling can also be used as a formal methodology to make assumptions about a population of people who have been challenging to calculate (Snijders, 1992; Faugier and Sergeant, 1997). The approachability of the elite is certainly a factor of which sampling method to choose, how to interview them (see also Section 3.6.3), and dependent among other, of the own standing and status of the research with respect to the research topic and the relation to these elites. I argue that 13 interviews were sufficient for the purpose of this research, since for an exploratory study, one does not plan complete description of all aspects of the phenomenon but wants to offer new insights that contribute to or challenge current understandings (Malterud, et al., 2016). The group of available expedition leaders is relatively small, especially those who led the large expeditions. Most of them also know each other. The majority of the big expeditions took place between the 1920s and 1970s (See also Chapter 2, Section 2.2.1 and Table 1, Table 2) and therefore many expedition leaders were no longer alive or are quite old. Of my original group of potential interviewees, three have perished during the period of conducting this research (Bonatti in 2011, Koblmüller in 2015, and Dyhrenfurth after I had interviewed him in 2017). Many of those leaders often became famous after their expedition and so it is hard to approach them since they have a very busy schedule. There were only two women in my sample. I contacted two more (Reinisch, Kaltenbrunner), but they were not available for an interview.

I made use of snowball sampling, which is the appropriate method in qualitative research. Either I was referred to other interviewees or I introduced myself and with a reference to already conducted interviews when asking for an interview. Although the choice of the interviewees was straightforward in that sense, there was only a small number of accessible expedition leaders who could be approached and who would be able or willing to carry out such interviews. A valuable introduction was made through the University of Gloucester with the possibility to interview Chris Bonington, a very well-known British mountaineer and expedition leader. Bonington is one of the few remaining expedition leaders who has extensive experience in expedition leadership. He also performs as a trainer and speaker for leadership in the UK Lead series. Another valuable contact I had was Reinhold Messner, famous alpinist and speaker and the first person who managed to conquer all 8000m peaks in the world. I had the privilege to accompany him on two expeditions before (Pakistan in 2005 and Nepal in 2010). I also had the chance to meet Stephen Venables a great mountaineer and the first British person who has ever managed to climb Everest without oxygen. He was invited by my company as a keynote speaker in May 2011 for a conference. Immediately afterwards I had a chance to carry out an interview with him. Potential biases are further discussed below. Another very interesting person whom I met on one of her visits to Europe was Arlene Blum, a famous scientist and expedition leader. She managed to set up, finance, organize and run the first woman expedition of an 8000m peak in 1978. I joined her on a trekking tour in Chamonix in September 2011. Wolfgang Nairz, the expedition leader of the first Austrian expedition on Everest, whom I called and then met in Innsbruck, where he lives, referred me to the late Norman Dyhrenfurth, the expedition leader of the first US expedition on Everest and famous filmmaker. I met him for the last of my 13 interviews in December 2014. He passed away at the age of 99 in September 2017.

Nr.	Name	Gender	Year of birth	Interview	Language of Interview	Nationality	Expedition Leader	Commercial expedition leader	Guide (small groups)
1	Stephen Venables	M	1954	2011 May	English	UK	X		
2	Arlene Blum, Dr.	F	1945	2011 September	English	USA	X		
3	Rodrigo Jordan, Dr.	M	1959	2012 April	English	Chilenean	X		
4	Günther Härter	M	1953	2012 February	German	German		X	
5	Hanspeter Eisendle	M	1956	2012 February	German	Italian			X
6	Edurne Pasaban	F	1973	2012 March	Spanish	Spanish	X		
7	Kari Kobler	M	1955	2012 March	German	Swiss		X	
8	Sir Chris Bonington, Sir	M	1934	2012 May	English	UK	X		
9	Oswald Oelz, Dr.	M	1943	2013 April	German	Austrian/Swiss	Doctor		
10	Wolfgang Nairz, Prof.	M	1944	2013 February	German	Austrian	X		
11	Reinhold Messner	M	1944	2013 January	German	Italian	X		
12	Kurt Diemberger	M	1932	2013 March	German	Austrian			X
13	Norman Dyhrenfurth, Prof.	M	1918	2014 December	German	Swiss/US	X		

Table 20: Overview of participants for In-depth Interviews of the research.

Eisendle and Härter are mountain guides with whom I went ski mountaineering and they introduced me to Edurne Pasaban, the first woman who climbed all 8000m peaks. I had the chance to meet her, when she visited Switzerland for a sponsoring event. I also met Jordan, the first Chilean on Everest when he came to Switzerland as a speaker and who was introduced to me by a colleague who had invited him as a speaker once. Table 20 shows the final sample of all participants.

It is important to note that in order to overcome a potential bias of my interviewees (showing their experiences from their personal points of view), and my potential bias of having been introduced to many via common friends or in a working environment (having a potential positive bias to their accounts), I actively applied the principle of triangulation. I focussed very much on informing myself through other sources, such as documentaries, books about their expeditions and accounts of other expedition participants. Also, one must note that the world of expeditions is quite small, in the sense that the interviewees nearly all knew each other and have even been even on expeditions with each other. Therefore, the stories I was told, were often told from the perspectives of several interviewees.

3.5.3.3 An introduction to the interviewees

The curricula of the interviewed expedition leaders help to understand the findings in Chapter 4, their stories and backgrounds, and the discussion in Chapter 5. Table 21 provides a short introduction and an overview of the interviewed expedition leaders. A longer version on the interviewees' backgrounds and on their relationship to each other is outlined in Annex E.

Arlene Blum
Arlene Blum is an American mountaineer born in 1945. She has played a ground-breaking role in women´s mountaineering and is famous for leading the first American and all women´s ascent of Annapurna in 1978.

Sir Christian John Storey Bonington
Sir Chris Bonington was born in 1934 in London. He is one of the most famous and multifaceted mountaineers in the world known from the TV, books and lectures worldwide. Within his career he has carried out many expeditions to the Himalayas including Everest and the first ascent of the south face of Annapurna.

Kurt Diemberger
The Austrian mountaineer Kurt Diemberger was born in 1932 in Austria. Diemberger belongs to an elite club of the three men who have made a first ascent of two 8000m peaks.

Norman Dyhrenfurth
Normal Dyhrenfurth born in 1918 in Breslau nowadays Poland became famous, when he managed to initiate, fund and successfully lead the first American Everest expedition in 1963. He passed away in September 2017 in Salzburg, Austria.

Hanspeter Eisendle
Hanspeter Eisendle born in 1956 in the German speaking part of Italy is a professional mountain guide. He has done a lot of difficult rock climbing in the Alps, the US and in Oman, as well as expeditions in the Himalayas and in South America and succeeded on several 8000m peaks.

Günther Härter
Günther Härter was born in 1953 in Germany. He climbed several 8000m peaks in the Himalayas. In 2009, he founded his own trekking agency, Top Mountain Tours, near Munich.

Rodrigo Jordán
Rodrigo Jordán Fuchs was born in 1959 in Santiago, Chile. In 1992, Jordán led the first South American group who reached the peak of Everest. Since 2003, Jordán is also teaching at Wharton School of Business.

Kari Kobler
The Swiss Kari Kobler was born in 1955 and is the owner and managing director of the leading expedition organisation "Kobler und Partner" in Switzerland. Kobler has been the expedition leader of many and has climbed Everest himself several times as well as other 8000m peaks.

Reinhold Messner
Born in 1944, in South Tyrol, Italy, he is one of the greatest mountaineers and best known as the first person to climb all 14 of the world's 8000m peaks without supplemental oxygen in 1986. In 1978, Messner summited Mount Everest with the Austrian Peter Habeler, as first persons without artificial oxygen.

Wolfgang Nairz
The Austrian Wolfgang Nairz was born in 1944 in Tyrol. In 1978, he was the expedition leader of the first successful Austrian expedition to Everest where also Messner and Habeler climbed the mountain without oxygen for the first time. Nairz also climbed Everest during his expedition.

Oswald Oelz
Dr. Oswald Oelz, born in 1943 in Austria, is a well-known expedition doctor, climber and author of several books who started accompanying expeditions in the 70s. He often climbed with Reinhold Messner whom he got to know in 1970. He was the 6th person and 3rd European who climbed the "seven summits".

Edurne Pasaban
Edurne Pasaban was born in 1973 in Spain. In May 2010 she became the first woman who has climbed all of the fourteen eight-thousand (metres) peaks in the world.

Stephen Venables
Stephen Venables was born in 1954. He was the first Briton to climb Everest without supplementary oxygen, by a new route.

Table 21: An overview of the interviewed expedition leaders

3.6   Data collection

There are a variety of methods of data collection, the process of gathering information on a target, which enables us to answer questions and assess results in qualitative research,

including observations, textual or visual analysis and interviews. (Gil et al., 2008; Silverman, 2000). I have previously indicated my choice to use semi structured interviews, but this section discusses in more detail the rationale for that choice.

3.6.1   Methods of data collection

Qualitative data collection methods are mainly concerned with gaining insights and exploring underlying motivations. They are often associated with the acknowledgement of abstraction and generalisation (Monette et al., 2010). To obtain vision, images, forms, structures in different forms of media, spoken and printed word and recorded sound is all part of qualitative data collection (Polonsky & Waller, 2011). Moreover, in business studies interviews, focus groups, observation and action research are used. Also, grounded theory and document analysis is used as data collection method in qualitative studies. Primary data collection methods in qualitative research according to Marshall (2011) are the following: Observation; In-Depth Interviewing; Life Histories, Telling Narrative Inquiry and Digital Story; Artefacts of Material Cultures (documents and other objects). Keegan (2009) mentions a more extensive range of methods such as interviews, observations, engaging people in activities, setting tasks to be done themselves, deliberative research, semiotics, and cultural analysis, researching accessible data sources. Johnson (2011) states that interviews play an important role in all types of categories. *"If there is one general rule of field research it is that all techniques must be context sensitive. A field researcher is constantly making decisions as to the next step to take (not least moral decisions), and there is no authority in the academic world who could foresee all contexts and all occurrences."* (Czarniawska, 2004, p.44)

From a localist viewpoint, an interview is an empirical phenomenon that needs to be examined because the narratives produced are "situated accounts" of the phenomenon (Holstein and Gubrium, 1995). In this research I have used research interviews, but also other primary resources, such as autobiographies and expedition reports from the expedition leaders. Letters, diaries, minutes, photographs, interviews, and sound or video recordings are primary sources created at a time or event is occurring. Newspaper articles, oral histories, and autobiographies are examples of primary sources created after the event or time in question but offering first-hand accounts (University Libraries, 2020). This literature helped me on the one hand to prepare well for the interviews, something elites would expect (see also 3.6.3), and on the other hand it helped to add to the richness of the data, by providing more detail

to certain situations described during expeditions, where the participants had made reference to.

3.6.2   Research interviews

Research interviews are one of the most important qualitative data collection methods and is widely used in conducting field studies and qualitative research (Qu & Dumay, 2011). Usually, three kinds of interviews are distinguished: structured or standardised interviews, semi-structured and unstructured interviews or informal, conversational interviews (Marshall & Rossmann, 2011; Patton, 2002).

(1) In structured interviews, participants are asked a set of standardized, predetermined questions, with little or no difference and with no further explanation provided. Therefore, these are comparatively easy to analyse and may be used if elaboration of various questions is needed or if there are problems in which quantitative data is asked. Moreover, they only allow for limited richness in the respondent answers and are consequently of little use if more depth is required (Alshenqeeti, 2014).

(2) On the other hand, unstructured interviews do not show any preconceived approach or concepts and are done with little or no interference during the interviews. Such interviews may start with a starting question and proceed in relation to this. These types of interviews are time intensive. They can last for hours and be difficult to manage and to take part in. Lack of preparation of interview questions, combined with weak facilitation will provide little additional knowledge on the topic and respondents might find it difficult to answer. They are considered useful when in-depth analysis is required or it is assumed that less information is available about the discipline or a unique perspective if a discipline is needed (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006).

(3) Semi-structured interviews contain various primary questions, which explain the fields to be discovered, but also enable the interviewer or participants to deviate in order to follow a concept or answer in more explanation. This interview format is useful in specific settings in which respondents know what to answer, which can be meaningful information for research. The simplicity of this method, specifically comparatively structured questions, enables the explanation of data that is significant to respondents but may not have been researched properly by the researcher (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). This is the most typical form applied in qualitative research. In this research I used a guided interview, which can be used

in the context of a narrative analysis, as mentioned in 3.7.4. I thereby explored a few general themes to understand the interviewees' views. However, I respected the participants' structure and frames of the responses. Such semi-structured interviews are and often capable of disclosing important sometimes hidden facets of human and organizational behaviour. It is often the most effective means of information gathering (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Having its foundation in personal conversations, it provides the possibility to adapt the interview regarding style, pace and ordering of questions to enable the participants to give their answers in their own terms, their language and the way they think. (Qu. & Dumay, 2011).
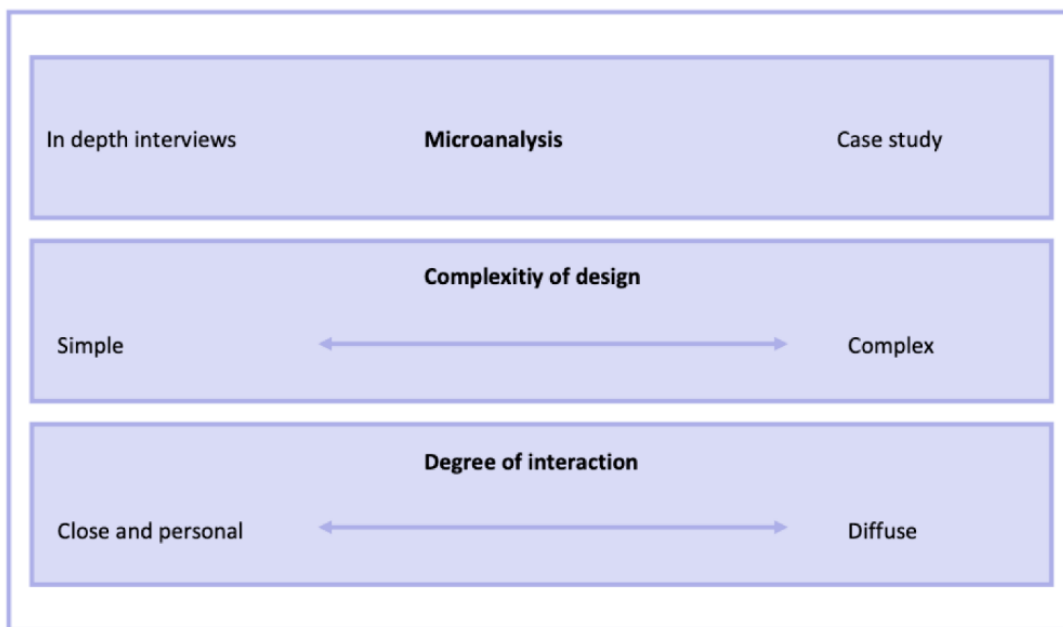
Figure 22: Complexity of Design and Interaction.
(Marshall, 2011; p.94)

In-depth interviews are still the most popular of all qualitative data collection methods (Keagan, 2009). The advantages of this method are that the researcher has close contact with the interviewees and control over the process. The researcher can react during the interview and steer the interview in the direction that needs to be covered. "*Individual in-depth interviews are one-to-one sessions with a research participant, recruited according to specific criteria, and moderated by a trained qualitative researcher. Typically, an in-depth interview lasts one hour, but this will vary according to the research and to the research needs".* (Keegan, 2009, p.78) In-depth interviews have a high level of complexity and a high level of interaction, as shown in Figure 22.

I decided it would be important to conduct face-to-face interviews. Literature suggests that respondents tend to provide less detailed responses in a telephone interview than a personal

interview (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004) and even less in a written questionnaire. Researchers emphasize the importance for the researcher to establish rapport with the interviewee at this *"introduction and small talk"* phase that precedes the main interview itself. The intention is to build trust and inform the interviewee about the purpose of the interview in order to get the interviewee talking freely (Mellon, 1990). Since we had either common friends or could relate to similar experiences a certain level of trust usually automatically was created between myself and the participants.

As I already had the opportunity to meet two of the above-mentioned well-known mountaineers, I took the chance to interview them at this early stage of my research project and used the two interviews as pilot interviews. I then adapted the open questions around the themes based on the feedback of my supervisors. At the beginning of the research, I generated an overview of general themes emerging around the research questions and the literature research. These were general leadership topics and topics related to expedition leadership, because *"even if you are in a highly inductive mode, it is a good idea to start with same general research questions. (…) They make the implicit explicit, without necessarily freezing or limiting your vision"* (Miles & Huberman, 2014; p. 27). It was important to listen and to remember what had been said previously in the interview in order to be able to make connections, recognize contradictions and ask follow-up questions to explore a response further. When following up responses, non-directive questions should be used in order that interest and encouragement to continue is communicated to the interviewee. As I have decided to apply a narrative analysis, my interest was to obtain and explore narratives related to the research questions. The interview style consisted of several guiding, open questions around various themes in order to receive richer answers. Table 22 shows examples of the in-depth questions applied in the interviews.

From one interview to the next, richer and improved guidelines could be applied (see Annex F). Overarching questions served as a guide and the richness of the answers had improved with the changes carried out after each interview. As outlined in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.2, some of the questions were prompted by the literature review, others were based on the topics related to the research questions. The same structured guidelines for all interviews were used but it was important to be open to including new topics. Therefore, the interviews

developed from one interview to the next and allowed for improvements and amendments (see also Chapter 3, Section 3.1).

> *"Would you be able to tell me the story with the leadership lens?"*
>
> *"Would you tell me an account of that?"*
>
> *"How would you recall that …event under the aspect of leadership?"*
>
> *"Can you take me back to that moment … - which was particularly disturbing…?"*
>
> *"…That's interesting…can you think of a story in that context?"*
>
> *"…Can you think of a story to illustrate this point?"*
>
> *"What do you mean by that?"*
>
> *"Could you provide me a story regarding this…?"*
>
> *"What was your experience with that…?"*
>
> *"What was it that you made feel like this...?"*

Table 22: Examples of in-depth questions

The interviews usually took between 80-90 minutes with the longest lasting nearly two hours. This corresponds to the suggestions from literature on elite interviews (see next Section 3.6.3.) although it is not entirely clear what the most appropriate length with elites should be, but they typically last between 45 to 90 minutes (Ostrander, 1993; Harvey, 2011; Stephens, 2007). This can vary as it depends on many factors such as on the characteristics of the interviewer and interviewee, the time, location, as well as the context of the interview. My interviews were conducted in separate rooms in order to guarantee privacy during the conversations. Sometimes they took place in living rooms and sometimes in hotels and restaurants. Table shows an overview of all the respondents.

There is no common view on whether one should record interviews or not (Harvey, 2011). Some argue that the respondents are more at ease without a recording device (Byron, 1993; Peabody et al., 1990), others found that the acceptance rate among elites was high and the influence minimal (Aberbach and Rockman, 2002). I proposed all of them to record the interviews and all participants agreed. The major advantage of a recording device was that it provided me with a verbatim script of the interview, and I could focus more on engaging with the participants (Richards, 1996).

The fieldwork period lasted over three and a half years, from May 2011 to December 2014.

3.6.3 Interviewing elites

"Interviewing elites – individuals in positions of power and influence – has a long history in sociology and organizational studies. An interview with an 'elite' person is a specialized case of interviewing that focuses on a particular type of interview partner (…) they are selected for interviews on the basis of their expertise in areas relevant to the research". (Marshall, 2011, p.155)

The first step a researcher has to take is to identify a group of elites, then gather the data from them and ask them for a recommendation to a similar group. How this sampling was done was described in Section 3.5.3.2. I assume if I had not been an executive myself and at the same time an alpinist in the alpine scene with a fair amount of experience in both fields – leadership and alpinism – accessing and carrying out the interviews with these elite climbers, would have been much more difficult.

A detailed description of each of the 13 interviewees is provided in Annex E. and in Table 21, p. 116 shows short resumes of all interviewed expedition leaders.

To summarize, I already knew some of the interview participants personally from earlier climbs or treks (Messner, Oelz, Härter, Eisendle), the others I contacted proactively (Blum, Pasaban, Diemberger). I received some leads via working relations (Venables and Jordan) and some through personal referrals (Bonington, Dyhrenfurth, Nairz), which is explained in Section 3.6 in greater detail. It was certainly an advantage to know some of these expedition leaders prior to this research because otherwise it would be hard to obtain a meeting. By knowing some leaders, the conversations were maybe more open, which I argue was thanks to their confidence and our good relationships. This supports the credibility and trustworthiness of the interview data. Another helpful factor is that I am an alpinist myself and thus could relate well to the world of my respondents; much better than a non-alpinist would be able. Also exploring the different leadership situations with the participants was maybe more insightful as an executive, since I could relate to the situations the expedition leaders described and at the same time they were conscious that they were discussing with someone who could make sense out of the findings, having been in similar situations oneself, even if in another (corporate) context. As described in Figure 22, p. 119, in depth interviews also benefit from the degree of interactions, which are close and personal. Such interaction is easier when people already know each other.

3.7   Data Analysis

In analysing the data, one summarizes collected data and interprets the data gathered through the use of analytical and logical reasoning to find meaning so that the derived knowledge, the discovery of patterns, relationships or trends, can be used to make informed decisions.

3.7.1   Introduction

The data analysis starts with summarizing each set of inputs, ideas and views provided by interviewees, the expedition leaders, which brings out their points of view. The analysis consisted broadly of several phases (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Boyatzis, R., 1998).

Phase 1 - Getting to know the data: Common to all forms of qualitative analysis, this phase involved *immersing* myself in the data by reading and re-reading the transcripts and listening to audio-recordings. Making notes on the data was part of this phase and helped me start to read the data *as* data. I was reading the transcripts actively, analytically and critically, and starting to think about *what the data mean*. This involved me asking questions like: how does the interview partner make sense of their experiences? What assumptions do they make in interpreting their experience? The objective of this phase was to become intimately familiar with my data content, and to start noticing things that might be relevant to my research questions.

Phase 2 - Generating initial codes: This phase began with a more systematic analysis of the data, through colour coding. These codes identify and provide a colour for a feature of the data that was potentially relevant to the research question but can also go beyond the statements and provide an *interpretation* about the data content. I colour marked the text associated with it. As my coding progressed, I have modified existing codes to incorporate new material.

Phase 3 - Searching for themes: In this phase, my analysis started to take some shape as I shifted from codes to themes. A theme "*captures something important about the data in relation to the research question and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set*" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 82). I reviewed the coded data multiple times to identify areas of similarity and overlap between codes. Then I could identify any general topics or see which codes cluster. I then could generate themes and subthemes, to describe a coherent and meaningful pattern in the data. At this stage I also started to explore the

relationship *between* the themes, and to consider how they would work together for an *overall* context of the data.

Phase 4 - Reviewing potential themes: This phase involves a process whereby the developing themes are again reviewed as a quality-check of questions to ask whether this is a theme, what the quality of this theme was, or whether there were enough and meaningful data to support a theme

Phase 5 - Defining and naming themes: In defining my themes, I checked whether I was able to clearly distinguish what was specific about each theme. This phase involved the deep analytic work and involved in thematic analysis and going into detail in the research data. As analysis consists also of writing, Phase 5 and 6 sometimes begin to blur. (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The extracts I selected to analyse and maybe to quote provided the structure for my analysis. With this data I created a narrative informing the reader of my interpretation of the data and their meaning. Data is not clear by just paraphrasing the content of it, but the analytic narrative tells the reader *what* about a specific part is interesting, and *why*. Throughout my data analysis section, I used narratives describing my data. I needed to interpret data and connect it to my research questions. Therefore, I developed each theme not only in its own right, but in relation to my research questions and in relation to the other themes. Only then conclusions can be drawn from across *the whole* analysis. I also tried to name the themes, as a good name for a theme should be "*informative, concise, and catchy*". (Braun & Clarke, 2006)

Phase 6 - Producing the final conclusion: The purpose of the final discussion was to go beyond description and to make an *argument* answering the research questions.

There are two different approaches a researcher can apply throughout a qualitative research: the classical and the emergent model (Keegan, 2009). The classic model deals with structures and the different steps within the research and the emergent model focuses on the relationship between different ideas or concepts, replicating learning and therefore driving continual learning process in the research. It looks at the fieldwork and the findings, whereas the emergent model, applied here, works through improvement loops and identifies patterns through them. The emergent model tries to replicate the "real" view that is not always clearly structured and organized in neat sequences. This model deals with the "messiness" of real life and the holistic view and scope of qualitative research. It reflects the fact that human beings often do not act logically or straightforwardly and even make leaps back and forth within a

process. Therefore, the emergent model tries to deal with the real nature of human beings. The underlying idea is that the brain cannot absorb impressions without them having an influence on the next step, as the brain is automatically "reading" and absorbing the content, thus creating stages of iterative loops. Figure 23 shows the model as a linear, chronologically organized process. Each stage is completed before the researcher moves on to the next stage. This model tries to organize the complex field of qualitative research. The "reality" seen, however, is only a fictional, artificially created version of reality.
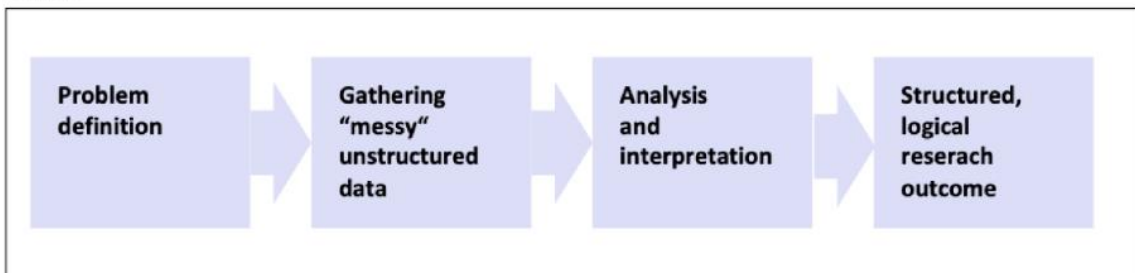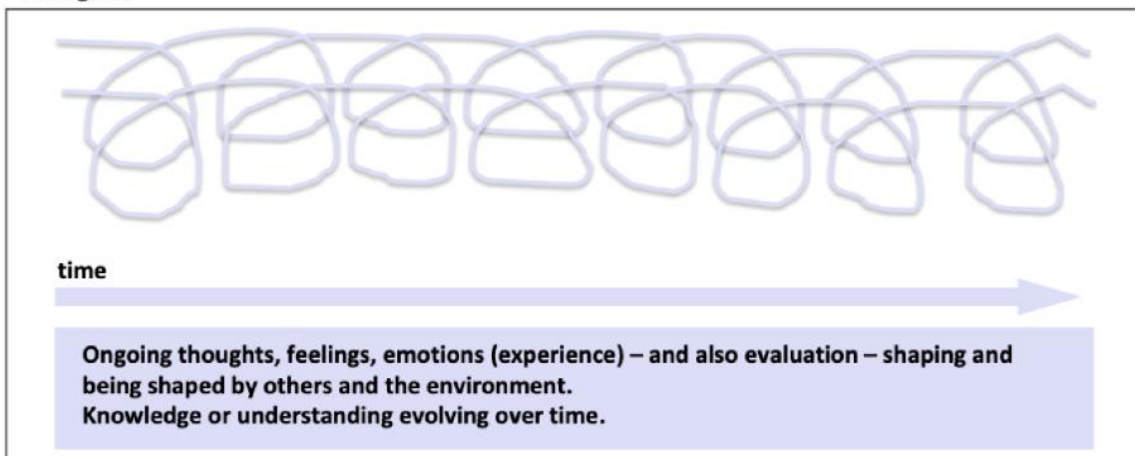
Figure 23: Classic and emergent research models
(Keegan, 2009, p.205f.)

I chose this method because it allows more flexibility for reflection and analysis of the data. The research process enriches the know-how and the findings by going back to previous interviews and analysis of the findings. This flexibility and reflection seem to fit well with the constructivist approach described before. From my interviews, two themes initially not included in the research questions that I was able to further develop were women in leadership and Sherpas. During the research, the data was analysed, organized categorically and chronologically and reviewed continuously and repeatedly. The major topics or themes that appeared were then recorded.

3.7.2   Transcribing and translating

Transcription is a continuous process, a bridge between the interview and the analysis across which the information, as well as the person who is conducting interviews, are re-orientated towards the method of logical reading. With qualitative interviews the transcription is a prerequisite for an extensive analysis. I recorded the interviews and needed to transcribe them afterwards in order to analyse them. The interviews were recorded to facilitate the process and avoid drawing attention away from the interviewer during the interview. Transcribing is a very long process and takes a lot of time, however, it allowed me to concentrate fully on the content of the interview that had been carried out before.

Some translations were necessary as the interviews were carried out in different languages, including German, English, and Spanish. The literature I used also was in several languages. I carried out all translations into English. I am a native German speaker and so it was an advantage to carry out some of the interviews in German and give the interviewees the possibility to talk in their mother tongue. Native speakers transcribed the interviews in their original language. The analysis was done by myself since I am fluent in English and can relate and interpret statements in German and English. For the Spanish interview, I hired a professional Spanish-English translator who proofread the transcription and the translations into English.

For ethical standards, at the end of the analysis I provided all the statements, which I use in this thesis extracted from the interviews, to the interviewees to provide them with the option of correcting and changing the quotes and the meanings of the contents I used. Furthermore, the highest transparency was provided to the interviewees (see also Section 3.6.2). From the beginning it was made clear that the interviews were registered, transcribed and later used in the narratives of this research. All participants could see their contribution and could change it. Each interviewee received the complete transcript of the interview to provide feedback and then give consent. I also paid attention not to change the original meaning and tried to leave the quotes in the right context. Where primary resources from the respondents were available (biographies and books), I also used to them to put the interviews in context and for triangulation.

3.7.3 Setting up the analysis framework

Generally, data analysis in a qualitative research project consists of preparing and organizing data (e.g., text data from interviews that have been transcribed) then analysing the data by reducing it into certain topics and clusters. This happens through a rigorous process of coding, and finally presenting the newly defined and analysed data in tables, charts, figures or text for discussion (Creswell, 2007).

Data analysis in qualitative research is not standardized but involves iterative steps of learning and improving - the "learning". As shown in Figure 24 the process is a spiral rather than a fixed, linear line. The research starts by managing the procured data and then trying to organize it. Then the data was ordered by creating a structure (memos etc.) before I reflected on it. Only then did I start with the actual core part of the analysis, as I categorized the data and put it into defined groups. Here I interpreted and described what I read in the data. Thereafter, the data be recreated in new types of visualization such as tables, figures etc.
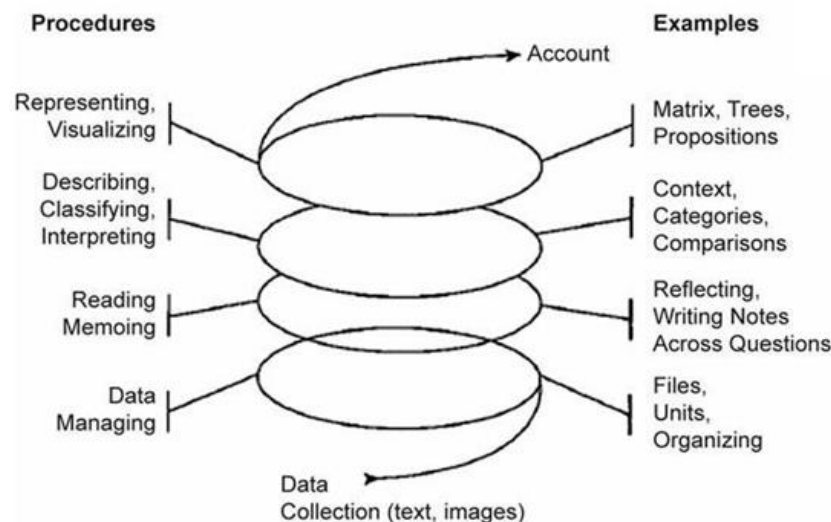
Figure 24: The Data Analysis Spiral
(Creswell, 2007, p.151)

The assessment was done through various readings and explanations of the raw information and applying an inductive logic. The results are formed by my beliefs and knowledge and my assessment regarding the information. For the results to be applicable, I needed to decide what was more or less significant in the information. The reliability of the results extracted from the inductive assessment can be examined utilizing the same tools to those utilized with other various kinds of qualitative assessment (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The method is not like

deductive analysis in which a particular hypothesis, model and framework is tested.

There are different software programs available to analyse qualitative data, such as Atlas.ti Ethnography or NVivo. I decided not to use any of these tools in order to minimize the mass of data in this analysis phase and keep my analysis close to the original richness of the data. This is important within the context of using the narrative method. I chose a thematic analysis within the narrative analysis, which I found attractive because a narrative is a fundamental method to tell human experiences, *"Narratives are inherently and explicitly agentive and demonstrate how individuals attempt to navigate their desires, hopes and intentions within the vagaries of the structural features of their lives as well as the unexpected"* (Mc Alpine, 2016, p. 34). Section 3.7.6 and Annex J describe how the narrative method was applied in this research.

The analysis phase started with a multiple reading of the transcripts. Creswell (2007) suggests the following steps to analyse the data within a narrative research, *"Data managing; Reading Memoing; Describing; Classifying; Interpreting; Representing, Visualizing"* (Creswell, 2007, p.156). I identified several recurring themes and categories in which they were clustered using the mind map technique (discussed later in Section 3.7.5). As an example, I would mention that initially there was no topic regarding the bonding of the team (see Figure 25). Only after I had made the interview with Jordan, I decided to include a new category, based on an anecdote, where he stated that he felt the team grew together when even the team members, who were not climbing that day, got up at midnight and ate with the ones who left as an act of solidarity. *"There was no order, there was nobody.... And you started feeling this group works together."* (Interview with Jordan).

The themes were extended and adapted when necessary with each transcript included. For each interviewee, a specific mind map was produced to visualize the findings. I analysed the data collection within the narrative research for supporting narratives and looked for the chronology of unfolding events (Section 3.7.4).

After this step, categories were derived from the transcripts and then a thematic analysis was carried out and certain topics emerged (see Section 3.7.6). I went back to the original transcripts and identified all relevant stories that would serve for a narrative analysis and then clustered these stories into the themes mentioned above (see also Figure 11, p. 690). At the

same time, I crosschecked the life stories and curricula of all the interviewees to identify potential commonalities or similarities - a typical application of narratives (McAlpine, 2015).
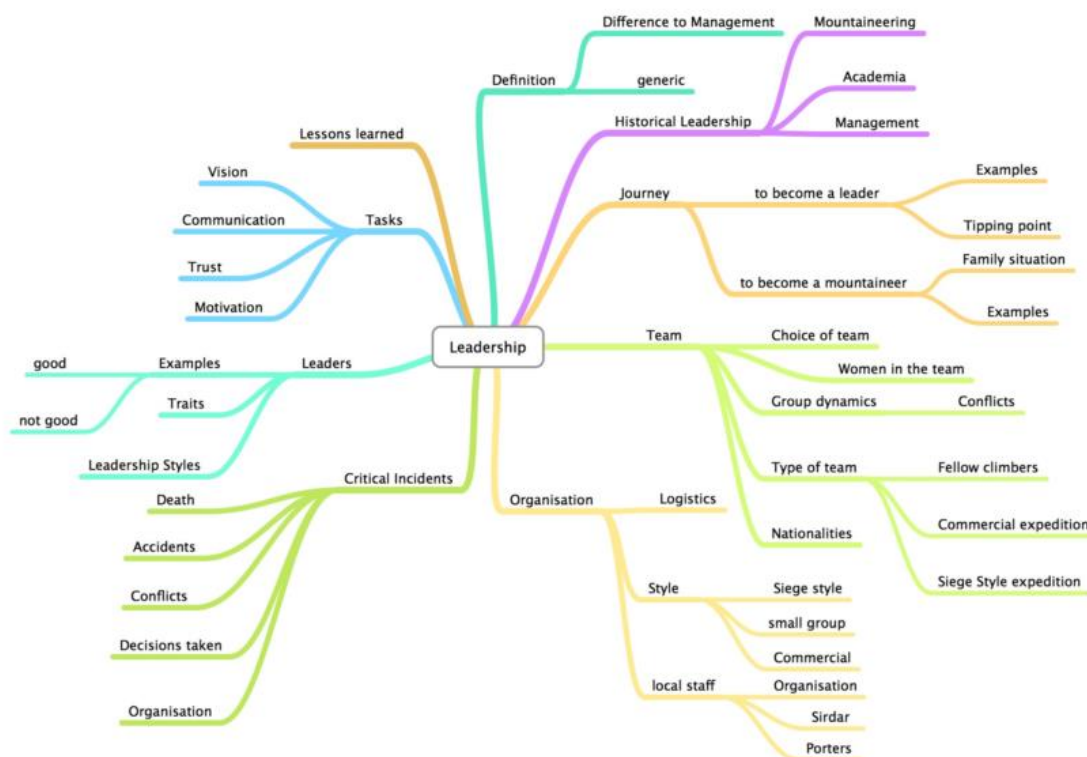
Figure 25: Overarching, "master" mind-map after first analysis

These findings were of particular interest to the question of how leaders were influenced by role models. In a next step, the different topics of the thematic analysis were put into the context of the research questions and interpreted. The narratives and stories previously identified were categorized in the same way and added to the findings section in order to provide more insights or background information to the reader. After finalising the analysis, I looked for parallels and potential learnings for corporate management. These findings were the basis of each work.

3.7.4   Narrative Analysis

The use of narratives in social sciences as a research approach has gained interest over the last decades (Czarniawska, 2004; Rhodes and Brown, 2005). In an organizational context, the conception of narrative is usually connected with the experiences of the leaders and their meaning, but also with the relationships with their employees (Czarniwaska, 2004; Rhodes and Brown, 2005).

I adopted a narrative analysis approach because the genre of narrative analysis tries to describe situations by constructing stories about the lives of people (Czarniawska, 2004, Creswell, 2007). Life histories, biographies, personal accounts and oral stories are all forms of narrative analysis (McAlpine, 2015). This approach assumes that the art of storytelling is an integral part of life and a constructive process (Marshall, 2011). A narrative can be any text or account used within inquiries of conducting a qualitative research. Czarniawska (2004) defines narrative as follows: *"Narrative is understood as a spoken or written text giving an account of an event/action or series of events/actions, chronologically connected."* (Czarniawska, 2004, p.17) This approach helps the process of learning about events and can be used to solve the problem of how to translate one set experience in one context into another context. (Linde, 2001).

Reasons to use narrative analysis

Narrative processes can be assumed to be real world portions, which are accurate when actual life issues are analysed. In a primary limited method, they surround the research into the knowledge of each individual, grasping stories of real life and discovering the accomplished importance of that individual knowledge. It is a meaningful area of the social science analysis but cannot always isolate for proof and back up for the summary of a research report. Narrative analysis has also its limitations. It *"often speaks in ways that overlook any overarching sense of indeterminacy, partiality and complexity"* (Taylor, 2008, p. 29). Researchers can only show a limited number of experiences, which are then used to create a coherent story. Therefore, they need to pay attention of e.g., inconsistencies, what is said and what is left out of the used accounts (McAlpine, 2015). The question about accuracy of the story arises when looked at objectively, even though it must be viewed in its socio-cultural context. The narrative gives an individual's view to be assessed on its merits. Such validation is possible by corroboration from another narrative (Bourke, 2010). I used their books and other writings as well as my experiences.

Using personas and their narratives in order to explore how contextualised leadership occurs, seemed a suitable method to analyse the different events unfolding in leadership situations

within this research, as used by Kempster (2009). He uses four core[3] profiles including 40 narratives of managers to explore how leadership in a context occurs.

The literature mentions various ways to collect narratives (Czarniawska, 2004). One is using spontaneous stories during an extended period of field research and another elicits stories, which are very similar to the critical incident techniques (the US Army selected and classified aircrews in World War II using this technique). Another way to obtain narratives is to proactively ask for them. This is the approach taken in this work. Autobiographies, expedition reports and films were also used to prepare the interviews and to verify statements and ideas after having transcribed and interpreted the transcripts. This triangulation allowed exploration of the interviews from different angles, as described in Section 3.7.7.

Phase according to Creswell (2007)	Research project of DBA thesis
First determine whether the research question is fit for the method of narratives.	Yes, Research question is fit for this method.
Then select one or more subjects who would fit into the research and have stories to tell which would enrich the research question.	As outlined in this paper there were 13 people who were interviewed for this research; expeditions leaders, who had stories to tell.
As a next process step the researcher needs to learn about the context of the stories.	The context became very clear by transcribing the interviews and actively listening to them again. In the course of time stories around similar topics emerged.
The analysis of the accounts and possibly "restory" them is supporting a new framework. "Restorying" is the step to categorize the stories from the individual accounts into some general type of framework.	After having applied a lateral theme analysis and found emerging topics from all the 13 interviews, which were first captured in mindmaps, the stories which have been identified have been categorized into those defined topics.

Table 23: Phases in narrative research and the relation to the research project
(Creswell, 2007; amended by the author, 2015)

Creswell (2007) identifies the following phases to conduct narrative research:

Determine whether the research question is fit for the method of narratives. Select one or more subjects who would fit into the research and have stories to tell which would enrich the research question. Learn the context of the stories. Analyse the accounts and possibly

---

[3] One case comes from the public sector, one from the private sector, one deals with women in leadership learning and one with owner-managers

"restore" them supporting a new framework. "Restoring" is the step to categorize the stories from the individual accounts into a general framework. Creswell's phases (2007) were applied in this research project. These reflections are shown in Table 23.

The term narrative assessment means various methods of information gathering and assessment, involving biography, autobiography, life story, verbal history, auto ethnography, life history and the art of story narrating.

3.7.5   Mind-Maps

In this research I have used the mind-mapping technique to handle the large volume of audio-recorded information from qualitative semi structured interviews and explore the first structures and main themes that emerged. After each interview I created a new mind map from the different focus of each interview partner. Figure 26, p. 132 shows the mind map after my second interview with Arlene Blum as an example. The content was based only on the content of the interview. After adapting the mind maps with data gathered in the subsequent interviews, a general overview "master" mind map was created (Figure 25, p. 129). In Section 3.7.6, (p. 134) I further describe how I used this mind map for the first thematic analysis to consolidate the emergent themes of the interview data.
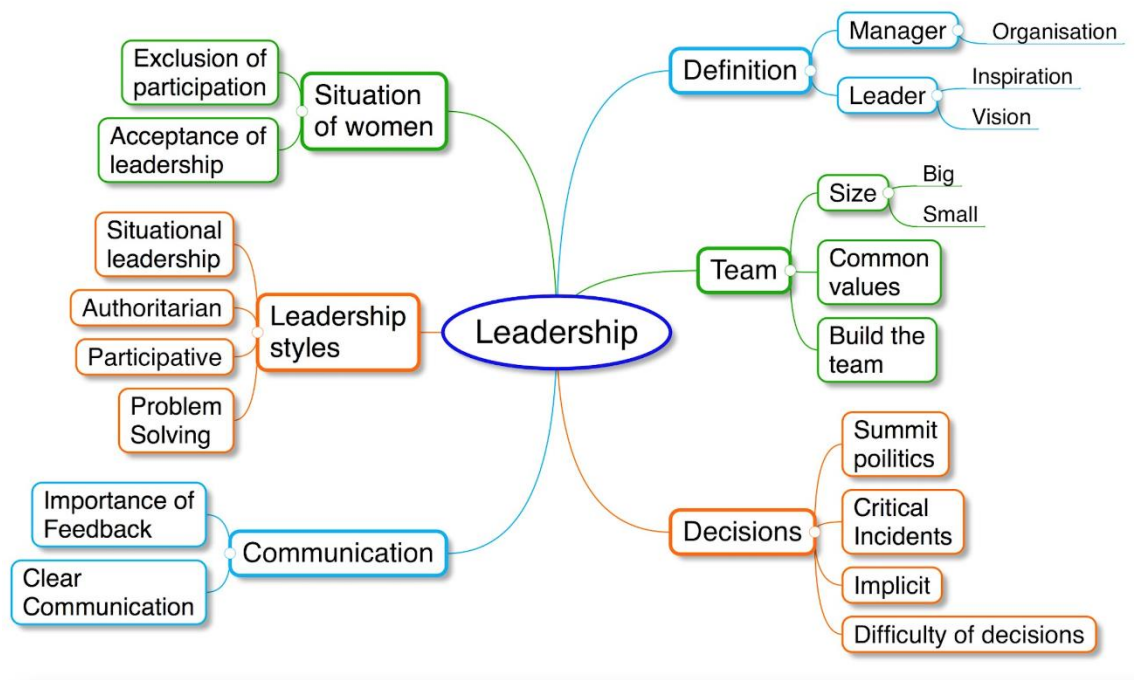
Figure 26: Example of the mind map created after the interview with Arlene Blum

Concept mapping, as it is traditionally understood today, was first referred to in the 1970s by Stewart, Van Kirk, and Rowell (1979) and subsequently developed by Novak and Gowin (1984). The latter researchers remain involved in the discussion and dissemination of the value and utility of maps, mapping techniques, and analysis. In general terms, concept mapping is a technique that demonstrates how people visualize relationships between various concepts (Lanzing, 1996). Although useful explorations exist (Daley, 2004; Raymond, 1997), a challenge to the use of concept maps in qualitative research is that the focus on construction and structure are based on an interest in comparing participant maps or quantifying generated concepts within these maps.

Mind maps are tools used in qualitative research, which are useful to address researcher bias and ensure that data will be collected in a way that puts the experience of the participant at the centre. This visually oriented method helps qualitative researchers to plan their research process, collect qualitative data, analyse the data, organize, and present their findings (Wheeldon, 2017). Mind Maps are often used as a tool in qualitative research (Tattersall, et al., 2007). This approach gives the researcher a graphical format to depict the key themes that have been identified from the transcripts of interviews and to clear the mind of previous assumptions about the subject (Buzan, 2003). It helps to focus the discussion, increase transparency and build a relationship between feedback and collection of data, resulting in a broader theme (Burgess-Allen & Owen-Smith, 2010). It is an expeditious method for a huge amount of data handling (Allen, 2010). Therefore, it seems that despite the complexity of data collection, mapping techniques can help to make the analysis process more transparent. They offer a snapshot of individual perceptions, which help researchers to establish a base for theoretical contribution (Wheeldon, Faubert, 2009).

Mind mapping is defined as "*visual, non-linear representations of ideas and their relationships*" (Biktimirov & Nilson 2006, p. 72). The weakness of mind mapping is that there is no clear link between ideas, and they are limited to simple concepts. Mind mapping might not be suited to dealing with very complex relationships, since they might become too large and create confusion. I have frequently used mind maps in my professional life, especially at the start of my career, when I worked in market research.

During the analysis phase, mind mapping helped to record all relevant themes and visualise them in order to put them into a context. It was a visual means of recalling all the emerging

topics and being able to compare them. It is quite common for researchers applying thematic analysis to draw and redraw lots of "thematic maps" when searching for themes and undertake extensive review processes when working with a lot of data. A thematic map is a visual or text-based (Braun & Clarke, 2006) tool to map out the facets of an analysis and to identify main themes, subthemes, and interconnections between them.

3.7.6   Thematic Analysis

"Thematic analysis is a poorly demarcated, rarely acknowledged, yet widely used qualitative analytic method within psychology" (Braun & Clarke, 2014; p. 2). It is not branded effectively or appreciated like grounded theory, ethnography, or phenomenology, but it is extensively utilized in qualitative research (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis should be the primary method used for qualitative assessments as it gives the basic skills to apply to the many other forms of qualitative assessment. Researchers have mentioned that thematic analysis is a method utilized in various qualitative studies that helps them to use a variety of information in a systematic way. It therefore increases the understanding of observations of situations, people, institutions, and events (Boyatzis, 1998). Braun & Clarke (2006) argue that thematic assessment is a process in its own right. King (2004) points out that thematic analysis is a method to summarize key topics of large sets of data as it helps to structure the approach in handling data, which was the goal when I started analysing the data generated from the interviews. After conducting 13 face-to-face interviews and distilling the information from mind maps based on conventional qualitative analysis, I started the thematic analysis. The themes generated by the mind mapping method were similar to those that evolved by conventional thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is a qualitative study method, which can be extensively used across an extent of epistemologies and study questions. It is a way to determine assess, organize, describe and report themes explored within an information-set (Braun, 2006). According to Boyatzis (1998), thematic analysis is also used as a translator for those who talk in the language of qualitative and quantitative analysis, allowing analysts who use various research processes to talk to each other. An accurate thematic analysis can create reliable and perceptive outcomes (Braun & Clarke, 2006), although, there is no agreement on how analysts apply the process. However thematic assessment is explained (Aronson, 1994), conducting thematic analysis has concentrated on conducting a study with an applied concentration or explained inductive as compared to a deductive process (Guest, 2011). There

is a lot more content available on grounded theory, ethnography, and phenomenology than thematic analysis and very little literature that highlights this method to conduct reliable thematic analysis.

Table of Contents			1. Personal Situation & Start

Table of Contents

1. Personal Situation & Start

On how she became a leader
She started climbing at university. At the first big expedition she was the deputy leader, but hat to step in as the leader because of an accident of the leader (28"53')
On being a leader (28:28)
"It's a funny thing but I was almost always the leader of the trips I did. I tend to dream up things and make them happy. (→3) Vision)
Also in those days women weren't invited on expeditions. So they had to organize them themselves.
(29:26) " So by the time I was 26. I have lead a lot of expeditions"
On her situation of being a scientist
(8:10) scientist see the whole complexity of a problem, which is the opposite of people in politics.
(9:44) All her life and career Arlene has been confronted with attitudes against women which she had to challenge. ("Women can't climb 8000m peaks. Woman can't climb Denali. Woman can't carry heavy loads")
On her background (and point 2)
(3:00) " My father was German and he was like that (referring to not giving any positive feedback). He never said anything good to his children."

2. Leadership

2.1. General
(1:05:00) Leader has to trust the team, empower the team, giving them ownership.
On celebrating successes
(1:05:00) To stop and say, "This is the Summit. We've accomplished something." - positive feedback (→ Communication)

2.2. Definition
On Leadership Types (14:06)

Figure 27: Example of first analysis of the different themes and relevant quotes

Conducted Thematic Analysis – an analysis for themes and subthemes: Before the analysis of the narratives started, I re-analysed the transcripts with the identified themes and identified the most typical statements per theme (including the exact time stamp of the interview to demonstrate where the quote is allocated). Each transcript had a small table of content based on the mind maps and with attributed quotes for each of the themes as a result (Figure 27). This analysis provided much more detail on the emergent themes, including original citations. Two further analyses were conducted with these findings. First, I went back to the original transcripts to find more relevant narratives or descriptions of themes and events to enrich the emerging themes. I used a specific colour coding to differentiate the topics and which is explained in more detail in Annex K. The outcome was one new document per theme (e.g., on "decisions") but including all statements of all interviewees.

Searching for narratives

A second round of analysis was conducted whereby the focus was entirely on relevant narratives related to the themes already defined. The different topics which emerged from

the mind maps within the transcripts were colour coded and sorted within each interview and after that clustered by themes (Table 24). The different colours each corresponded to one of the topics that emerged most significantly in the interviews, as shown in Annex J. When applying a narrative analysis, it is important to identify stories and anecdotes within the transcripts to better describe different topics. Therefore, the next step was to attribute stories to the different themes to be able to use them in the analysis (Annex K). The different themes had subcategories to refine the attribution of the respective stories to specific situations. For example, the theme "decision making", which was colour coded green, was further subdivided into "decision in summit politics", "decisions in critical incidents" and "decisions based on intuition".

After having created an overview of all themes per interviewee (Figure 27) two overarching themes of "power" and "communication" emerged during the analysis. The theme of "communication" is dealt with in the discussion on leadership and the team (Section 2.4.4). "Power" and its role within leadership emerged prominently and needed to be analysed systematically.

Bonington	Blum	Pasaban	Härter	Kobler
1. Leadership Styles	1. Own Story / How to learn to lead	1. Own Story / How to learn to lead	1. Own story	1. Story/how it started
2. Team	2. Leadership	2. Team	2. Leadership	2. Traits of leaders
3. Communication	3. Communication (and Feedback)	3. Decision	3. Team	3. Decision
4. Decision making	4. Team (Group)	4. Vision + Objective	4. Decisions	4. Team
5. Parallels to Corporate Management	5. Leadership Styles	5. Communication	5. Communication	5. Commercial aspects
6. Women	6. Decision	6. Leadship Styles	6. Critical Incidents	6. Leadership
	7. Women in expeditions	7. Commercial aspects	7. Commercials Aspects	
		8. Parallel lives	8. Objective	
		9. Women		
Messner	**Jordan**	**Venables**	**Nairz**	**Eisendle**
1. Leadership	1. Own story	1. Leadership style	1. Own story	1. Own story
2. Team	2. Team	2. Team/Group	2. Leadership	2. Leadership
3. Sherpas	3. Decisions	3. Decision	3. Team	3. Role of the leader
4. Responsibilty	4. Values, Vision	4. Critical Incidence	4. Decisions	4. Qualifications of a leader
5. Corporate Management	5. Communication	5. Acceptance & Credibility	5. Commercial side	5. Challenges for a leader
6. Commercial Aspect	6. Leadership style	6. Soft Factors	6. Responsibility	6. (Small) Team
7. Vision	7. Commercial input	7. Corporate Environment (parallels)	7. Sherpas	7. Conflicts, & Communication, Decisions
	8. Parallel lives	8. Communication and Feedback		8. Commercial aspects
				9. Sherpas
				10. Corporate aspects
Diemberger	**Oelz**	**Dyhrenfurth**		
1. Own story	1. Own story	1. Own story		
2. Leadership	2. Leadership	2. Leadership		
3. Team	3. Team	3. Team		Team (incl. Women, Sherpas)
4. Objectives	4. Critical Incidence	4. Conflicts & Communication, Decisions		Leadership/Leadership Styles
5. Decision	5. Objective	5. Commercial aspects		Decisions Crit. Inc., Summit Pol.)
6. Communication	6. Parallels to corporate world	6. Sherpas		Communication
7. Political and media influence	7. Summit politics	7. Corporate aspects		
8. Past expeditions	8. Women	8. Women		
9. Sherpas	9. Sherpas			

Table 24 : Thematic analysis: Themes based on mind maps

I then designed a spreadsheet, each based on one research questions, adding the respective themes and new codes on subthemes per question, as shown in Table 25. They are explained further in Annex L. These tables enabled me to explore and learn about the emergent themes relating back to the research questions and filter them according to those themes. I therefore re-analysed the above-mentioned themes from the angle of power and in relation to different

power categories. I then created clusters and filters. The filters shown in Table 25 enabled a more detailed analysis relating to the different power bases (French & Raven, 1959; Morgan, 1997) and this helped to show correlations to emergent themes in a new context. This step led to the learnings, which will be discussed in Chapter 4.

Table 25: Analysis of emergent themes and connections with power categories

Triangulation

Triangulation is the main method to increase validity in qualitative research (Shenton, 2004). As recommended by Jonson and Jehn (2009), I have used triangulation to increase the credibility and validity of the results, as outlined in Section 3.7.6. Triangulation helped to develop consistency between the dependent and independent variables, especially because both primary and secondary data was used (Heale & Forbes, 2013).

Several authors, such as Cohen & Manion (2000, p. 254) have defined triangulation as an, *"attempt to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint"*. Altrichter et al., (2008, p.147) argue, *"Triangulation gives a more detailed and balanced picture of the situation".* Others emphasize that triangulation is a *"method of cross-checking data from multiple sources to search for regularities in the research data"* (O'Donoghue, Punch, 2003, p.78). I argue that credibility, which is the confidence of qualitative research, is created by triangulation. Triangulation usually describes when two or more methods in research are combined - known as mixed research methods (Denzin, 2006). Apart from data triangulation, Denzin describes investigator triangulation, triangulation of theories, and the methodological triangulation, which can be either using different methods or different approaches within one method, which has been

applied in this research. After this the results can lead to similar conclusions, which converge, or the outcomes may be different from the objects or phenomena and may be interrelated and utilized to increase the individual outcomes. Combining outcomes tends to augment the authenticity, which was the primary reason to apply it in this research. Complementary outcomes depict various factors of the circumstance or reflect various circumstances and divergent outcomes can result in recent and exceptional descriptions for the circumstance under analysis (Cohen, 2006).

I have used multiple sources to conduct my research to reduce the chance of errors. Triangulation enabled me to collect data from various secondary and primary sources, including face-to-face interviews of expedition leaders. I also read the relevant articles in mountaineering journals and reports in books or watched movies to collect the data for this research, as described in Section 3.6. This process enriched the data from the interviews through additional material covering the same topics and leaders.

After the thematic analysis I returned to the literature on the interviewees and their books and examined the expedition reports and autobiographies in order to demonstrate that certain topics mentioned in the interviews were also mentioned there. These reports were also a source for further descriptions for defined themes and filled them with richer content.

3.7.7   Trustworthiness and Validation of Qualitative Research

Validation in qualitative research is not always straightforward; often because the basic concepts of validity and reliability are not addressed the same way as positivists would do this (Shenton, 2004). The steps to validate qualitative research are not always that clear.

Is the account valid when subjects are asked to read it when it is compared to official records, and when it is compared to accounts from other informants? (…) The meanings of these experiences are best given by the persons who experience them; thus, a preoccupation with the method, validation, reliability, generalizability, and theoretical relevance of the biographical method must be set aside in favour of a concern for meaning and interpretation (Edel, 1984 in Creswell, 2007, p.217).

Different validation strategies were used in this qualitative research, in line with Johnson (2011) to establish trustworthiness. In order to establish credibility, I developed familiarity

with the culture of the participants which, according to Shenton (2004), is the equivalent of internal validity of positivist research. I read many expedition reports and watched films on expeditions in order to be well prepared. In addition, triangulation was used when interviewees from different backgrounds and from different age groups were selected.

Through the method of narrative analysis, many quotes and stories were used to keep the phrasing as close as possible to the original. The experiences can be deemed to be valid as the people who experienced them told their personal stories directly. I was also very self-critical and reflexive and avoided bias by going back and re-analysing the data multiple times using triangulation of multiple sources. After this process I started writing down the findings of the analysis derived from expedition leadership and transferred to corporate management, which is found in Chapter 4. At this point, the literature research (Chapter 2) was written and extended contemporaneously. I needed to extend the theoretical know how of the defined themes and subtopics as well as on newly discovered topics to assess and analyse the latter.

I kept the order of the research questions in order to accommodate the findings and the anecdotes in the interpretation chapter (Chapter 4) and then started to analyse and discuss the new patterns and new topics, which emerged during the analysis. This discussion led to the creation of new models closing a potential gap in theory, e.g., the communication-complexity model (Chapter 5). I also showed where these new findings could be applied in practise in corporate management.

Chapter 4 : Findings from data and interpretation

In this chapter, the data generated from the qualitative research will be analysed, structured and interpretations made to answer the following research questions as outlined in Chapter 1. Section 1.1.3.1.

The aim of thisresearch is to explore whether there are any <u>leadership lessons</u> found in the expedition environment that could be transferred to the top management in the corporate world. This will be further investigated by reflecting on <u>how expedition leaders have learned to lead</u> and by examining their leadership styles. It also explores the <u>dynamics between the expedition leader and the team</u> and seeks to understand sub teams and uncover some of the <u>decision-making processes</u> during an expedition through examples of critical incidents and summit politics.

<u>The first part of this chapter</u> tries to understand how expedition leaders define leadership, how they lead and how they learned to lead, what they see as good and bad leadership, and to identify their individual definitions of leadership. The notions of emotion, intuition and empathy are shown to be an important point for leadership (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.9 and Section 4.1.5). The perception of the differences between leadership and management and different leadership styles will be analysed to understand how expedition leaders lead.

<u>The second part of this chapter</u> shows how teams are chosen and composed, and how interaction happens. This part also explores the relationship between the leader, followers and the relationships and dynamics within the group. Women and Sherpas are shown to be sub-groups that interacted with the leaders in a different way to the rest of the team members. Women provide an interesting aspect because the gender topic is prevalent in the corporate environment. Sherpas have the dual role of employee and team member. Both sub-groups have been impacted by social developments in the 60 years' time span of the expeditions covered by the interviewed expedition leaders.

The different ways in which decisions are made, as supported by Useem (2010), Grint (2005), and Nye (2004), was also prevalent throughout the different interviews and is covered in the third part of this chapter. This aspect also includes the decision-making process. Critical situations and summit politics were the other main emergent themes in the analysis. By analysing how decisions are made, it was possible to uncover decision-making processes within the expedition. Furthermore, I tried to understand how expedition leaders deal with

critical situations and complex political decisions, such as who has the right for a summit push, so-called "summit politics", and whether this can be transferred into a corporate environment.

The question of how leadership lessons can be transferred from an expedition to a corporate environment is a synthesis of the learnings from the previous research questions and additional analysis.

The following text provides original quotes from the interviews including some narratives and anecdotes, to illustrate specific topics emerging from the data. Relevant quotes from my interviews are in italics and put into boxes, whereas all other quotes from literature are just in italic.

4.1 Why and how do you become an expedition leader?

In order to discuss leadership styles, one needs to explore how someone becomes a leader and how they are influenced during their development. This requires an analysis of the lives of the individual leaders with the help of their personal narratives. This part of the study focuses on why different expedition leaders started leading, how they learned to lead and where their inspirations came from.

4.1.1 Why become a leader?

"My Himalayan father" (Interview with Diemberger) or the importance of a role model

Besides the common passion for mountaineering, several expedition leaders mentioned one or more role models when asked how they had learned to lead. Fathers or father-like role models influenced the development and leadership style of the interviewees. Jordan, for example, argued that it is either your father or your first boss who has the biggest influence on your leadership style. All examples were male leaders and role models, which reflects the situation in the mountaineering world as well as in the corporate world (see Section 2.4 and 2.7). Only Jordan mentions his wife who suggested that he should be the leader of an expedition himself. This was the tipping point for him to start leading his own expedition. Blum who had a difficult family situation mentioned that she paid particular attention to provide feedback as a leader as a reaction to her father's style. Pasaban mentioned her father, a successful entrepreneur and businessman, who was always a driving force in her life: *"My father is a very demanding person, my reference in my life … I think I did a lot of things only to*

demonstrate to my father that I can do it, nothing else." She also mentions that the freedom that her parents gave her made her the person, entrepreneur and climber she is today: *"…I always say, my great sponsors were my parents, because they let me go". (Interview with Pasaban)*

Diemberger, who at the time of the interview was 86 years old, belongs to a different generation and was strongly influenced by more senior climbers, since he was the youngest in the team. He particularly admired Herman Buhl[4], whom he also called his *"Himalayan Father"*. Dyhrenfurth came from a very adventurous family. His parents were pioneers and even led a recognition expedition to the third highest mountain in the world, Kanchenjunga, in 1931. Both of his parents, Hettie and Oscar Dyhrenfurth were excellent alpinists and role models for him. Eisendle and Oelz, both friends of Messner, have many similar opinions and attitudes. Messner explained that as a teenager he was very impressed by Bonatti's accounts and adventures in the mountains[5].

Other interviewees like Nairz, Jordan and Härter also mentioned the influence of climbers or leaders of previous expeditions. Venables mentioned Eric Shipton[6] as an inspiration and Nairz obtained information before his first expedition on how others have handled the organization and management of a Himalayan expedition. Most role models came from military led, Siege style expeditions. Jordan mentioned that the leadership of Bonington influenced him when he read his books.

Most of the interviewed expedition leaders had a role model before they started leading themselves. Sometimes this was the father and sometimes previous, successful expedition leaders who they did not know in person, but through literature, expedition reports and books.

4.1.2 How to become a leader

Another aspect, which emerged as a theme during the interviews and was analysed for this research, was how one becomes a leader. Various reasons why people become expedition leaders were revealed in the narratives.

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[4] Herrmann Buhl was an Austrian who was the first person to climb Nanga Parbat in Pakistan in 1953.
[5] Bonatti was an Italian alpinist, who played a crucial role in climbing the "Italian 8000er peak" K2 in 1954 and became famous by climbing difficult routes in the Alps in the 1950s and 1960s. With his climbs and books, he influenced a whole generation of mountain climbers.
[6] Shipton was a famous British mountaineer who led several expeditions from the 1930s to the 1960s

"It just happened" (Interview with Diemberger)

Some of the interviewees never planned on being an expedition leader, but rather stumbled into it through their climbing activities. Chris Bonington mentioned in his interview that *"he just wanted to climb with friends"* but as he realized, he could make a living around climbing and communicating, he went on to become an expedition leader. Bonington turned into a leader because he consciously decided to be the one in charge at a certain point and after long discussions with his friends.

> *"We talked and talked and talked, but nobody did anything about it. That´s when I think I thought, 'Well, gosh! I better get ordered'."* (Interview with Bonington)

On other occasions, the team picked a leader, such as Nairz and Diemberger because they had a higher education.

> *"We wanted to climb a high mountain. Therefore, we needed an expedition leader. So, the others said, you have studied; you will be the expedition leader. That's it."* (…) *"It just happened."* (Interview with Diemberger)

Venables recalls that organizing the first expedition with friends and fellow climbers actually put him in the leadership role. This was also partly due to the fact that he did not have a regular job at that time as opposed to the other ones of the team and had more time at his disposal. Therefore, he took charge and started organizing the tour. Also, Bonington had a similar experience:

> *"And so, people supported us. Which is very exciting, because once you start that, once you have said you are going, and the first cheque comes in, you realize this is actually going to happen. I rather took charge because the others were all busy with regular jobs. And it worked."* (Interview with Bonington)

Some leaders decided to take charge of an expedition and become leaders for other reasons.

"I tend to dream up things and make them happen" (Interview with Arlene Blum)

At graduate school, Blum asked to join the Harvard mountaineering club and was deeply disappointed when she was not allowed to join the club as a woman. She then started climbing at Reed College in Portland Oregon, which accepted women even in the 60s. Blum then

applied for a guided climb on Denali, the highest mountain in North America, and was told she could only go as far as base camp to help with the cooking. Therefore, she organized an all-woman expedition to Denali as deputy leader. When their leader became unconscious just below the summit, she stepped in as the main leader. She described how it was the logical consequence to start leading expeditions because women were simply not allowed or invited to expeditions. Blum, who holds a PhD in chemistry, said that leading was something she was inclined to do and a means to make her vision come alive; an attitude which is often found in the corporate environment as well, especially in the entrepreneurial world.

"You know, it's a funny thing but I was almost always the leader of the trips I did. I tend to dream up things and make them happen. And also, in those days it was very hard for women to be invited. So, I thought by organising the trip I can be invited." (Interview with Blum)

For Blum and other women of her generation the only way to participate was to organize an expedition themselves. The only other way to join was as "the wife" of a male climber, which usually did not include the right to climb the summit. Irene Miller, a strong climber of Blum's Annapurna expedition, was not allowed to participate in a Himalayan expedition in the 1960s, although she was there with her husband. It is also notable that Sir Edmund Hillary, the first man on Everest, led this expedition (see also later in this Section 4.8.).

Similarly, Pasaban, although from a different generation, born nearly 30 years later, was usually dependent on her male fellow climbers and friends to be a participant in an expedition. She started climbing with her fellow mountaineers from the Basque country when they decided to climb an 8000m peak in the Himalayas. She recalls that lots of initiatives and dynamics came from her although no formal leader had been defined. She was not the explicit leader, but she says that she likes to organize things. She did a lot of organization for this expedition, for example procuring a satellite telephone for the entire team and organizing fund raising events and parties. At a certain point, when Pasaban was more and more absorbed in expeditions, her father wanted her to work in his company. But she decided to become an expedition leader herself when the relationship with a fellow climber who was much older and experienced than her, broke up. She then realized she wanted to continue to do expeditions independently of any man, which she had not done before. This was a key decision and a booster in Paraben's self-confidence. It was then that her own successful career as an independent mountain climber really started.

There was also a group of leaders (Kobler, Jordan, Dyhrenfurth) who consciously decided to run expeditions themselves because they were unhappy with how previous expeditions were organized. It was also the only way to get an expedition set up to target a specific mountain that they wanted to summit (e.g., Bonington, Blum, Venables). Kobler, after the Cho Oyu expedition, recalls that he had started as a participant but afterwards decided that he wanted to organize and lead expeditions himself.

Jordan became an expedition leader because he was not happy with the leader or the leadership style of the leader on his first expedition. Only then, he discovered that he had the ability to organize expeditions and to lead people himself.

Dyhrenfurth, on the other hand, has been on several expeditions. He had a vision, which resulted in organizing the first all-American Everest expedition and soon he was "a sort of leader". This triggered his decision to formally lead himself.

> *"When I came back from Dhaulagiri I didn´t have a job anywhere (…). Then I said I will organize an all-American expedition on Everest. Then I have been working for three years and raised half a million dollars. In these times! And I have made the best American team."* (Interview with Dyhrenfurth)

Other respondents said that leadership is something you have to "earn" or "take". Venables recalls where he was on an expedition with some men from the military, who he thought did not act proactively unless someone told them what to do.

> *"I did feel that I had to push quite hard to make things happen. (…) I felt there were too many people sitting around not doing things. And I think some of it was because they were military people who need to have orders. They expect someone to tell them exactly what to do."* (Interview with Venables)

Some became leaders because they were technically the strongest climbers, like Messner who had a particular view of how he became the leader. He took over the leadership during his first expedition in the Himalayas when he had decided for himself that the expedition leader did not have any leadership. At the Nanga Parbat expedition in 1970, he describes how it only took two weeks for the team to find out, that Herrligkoffer had no strong leadership capabilities and then took over himself. "*The leadership at the Nanga Parbat Rupal expedition*

was mine … I have taken away the leadership from him". (Interview with Messner). Messner says he easily got the leadership, firstly, because he was technically very strong and therefore the lead climber nearly throughout the entire wall, and secondly because he was the one who regularly assessed the situation and recommended tactical moves regarding the expedition. According to Messner, Herrligkoffer [the expedition leader] appreciated and accepted this. He also thought that this change of ownership in leadership is sometimes necessary for the success of an entire expedition. After leading a couple of commercial trekking expeditions, Messner decided that he did not want to carry on as a commercial leader. He then continued to climb in small teams or did solo climbs. Whilst serving as a leader he had the impression that some clients did not accept his authority because they had paid and therefore claimed their rights. This, he thinks, is the commercial impact on behaviour. Clients sometimes also used legal pressure towards the expedition leader, which made him feel at unease. Messner describes how this was very stressful for him and he decided to never be a formal expedition leader again. Eisendle, also a mountain guide and strong Himalayan climber, believes in the concept of "receiving" leadership.

> *"If you are good, you automatically become the leader. People realize 'he really does it'. (…) He does something for me, which I am not able to do. Then you are serving but still the boss."* (Interview with Eisendle)

This shows how a leader can be master and servant at the same time - the basic idea of servant leadership (see also Chapter 2, 2.3.6; Greenleaf, 1977).

"It is not comfortable to say I am the boss here" (Interview with Eisendle)

Not all of the interviewees were enthusiastic about being a leader. They were passionate climbers and sometimes ended up in the leadership role without really wanting to be there. Venables also acted as expedition guide and sometimes seemed less convinced of himself as a leader. He mentions that he sometimes "*feels a reluctance to interfere*".

Eisendle also articulated that sometimes he is not happy about the fact that he must lead or enforce his leadership:

> *"Relationship is a prerequisite for real leadership (…) well that's not really so comfortable to say, "I am the boss here". It should be understood by everyone."* (Interview with Eisendle)

Venables also mentioned that he felt uncomfortable getting in other people's business and recalls an expedition, which according to him, has failed to reach the summit because of his own failure to take charge.

Härter puts it even more drastically, arguing that it can destroy a person if he or she has to lead although he does not like to. Being a technically good climber does not mean you are a good mountain guide or expedition leader.

> *"These are two different things – it depends a lot whether someone is willing and able to take responsibilities. Otherwise, this can destroy a person."* (Interview with Härter)

In any case the leadership position singles the leader out of the group, which is something one needs to know and be confident with. *"That evening I walked a short distance from the camp, just to be alone. In a way my role, I realized, was similar to that of an admiral in a flagship".* (Bonington, 1976, p.87)

Summary

This research shows that there were different reasons why expedition leaders started to lead. To some of the interviewees "it just happened". Either the team chose them, or they just slipped into the leadership role by accident. Others decided they could be better leaders than the ones they had experienced during other expeditions they were part of. Women sometimes had to become the leaders in order to be able to participate on an expedition. Other leaders obtained the status by having taken or earned leadership and others were leaders but did not feel comfortable in the role, although they accepted it.

Some of the leaders mentioned that they just received the leadership because the group gave it to them, as they were the best or most charismatic leaders (Eisendle, Messner). On other occasions they mentioned that they "just took" the leadership.

4.1.3 Learning how to lead

Most of the expedition leaders had role models, as shown in Section 4.1.1, but the way they learned to lead was also based on their personal experiences as leaders.

"To lead is like learning to drive a car" (Interview with Kobler)

Some interviewees stated that they never formally learned to lead or just started intuitively after acquiring the necessary technical skills to climb. For a long time, Jordan, for example,

said he was just leading from a gut feeling without having ever learned anything about leadership, concentrating on technical details of climbing and not "leadership" itself:

> *"When I started climbing ...with ropes, the route, the climate, the weather. Now my main concern is how is this team behaving? Is this thing working as a team?"* (Interview with Jordan)

Only after several expeditions did Jordan start to be interested and learn the theory about leadership. He was then actively trying to improve his knowledge on leadership topics by reading, reflecting and discussing it. Kobler also explains that his leading was and still is based to a large extent on intuition and Eisendle stated it was *"Learning by doing. Following one's own curiosity, intelligence and intuition."* Both Kobler and Eisendle also compared the process of learning to lead to learning how to drive a car.

> *"It's like being in the driving school for cars. You learn how to accelerate, how to slow down and all the rules and so on. But the real driving you only learn once you are in the car all by yourself and nobody tells you anymore what you have to do. (…) It is then that you make a lot of mistakes and actually really learn how it is working. In reality you only need to follow your own curiosity, the own intelligence and intuition."* (Interview with Eisendle)

Kobler also uses this metaphor and refers to the education as a guide in the following way:

> *"It's more technical. In reality you learn all the basics in order to be a mountain guide. It is like learning to drive car (…) you only learn to drive when you drive yourself."* (Interview with Kobler)

Learning to lead entails self-initiative and accountability.

"Wearing the pips on your shoulder does not work" (Interview with Bonington)

Some of the expedition leaders came from military backgrounds (Bonington, Härter, Dyhrenfurth) and therefore underwent some military leadership training. Bonington learned to lead as a young lieutenant and realized that "*being dictatorial and wearing the pips on your shoulder does not work*".

> *"When I was commissioned, I'd done well. I'd passed out as an Under Officer (…) I thought I knew it all and arrived with my troop. You have a wise old Troop Sergeant. (…) He was a brilliant man. But I didn't take any notice of him at all. I just went in like a bull in a China shop. It took me I think, about six months to undo the damage of a week. But I did learn. I realized that it*

Bonington said he had some valuable experiences, but also emphasizes, *"you learned very little about practical down to earth leadership".* He realized that one of his early mistakes was not to take into consideration the advice of more senior people, as described in the following. For Bonington *"learning to be a leader"* was learning by trial and error and from mistakes he made. All the challenges of managing a group of "*single minded individuals*" were "learning by doing" for him. *"So that was really how I became an expedition leader".*

In the case of Härter, it was not so much his inclination towards the army that made him pick that career, but rather the possibility of becoming a mountain guide by undergoing a military formation. He then remained in the military for six years, where he developed his climbing and leadership skills. Only afterwards did he become a mountain guide and later an expedition leader, the managing director and later the owner of his own trekking company.

Another group of interviewees started to lead during and after the formal mountain guide training, which is a nowadays a very intense and hard two to three-year training (Härter, Eisendle, Kobler, Dyhrenfurth, Nairz). Härter said that he learned his leadership skills by being a mountain guide and by managing the mountain guide and trekking agency for a while. Nairz has even been the head of the alpine training school for mountain guides in Austria for many years, training future mountain leaders. Guiding on the mountain therefore was the opportunity for many guides to make their first leading experiences. Härter thinks that it is a quite natural development for an alpine mountain guide to become an expedition leader, especially if one is interested in high altitude mountaineering outside of Europe.

Oelz, who was a medical doctor before he retired, climbed and served as expedition doctor on several expeditions in the Himalayas, and built the basis of his leadership as the head of a medical department in a Zurich hospital. He only experienced leading in the mountains once.

Some of the expedition leaders were also entrepreneurs, for example Pasaban, the first woman to climb all 8000m peaks. When pressured to earn some money, she decided to become an entrepreneur. She converted a rural house into a restaurant, ran it herself and managed 20 people whilst financing her expeditions in the Himalayas. Nairz also owned a travel agency in the 70s and 80s and organized trekking trips around the world as one of the first commercial trekking-companies in Europe. Kobler and Härter also run their trekking

agencies and Messner and Eisendle their climbing schools. Messner runs six alpine museums scattered around South Tyrol. Jordán operates a non-profit organization as well as an alpine school and engages in executive and leadership training at Wharton University. Dyhrenfurth had a number of projects he carried out as mountain guide and filmmaker.

Summary

The ways to learn to become a leader were heterogeneous. Some expedition leaders had a military background where they had their first experience to lead. Others had their first leadership experiences when they underwent the formal mountain guide training. Some learned by their entrepreneurial background, some stated that their learning was "learning by doing" and described it as a process that continuously improves when you practise. Most of the interviewees did not actively recall where they learned to lead but rather the reason why they started to lead. Usually, no one had actively taught them to lead, but the learning happened after several relevant experiences as well as having observed other leaders.
Most of the expedition leaders, who after the first experiences decided to keep leading, stated that they liked to be the leader. Others decided to remain technical climbers at a high level or to stay an alpine guide. To be an alpine mountain guide leader is substantially different and more technical than being an expedition leader where you need to lead bigger groups, manage group dynamics; raise funds, and master politics.

The interviewees describe both dimensions differently. Whereas the technical expertise is obtained by formal education and experience that one has to practise until the process becomes "automatic", leadership experiences are more complex. To improve leadership capabilities, "qualified experiences" are needed. Reflections were also a powerful tool for some interviewees (Bonington, Blum, Jordan) to improve their leadership. Some (Jordan, Kobler) consider leadership as an art rather than a process. There is common understanding that the managerial role of an expedition leader is learned by preparation and experience.

4.1.4 Leaders and managers

There is much debate whether there is a difference between these two terms and whether this is important. Leaders in the literature are usually associated with charismatic and highly esteemed people but managers are often defined as organizers (Kottermann, 2006). During this research, the respondents often compared management and leadership. In order to

clarify this, they explained the differences and similarities.

<u>"Good managers need to be good leaders" (Interview with Bonington)</u>

There are several statements about the definitions of leadership or management. Bonington does not see a difference between the two terms at all.

> *"I never quite understand this differentiation between saying, yeah, he's a good manager, but he's not a good leader. I think they are so intertwined that good managers need to be good leaders."* (Interview with Bonington)

For Bonington a leader is always a leader and something you have in every function in life and at every single level. Pasaban does not see any difference between the two functions either. She defines a leader as, the one who knows how to work a team, the one who knows how to make a team work and get the best out of this team to obtain the best result, making it very clear that the main theme regarding the definition is the team.

Blum, on the other hand, distinguishes clearly between the two terms and came up with different definitions, but also agrees that in the end you need both qualities to bring an enterprise to success. For her, a manager is somebody who handles things. Blum also argues that the word "manager" comes from the word "manus", which means "hand" in Latin. A leader needs a vision, getting the team inspired.

> *"Managers handle things. So, you need to do both for an expedition. Somebody needs to get all the right gear and have the right things in the right place and that's very important. Leadership is the inspirational part. You know, having the vision, getting the team inspired, moving together to achieve a goal. I think you need to have both."* (Interview with Blum)

Nairz clearly distinguishes between a leader and a manager.

> *"A manager doesn't even necessarily need to be a climber, if he has the organizational talent. (…) A leader of an expedition has to have more – more personality, sort out conflicts within the group, motivating and assertiveness."* (Interview with Nairz)

He also explains the development of the definition of a leader over time and argues that nowadays the requirements of an expedition leader are very different and that leaders are managers on the mountain.

Messner takes an archaic view of leadership and believes in the importance of "charisma". He also believes that you have to earn leadership and are awarded with it by followers. He argues that there is no contradiction between the fact that you have to earn leadership and that you can take it away from another leader. He also points out that you have to accept the limitations of leadership and the fact that it is a fluid, transient concept and not something static.

> *"Leadership is when somebody leads a group of people with his charisma. This charisma comes into being, because he has understood the people and identified the challenge better than anybody else. Then the people make him the leader. (…) You do not receive leadership as a gift. (…) Charisma is something you cannot learn, but it grows, when you identify with a certain goal."* (Interview with Messner)

As with Blum, Messner distinguishes clearly between the two meanings of "leading" and "organizing", which has also been discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.3.

> *"Organization is not the same as leadership. An organizer can also be a travel agent. (…) A manager is somebody whom I get and thye put him there and tell him to lead the organization (…) A CEO is rather a leader. Actually, a CEO should be elected from the executive management board."* (Interview with Messner)

For Messner a manager is an organizer, whereas he suggests the CEO of a company is a leader. He also mentions the "transience" of leadership.

> *"Leadership is nothing fixed, but it fluctuates. And how does it fluctuate? Well, usually this happens the same way. If the one, who is the recognized leader, gets hurt, then he is gone. He cannot do it anymore. And then another one jumps in (…) That´s the kind of energy or flow in the group. The leader takes the energy of all the rest. (…) The group provides him with all this psychological energy, which makes him stronger than he really is. (…) The energy you have received as a gift must be given back as a gift to somebody else."* (Interview with Messner)

Jordan calls leadership "an art". He also teaches leadership courses at the University and realized that leadership is not this one thing. It is a process that one is constantly thinking about.

Leadership is seen from different angles in its kaleidoscopic nature – sometimes as a process, sometimes as an art, static or dynamic and as a something that needs a balance between directing and serving. Eisendle defined the double requirements of a mountain guide.

> *"The mountain guide has to find – according to my understanding – a balance between servant and master at the same time. And this is not easy."* (Interview with Eisendle)

4.1.5   Taxonomies of leadership

There are several leadership styles that were discussed by various expedition leaders as well as how they saw themselves in the role of a leader and regarding a certain leader type. These different styles are described first and then their perception of "good" and "bad" leadership will be discussed.

4.1.5.1   Types of expedition leadership

The expedition leaders had several ideas about their leadership, and which one was effective. The following is a list of the ones mentioned.

Neanderthal and archaic leadership (Interviews with Messner and Eisendle)

Eisendle points out that he is acting according to the "Neanderthal" principle, meaning the best qualifies and has to go out in front. For him, this is the basis of any leadership. He suggests that the leader is the best and therefore accepted. Eisendle describes his own leadership style as something non-apparent which only emerges from time to time in certain situations that are related to his skills.

Messner states that he likes the "archaic" leadership style. He suggests that this is derived from the way humans lived together in early times, when "clans" were still predominant in our societies. The archaic leadership is similar to "Neanderthal" leadership. They both incline towards laissez-faire leaderships styles, where the leader relies on the group power combined with expert power. It is interesting to note that this can be interpreted as being unable or unwilling to put up with other peoples' feelings (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2.1).

Democratic or participatory leadership

Other leaders, such as Dyhrenfurth describe their leadership style as "democratic". He always tried to involve the team in decisions and was one of the first ones to consult Sherpas. Jordan

has a similar attitude and mentioned that he involved the team and the Sherpas in the decision-making process, even with important decisions regarding the expedition.

Blum and Pasaban also described their style as participatory. This style corresponds with a servant and distributed leadership approach, working on the base of referent and group power as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.6, Section 2.3.7 and Section 2.6. respectively.

"Demokratur" (Interview with Nairz)

Nairz described how he lived in a culture of distributed leadership, which included continuous discussions between all team members. He was also very clear that sometimes this democratic approach had its limitations. He pointed out that his leadership became a bit dictatorial when he as the leader with ultimate responsibility was the one who had to make a decision if no agreement within the group could be reached. A mix between democracy and dictatorship was applied, - the so called "Demokratur".

Blum describes her leadership style as participative, which is similar as she recalls that at times she became "dictatorial" in her style. When no consensus could be reached, she just decided on her own. Such an example was the decision of the team for the final summit push. Dyhrenfurth, although involving the team, also mentioned that he used his final decision-making power when it came to abandon further summit attempts on Everest and to go home.

Both of them used referent power in everyday expedition life. However, they were not afraid to use a more authoritarian approach when they considered decisions necessary as a leader, using their legitimate power.

Authoritarian leadership

Oelz, in his specific role as a doctor, described himself in his interview as an "authoritarian" leader, similar to the concepts discussed in Chapter 2: *"I have never had any discussions (…) I just said, this is how we do it."* For example, when he recalls that he has led a group of six people to Everest Base Camp in 2000 he describes that, *"they were very nice and did what he told them to do."* A lady of his group did not adapt to attitude, so he decided she had to go back. He said that he was very straightforward, *"You get a Sherpa now and walk down again. No further discussions."*

Oelz attended most expeditions in his function as an expedition doctor and therefore usually reverted to his position power as a doctor.

Servant leadership

Härter thinks that he has become more relaxed as a leader over the years and gained confidence due to past successes. He points out that he serves but also leads in a decided way. Maybe servant leadership is a style that corporate leaders or any other leaders can arrive at only after many years as a leader (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.3.6).

The rest of the relationship between leaders and participants for him is on the same level. A leader-followership is characterized by a balance between being a servant and the master at the same time. Eisendle suggests that to find this balance is not easy and states that you always have to be conscientious to serve the higher cause and the weaker members.

Blum claims that she is very "participatory", and also believes in "servant leadership" and that the leader's job is to make sure everybody in the team know what he needs to do. She is also convinced that one has to adapt the leadership style to the respective situation. In a servant leadership style (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.3.6) described by the above leaders, the leaders put the team objective above their personal ambitions and the power is derived from their position as leader based on their expertise (as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.2).

Adaptive or situational leadership

Blum also recommends adapting your leadership style according to the respective situation and applying a command and control or a participatory style. She suggests a situational style with flexible leadership: *"A good leader uses the right style for the right occasion."* It remains to be defined which leadership style is suitable in which situation or type of people. Venables supports the view that people who are used to taking orders need to be led differently to those who are not, and that the leader must adapt to these differences. So, adapting not only refers to the situation but also to the people led. Blum also mentioned in her interview with me that one of the ingredients of good leadership was to be able to adapt the leadership style to the respective situation you are in.

To be able to change the leadership style according to the circumstances, but also according to your followers is a concept in servant leadership. The power base for leading Sherpas is usually different (position power) than for the participant (expert and referent power).

Dynamic leadership

Messner believes in "dynamic" leadership whereby leadership just grows out of the group. He

claims that all of the sudden a figure appears who is stronger physically and psychologically than the other ones and the rest accept him or her as a leader. The others then follow, but the situation is dynamic. *"The leader only remains in his position as long as he is the strongest. When he loses this strength, he is gone."* claims Messner. This corresponds to a fluid concept of leadership that postulates that power is fluid and which has been also discussed as a temporary phenomenon (Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3; Western, 2008).

A story, where Bonington emerged again as the leader after Venables had an accident, illustrates that sometimes a senior leader who has already handed over his power can regain leadership for a certain time by simply taking charge when his expertise or influence is necessary.

"The other interesting thing was that after the accident, he seemed just to slip into a leader mood. I was lying in one of the tents, sort of drifting off to sleep, immensely relieved to be lying flat and safe. And in the other tent Bonington was sort of talking nineteen to the dozen, ideas pouring off the top of his head about plans and 'we should do this' and 'we should do that'. Obviously old habits die hard. He wanted to sort of take charge. And actually, it was very impressive. Because he, you know, with the others, he formulated a plan, a good plan and he bust a gut to get down. Which was very impressive." (Interview with Venables)

On the other hand, not taking charge at the right moment can lead to a vacuum of leadership and failure. Venables said that his lack of leadership and not taking charge, resulted in the failure of the expedition, *"He just did not have enough gear. If before setting off I'd taken charge and said, 'Right! What are you taking? Let's see,'' that problem might have been averted."* (Interview with Venables)

Summary

The expedition leaders described a wide array of different leadership styles, which they have observed or applied during the expeditions themselves. These styles, such as democratic and participatory or servant leadership, which are found in Chapter 2 have been mentioned and described. It also seems that the expedition leaders tended to lead rather as servant leaders and were being quite flexible in their leadership style in order to react to new situations or be prepared against unforeseen events. It was also stated that leadership is not static, but can be gained or claimed, come and go.

4.1.5.2   What is a "good" leader?

In Chapter 2, Section 2.3.3.1, the concept of a "good leader" has been discussed. Bonington was described by an expedition member[7] of the 1975 expedition on Everest as a good leader, *"He really is a great leader in spite of all the criticism levelled at him. Nobody else has the personality to command us and deep down we respect him. I have a very good relationship with him particularly as I, thank God, am not in the raffle – i.e., the great decision of who goes to the top. This sadly alienates him from most of the lead climbers."* (Bonington, 1976, p.94). Härter believes that to be a good leader, there needs to be a natural base on which you can build, for example technical know-how, recognizing group dynamics or economic know-how. A good leader he claims must show flexibility and adapt the leadership style to the respective people and situations.

<u>"Good leaders are good carers" (Interview with Bonington)</u>

Several leaders (Bonington, Pasaban, Kobler, Jordan) described how good leadership means the ability to have feelings, intuition and to be empathic. Although this is not new (see Parker-Follet for example), this is to be seen in a different context and a high risk one too, which is emphasising these aspects as being very important for success.

> *"A good leader has to be sensitive and be empathic. Go and listen and talk to the staff. (…) But it is... I think once again, as a leader you've got to be very aware of the politics of your team and the feelings your individuals. Your job is to you know; good leaders are good carers."* (Interview with Bonington)

Kobler suggests, "*it is important to have the right amount of empathy and to know when to intervene if conflicts arise".* He said he always had the feeling that he was the only one who goes by intuition, but Nairz also believes that one needs to have some feeling and empathy as a leader. Pasaban is also convinced that a leader has to be an example and has to have empathy.

> *"A leader must know how to listen well to the team, it seems super important, people who are on the team are people and are emotional, and they have their own emotions to things, when you pass two months on an expedition there are emotional ups and downs of the expedition,*

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[7] Charles Clarke was the expedition doctor on multiple expeditions led by Sir Chris Boningtion.

and not everyone is always feeling good. (…) Sometimes I see one of the peers phone his wife. In two months, many things can happen, that his wife is depressed because she wants him back. You have to know how to listen and to know how each of them feels. (…) you have to go through the icefall or dangerous spots where you are risking your life and I'm not sure what you're thinking, if you're here or in your village, because you're thinking about your wife (…) the leader must know how to listen well (…) you have to know to feel what they feel." (Interview with Pasaban)

Venables describes who he perceived to be a good leader in a way that shows what important role empathy has according to his observations.

"And I think he's got to be very sensitive to what is going around him. And he has got to be prepared to listen and change his mind frequently probably. (…) And I think Robert Anderson was very good in making people feel valued. When I first met him (…) he actually said to me, 'well you have got a huge amount of …experience. And that's gonna be real asset (…) making people feel welcome". (Interview with Venables)

After an emotional discussion about her leadership, Blum made it very clear to the team how important the respect for feelings in the groups were to her when she purposefully talked about feelings. She also was aware of the importance of empathy a leader needs with the team, especially in extreme situations. *"This is a good example of a common problem at high altitudes. The higher we go, the more sensitive we become to our own feelings and the less sensitive to other people´s. We should all be very careful about other people´s feelings.'"* (Blum, 1980, p.107) The ability to feel with other people plays a role in the acceptance of the leader, which Venables mentions when he criticized Herrligkoffer for his lack of empathy. Lack of empathy was also the reason Jordan thought the leader of his first expedition, was a great climber, but not a good leader. He argues that this leader failed to realize why people acted in a certain way. He was not able to identify their strengths and leverage them, also knowing their weaknesses.

A paradox is that Herrligkoffer was only partly respected by the expedition team, but nevertheless succeeded in carrying out many successful expeditions to the Himalayas. As Eisendle states in his conversation with me, *"Herrligkoffer was an example of a leader who had no idea of the mountains. But he has organized the expedition until the start of the climb really well."*

Herrligkoffer therefore was a good organizer, when it came to logistics, fund raising and getting the expedition up and running, but seems to have lacked the leadership skills to make his team stand behind him and to make a team out of strong individual climbers.

"Be prepared to stand back" (Interview with Bonington)

Some respondents (Blum, Bonington, Dyhrenfurth) also explained that it is important for a leader to step back to highlight the team and the team objective over oneself.

> *"A good leader on the mountain has to be on par with the best climber, but be prepared to stand back (…) and I realized at that point, that no, my place was not to be in the third summit bid, my place was actually going down and basically soothing brows and soothing egos. So, that's what I did!"* (Interview with Bonington)

Venables emphasizes that being a leader is a very selfless thing because your job is to get other people to the top to provide them with fulfilment.

Also, Dyhrenfurth stated, *"I am against the fact that the expedition leader himself has summit ambitions. Maurice Herzog and Lachenal[8] went both to the summit! They took a lot of pills and then Herzog lost all his fingers and so on."* (Interview with Dyhrenfurth)

It is about how to get the team to succeed and not necessarily get all the credit. Blum explains that she did not reach the summit of Annapurna on her own expedition, but team members did, which was a conscious decision. She was not convinced they should continue the climb when it became objectively too dangerous. She wanted to discuss the situation with the group, but the team implicitly refused by ignoring her questions and just went on climbing. Therefore, Blum reassessed the goal and concluded that she would focus entirely on her leadership.

> **"I don´t care if I climb the mountain. I´ll put all my energy in leadership"**
>
> *"Then I thought, I don't care if I climb the mountain. I don't care if anybody climbs the mountain. People could die, that's more important. But people wanted to. So, then I'm like, I don't care if I climb the mountain, but let me just do the best logistics. I'll put all my energy into leadership. (…) because if you're climbing, that takes a lot of your energy. (…) you're tired, you know, you come back from a day of climbing and then you have to think about what I'm*

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[8] First two people on an 8000m peak in history in 1950 (Herzog, 1952).

> *going to put in which load. So, I just decided that my job was to make the climb successful and not to go to the top."* (Interview with Blum)

Kobler has climbed Everest several times but states (Boyadjian, 2012) that in commercial expeditions his role is often a "security-coordinator" for his team. Nevertheless, there are also leaders who aimed at and climbed the summit during their expedition. Nairz, the first Austrian on Everest, said that on an expedition he led he was ambitious as he was still a young climber. His summiting did not, however, put the expedition goal in danger at any point. Bonington also asserts that he was torn between the desire to climb Everest himself and his duty as the expedition leader. Only when circumstances changed did he decide in favour of the expedition-success. After the intervention of the medical doctor, he decided to bury his dream of Everest. Also, on the Annapurna South-face expedition, Bonington briefly targeted the summit, but then abandoned the idea for the success of the expedition. *"I had always felt that, as leader, I should concentrate on pushing another pair to the summit but had hoped that I should be in a position to do the carry to the top camp. (…) I felt so helpless I sat down and cried. Then, ashamed at my weakness, I shouted at the walls around me, 'Get a grip of yourself, you bloody idiot!'"* (Bonington, 1970, p.265f.) Bonington points out that to be a good leader you interact with your team and chat with the people around you. A good leader cascades leadership down the entire organization and builds up an excellent leadership team. The qualities of the team leader are very important. However, he also thinks that not all people are made to be good leaders.

"Walk the talk" (Interview with Pasaban)

In Chapter 2, Section 2.3.8, authentic leadership has been discussed. Also, Pasaban stated that you have to "walk the talk" to be a good leader and have to set an example. Kobler also points out what he deems to be important for a good leader: *"Very important is honesty. Satisfaction with self, (…) organizational talent, friendliness, intuition, intellectual know how and experience. Relaxed attitude, toughness, mental and physical strength, confidence."* Kobler is a commercial expedition leader and mentioned that he usually also climbs the summit in order to be up there with his clients. Venables sees Bonington as a good leader and role model because *"He works very hard […] he gets up early in the morning. He is always ahead of the game. Discipline!"* Oelz recalls the exemplary leadership of former leaders.

> *"These were 'military-like' organized expeditions but Albert Eggler[9] has carried up loads more than one time up to the South Saddle. He was up in front. He did not climb the summit himself, but he has been working in front. Also, John Hunt and Norman Dyhrenfurth have carried up loads until 8400m and Dyhrenfurth even filmed."* (Interview with Oelz)

Bonington also walked the talk by usually climbing and carrying out in the front because he thought that the best place for a leader to be was just behind the lead climbers. Out in front it was difficult to keep a perspective of the entire expedition. *"In this respect I always found it easier to plan and control the expedition from farther back, ideally at the camp immediately below the top one, where it was possible to keep in direct contact with the front party and at the same time get a broader view of the climb as a whole.* (Bonington, 1970, p. 146)

4.1.5.3 What is a "bad" leader?

This study suggests that being a role model and a climber who moves out of Basecamp are necessary attributes for the acceptance of a leader. Many of my interview partners knew Herrligkoffer[10], who had organized many expeditions since he was a good fundraiser. He was also the half-brother of a former expedition leader, Merkl, who died on Nanga Parbat in the 1930s. The respondents were generally not positive about the leadership of Herrligkoffer and their descriptions would be classified as toxic leadership (Lipman-Blumen, 2005), as discussed in Chapter 2. He was, however, accepted as a good manager, organizer and fundraiser. Messner even wrote a book, which mainly treats the absence of Herrligkoffer's leadership during an expedition. Even Dyhrenfurth, whom I met in his home in Salzburg, made the following statement about the controversial leader.

> *"Herrligkoffer was at no point ever a mountaineer. He just was the half-brother of Merkl[11]. (…) He had very good political connection. The Brits only called him 'Sterlingkoffer '[12], because he always went to England to obtain money."* (Interview with Dyrenfurth)

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[9] Albert Eggler was the expedition leader of the Swiss Everest/Lhotse expedition in 1956.

[10] Herrligkoffer was a controversial expedition leader, famous for his authoritarian style and the many expeditions he led, many of them ending in court. (Höfler et al., 2001). He did, however, succeed in organizing and carrying out over 30 expeditions over more than 30 years. http://www.herrligkoffer-stiftung.de/herrligkoffer retrieved on Nov. 29, 2015

[11] Merkl was a German expedition leader and half-brother of Herrligkoffer who died with other team members on an expedition on Nanga Parbat in the 1930s.

[12] "Koffer" means "suitcase" – and "sterling" referring to the British currency he brought back.

A "bad" leader, the interviewees suggest, is somebody who has no connection to the rest of the team and who applies different standards to himself than those on the team, for example, a different form of transport (walking to base camp as opposed to flying in by helicopter) or accommodation (residing in a better and more comfortable tent than the team). Herrligkoffer would have been described by some of his former expedition participants as applying "toxic leadership".

Some are more equal than others

"Herrligkoffer – I knew him. He has carried out 21 expeditions and has never been higher than Base Camp. (…) On K2 Herrligkoffer arrived with the army and by helicopter to Base. (…) He brought his girlfriend and had a kind of super-luxury-tent, which he never left. And then there were two casualties in the US-team. Then the medical doctor joined and visited also Herrligkoffer and said he must leave at once otherwise he´ll die. And so, the army-helicopter came again, picked him up and fly him and his girlfriend out.[13]" (Interview with Dyhrenfurth)

Blum recalled a similar story, when she met Messner on a commercial expedition, which he led where he had a luxury tent with his girlfriend with a garden and many privileges. Nairz and Härter mention Herrligkoffer as a negative example of a leader - a so-called "Base Camp Leader"[14], as he never made it past the base camp. Härter also supports the view that the same expedition leader made all expeditions members sign rigid contracts taking away all their rights to promote or talk about the expedition in its aftermath and to keep or use any of their pictures. This situation resulted in many court cases between the leader and the expedition participants.

Pasaban also believes that as a leader you need to have first-hand experience: *"You cannot be the leader of an expedition if you do not know what's going on at 8000m."* She points out that the TV Director of a Spanish TV-show was the expedition leader, which posed problems. She states that he was a typical "base camp leader". He didn´t convince the crew as he constantly gave orders regarding the TV shots and not about the expedition itself. *"A leader has to be an example, has to act as an example, has to have empathy, many things. This one only stayed in*

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[13] In order to put this statement into a context one has to consider that Herrligkoffer was already 70 years at that time which might have justified a bit of a comfort and that Dyhrenfurth might have been a bit disappointed since Herrligkoffer appointed a Pakistani as his deputy leader when he left the camp. Höfler et al. (2001)
[14] "Base Camp leader" usually has a negative connotation in the interviews as it means that the leader never ventured up in the high camps and therefore could not imagine what was going on up on the mountain.

the base camp and the only thing he did was to call us in order to ask. 'Do you film? Do you register it?' and so on so forth."

Summary

- Good leaders are often associated with having empathy and being good listeners. They are expected to take care of the team. Therefore, they need to be able to understand what people are feeling, respect them and act upon those feelings. At the same time, they should make people feel valued.

- Good leaders put the group objective and team success above personal ambitions. This does not mean that no expedition leader ever made it to the summit, there were several occasions where the team success and the objective of the expedition were preferred. Good expedition leaders were always prepared to step back for the group objective.

- Good leaders "walk the talk". They engage in the daily business including tiring activities as their job allows. A typical example was when expedition leaders carried loads up to the high camps, something that "bad leaders" never did, as they preferred to remain in the base camp. This "Base Camp Leadership" brought a lot of criticism and little acceptance for the leader. Interestingly, none of the interviewees mentioned good technical climbing skills to be accepted as a "good" leader - something that maybe has been taken granted to a certain extent. Although it was appreciated and necessary to be a very good climber to be able to make plans and carry and stay in high camps it was rarely accepted as the decisive factor to be a "good" leader. The technically strongest climbers sometimes took over leadership on the mountain, when climbing in front, but the overall leadership remained with the expedition leader.

- Bad leaders were seen to enjoy several obvious privileges and sometimes treated themselves better than the others. In addition, lack of empathy with the team members was criticized.

4.1.5.4 Who is the leader?

This research showed that conflicts easily happened when leadership was not clearly defined. On these occasions, problems occurred and even jeopardized the expedition. Diemberger, on Broad Peak with Buhl, told a story of unclear leadership, where this was the case.

> **"At some point it seemed they wouldn´t even leave together"**
>
> *"At the beginning it was assumed that Hermann Buhl would be the expedition leader. He was the only one who had experience in the Himalayas. (…) Since they needed a leader, they just decided to make Schmuck the expedition leader without having informed Buhl about it. (…) This was the base of the conflicts, which later arrived. (…) First Buhl did not take this decision very seriously, as he thought that it was only on paper. Soon however, Schmuck made it quite clear that that was not the case. (…) So, it all started with great difficulty and at some point, it seemed that they wouldn't even leave together already in the forefront."* (Interview with Diemberger)

On other expeditions, leadership split into parts: a formal expedition leader and the alpine leader, the technical expert on the mountains. On some expeditions this "double" leadership worked well, like on the Austrian Everest expedition in 1978, where Oelz recalls that Nairz was the official leader. But when difficult decision came up, it was clear that Messner as the strongest climber was involved.

In this case both leaders also summited. Härter recalls another expedition where the expedition leader was Herrligkoffer and the leader on the mountain was Hupfauer, a very skilled climber with 8000m experiences. The composure of the team with different competencies in this case worked quite well.

Blum encountered the situation where a team member, Joan, clearly articulated that she wanted to be the leader, but where the team stood behind Blum. *"The other climbers said they respected Joan´s judgment and experience but still wanted me as leader. And they wanted me to be a strong, decisive leader, but they also expected to contribute to major decisions. I was pleased at the expression of confidence in my ability but somewhat confused by their mandate. What does it mean to be the 'strong leader' of ten tough-minded women who all want to contribute to each decision?"* (Blum, 1980, p.42)

In other cases, informal leaders emerged besides the formal leaders (Bonington, Messner, Venables), which sometimes created difficult situations. On Bonington's expedition on Everest the team split up in two groups approaching basecamp. The first team was the one where Bonington as a formal leader was present and all team members had a similar mind-set. In the second team, an informal leader emerged: Doug Scott. Scott had a very strong personality and

believed in a kind of "tribal" leadership, which he describes as a leadership that does not have to be articulated but simply emerges. This was confirmed by the fact that Scott complained about Bonington's leadership in his absence. Consequently, Bonington remembers that a sort of "underground leadership" emerged. Only after Bonington had recognized his mistake of having divided the group on the trek to basecamp beforehand and brought it back together by assigning tasks to each of them was this "second leader", Scott, happy again with Bonington's leadership. According to Bonington, Scott was a leader in his own right and did not believe in a formal leader. He was rather convinced of a kind of tribal leadership without a formal leader, which was the reason that he took the efforts by Bonington to coordinate and manage everything as authoritarian traits of his leadership style. Only when it was clear who had to fulfil which roles and do which tasks, he started supporting Bonington. This is when the "underground leadership" has joined the "over-ground leadership". (Bonington, 1975)

The "tribal" leadership described here is very similar to the explanation of "archaic" and "dynamic" leadership, given by Messner. It is defined by the strongest personality. Some expeditions had a formal leader, but for different reasons the leadership was taken over by someone else. One of the reasons was perceived incapability in an area of the formal leader. This was the case with Herrligkoffer on Nanga Parbat when Messner explained that *"Sometimes you, as a participant, have to take away the leadership from the leader, in order to save the [whole purpose] of the undertaking"*. Messner mentions two reasons why he thought he easily got the leadership: because he was (technically) leading nearly the entire wall and he assessed and recommended tactical movements regarding the expeditions, which Herrligkoffer thankfully accepted. *"The leadership at the Nanga Parbat Rupal expedition was mine (…) I have taken away the leadership from him".* This statement contradicts Messner, however, that he became a leader by "receiving" leadership as the best climber.

Another reason for unclear leadership was the physical absence of the expedition leader, like on Dhalaughiri, when Eiselin, the Swiss expedition leader, stayed down to sort out logistical issues and Diemberger took over the leadership establishing the high camps, and acclimatising. He recalled that Eiselin had a "laissez-faire" style, when it came to the organization and leadership on the mountain. He had also not sorted out and communicated who would be his deputy until there was need, which led to some surprise.

> *"All of a sudden Eiselin said that he had designated Ernst Forrer as a deputy leader. (…) But nobody knew about it. This was in the middle of the expedition. Nobody has been clearly informed."* (Interview with Diemberger)

After some arguments on whether to push for the summit or not, Diemberger took over ("informal") leadership. *"I have to say, honestly, I have led this [breakout] group a bit. I ran up and already prepared Ovomaltine [hot Swiss chocolate drink] for them."* In addition, on an expedition where Venables participated, the expedition leader became sick and Venables had to act as deputy leader, which was not an easy task and not made transparent to him beforehand. He mentions that he thought that he was effectively the deputy leader of the expedition and that he felt that he had to push quite hard to make things happen. Härter also mentions that once when he was an expedition leader, he was sick in the base camp for an extended period of time, which posed a problem. He needed to remain in base camp and was very weak. By not being physically present, *"there was a vacuum of leadership"* in this period of the expedition (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.3.10.3.)

Kobler also mentioned that expeditions without a formal leader often ended in chaos and critical incidents happened more frequently. Venables recalled a British expedition with people who knew each other and therefore did not decide on a leader. This group of eleven British climbers would have nevertheless needed a declared leader.

> *"Chris very rarely threw his weight about or tried to decide what anyone should do. And actually, on that expedition, because we had about eleven people, at times I felt it might have helped to have more direction. You know, perhaps at times it was a bit too fragmented. It can be an advantage to have someone in charge."* (Interview with Venables)

Being completely unorganized and with no one in charge, even in small groups, was not an advantage. He also mentions an expedition where the team asked to appoint a leader because it was very difficult to trigger decisions without one. Venables also recalled the expedition on Panchchuli[15] where he had an accident, and nobody was the formal expedition leader but Bonington assumed the leadership naturally as the older member, a sort of chairman's position.

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[15] Pancchuli is a mountain range in the North East of India.

Conclusion

- Managers versus leaders: some of the respondents distinguish between the two concepts and others do not. There is agreement, however, that it needs both management and leadership skills to successfully head an expedition.

- Adaptive leadership style: This study shows that the different expedition leaders have by nature different leadership styles. However, most of them, independent from their natural leadership style, agree that a certain degree of flexibility in leadership style is needed when confronted with different people. This means adaptability and flexibility are key for leadership.

- Situational leadership style: The interviewees clearly articulated the need for the leader to react differently and according to different situations.

- Empathy and understanding of the team are necessary traits for a good leader. The absence of empathy was given as an example of negative leadership styles. Good leaders are supposed to also be good carers.

- Selflessness: Leaders need empathy and understanding of the feelings of the people in the team in order to be seen as good leaders, but they are also need to put the team objective and the team first. Most of the expedition leaders did not push for the summit themselves but stood back and put the team first.

- Authenticity: "Walk the talk": The survey shows that "Base Camp leaders", could not win the acceptance of the team due to lack of authenticity. Being a role model in everything the expedition leader did, is essential. Engaging in everyday work and "getting their hands dirty" by carrying up their loads on the mountain to set up high camps for example, was mentioned as an important reason of acceptance for the leader. This factor also plays a role when it comes to privileges a leader has as opposed to the rest of the team and its negative impact (e.g., "luxurious tents").

- Clarity on the (leadership) organization: The study shows that unclear leadership or organization in general can cause conflicts. The leadership roles (e.g., expedition and alpine leader; main leader and deputy leader) must be clearly defined and communicated to avoid ambiguity and lack of acceptance within the team.

4.1.6 Learning from power bases

<u>Power as a laterally emerging theme</u>

An analysis of leadership theories shows that the concepts of leadership and power are closely linked. *"While an individual may exert power without being a leader, an individual cannot be a leader without having power."* (Bal et al., 2008, p.5). Leaders use power to reach group goals and if a leader learns how the power mechanisms work in an organization, he will be a more effective leader (Nelson & Quick, 2012). Brown (1999) believes that a part of leadership is the 'power broker' where the leader manages power to influence results. Analysis revealed new emergent themes relating to the research questions. These were matched with the different kinds of power, according to French & Raven (1957), but also influenced by suggestions of other power types (Benfari et al., 1986; Bal, 2008; Morgan, 1998). These findings form a key part of the emerging themes identified in this Chapter and have been discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.

The analysis of the lateral theme of power and the emergent themes regarding good leadership style in expeditions revealed the following findings.

- A good leader needs to be able to listen. This listening is more than hearing but must be "active listening".
- A good leader leaves the summit to the team and puts his potential summit aspirations behind.
- A good leader recognizes the importance of empathy towards the team and lives servant leadership.

The analysis of the power dimension shows that referent power (French & Raven, 1957) is the key for good leadership. On the other hand, the analysis of how to become a leader revealed two patterns.

Most expedition leaders had had a formal education since many of them were trained mountain guides where a very rigorous education is the base for the licence. The analysis showed that the primary way to learn how to become an expedition leader at the beginning is expert power. In order to become a leader, the expedition leaders needed to be very good technical climbers and therefore earned respect through expert power. Once this happened, the leader has the acceptance in the team and in the climbing community. The technical skills become automated ("It's like driving a car") and then become less important. Only then can the leader invest and use referent power. Referent power is also important to be a "good" leader, involving soft skills and empathy. This is further discussed in Section 5.2.1.3 and depicted in Figure 33, p. 224.

Role models

I believe in the importance of role models to support individual development. Most of the expedition leaders could refer to one or more very strong role models at the beginning of their careers. Those came either out of their personal environment or were highly regarded and respected mountaineers. Some of the expedition leaders mentioned their fathers, some of them leaders or explorers of the early years of Himalaya expeditions. According to Gibson (2004), research on role models as opposed to relationships with mentors in the development has decreased. He provides a revised definition showing role models as constructs based on an individual's needs, wants, and ambitions[16].

4.2   The dynamics and subgroups in an expedition team

This question can be answered when analysing the teams, the relationship between the team members and the relationship between the leader and the team.

There are two perspectives to this: the direct relationship between the respective leader and the participants, which is mostly dealt with when discussing the different leadership styles and the relationship between the different participants, their group behaviour and the composition of those teams since the relationship to the expedition leader is linked to this

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[16] He suggests that role models should follow two cognitive dimensions (positive/negative, global/specific), and two structural dimensions (close/distant, up/across-down).

situation. The choice of the participants is an important part of this process as is the formation of the team out of many individuals. It is also important to recognize that there are subgroups, either spontaneously created or already there by definition, such as Sherpas or women, who need to be considered and made part of the team.

4.2.1 How to build a team

A good team is the key to success. Alpine history shows that good teams who worked well together made expeditions a success, whereas individuals that were excellent climbers but did not form a team, often failed on expeditions (e.g., Dyhrenfurth, Mazeaud, Bonington). Venables also argues that the composure of the team, often played an important part for the expedition success.

> *"Get people to play their strengths"*
>
> *"To choose a team of compatible people, people who work together, one needs to be very sensitive. Assigning the right tasks to the right people is important. (…) I think it is very important to get people to play their strength and to use this. To use their strength to capitalise on them."* (Interview with Venables)

4.2.1.1 Choosing the team

When it comes to the composure of the teams we need to distinguish between commercial and non-commercial expeditions. In non-commercial expeditions the main objective is to at least break-even and participants were usually invited or chosen because of their technical and Alpine skills and on the basis of what they can contribute to success of the expedition. The goal in the case of first ascents is usually to bring some but not all expedition members up to the summit - anyone on the summit would be considered a success. However, commercial expeditions are supposed to make profit. Participants apply via a trekking agency and participate in a double role as team-members and clients. The objective is not a common goal but the individual goals of each paying participant: to reach the summit. Usually, the team members do not know each other before and any homogeneity is due to their Alpine curriculum and sometimes their nationalities - the guests do not have the level of confidence and common past experiences of non-commercial expeditions (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.2.1 and 2.4.4)

In this study the commercial expedition leaders did not agree as to whether it was important to have the team members meet before the departure or not. Härter, for example, is in favour of pre-departure meetings. For him it was very important that the team meets before the trip starts to get to know each other and have a harmonic start. Advantages of a pre-departure meeting for him were a common information level, a common objective and commonly understood rules of the game.

In this case the teams were picked by the commercial expedition organization, not by the expedition leader himself. Occasionally, the owner of the organization and the leader were the same person (Härter, Kobler). The organizer screens the participants on their alpine background. Härter also makes the point that these expeditions last for quite a long time – usually several weeks or months and there was no better way to get to know somebody than during an expedition. He thinks that you cannot pretend to be somebody else under these extreme circumstances.

Kobler, who also carries out pre-departure meetings, was not convinced they matter much as he thinks the chemistry between the participants has to match. He also thinks that a team needs different types of people to be successful. He compares it with a chess game and the different roles of the chess figures. "*You feel quite quickly whether the relationships between people could work or no*t". (Interview with Kobler). Kobler thought the group size was not important as how much time a group spends together. Only after a couple of weeks do the real characters of the team members appear. Nevertheless, he states that it is much easier to guide a group that harmonizes well. The art according to him is how to make and influence the group to become more homogenous.

Nairz highlights the importance of expectation management beforehand and explains that on commercial expeditions people sometimes think that they can do whatever they want, because they have paid, e.g., if they want to climb the summit although they are not able to do so and told to turn around. Messner and Kobler also mentioned this fact.

The non-commercial expeditions usually consisted of technically very good, highly motivated and experienced climbers, if not in many cases the best climbers of the respective country. Those climbers were often already very good friends and climbing partners (Bonington, Nairz, Venables, Pasaban) or at least parts of the team knew each other very well. Nairz mentioned:

"We were a group of friends. (…) It was organized with their climbing partners." (Interview with Nairz*).* This was not always the case. In the early expeditions, climbers were not only chosen because of their climbing experiences but due to their official positions, be it in the military or their academic careers (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.2.1; The 1924 British Mount Everest Expedition, 2019; Wikipedia).

Messner also identified that the success factor of the Bonington expeditions was the team and that he hand-picked his team from the best climbers in the UK at the time. As a team they were the best in the world because Bonington was the leader who found the best climbers. The narrative from Bonington shows how difficult it was to find the right team. *"Top-class climbers have a touch of the prima donna in their make-up, are often self-centred and are essentially individualists; in some ways the best expedition man is the steady plodder. (…) The safest bet is to take out climbers who have already proved themselves at altitude, but (…), there was a distinct shortage of top-standard alpinists with Himalayan experience."* (Bonington, 1970, p.8). He relied on their previous experience but also focussed on a good mix, a principle that is also stated by Derek Johnson, a former expedition leader. He argues that most people imagine that an expedition has to consist of an elite group, but it is better not to have an elite group (Giffort, 1984, p. 53).[17]

Bonington decided whom to promote as a deputy leader, based on the person's technical and physical strength as well as his "can-do" mentality. He promoted Don Whillans because he knew he was an excellent climber, but even more for his positive attitude. When Bonington invited him to join the expedition, Don Whillans looked at the photograph [of the South face of Annapurna] and commented, *"It will be hard, but it should go all right. I´ll come.",* which made Bonington offer him the position of the Deputy Leader (Bonington, 1970, p.13).

Oelz, who was the expedition doctor on the 1978 Everest expedition, also explained that most of the team members already knew each other well and had done relevant climbing together. Sub-teams formed quite naturally, and the expedition worked well, because people knew each other, and they were not arbitrarily put together. Nairz argued *"One of the successes is*

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[17] He suggests that around 40% of the participants of a very high level (A), 20% of a good level (B) and 20% of an average or below average level (C or D). Therefore, the C and D performers have a chance to move up to B or C. This is the way to increase the performance of the team by lifting up some participants. This is way better for the common good of a group than taking only elites who soon would probably get bored and even take off.

apparently a team, which knows each other before the expedition. Often these guys have undertaken very difficult climbs before already. On K2[18] there was also a lot of fighting and it was also a dictatorial, military lead expedition. The Tichy and Eiselin expeditions also worked well – small teams which already knew each other."

Pasaban said that she already knew some people who were experienced. At the beginning there was no formal leader and all team members tried to raise money and then they went off together. Pasaban declares that, when picking the team, it was clear they had to be good alpinists but even more *"good people"*, which again shows that the "chemistry" and basic values shared within the team, count.

Other expeditions, such as the first American expedition on Everest by Dyhrenfurth, the first women's' expedition on an 8000m peak by Blum or the first Chilean expedition on Everest by Jordan, formally accepted applications from climbers from their respective country.

Jordan decided to actively recruit climbers from all over Chile, not just from his University, in order to increase the standard. He got climbers whom he did not know beforehand. They started climbing together about a year in advance of the expedition. Blum, when talking about how she created the team, was quite self-critical, thinking she *"is really bad at hiring people"*, because she *"likes everybody"* and is not selective enough. Another limiting factor according to her was availability and lack of choice, as not many women climbed high mountains. When Blum organized expeditions *"There weren't too many women to choose from either"*. The interested women usually went climbing together and assessed whether they worked well as a group. Blum met with the participants beforehand and went on training-trips in the mountains. The applicants with the requisite credentials and enthusiasm were invited to participate in one of many practice climbs. *"After they had been climbing together, both the prospective member and the rest of the team had a better sense of whether or not she belonged on the expedition. The selection process worked well, and even women who ultimately did not join the team made new friends and found new climbing partners. There were no seriously hurt feelings or bruised egos."* (Blum, 1980, p.8)

Dyhrenfurth described how he started advertising in journals and that he had the CVs of great

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[18] The expedition leader was Ardito Desio.

alpinists sent to him. He travelled all over the US to meet them but also to talk to and convince their wives, so they would agree on the participation.

4.2.1.2 Influences on the choice of the team

It was not always the case that the entire expedition team could be picked according to the skills needed. In some cases, political or financial issues influenced the choice of participants. Nairz mentions that additionally to the "core team" of friends and climbers, the Austrian Alpine Association, who was the sponsor, pushed some team-members into the expedition. Bonington was also not completely free in his choice and had to complement his team with a choice influenced by the financial implications for the expedition team member. The selection of the team was usually a very personal one. Bonington chose people with whom he had climbed with in difficult circumstances, whom he knew deeply, who knew him and knew each other. This to him seemed the soundest basis for a tight-knit group. *"But now the selection of the eighth member of the team was influenced by finance. Our agent (…) said rather wistfully, "Couldn´t you get in an American? It would make my job a lot easier in the States." (…) I had some doubts about this, since I did not know personally any American who would be suitable, but we needed the money, so I finally agreed."* (Bonington, 1970, p.13)

With regards to choosing the team, Jordan recounts hierarchy and command patterns and how a Commander-in-Chief made a formal invitation and picked team members of the military to participate on an expedition. This was a new situation for Jordan, but it worked well since military staff respects authority and hierarchy.

"They decided who was going – not me"

"These are the three guys that are going with you.' And I said, " look, okay I am fine.' You can choose whoever is gonna go but they need to be chosen by August last year because I need to, you know, train with them and work with them. (…). And it worked perfectly well. (…) I reached the summit and it was absolutely great.' (…) They tended to look at me as a sort of General." (Interview with Jordan)

Härter states that most participants were invited because they were excellent climbers and had the necessary skills, but also describes how there were other participants, because they were higher paying.

Jordan put together climbers from all over Chile who did not necessarily know each other and realized after several weeks on the mountain that they did not bond as a team. They knew the names but had not climbed before together. Jordan observed that his team locked their tents in the camps, which was a sign of distrust. He then became convinced that these individuals still had to become a team.

4.2.1.3 "Bake the team"

It was important for the individual climbers grow together as a team. Jordan called it to "bake the team" as it takes some time to undergo such a progress. Jordan then decided to openly address issues and introduced feedback rounds or for sensible topics one-to-one conversations, something that Härter mentions to do as well. Jordan believed in review of an expedition and introduced feedback rounds after having successfully climbed Everest with two others, in order to learn. Regarding his responsibility as a leader, he needed to make sure that all team members integrate in a group.

Jordan also recounts a clear sign that the team had become a real team, when all of them decided to get up in the early hours have breakfast together instead of sleeping.

> **"And you started feeling, this group works together"**
> *"It was great because, for example, on K2 something incredible happened. (…) The four guys who wanted to climb would meet at the dining tent and have something to eat and then go climbing. I was expecting that those two who were staying would, at the most quickly come outside the tent tell the ones who leave to have a good day and go back to sleep again. Now they woke up and they went to the dining tent and had breakfast altogether! I did not force them, there was no order, there was nobody...it just happened. And you started feeling this group works together."* (Interview with Jordan)

Eisendle has a very relaxed and liberal attitude when it comes to the team. Everybody should walk according to his or her preferences and then small groups usually form. This is an honest way to deal with group building and dynamics. Not everybody has to be best friends, but they should try to get along with each other.

4.2.1.4 Power and the team

When composing a team, great importance was attributed to the soft factors: the "chemistry". Empathy and sensibility were a prerequisite for joining a team and considered equally important as technical skills. Being friends was not an imperative but an advantage. Homogeneity in terms of team spirit, a shared vision and a clear communication were the core themes for creating a good team. The leader is in charge of combining the right people and sub-teams in order to create the best team.

Expert power was only relevant as a base for selecting the team, but then referent power becomes more important to glue the team together. One expedition leader called this process to "bake the team" – creating a climbing team out of strong individuals. It starts with clear communication and the need to adapt to the sub-groups with different skills and cultures in order to clearly define a well-accepted common vision. You have to build the spirit before the expedition. A leader's power to influence comes from a well-recognized authority as an expert.

The general opinion was that no formal leader is needed if the team is small and consists of friends. On the other hand, several interviewees thought that direction or "somebody who is in charge" might have been helpful at times, even in smaller teams. Since the members of small teams are by definition all experts, the power in such a constellation would come from the legal entitlement as formal leader, mostly for administrative purposes, because of their outstanding expertise as the best climber (in a discipline or generally) or by their capability to engage with the team (referent power). Interestingly, a small team normally performs better as it is composed of individuals with similar skills and there is no need for the use of a specific type of power (see also Chapter 2, Section Section 2.6.2.).

For different groups to harmonize together, a strong and influential leader with a recognized authority is needed.

Summary
The most successful expeditions with the least conflicts were those where team members were highly qualified and committed to a common goal and worked together. They had usually known each other for a long time already or trusted each other for their outstanding

performances and recognition as mountaineers.

4.2.2 Group dynamics and conflicts

Another important success factor for an expedition to run smoothly is to form teams out of individuals. An expedition leader has to pay particular attention when putting a team together and forming it. They also need to be aware of the invisible pecking order within the entire expedition team, including national and language differences (see Section 4.2.2.2), and Sherpas and porters.

Bonington recalls that his manager, Jim Roberts[19], paid a lot of attention to the group structure, as depicted in Figure 28.
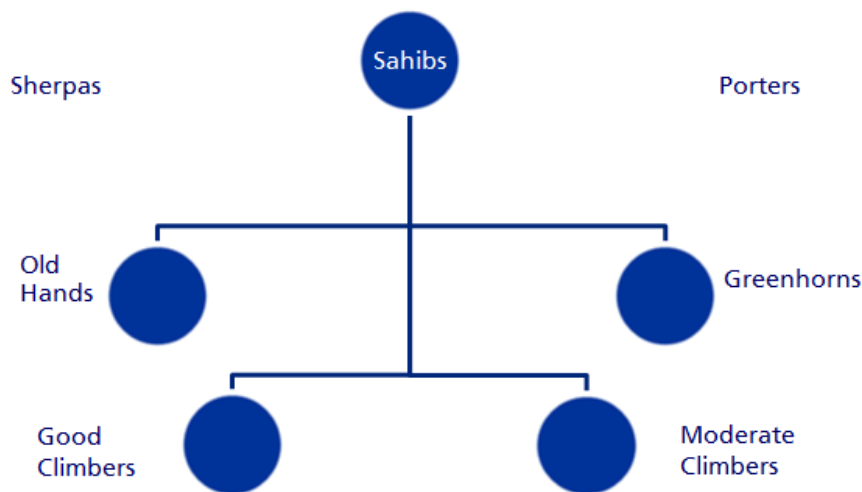
Figure 28: The Group structure of an expedition
(Bonington, 1976, p.52)

4.2.2.1 Communication

Being together for a longer time period, conflicts can arise. One reason seems to be the lack of communication. Once the teams were up in the mountain with contact only via radio, communication became very rudimentary and information incomplete. *"Throughout the expedition there never seemed any tension between groups living and working together. We always seemed to enjoy each other´s company and get on well together. The tension came between groups working at different camps and it was usually a matter of lack of communication, the conviction that Group A was having an easier time than oneself. In almost*

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[19] James Owen Merion Roberts MVO MBE MC (1916–1997) was a Himalayan mountaineer and explorer, also called the "father of trekking in Nepal" of the twentieth century, a highly decorated British Army officer. (Roberts, 2015)

every instance, however, when individuals from two dissident groups met, the tension vanished, the grievances either forgotten or discussed and solved." (Bonington, 2001, p.99)

Another important topic that emerged when discussing with the expedition leaders was the way to communicate before, during and after an expedition. There were some examples where expedition leaders were self-critical and stated their communication errors or how they communicated to resolve an issue. Bonington mentioned how important it was to get buy-in and the same understanding of all expedition members before the expedition started and that he spent days on the phone, "just chatting" with the team members, but also with other stakeholders, such as the sponsors. On one occasion, when he arrived at the base camp and found that the group had split into two completely detached groups (Everest, 1975) it took him a lot of effort and many conversations to make sure all the team members were reunited in one group with the same objectives. At this point the value and importance of "active listening" comes into focus, as discussed in Section 4.1.5.2. He also argued that once the climbers took off to the high camps, communication became much more difficult since it was reduced to radio calls. These calls were scheduled for several fixed points of time per day and used to clarify technical instructions or reports. Whilst the time in the base camps was used for face-to-face communication and bonding this possibility perished as soon as the climbers were up on the mountain.

Jordan had similar experiences "to bake" the team. For him this level of team cohesion was the prerequisite of a successful expedition. Pasaban also mentioned the importance of communication from her and how difficult it was to keep meaningful communication alive when the team was spread all over the mountain carrying loads and installing high camps. There are several other examples like this (e.g., Härter, Diemberger, Blum).

Respondents also tended to believe in the need for a physical meeting space. Several expedition leaders (Jordan, Pasaban, Kobler) repeatedly mentioned how important the kitchen tent was to meet and to reflect on the days' events over dinner and for final meetings before team members started leaving to high camps.

Summary

Communication is one of the key roles of expedition leadership. This is of utmost importance before the expedition begins, to inform all the stakeholders and form a common set of

expectations. It is still important during the expedition and becomes even more relevant but different once the team is spread all over the mountain. The maturity of the team and the complexity of the topics are the key to a successful conversation. This is something, which is absolutely true for corporate management in a virtual world, where communication across borders and over long distances is very difficult. It seems imperative to form teams, which work well before communication in virtual space.

4.2.2.2 National and linguistic differences

Another reason for the creation of sub-groups in expeditions was the participants belonging to different nationalities. Prejudices of other nations on earlier expeditions, combined with the legacy of the two world wars, were sometimes the trigger for the formation of sub-groups and for conflicts. On the International Everest Expedition of 1971, groups soon formed based on common language, such as "The French" (French, Swiss-French and Italians) against "The Brits". Dyhrenfurth, being American and Swiss, was in a "neutral" position together with climbers from Norway, India, the US and Australia. Several leaders (Oelz, Nairz, Venables) referred to the "Infamous International Everest Expedition" as a negative example. Oelz recalled that Pièrre Mazeaud, who was a French Minister, later complained in the French National Assembly that someone expected him, a deputy of the French National Assembly, to perform "kuli-services" - porter tasks. Mazeaud was supposed to contribute his fair share of carrying loads, like everybody else in the expedition – also for the "Anglo Saxons". This was a clash of status and national prejudices. After some more heated discussions, Don Williams, an excellent climber from a blue-collar environment in the North of England (see also Section 4.2.1.1), shouted that he would "knock down everybody who would dare to pass by with his ice-axe". This did not go down well with the French Minister. Consequently, the Swiss, the Italians and the French left the expedition (Nickel, 2007b).

Venables believes that bigger groups tended to work better when the group consisted of a homogenous group of people. He also mentions the failure of the International Everest Expedition of 1971. *"Other ones, which did not work, were the ones where they tried to choose people idealistically or ideologically out of national interests, like the famous Everest Expedition"*. This expedition, led by Dyhrenfurth, failed, according to him, because the team, consisting of strong but egocentric, self-centred alpinists of various nations, did not work together as a team. By trying to obtain the best climbers of each country, Dyhrenfurth

collected a number of "self-centred prima donnas" around him. High performers are often prima donnas in expedition who needed special attention and were expecting to have certain privileges. Often prima donnas are not good team players that make it difficult for a leader to integrate them into a team. They were used to be the stars in their respective countries[20] and all of a sudden had to fit into a team of "equals". No common goal was there; only individual ones – the summit. The expedition fell apart and the team disintegrated. Some people left during the expedition and nobody reached the summit. The International Everest Expedition was an "unsuccessful expedition"[21]. Dyhrenfurth tried to bring the group together with a common purpose – "to climb Everest on a new route" - but failed in that attempt.

Eisendle describes that even within South Tyrol, the Northern, German speaking part of Italy, there are tensions, prejudices and differences between the regions. Nairz said that international expeditions often failed as the cultures and experiences were different. The French and the Germans said that they would not be porters for the British. During trekking vacations, different groups of nationalities also formed within the team. There were conflicts for trivial reasons, based on different cultural understandings and habits. Oelz, however, argues that there were also very successful international combinations of albeit smaller expeditions.

> *"Today you can see international constellations in small teams, which work very well e.g. Kazakhs and Italians who already climbed together before. Example where Doug Scott wanted to continue and Anasieff wanted to turn around (on Makalu). So, they turned around."* (Interview with Oelz)

Also, Austrian born Kaltenbrunner, the first woman who climbed all 8000m peaks without oxygen, usually climbed with international climbing partners in very small teams, such as a Swede, Japanese or a German. This worked perfectly well.

4.2.2.3 Roles and Responsibilities

Bonington deemed it as very important to clearly assign roles to all team members. He was aware that this would help to keep the team together, keep them busy and eradicate the potential feeling of unequal contribution to the common goal. However, the downside of this

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[20] Mazeaud in France, the couple Vaucher in Switzerland, Williams and Haston in the UK etc.
[21] "The legend of N. Dyhrenfurth – a portrait", Servus TV, broadcasted on May 8, 2015

clear contribution of roles was the lack of flexibility in the team. This made Bonington change his plans at times because team members with a role expectancy inevitably became very possessive about it. *"I had to take into account how different individuals got on together, what kind of role on the expedition they expected, the balance of each particular team. (…) In 1972 I had gone through the same thought process and resolved on giving everyone a clear role in advance all the way to the summit bid. (…) The advantage of this approach was that once everyone had accepted their role (…) and since everyone knew their position, in theory, there would be much less stress and manoeuvring for a favourable position to have a chance of making a summit bid. In practice, however, it did not work out so well (…) they inevitability become very possessive about."* (Bonington, 1976, pp.52)

Bonington also sensed that a potential source of conflict was when team members were not assigned tasks or were not involved in the expedition. So, he wanted to make sure that the team members were busy at all times. *"I still couldn´t help worrying about the size of the team. Being big meant we had the reserves we might need, but there were going to be a lot of people sitting around at times, and there´s nothing like idleness for making people discontented. This was something I realized I was going to have to watch."* (Bonington, 1976, p.60)

Sometimes even small misinterpretations in communication can lead to misunderstandings and conflicts. The fact that not everything can be discussed all the time can lead to insecurities in responsibility and roles. Therefore, it is extremely important that there is ultimate confidence and trust in the leader, even if the immediate action might not be fully understood by the team. *"Earlier in the day I had sensed some tension in Doug. He had been rather quiet and moody, almost pointedly seeming to exclude me from the plans for the next day. (…) I had suggested that Nick and I might go along to give them a hand. What I didn´t realize properly at first was that this innocent offer was seen as a threat. He felt that I was interfering with their freedom to be a climbing group out in front on their own, making their own decisions and, for that short time, being autonomous within a huge expedition. For Doug, my policy of keeping roles fluid was slightly worrying."* (Bonington, 1976, p.87)

4.2.2.4 Perceived injustice

Diemberger recalls some conflicts when the original front team had to go down from the mountain in order to provide a fair chance to the other climbers. They arrived in the last camp again and the rest of the team was still not well acclimatized. Also, the tents in the high camps

were completely overcrowded. There was a perception of injustice in the team, as one part had erected all the camps and the others never did. This was one point of conflict.

> *"They [newly arriving climbers] just went to sleep in our tents [without established their own camp themselves]. We were not at all happy about this situation, as we were our own master all the time up there on the mountain."* (Interview with Diemberger)

Some of these "newcomers" had to be sent down. The new team-members were not well acclimatized. Finally, one team, with the formal new deputy leader and the informal leader on the mountain started the summit push first to the last camp IV and the summit. Despite of all these issues and ambiguity, all six team-members made it up to the top and the expedition was a success. It was the first successful climb of Dhaulagiri (Eiselin, 1960). Another source for potential conflicts and the disintegration of a team is the perception that not all team members have contributed their fair share to the success of the expedition.

4.2.3 Sub-groups

Sometimes teams formed within teams. On the Austrian Everest expedition 1978, there were two groups with different goals. Those who "just" wanted to summit and the two who wanted to do it without oxygen.

> *"We had the strategy to form a small team within the team and everyone wanted to climb the summit. They have formed themselves quite autonomously. There was one team which had a special status with the agreement of all Reinhold Messner and Peter Habeler as they were the first ones [in history] who attempted to climb Everest without oxygen."* (Interview with Nairz)

Sometimes sub-groups might also have a counterproductive influence when not identifying with the overall team anymore. Bonington described how he decided to divide a big group in two parts and naturally joined the group, which was similar to him. Only when the group arrived at base camp did he realize that the group had spit up in two parts. It took a lot of individual conversations to reunite the group.

Diemberger also recalls issues that arose because the expedition had split into two groups, because leadership was not clear. There were two groups: two team members, Diemberger and Wintersteller, and two expedition leaders, Schmuck and Buhl. *"Such constructions should never, ever happen again"*, he said. An unresolved leadership issue combined with two groups,

which formed were the reason for the eventual fall out after the expedition. The two groups never succeeded to become one team. When Diemberger arrived on the summit, the first group rapidly packed their backpacks and left, so they would be able to claim the first ascent for themselves without considering the second group. This is against good practice in the alpine world, as the expedition goes for weeks and months and the summit climbed on the same day means it is climbed by the same group. The team immediately fell apart after the summit had been climbed.

During the expedition on Dhalaughiri 1960 when the airplane broke down, the expedition leader Eiselin and part of his team had to wait, the team disintegrated, and subgroups formed. The "front team" was the one, which built up high camps and prepared for the summit push, and the rest of the group stayed in the lower camps.

To avoid this, Mazeaud, the leader of the French Everest expedition, rotated teams so they would get to know each other well. *"I felt more and more decided to change the men in order not to let them form unchangeable teams for the duration of the expedition. I know that friendship is an essential condition for success and also confidence.*" (Mazeaud, 1971, p.111)

"Strong minded prima donnas"

Another reason why separate groups formed and conflicts arose is strong-minded individuals within the teams or "prima donnas". Bonington, Nairz, Messner, Oelz and Jordan provided such examples during their interviews. Also, Herrligkoffer picked the best climbers of his time for his expeditions. They, however, did not necessarily match well in terms of personality, being alpha males who were incompatible with the rest of the team. Also, Bonington said that certain climbers were very good but individualists, which made them neither good expedition leaders nor good team members.

Pasaban explained that she had to let go of one team-member because he was a very well-known alpinist and tried to negotiate a separate contract behind her back for himself with the main sponsor of Pasaban´s project. Kobler mentioned that one of the challenges was how to make a team out of many different personalities, since *"Strong climbers are often prima donnas"* Nairz describes the same situation, *"We always had one prima donna but he was so much prima donna that there was not even any discussion on that. At a certain point the best climber had become the leader."*

Summary

Choosing the team is an important success factor for an expedition. Whereas in commercial expeditions the "selection" is mostly limited to checking a climbing curriculum and maybe meeting before the expedition, the choice of the team in non-commercial expeditions is more complicated. It is one of the most important tasks of the expedition leader. Successful expeditions often included teams who knew each other and who had climbed together already. They usually consisted of individuals from the same country (UK, Chile, US) or at least of the same cultural background and language (e.g., German speaking: Austrians, Germans, South-Tyroleans).

- As soon as the size of the groups got bigger (the optimal size mentioned by several interviewees was 10-15 people), sub-groups started to form. This was either because a second leader besides the "official" expedition leader emerged or because of language. Homogenous groups were more successful than heterogeneous groups. Group dynamics were less interruptive and a common understanding and following of the group objective existed. Exceptions were small international teams of climbers, homogenous in their technical abilities. In such cases the cultural or language differences disappear and are more than compensated by the same technical skills, experience and ambition.

- Another type of sub-group formed because some of the participants were strong-minded prima donnas and did not make good team members. The expedition leader needs to work on their integration constantly.

4.2.4   Women

Generally, the Alpine environment is not the most woman-friendly place in the world. Today, out of the 1500 mountain guides in Switzerland, only about 2% are female. Women were accepted to education as a mountain guide only in 1986 (Schwegler, 2014) and women have been admitted in the English "Alpine Club" only since 1974. It is still uncommon to see female alpine guides or expedition leaders. Both female expedition leaders included in this study had to defend themselves and their successes, because they were "accused" of having succeeded only because they were in teams of men (for a discussion on Women see Chapter 2, Section 2.5). In Blum's case, there were no men in the team, but only Sherpas as staff members. Blum even tried to find Sherpanis, female Sherpas, as guides and porters, but did not succeed for

reasons in the set-up of the Nepalese society back in 1978 (Blum, 1980). Pasaban was the only woman in an all-men team and at the same time the anchor woman for a TV show. The success of the project "all 14 8000m peaks" was entirely dependent on her summiting. In the following section, the ways in which women see themselves will be highlighted, followed by the ways women are seen by men.

It is quite illustrative how women were treated in the 1960s when they wanted to join expeditions. Participation was only possible as a wife of a climber and only with severe restrictions, as Blum recalls in the following story about Irene Miller, one of the women who participated in her expedition to Annapurna in 1978. *"Irene had been to Nepal in 1961 with her former husband, who was a member of Sir Edmund Hillary´s Makalu Expedition. Hillary did not want women in his base camp. Several wives, who had come to Nepal to make the walk to base camp, were hurried up to 19'000 feet in a few days and then sent back to Kathmandu. Not surprisingly, this rapid ascent led to altitude problems, and the expedition book only commented that women could not adapt well to high altitude. (…) Irene was twenty-six then and in the prime of her strength, having done extremely difficult climbs (…) she was eager to set a world altitude record for women. When Hillary became aware of this, he told (her husband) Barry Bishop that he himself would be off the expedition if she set foot above 19,000 feet. (…) 'At that time no one thought this was an unusual way to treat a woman', she told me."* (Blum, 1980, p.60)

This analysis shows that there were clear differences in how men see women and how women see themselves. None of the male interviewees acknowledged that any of the women leaders had "leadership qualities" or were the "real" leaders of an expedition. The reasons were in essence that the women were not the leaders but the surrounding men in the team (Pasaban), the Sherpa (Blum), or the respective husband (Kaltenbrunner). This perception might still be due to the fact that in earlier times it was next to impossible for women to participate in Himalayan expeditions alone (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2.2)

4.2.4.1   How women see themselves

<u>It is not easy</u>

All her life and career as a chemistry professor, Blum has been confronted with attitudes against women which she has had to challenge, like *"Women cannot climb 8000m peaks.*

Woman cannot climb Denali. Woman cannot carry heavy loads, etc."

When she went to join the Alpine Club at her University, she was rejected, as women were not admitted to this club the early 60s. When I talked to Blum there was some resignation in her statements. When she recounted the multiple blackmailing attempts of the (male) Sherpa crew in order to raise the salaries, I asked her upfront whether she had the feeling that they reacted that way because she was a woman. Her answer was, **"***Well, they always do that, don't they?***"** I asked about her general feelings organizing an expedition as a woman and as a pioneer.

"It was annoying they got their permits so easily and we had so much trouble"

"In America we had trouble getting approval for the American Alpine Club which was really annoying if you remember my boyfriend then. Here were just two British guys going to Annapurna, too. They got their permit like that, and here we have this whole expedition [of women]. That was pretty annoying, but we finally got the approval we needed for our permit."
(Interview with Blum)

Both female leaders were convinced that there were differences in leadership styles between men and women. Blum argued that women tend to use more a participatory style and men tend to be more command and control. Pasaban emphasized that men usually have a hard time admitting defeat. She mentioned the story of how she was the one to suggest turning around from a climb because of the bad weather because the men in the team would not do this.

"I do not mind that they tell me it has been because of me we had to descend"

"Yes, you know, in men there is a male factor of shame that oppresses them. (…) To me it happened to go on a mountain climbing and (…) impossible to further push up. (…) It is very difficult when you're on a team of 4-5 guys, that one of them takes the decision to turn back. In the end I go back and say yes, we have to go back and who knows what, and when you take the decision, the weight of the decision, everyone is satisfied and relaxed. (…) I believe yes, there is a masculine point, that we are more relaxed about this." (Interview with Pasaban)

However, they were very happy to descend once she had verbalized this common desire. According to Pasaban they were unwilling to bring up this topic themselves and it needed her to make this step.

4.2.4.2   How men see women

I also explored how men see women in the role of a leader. This possibly influences how women are perceived. Jordan was convinced by a woman to think about the soft skills and psychological dimension of leadership. Later, he states than only then did he start analysing and adapting his expeditions and leadership style. He also brought his then 23-year-old daughter on one of his expeditions as the only woman and the base camp manager.

<u>Women are no leaders</u>

Eisendle mentions that his perception of women in big expeditions is as fundraisers because of the attention they get due to their gender (Pasaban, Kaltenbrunner; also see Chapter 2, Section 2.5.1). They are sometimes still considered to be "dominated" and "led" by men. He also mentioned that these two female climbers only got public attention because they were women. If they had done the same as a man, nobody would have paid attention. This is certainly true, but also logical, since these women were the first ones who climbed all 14 8000m peaks, a goal which was reached by the first man, Messner, in 1986[22], followed by a lot of media attention. The exceptional performances of women are seen as repetitive events and the attention they got as women unmerited. The successful Swiss alpinist, Yvette Vaucher, now over 90 years old, said, *"It is true that our achievements were accepted in a positive way, but there were also some who were very envious. Some have even asked 'Who lifted you up there?'"* (Auffermann, 2014; para 3)

There is, however, some acknowledgement of leadership on the mountain for these women, especially those who are physically outstanding. Eisendle has the impression that Kaltenbrunner and Eo Oh Sun have "*some sort of leadership*". Kobler mentions a female guide, who, according to him always felt she had to prove something because she was very small. He did not think this was necessary because she was accepted for her competence as a guide anyhow, irrespective of her size and being a woman.

Dyhrenfurth was very close to his mother, whom he admired. Hetti Dyhernfurth was a very progressive lady, already climbing in the Alps and Himalayas in the 1930s. Dyhrenfurth commented on his mother's capabilities during the Himalayan expeditions she undertook with

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[22] It was a fierce race with the Polish climber Jerzy Kukuczka who would be the first one.

her husband, Dyhrenfurth's father in the 1930s.

> *"My mother did all the economies in the expeditions. She has organized boxes, the Base Camp, High Camps, lists, and so on – everything regarding logistics. (…) The men admired her a lot. At her first expedition she has led a group of Sherpas over a pass of 6100m. (…) That was a world record at that time."* (Interview with Dyhrenfurth)

<u>"It is a lot simpler without them"</u>

According to Bonington, there is also enrichment potential when women participate in expeditions. Bonington thought women tend to "civilize" the situation and change the atmosphere in the camps for the better, *"Women usually civilize expeditions, the way how people communicate with each other and the presence of Babs and Cynth at Base Camp was also welcome, giving it a more relaxed and civilized atmosphere."* (Bonington, 2001, p.145).

However, women in the team could be seen to make everything more complicated. Wives and partners of the participants at home would be concerned if there were women on the team with their husbands. Another concern was potential of affairs and distraction from the climb with female participants. Bonington also recalled the role of women in other circumstances.

> *"I think it is great if you can keep it platonic. But, all too often this is not the case. Without mentioning any, I know of an awful lot of instances where it's happened. The only time I've had a woman on one of my expeditions it worked wonderfully. It was in '72 when Beth Burke came. But this was where it was husband and wife. Basically, Mick had been away on, he was just breaking into professional filming at the BBC. So, he'd been away practically the whole time. And he said, 'look, could I bring Beth along?' With Beth, it worked incredibly well. Because, she's not a climber, but she's a trained nurse. They had a very good solid stable marriage."* (Interview with Bonington)

<u>Nursing and caring</u>

Oelz, on the other hand, recalls when he met Wanda Rutkiewitz[23], one of the best altitude climbers in the 1980s and the woman with most 8000m summits in her pocket at the time. He

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[23] *"Lithuanian-born Wanda Rutkiewicz (1944) was arguably the finest female high-altitude mountaineer of the twentieth century. During her action-packed life she led or participated in some 22 expeditions to the Himalaya and Pamirs and climbed extensively in the Andes. She reached the summit of eight 8,000m peaks."* - http://www.adventure-journal.com/2013/05/historical-badass-alpinistAlpinist-wanda-rutkiewicz/

recalled that she was very nice and caring, when he came down and was seriously sick.

> *"Later, I was with Wanda on Makalu. This was a highly gratifying experience. I then had a pulmonary oedema. (…) When I came down to base camp, I was not at all in a good state. Then Wanda has taken care of me in a touching way and packed my backpack for me the next day. (…) I'm sure women are enrichment for such expeditions."* (Interview with Oelz)

Oelz also explains that there is some sort of conflict potential, when women participate in expeditions and provides the same example, which Bonington mentioned. The wife of a participant on the American K2 expedition began an affair with another climber of the same expedition, which created lots of conflicts.

Women and Power

The analysis shows a constant pattern of discrimination regarding women. Therefore, although women might have the right to exercise authority and although it is reasonable that they lead thanks to their expertise, there is always doubt about their capabilities in the mountains. Only through outstanding performances, have some been able to get acceptance, create their power bases, and therefore influence the team. They succeeded either because they had an important commercial impact (Pasaban having obtained a TV contract for the entire expedition team) – legitimate and reward power for the team, or by extraordinary physical endurance (Kaltenbrunner also called "Cinderella Caterpillar", due to her physical resilience) – expert power (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.6).

Conclusions

There seems to be a difference in how women see themselves and how their male counterparts of expedition leaders see them.

- The women in this research consider themselves rather participatory and collaborative and are ready to admit failure. They believe that they are more relaxed about the goal but more focussed on the overall way to get there.

- The image men have about women in this research is twofold. On the one hand they are seen as good carers, and someone who brings a "civilized" manner to the team. These

views reflect traditional images of women. On the other hand, women are seen as intrusive elements that complicate the dynamics of a team simply by being different.

- The image of women described by men often shows the belief that they were not considered able to be the leader and that real leadership was exercised by men. The role of the women as leaders in this survey has not been accepted or confirmed by most of the male respondents. Their main point of critique was that the women needed men in the expedition; Sherpas in Blum's case or the other climbers in the case of Pasaban and Kaltenbrunner (Section 4.2.4.2).

- Regarding the power of women, this research shows a constant pattern of non-acceptance as a leader. Only through position power due to commercial reasons or extraordinary performances women have managed to have power.

4.2.5 Sherpas

Sherpas are part of the expedition teams. However, they have different roles to Western mountaineers since they are paid staff and their image and requirements have changed over the years. These are the reasons why the Sherpa group in the team is treated separately in this chapter. It was an important theme and worthy of much further research in order to develop strong lessons for leadership (Section 6.6.2.2 and 6.6.2.3).

4.2.5.1 Introduction and background

Sherpa people are mountain people, originally from today's Tibet, living in the Solo Khumbu region of Mount Everest living at a height of around 11,000 feet and taking their yaks to pasture in the summer up to heights of 16,000 feet. "*They are Buddhists of Tibetan stock, and their entire social structure is more akin to that of Tibet than to that of the rest of Nepal.*" (Bonington, 1970, p.56). Sherpas are known for their endurance, capability to carry large loads and their adaptability to altitude. Bonington states in the interview that the Sherpas hold a "*monopoly in high-altitude portering*".

When expeditions decided to climb the highest mountains in the world; the Himalayas, Sherpas were typically hired as local guides and porters. The leader of the Sherpa group, the Sirdar is responsible for the entire organization, the logistics and the hiring and negotiation of

the salaries for the Sherpa team. The Sherpa organization runs as a parallel organization and therefore there are two different organizations within one expedition – the climbers with the expedition leader and the Sherpas responsible for logistics and the organization led by the Sirdar. The single point of contact for the rest of the expedition and in the line of command is the Sirdar.

Nairz explained that in earlier times the Sirdar was the main point of contact and responsible for picking (and providing) his staff. He said that, when he led expeditions, mostly referring to the 70s and 80s, he picked his staff himself and subdivided the labour between them.

4.2.5.2 "They started developing more into partners"

Sherpas are workers who serve the "Westerners" who try to climb the high mountains in the Himalayas. These individuals are clients and paying guests as well as team members. Oelz called the Sherpas:

> **"… workers, blue collar workers, white collar workers. They mostly took orders"**
>
> *"…Later they started developing more into partners. But also, in the high times of expeditions in the 50s Tensing Norgay for example has attempted Everest already seven times before he eventually succeeded with Hillary in 1953."* (Interview with Oelz)

Dyhrenfurth also recalls that Sherpas used to be only servants and that he has told John Hunt[24], to treat Tensing as Sirdar like all the other team members.

Sherpas then started to improve their knowledge and increased their status from blue-collar workers to a skilled work force, which was a new approach. Messner remembers that at the beginning they were aids and support, and only later started to become equal partners. Bonington concluded after his expedition to Annapurna South Face that the image of Sherpas was about to change. He was very impressed by a young Sherpa, who seemed to be much more educated and sophisticated than the Sherpas in previous expeditions. "*I think Pasang probably represents the start of a new breed of Sherpa, partly spawned by their changing role in Nepal, where the bulk of the work is confined to conducting parties of tourists on treks round the valleys. The ideal qualifications for this job are organizing ability, command of languages*

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[24] Expedition leader of the first successful expedition on Everest in 1953

and a good manner. Pasang had cultivated all three, although his background was the same as that of the traditional Sherpa." (Bonington, 2001, p.54)

By being given this important task, they took much pride and became responsible for the result. Under Nairz and Bonington in the 1970s, a new way to collaborate with the Sherpa staff became visible. On the Everest expedition Bonington states that there was a demonstration of trust in both the integrity and the management skills of the key Sherpas. *"Mike Cheney was employing several new approaches; instead of controlling everything himself he had come to an agreement with the Sherpa Co-operative (…) to pay them 5.50 Rupees per kilo of baggage from Kathmandu to Khumde, leaving them responsible for the contracts with light aircraft, organization and payment of porters from Lukla to Khumde. It was more than just a modern, more effective way of doing things; it was also a demonstration of trust in both the integrity and – more to the point – the management ability of our key Sherpas. This was to prove one of the corner stones of the eventual success of the expedition."* (Bonington, 1976, p.43)

Some of the leaders (Bonington, Nairz, Jordan, Dyhrenfurth) also mentioned that they often communicated with their Sherpas, or had them participate in important decisions and votes. Jordan chose the date of the summit push in 2012 based on the Sherpas' opinion.

> *"But then come our discussions with the Sherpas. It is better for the Sherpas to be off the mountain early, because they have more time with their families. And I talked to the Sherpas, and said, you know we, we can go now (…) but we'll have to fix the ropes, or we can go last (…) 'We'll go first!' And so, we went first."* (Interview with Jordan)

Dyhrenfurth, who described himself as a democratic leader, had Sherpas vote and even included them in the decision-making process. He vividly recalls that the only female participant on his expedition was very angry with him, as he decided to finish the expedition because it was late in the season and due to the weather. He involved the Sherpas in the decision-process, and they voted to finish the summit attempts. This decision was strongly opposed by some climbers, since they were not able to have their attempt for a summit push (Pichon, 1971). The female climber apparently thought this was not fair and felt deprived of her chance to have been the first woman who climbed Everest:

> *"Yvette Vaucher[25] was very upset. Her goal was to be the first woman to climb Everest. (…) We didn´t have a chance to climb Everest anymore. The normal route was done. And I had also given the Sherpas a vote. She was very upset that I had given the Sherpas a vote. (…) She even threw stones at me."* (Interview with Dyhrenfurth)

Dyhrenfurth was also the first expedition leader, who actively promoted Sherpas in the media as he insisted on bringing them to the US, to receive the award by J.F. Kennedy in 1963.

> *"When we received the Hubbard medal, I said that I feel very honoured, but the entire team should receive it. (…)[26] And so, then they let six Sherpas, which we have chosen, come to the US with us. That was also the first time that an expedition leader has insisted to do this."* (Interview with Dyhrenfurth)

There is a common understanding that Sherpas with their local knowledge were essential to the successes in summiting the 8000m peaks. Charles Wylie who was a serving officer at the Ghurkha regiment and the organizing secretary for the first successful expedition on Everest in 1953 said, "*I felt very strongly that we couldn't have climbed the mountain in the way we did without Sherpas.*" (BBC, 2015) He also stated that it was "*right and proper that John Hunt should have put Tenzing along with Ed Hilary in one of the summit pairs*". He further states that he exclusively worked through Tenzing, who was the Sirdar, and that he formed a very close bond with him which existed until his death - and still exists with his family. Nairz also states that he and his team were able to build up a very good relationship with the Sherpas and were good role models, which was clearly shown in later encounters with his former staff.

> *"I have met Apa Sherpa, who last year has been on Everest 21 times last year in Kathmandu at an event. We were on the same table and he asked me, "Do you know me" and I said "Yes of course. You are Apa. You have been Everest 21 times" and he said "No, I do not mean this. When you returned from Everest you were very cool – and we children – we ran behind you (…) And then the next one on the table asked, 'Do you know me?' And I said – 'of course – you have been on Everest 16 times. You had the record time to climb.' And then he replied 'No, no I do not mean this. When you were in Dhalaughiri, I was your kitchen boy.' (…) And this shows that*

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[25] Yvette Vaucher a Swiss alpinist who participated on the International Everest Expedition together with her husband and wanted to realize a summit attempt.
[26] Hunt was the expedition leader of the first successful Everest expedition in 1953.

they [the Sherpas] have admired and valued us, because they knew that we treated people nicely. That`s what is important." (Interview with Nairz)

The expedition members also took responsibility for their Sherpas. For example, there was a Sherpa who fell in a crevasse and had an open scull-fracture and remained paralysed. The expedition crew then paid the disability annuity for this Sherpa. Also, after the devastating earthquake of 2015 in Nepal, Nairz and Messner engaged in rescue projects, and provided support with their foundations.

Diemberger recalls that on Makalu, Sherpas had the same rights as other expedition members. The idea of a team with both Sherpas and expedition members working together under equal rights was completely new.

Pasaban also explained that she always had a very friendly, egalitarian relationship with her Sherpas, *"…for me the Sherpas are members (…) I am in the kitchen with them all day long, cooking, eating (…) and they like me a lot."*[27] As for Sherpanis, Sherpa women, the situation is more complicated. When Blum wanted to hire Sherpanis to do the same work as Sherpas, to form an all-female expedition, she ran into some problems. Blum wanted the Sherpanies have a good educational foundation for the expedition and offered climbing and English lessons. This, however, did not materialise when she found out that the Sirdar did not hire the best Sherpanies, but two of his women relatives. *"They're not the strongest, the most intelligent nor attractive Sherpanis I've ever met. They're supposed to help with laundry and washing up and having them around will be good for Sherpa morale.' 'Oh, no, Mike. That's exactly the opposite of what we want.'"* (Blum, 1980, p.23). Blum's attempt to employ highly qualified and trained female Sherpas failed. The roles she wanted to assign these women were not yet accepted in the local society. They had to work with male Sherpas and the Sherpanis served the old role model of "brightening up" and "decorating" the expedition. So, the Sherpanies could only do a cleaning job and keep up the morale of the male Sherpas. This was definitely not the objective of Blum and her all-female expedition.

"Let them climb the summit as a special bonus" (Interview with Nairz)

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[27] In 2010, when I was on a trekking tour in Mustang, Nepal, I met a former Sherpa guide, Nadi Sherpa, of Pasaban, who confirmed to me how nice and equalitarian Pasaban treated the Sherpa crew. He proudly showed the ice axe, which was a gift Pasaban left him after she had climbed the summit.

More than once expedition leaders stressed that it was important to treat Sherpas fairly and equally as team members, although they were "staff" and paid for their services. This seems to be a modern approach for a workforce. Nairz said they had introduced this system as one of the first groups.

> *"Additionally, we gave the high attitude Sherpas the possibility for a summit push, if they wanted to climb the summit. (…) This was very new, because besides Tensing there were only 1-2 Sherpas on the summit. (…) to provide Sherpas the possibility to climb the summit, proved to be a special incentive, a bonus for them."* (Interview with Nairz)

This is an important incentive for Sherpas. If they summit as well, they increase their profile and enhance their CV. A successful Everest summit certainly increases their chances for future jobs. The summits they accumulate are therefore something valuable, which makes their market value rise.

According to Bonington, several factors are deemed to be important for the fair treatment of the Sherpas, *"It is important to have a clear and fair pay structure as well as an incentive system and also the right to summit."* (Interview with Bonington).

Bonington (1976) recalls how he organized the inventive plan to keep Sherpas motivated, a clear success of using reward power in these circumstances, *"They certainly seemed to believe that we were going to succeed this time. I wanted to make certain, however, that they also felt that they were going to reap the rewards of this success. I promised a generous bonus scheme (…). This might sound very mercenary, but then it must be remembered that in helping the expedition in return for payment, the Sherpas are no different from any other employees on a daily wage, (…) they need to feel that the job is worth doing; they need to develop friendship with their employers and to feel that their efforts are fully recognized. (…). I offered both Pertemba and Ang Phu some very real incentives to make the expedition successful, promising each of them a trip to England in the event of success, and promising Pertemba that I would try to get at least one Sherpa (which, in all probability would be him), to the summit. Very strongly, I felt that we owed the Sherpas the opportunity of putting one of their members on top. (…) They too deserved to share in the ultimate satisfaction of standing on the top of Everest. It was this feeling of sharing, and the care that every single member of the climbing team took for the Sherpas working for us, that was as important as the money we paid them in creating the spirit of co-operation which contributed so much to our success."* (Bonington, 1976, p.73)

The bonus payments are important to the Sherpas and sometimes can lead to tough negotiations, which – in the case of Blum for example – were not always pleasant. The Sherpas in Blum's expedition were not always easy to handle. They blackmailed Blum a couple of times and put pressure on her and succeeded to get extra pay. *"I ended up having to give them more money and more…"* Blum also thinks that being a woman in a woman's expedition, men and how they behaved [and these were only the Sherpas] were part of the problem.

Part of the incentive for Sherpas nowadays is also the possibility for a summit push. Jordan mentioned that eight of ten climbing Sherpas went to the summit and Blum that her Sherpas hoped very strongly to climb the summit of Annapurna. *"Lopsang had confided to me that he hoped very much to get to the summit of Annapurna himself. Sherpas do care about summits – in part for sport and prestige – but mostly for the better job opportunities open to a famous Sherpa. And Lopsang certainly deserved to reach the top after all the hard work he had done for the expedition."* (Blum, 1980, p.75)

Even at the very first successful 8000m expeditions in the 50s there were Sherpas involved in the summit push. This was, however, the exception rather than the rule and only for very few strong climbing Sherpas (e.g., Sherpa, Tensing and Hillary on Everest 1953; Tichy summited Cho Oyu with a Pasang Dawa Lama 1954, also Dhalaughiri, Manaslu and Shishapangma were climbed with Sherpas). The possibility for the summit bid is not always as easy and straight forward in reality as it seemed in theory which can be seen in the following reflection of Bonington about the summit bid on Everest '75. *"I then began to think of the ascents themselves. I definitely wanted to include at least one Sherpa in the subsequent ascents. (..) It I felt it only fair that they shared in the summit experience. But that meant one less place for the climbers."* (Bonington, 1976, p.125)

Messner sometimes stated that he was climbing with locals because *"with local climbers it was very easy-going and you do not need to argue and fight, like with Western climbers; and you do not argue and fight after the expedition"*, referring to multiple disagreements he was dealing with after expeditions with his climbing partners.

Nowadays the summiting of Sherpas is an important part for their climbing CV and some of the Sherpas have become celebrities themselves, for example Apa Sherpa, who has summited Everest 21 times and even created his own foundation to help his people. Sherpas have developed into more equal partners who have technical skills. A prominent Sherpa family

owns the most important trekking and climbing agency in Nepal – "Thamserku Trekking", including several hotels and airlines. This shows that they also feel accountable and make their own decisions. Jordan recalls the story from 2012 when they were the ones who picked the date for the summit push.

> *"The Sherpas are the know-how owners nowadays. They know what to do. The expedition leader only has to organize".* (Interview with Nairz)

However, the driving forces and the exploratory energy as well as the original idea to climb certain mountains, always came from Westerners. Oelz mentioned that to overcome the crucial part of the Everest climb, overcoming a rock, it needed Hillary as a leader. "*But at the end – by pushing them, Hillary was the leader again.*"

4.2.5.3 Power and Sherpas

Progressive change in the interaction between Sherpas and Westerners has been observed. The power as an element of the relationship between these groups has moved from legitimate and coercive power to an inclusive approach. Once Sherpas were employed as local blue-collar workers with expertise and as porters only. Sometimes the Sherpa leaders tried to exercise coercive power by threatening to abandon the expedition when asking for higher pay. Reward power from both sides came into the picture. It is notable that reward power was only mentioned in the context of Sherpas and only when positive outcomes were described. Some leaders mentioned that they treated the Sherpas fairly and as peers. We must, however, take into consideration, that the Sherpas were always dependent on the Westerners and rarely if ever accepted as a peer.

Some of the interviewees mentioned their personal effort to make Sherpas visible and provide them with an opportunity to develop further. Dhyrenfurth took his Sherpas to Washington, when he received the Hobbit medal from President JF Kennedy, as did Hillary with Sherpa Tensing when being awarded in the UK.

There is a certain romantic view of Sherpas as altruistic individuals serving the Westerners, even giving up their lives. This opinion has recently been reverted, as there were some incidents which showed a change in attitude and a long-lasting dissatisfaction of the Sherpas

who did not accept coercive power by Westerners anymore and increased their economic and expert power. I would argue that a disruptive development is taking place at this point.

Within the local organizations, coercion, legitimate and reward power are again the main power types applied by the Sirdar or the Sherpas in charge.

There is a gap between the different worlds of the Westerners and the Sherpas. Steck also emphasized that some of the younger Sherpas are extremely self-confident, based on their expert and relationship power, wanting to completely take over the expedition business. Lücker explains that the Sherpas do not have the authority to really enforce a decision (Malik, 2014). When a guide on the Matterhorn tells a client to turn around, he will do that. On Everest, exactly the opposite is the case. This means that they have the expertise, but not the position or any sort of coercive power.

Regarding reward power, there was some development. At the beginning of the expeditions Sherpas and porters were only incentivised by their salaries. In recent times, this has changed, since the "climbing Sherpas" also work on their curriculum and are rewarded by being able to summit famous mountains. Nowadays many Sherpas are well-educated, professional, connected to the outside word by social media and are slowly taking over the climbing and trekking business once uniquely led by Westerners.

Power has moved from coercion, reward and legitimate power to referent (towards the Sherpas) and expert power (from the Sherpas).

4.2.5.4   Giving back

Many of the successful climbers in the Himalayas founded a charity or foundation or engaged in investments for the Sherpas after they went back home. Nairz is well recognized among the locals as he always treated Sherpas as equals and not as employees. He founded an initiative where Sherpas are invited to Austria and are formally trained by Mountain Guides in order to obtain all necessary knowledge as an alpine guide and lead more professionally back in Nepal. He also heads a foundation that helps Nepal: *"We have a standing there [in Nepal] like – what shall I say – almost like Hillary."*[28] In the aftermath of the terrible earthquakes which took

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[28] Sir Edmund Hillary, who together with Sherpa Tensing Norgay was the first man to climb Everest in 1953, later engaged to build hospitals and schools in Solo Khumbu to thank the Sherpas.

place in Nepal in April and May 2015, Nairz, who was in Nepal at the time, immediately engaged in support initiatives.

Pasaban has also founded a foundation and helps children in the Himalayas, Messner has the Messner Mountain Foundation to help mountain people and Jordan fights poverty in Chile.

Conclusion

- The role of Sherpa guides has changed substantially in the past decades. At the beginning of Himalayan mountaineering, they were a type of "blue collar worker" who took orders. Later they started developing more into partners, their expert power was recognized, and they were asked for their opinion on specific topics. More recently, Sherpas have taken over large responsibilities, actively participating in decisions. They also climb summits during an expedition. By involving Sherpas more and showing how much their work is being valued, intrinsic motivation has been increasing.

- Sherpas are employees, team members and partners. As such they are paid relatively high wages for an expedition. It is important for them that their reward not only consists of the salary and a summit bonus payment, but also of the summit itself. This experience adds to the curricula of Sherpas and makes them more valuable and requested as climbing guides and Sirdars.

- Reward power was therefore an efficient power base with the Sherpa staff providing them not only with monetary incentives, but also better prospects for their future careers.

- Sherpas, although being in an expert role, often do not have the position of power or the authority to really trigger decisions.

- Many current or former expedition leaders engage in different ways in social projects or organizations to help the people in Nepal in order to show their gratitude. If an incident happened to the Sherpas staff during an expedition, the expedition usually takes care and takes responsibility.

4.3   How do expedition leaders decide?

Another important part of this research is decision-making, especially how decisions are made in the context of an expedition (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3). Three main types of situations where decisions are required were identified: general, operational decisions on logistics and organizational questions, usually taken together with the Sirdar. Decisions on the time and route to climb include the time and choice of people to push for the summit. Part of these are "summit politics" which seemed one of the most difficult situations to manage and decisions for an expedition leader since he has to pick the first and sometimes only team members who will have the right for a summit push. The third category involves decisions after critical incidents and which require a different set of processes, communication, and ways to decide, often involving life and death scenarios.

Some leaders preferred discussing decisions with the team and bouncing off ideas (Härter, Eisendle). Some believed that as a leader they should make certain decisions, in order not to bother their team with it (Kobler). Bonington reflected a lot on the right balance between authoritarian decisions and group discussions, which he calls "leadership by committee". He found out that nobody offered any criticism, constructive or otherwise, at the formal meeting. Instead of holding meetings he prefers getting the feel of a situation and getting his own ideas across by *"just informal chatting".* He further stated that he must be very receptive to the feelings of the team so that he can effectively sell them his ideas and make them feel and believe that these are their ideas. He also argued that he needed to use ideas from the teams combined experience and not be afraid to change his own plans if other suggestions seem better. Bonington does not think that the old military style of leadership can still possibly work. There is a fine line and possibly different perceptions between discussing and participating in a decision or a quick decision, as shown by the following account regarding decisions, *"Doug is a passionate believer in a climbing democracy where all decisions are made through group discussion. What he perhaps isn´t fully aware of is how strong his own personality is, and how often it is his decision that is adopted. At the same time, though, he understood my side of the problem and always gave me the fullest support, even when perhaps he was unhappy about the way I had gone about it."* (Bonington, 1976, p.87)

4.3.1 Organizational and tactical decisions

During the logistical part of the expedition, decisions are usually based on the competence of the Sirdar and his team. The interface to him is the expedition leader, who consults and

discusses the next steps regularly with the Sirdar who then executes the decisions. Since the local crew, including the local leader, are hired for their expertise, the expedition leader relies on them. He has, however, the ultimate responsibility and decision power. How difficult logistical planning on high mountains can be, is well documented. *"Climbing Everest using siege tactics is like a ponderous game of leap frog, each group out in front, usually a foursome, making the route from one camp to the next and then retiring for a rest, thus enabling the lead climbers to remain sufficiently fresh to contend with the challenge of the final two thousand feet of the mountain and at the same time to maintain the momentum of the ascent."* (Bonington, 1976, p.52)

The above is applicable to large expeditions with a separate Sherpa-porter crew. In the case of small expeditions, e.g., 3-5 expert mountain climbers pushing together for a summit, these decisions are also made in the teams. Eisendle said in his interview that he rarely lived through an experience where someone just said, *"No, that's how it is done and nothing else."* but rather discussed and tried to find consensus.

The data in this research suggest that several expedition leaders tried to discuss with the team before deciding on important topics. Pasaban recalls that decisions were made together. She also stressed how important it is to meet regularly in a defined place during the expedition and can communicate and decide together. She emphasizes that the kitchen tent was an important place to hold meetings, communicate and make decisions, as you need a physical place to meet and for formal communication.

Jordan also stressed the role of the dining tent and adds the importance of having grown together as a team to be able to make decisions together, thus, to have reached a certain maturity level as a group. Bonington emphasised the need to prepare the team well and create the same level of expectations.

> *"I used to spend hours on the phone 'just chatting.' (…) It is about bouncing of ideas. Then they felt consulted".* (Interview with Bonington)

Härter stated in the interview that, *"The best way to come to decisions is by sitting together in the team and reflecting together"* and, *"The decision just came up in the group. Some team members decided to go down; the rest went up – no need for a formal decision from the leader"*.

Härter also states that he cannot explain why certain decisions were made, e.g., why two participants volunteered to go down with a sick colleague. It just happened. Venables sees a link between one common objective and the motivation of the group and the way decision-making works.

Venables, Bonington, Diemberger, Nairz, Dyhrenfurth, Pasaban also mentioned the importance of physical proximity to the team and the action. It seems that on an expedition this is specifically important, since once on the mountain, it is very difficult to discuss and consult other expedition members. The next development of communication during the expedition is a command structure, which is contested.

"I do not see how someone sitting in a base camp, who has not much of a climber can make senseful decisions about what's going on several thousands of metres up the mountain." (Interview with Venables)

Even though discussing with the team is seen as the most favourable way to reach a decision, the ultimate decision power and responsibility is seen with the expedition leader. Blum states that sometimes it is good to reach consensus, sometimes one just needs to take a decision. Härter has the same experience regarding the ultimate decision power.

"If there is no clear opinion for a decision, you have to be very clear as a leader and take this decision yourself. These things are also not achievable with pure democracy, where everybody does what he wants". (Interview with Härter)

Nairz mentioned the term, "Demokratur", a synthesis between "democracy" and "dictatorship" in German. He describes the way of finding consensus as a democratic one whereby everybody's opinion in the team was valued. When, however, no agreement could be reached, the leader had the right and the duty to decide; the "dictatorial" part of the process.

"Mostly decisions have been discussed beforehand, but it was a "Demokratur". (…) When no agreement could be reached, I decided. It was clear from the beginning that everybody had to respect this and follow the decision. (…) I had the responsibility." (Interview with Nairz)

The concept of responsibility and decision power is often dependent on the context. The person who has the ultimate responsibility – here the expedition leader – is also the one who

has the right to make the ultimate decision. Oelz is also a medical doctor and head of an entire unit in the hospital and mentions the "Chefentscheid" ("boss decision"), an expression in German, for the ultimate responsibility and power of the e.g., boss to make a decision.

Kobler on the other side sees it as his responsibility as a leader, to make decisions for the team, in his case a commercial expedition, as he wants to take away the stress and responsibility from his clients. He calls them "recommendations" rather than "decisions", involving the explanations of pros and cons for a specific decision or situation. Venables also describes where he, as a participant of a small expedition, had to accept the decision of the other climbers, whether he liked it or not and the leader decided who would lead the pitch. Eisendle underlines the importance of making a decision as an alpine guide.

> *"You have to decide at one point. You cannot NOT decide or walk around in circles. You have to decide and afterwards stick to that decision. (…) It is never clear, but you have to decide at one point. You only know afterwards whether it was right or wrong. (…) A decision is only wrong if something goes wrong."* (Interview with Eisendle)

4.3.2 Summit Politics

The decision of who can try to reach the summit first is often the most difficult decision a leader has to make. Whereas the objective of former expeditions was to bring a team member to the summit, the objective of a commercial expedition is to bring all paying clients to the summit. The decision for the leader is to select those who will be able and those who are not. Blum describes how this was one of the most difficult parts or decisions in an expedition. She states the problem in the Himalayas, compared with climbing in the Alps, is that not everyone can have a summit attempt because resources at the high camps can support only a few climbers (Blum, 1980). Many trips must be made to build up the supply pyramid and often only two climbers can reach the summit, even though their success is based on the hard work of the whole team. The conflict situation is that actually most climbers have the capability of reaching the top, but the selection of the summit teams is often a function of last-minute events. *"These questions of who will lead and who will make up the summit teams invariably cause problems on large expeditions. Frequently the climbers divide into competing fractions, and sometimes the loosing fraction has actually given up and gone home. More than one*

expedition has been seriously weakened by the bitterness resulting from these difficult choices." (Blum, 1980, p.98)

At a certain point, and after many discussions, Blum made the decision of who would go to the summit. Some team members had strong objections. Beforehand no consensus could be reached, so Blum made the decision based on her assessment of who were the strongest climbers. *"There was a lot of competition to be in the first summit team. But it was also who is in the right place at the right time."* she said, "*There is less summit politics in small groups.*" (Interview with Blum). Blum stated that she did not expect her plan to be popular with the members. She was aware of the fact that designating the four best ice climbers, as 'lead climbers' would divide the team into two groups. Those not selected and uncomfortable and those who were selected. It also foresaw the later and even more difficult division into summit and support climbers. In order to decrease competition between the team members, Blum suggested not communicating the names of the summit team members to the outside world. *"So, it could be the entire team who climbed the mountain."* The group, however, rejected this proposal.

Blum remembers that she informed the participants beforehand of her plan. *"When I invited people, I said, "You know probably we'll be lucky if two people reach the summit. So, you probably won't be on the summit team. But it's a victory for everyone. (…) 'If two of us reach the summit, that's a big victory but it probably won't be you, you have to accept that this is a team effort.' Everyone is like, 'Of course. It's a team effort. No problem' But then when it really came to it, everybody was like, 'Yeah, it's me!' "* (Blum, 1980, p 110) Her book "Annapurna" (Blum, 1980) is regarded as very influential regarding decision making, although Blum thinks that she agonises too much about decisions and thinks she is not a great decision maker. She believes her indecisiveness makes her a weak decision maker.

Also, Bonington gave a lot of thought and reflection to the question of who should be in the summit team. He reflected a lot on the constellation of the summit team and made sure the ensured that the first summit bid was as strong as possible as they might not get a second chance. He made sure to choose two strong climbers, who also got on well together and were very experienced and determined. (Bonington, 1976)

Sometimes leaders must also deal with a strong reaction to their decisions. The decision on the summit team might divide the group completely (Blum, 1980) or destroy the morale (Bonington, 1976), especially when the other team members have the feeling the summit team prepares itself on the expense of the other ones, "*I think you´ve destroyed the spirit (…) I think you´ve destroyed their morale (…). It´s no good having a pair going strongly out in front if there´s no one to support them.' (…) 'But is this teamwork? Up to now we´ve kept roughly in turn, though Don and Dougal have done less carrying than anyone else and have definitely nursed themselves for the summit. I´d rather risk failure and yet have everyone feeling that they had had a fair share of the leading which, after all, is the real reason why we have all come together on this climb.'* (Bonington, 1976, p.244)

This highlights the fine line and tension between the team effort and keeping the morale and the optimal allocation of resources to achieve the objective – the summit. Härter also recalls that the summit decision was not something that could be objectively discussed and decided in the team. The physically fittest go in front to prepare and often then also get the first summit push. You must have a very clear plan of how the program will look every day.

Blum had to deal with a lot of criticism and discussions of her decisions of who would be in the first summit party, *"My lobbying had been found out, and the group was angry at the methods I had used to get my plan accepted. My intentions had been good, but the result was devastating. (…) We try to make decisions more openly in the future. From now on when we have to make decisions, I´ll try to get a consensus from the climbers at each camp, which will be transmitted over the radio to the other camps.' 'We´ll never reach a consensus,' Annie interrupted. 'You´re supposed to be the leader and decide what´s going to happen."* (Blum, 1980, p.106). This is a paradox despite being the leader, everyone wanted a democratic decision-making progress, which was a very difficult task.

Also, Bonington on his Everest expedition had difficulties in making his opinion on the summit party heard and respected. Communication is the key in this process, and it gets much more difficult when the lead climbers are out on the mountain, responsible for themselves and their destiny. Position power seems to decrease with remoteness and referent and information power takes over. *"I told him very strongly that under no circumstances did I want Mick to go for the summit next day. I wanted him to come back down. (…) I realized I was perhaps ordering the impossible. Once climbers have got to the top camp on Everest they are very much on their*

own. Up to that point, they are members of a team, dependent on each other and the over-all control of a leader, but the summit bid was different. This was a climbing situation that you might get on a smaller expedition or in the Alps. It was their lives, in their own hands, and only they could decide upon their course of action." (Bonington, 1976, p.142f.)

Not all expedition leaders made the decision on the summit team as a leader but tried to keep it democratic until the end. Jordan, for example, who did not want to make the decision of who had the right to go to the summit, included the whole team in the discussion and came up with a new approach. The entire group wanted to try to get on top of the mountain at the same time. What seemed a utopia at the beginning then became reality, because the entire team supported this decision and was willing to accept inconveniences and sacrifices for their common goal.

4.3.3 Critical Incidents

Regarding critical incidents, two categories, "sudden or unexpected accident" and "natural disaster" (avalanches, storms) frequently have to be dealt with while on expeditions. Critical Incidents in the mountains such as accidents, avalanches etc. require an immediate reaction - Blum calls it "command and control" – by the leader. In the aftermath of such a critical incident when urgency has passed, decisions were often made as a team again (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.3.10.1.).

Several leaders (Blum, Kobler, Härter, Bonington, Dyhrenfurth) recalled the fact that they remained very calm and kept to the predefined procedures the moment the critical incident happened. Härter and Jordan specifically stress the importance of being well prepared as such an incident can happen any time. Härter emphasises, *"You have to accept that critical incidents can happen; otherwise, you will not succeed – economically and from a human perspective".* He argues that it is all about mental preparation for such situations, that one has to imagine all the scenarios that could possibly happen, e.g., incidents, change of weather, loss of equipment etc. beforehand; only then you are well prepared to handle it.

"You must be mentally prepared for these kind of things"

"So, this is one of the most difficult things which can happen to you when you are an expedition leader. To just leave from the mountain with four people less. This is a new level, a new level of experience. (…) We have carried out commemorative service in Basecamp and have tried to

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get through… (…) Sherpas then went up to 7000m and we forbid them to climb any higher (…) The normal thing, which is also part of the process, is to immediately write a protocol about the entire sequence of events, as far as known by the group. (…) You have to write down everything and then everybody has to sign, so that you have witnesses etc. (…). On the other human level, we have also reviewed what happened quite well. (…) This is what you can do afterwards, in order to put up with something like that as a group together. (…) Always in the hope that something like this doesn't happen that often. On the other hand, you must be mentally prepared for these kinds of things." (Interview with Härter)

Kobler describes that when critical incidents happened, he remained calm and knew what to do. He dealt with the death of an expedition member well until he came back when among relatives and friends of the victim the whole incident collapsed on him.

Blum also recounts the moment of disbelief when she learned about the death of two team members, and then the very logical and mechanical reaction to this situation and acceptance of fate, *"They must have fallen on the steep ice below the camp or been knocked off the slope by ice or rock fall. They fell nearly a thousand feet until they were stopped to the left of Camp IV when Vera slid into a crevasse. Although the news was not unexpected, we were totally stunned. (…) As I sat numbly in the snow, unaware of what was happening around me, disconnected images of Vera and Alison ran through my mind. Slowly I began to collect myself and think about what had to be done now. (…) Should go up the next day to see if there was any evidence of what had caused the fall, or how they had died. (…) There was nothing we could do for them."* (Blum, 1980, pp.219)

When critical incidents happen, it is important to stay focussed on the rest of the team, especially if there are still some members up on the mountain. The leaders also described how important communication is in times of crisis. There might be desperation about the death of a member, but at the same time they need decisiveness to get the remaining team off the mountain in safety. *"None of us could believe that Mick was dead. (…) The hours crept by our hopes began to vanish, to be replaced with anxiety not only for Mick but for the safety of the three now pinned down, tired and exhausted at the end of the Upper Snow Field, with only a limited quantity of food and oxygen, exposed to the full force of the powder-snow avalanches that were pouring down from the summit rocks. (…) Time for a radio call – Thank God. We*

never appreciated the wretched thing before. Chris comes on the air, calm, soothing: "Just hold out for a little; Nick, Tut and Ronnie are in support at Camp 5 ... try to conserve fuel ... the storm can´t last much longer ... there´s no need to worry." (Bonington, 1976, pp.147)

Oelz mentions the feeling of powerlessness after a critical incident and that there is nothing you can do. It is a tragic situation which you have to deal with somehow and there is nothing, which an emergency team or psychological support can do to help in his opinion.

It is simply brutal (…) In our case we were simply sad together. Nairz has sent out the messages. (…) Then we drank without limits. (…) We were a bit depressed at the beginning and in Kathmandu we got wasted. When we arrived in Munich, the two widows were there. We went to a Brewery and have undertaken a food and drinks "orgy". Then we have been at the two funerals in East Tyrol. We did this together. (…) Then you have to take your turn and communicate, Reinhard is dead. There is nothing more you can do." (Interview with Oelz)

Härter also argued that when there is a critical incident, priorities clearly start to change. Usually this is the moment, after having been confronted with the situation, when the original objective of the expedition is often questioned and needs to be revaluated to the team. Depending on the situation it is the question of whether to turn back (e.g., Jordan on an expedition where a friend was killed in an avalanche) or whether to continue. (e.g., when a team member on the American Everest expedition was killed). When critical incidents occur, the values of the expedition in general are sometimes questioned. Questions of whether a mountain is worth a human life or not come up and the sense of guilt for the victims and their families arises (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.10) The following story shows these feelings, when a young Sherpa boy tragically died in an accident at the beginning of Bonington's´ Everest expedition. "*I could not help asking myself, once again, whether these climbs were worth the loss of life that so often accompanied them. I have no answer. People die climbing in Britain too, and few outdoor sports are entirely without some element of risk. But a climber can assess the risks and can accept or reject them. Mingma was not a climber. (…) His death was an accident which might have happened at any time, but he was carrying for us, and we are responsible."* (Bonington, 1976, p.65)

During the US Everest expedition of Dyhrenfurth in 1963, the group reflected on what to do after a group member died at the beginning of the expedition. He had lived through such an experience.

> *"The group was deeply touched. First, they wanted to break up the expedition for Jake Wright. But then one and another started saying: 'No, Jake would have wanted us to go on'."* (Interview with Dyhrenfurth)

The two stories of Venables and Härter also show that there is a difference between being the leader of a commercial expedition or an expedition with professional climbers. Whereas Venables was alone regarding the decisions and next steps, when the critical incident happened; some porters had frostbitten feet at a very remote trekking centre, Härter on the other hand had more support from his team. He discussed with the team members what to do during the incident, but also afterwards. His team consisted of equal climbers. Venables recalls how difficult it was to communicate and inform the team in a critical situation. No accident had happened yet, but as a leader he needed to act and inform to prevent the group from a possibly dangerous situation.

> **"It was very hard to tell, but they seemed to appreciate it."**
>
> *"At this crisis what happened was pretty grim. I said that I was concerned about going over these passes and whether they had sufficient equipment. (…) So that evening – on a very good suggestion from one of the team – I made a little speech. It was partly to get up people's morale, but also just to tell them what was going on because you can easily forget that at times if you have got a lot of people. (…) So, they all knew what we were planning and what we were hoping to do. And I just said, 'you have done really well, well done, you have been fantastic going over that passes, and a particular thanks to one of the men, who was amazing'. And then I said, 'well I am hoping to get a helicopter so that the sick people can go down. And the helicopter brings more food but if they can't get through, then some of the strong ones will have to go on this pass and we just have to wait here.' So that they knew what was happening (…) It's hard to tell, but they seemed to appreciate it. They seemed to be quite pleased (…) Yes, I think they felt someone is doing something about this."* (Interview with Venables)

On some occasions the leader has to make the decision on his own as to what to do as he has the ultimate responsibility. Nairz provides an example when he had to turn back with his group.

A leaders' decision to turn back

"On the Manaslu Expedition 1972 where he had Andi Schlick and Franz Göger who had died. It was my decision when I said that it becomes too dangerous and we need to go down. It was me who asked to trek out because in these times there was no phone, no mobile phone, not even radio. It took 10 days to walk out there and then there might or might not have been a phone. It was my duty to contact and inform their families. Another task was to keep the team together." (Interview with Nairz)

Conclusion

Decision-making should consider who makes the decisions and which kind of decisions will be discussed. I distinguish between tactical, strategic decisions and decisions in critical situations, based on the model of Grint (2005).

- In critical situations leaders must make quick and straightforward decisions. All decisions following these first decisions are usually discussed and consulted in the team, since they have an immediate impact on the way the expedition is continued.

- Tactical decisions like choosing the best route are often left to the lead climbers, whereas the organizational and logistical decisions are left to the expedition leader and his Sirdar - considered the experts and the most competent to make a decision.

- Summit Politics are the most difficult decisions since they have a lot of influence on the team spirit and morale. Rarely is this decision made as a group. In most cases it was a difficult decision by the expedition leader alone.

- Discussions within the team are usually the preferred way to make a decision. If the leader does not want to distract the team from the main focus of the expedition or when the

team does not reach consensus, the leader makes a sometimes very lonely decision. This situation can be called "Demokratur".

- Most expedition leaders prefer to make important decisions together with the group based on discussions. Only in some situations, either because no consensus can be reached or because of the time restraint, was the decision taken by the leader alone.

- Generally, leaders accepted that, although discussions were welcomed and encouraged, the ultimate decision can and should be made by the person who is ultimately accountable for it.

4.3.4   Power and decisions

Some leaders stated that they were surprised about their own calmness and coolness during critical incidences. Expertise and preparation are key. Many leaders stated that they always prepared mentally for the worst case. They communicated in front of the group at the beginning for the mental preparation of the team and when the incidents happened. This minimized the potential for conflicts in case of incidents and managed expectations. Keeping the team informed was deemed crucial in critical situations (see also Chapter 2).

When critical incidents happen, there was mostly no room for democratic discussions. In these cases, the leaders argued that for the sake of speed they just had to make a decision. They exercised authority based on position power coupled with expert power, but at times also referent power (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3).

Discussing summit politics, the decision of which team members get the chance to try the summit push first, was one of the most prominent decisions in the interviews. The leaders described how tormented they were since this decision was one, they always had to make alone and with the sole objective of making the expedition a success. In traditional expeditions this would mean making one of the team stand on the summit. In commercial expeditions this decision related to the wellbeing or survival of the clients. Sometimes the teams were involved in the decision to a certain extent, but the expedition leader made the final decision based on his position power.

Generally, the authority of a leader means that their summit attempt is not necessarily a priority. Many leaders did not summit themselves when they led successful expeditions (Bonington, Blum, Dhyrenfurth), others stated that their priority was to manage the expedition successfully, but also managed to climb to the summit (Kobler, Nairz, Jordan). It was only Pasaban for whom it was imperative to reach the summit since the entire expedition story was based on her success of summiting the 14 highest peaks. Summit politics seemed mostly position-power driven.

Summary

- Technical and organizational decisions usually regard logistics and can be delegated to well-trained experts. In the expedition context these are the Sherpas under their Sirdar-guide. The issues dealt with are "tame" problems.

- Strategic decisions, such as summit politics, can be called "wicked" problems. They do not have one obvious solution. Finding decisions under such circumstances can be by applying a participatory style to get an idea of the team's opinion, but in the end, it is usually made by the leader.

- During or immediately after a critical incident, decisions were straightforward in an expedition environment. These decisions are made quite quickly involving position power and not usually involving a lot of discussions.

- In the aftermath of a critical incident the expedition leaders often returned to a participatory style, using referent power, discussing a lot with the team and therefore looking for a commonly accepted decision.

- Decisions always need power to be executed.

One has always to consider the cost of decision-making – the trade-off between the buy-in and the quality of the decisions and the effectiveness and involved cost effects due to quick decision-making.

Conclusion

The decision-making processes in an expedition environment are dependent on the given situation. Tactical, organizational, and logistical decisions were made in a managerial and authoritarian style, as were decisions in critical incidents. Decisions in the aftermath of critical

incidents, however, are usually made in a democratic style. When it comes to summit politics, the decision process was not always the same. Some leaders included the team although it qualified as a "wicked" problem; others observed, listened, and then made their decision.

Chapter 4 analysed the narratives belonging to the different topics, emerging from the thematic theme analysis and the interpretation, including the development of models will be made in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5 : Discussion

5.1   Introduction

The analysis in Chapter 4 concentrated on the data and the big themes related to the research questions which emerged including narratives, whereas the focus in this chapter is the discussion of the findings and models within the context of general leadership theory.

The aim is to discuss any <u>leadership lessons</u> in the expedition environment valuable to the top management in the corporate world. I will also reflect on <u>how expedition leaders have learned to lead</u> and examine their leadership styles. Furthermore, I will explore the <u>dynamics between the expedition leader and the team</u> and try to uncover some of the <u>decision-making processes</u> during an expedition (through examples of critical incidents and summit politics).The discussion of the research questions (Section Chapter 1, Section 1.1.3.1) will help to put the explanations in the right context. The chapter also explores how the leadership theories and related research and literature which are generally developed from organizational contexts is similar or different within this unresearched context. It is this comparison of similarities and differences that provides contributions and reveals how a mountaineering context builds on or provides further evidence for the relevance of certain theories or corporate senior leader experiences.

5.2   Observed leadership styles and developments-leadership ahead of the curve

Most of the expedition leaders displayed a shared leadership style. They usually included their lead climbers in all relevant discussions and most decisions (see also Section 5.4). This confirmed that most of the leadership styles I was interested in and which have been discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3, are being used. Most leaders indicated using a distributed leadership style, which at the time most expeditions took place, was not yet applied frequently in the corporate world. As discussed in Section 2.3.7 , Gronn (2009) renamed distributed leadership as "hybrid leadership" to indicate the need of modern corporates, which can react quicker and more flexible. The displayed leadership behaviours identified from the data and

how these are connected with the leadership theories are displayed in the following Table 26

Leadership styles mentioned	Description of leadership style	Expedition leaders who use the leadership styles
Democratic or participatory leadership	Involved the team in decisions Integrated and consulted Sherpas	Blum, Dyhrenfurth, Jordan, Nairz, Pasaban
"Demokratur"	A mix between democracy and dictatorship depending on the context (adapting)	Nairz, Blum, Kobler
Authoritarian leadership Command & Control	Directive leadership behaviour Expert function used as a doctor	Bonington, Oelz
Servant leadership	Characterized by a balance between being a servant and the master at the same time.	Blum, Eisendle, Härter
Adaptive (situational, opportunistic) leadership	Situational style with flexible leadership (a good leader uses the right style for the right occasion) Must adapt to the different followers	Blum, Diemberger, Venables
Dynamic (fluid) leadership	Leadership just grows out of the group and is taken when leadership was missing Considered temporary	Bonington, Diemberger Messner
Leading by "chatting"	"Just chatting" with the team members and other stakeholders to get buy-in and the same understanding of all	Bonington
"Neanderthal" and "Archaic" Leadership	The leader is the best and therefore accepted No formal leadership needed	Eisendle, Messner

Table 27, page 217, displays the comparison of which leadership styles have been discussed in Chapter 2 and which have been displayed in the narratives of the expedition leaders. Most of the leadership styles match a theoretical concept. There are a few exceptions only. Women leadership has not been mentioned explicitly but was a part of the narrative of the two female expedition leaders. It is displayed in the way they described their leadership style, which in both cases displayed qualities of transformational leadership, either servant or distributed leadership. The other leadership styles, which were mentioned, but were not in the focus of this research, was the authoritarian approach, which was displayed in exceptional situations (e.g., taking over leadership after an accident; being a doctor) and the "archaic" leadership style, which corresponds to a "laissez-faire" leadership style (Table 26).

Leadership styles mentioned	Description of leadership style	Expedition leaders who use the leadership styles
Democratic or participatory leadership	Involved the team in decisions Integrated and consulted Sherpas	Blum, Dyhrenfurth, Jordan, Nairz, Pasaban
"Demokratur"	A mix between democracy and dictatorship depending on the context (adapting)	Nairz, Blum, Kobler
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"Neanderthal" and "Archaic" Leadership	The leader is the best and therefore accepted No formal leadership needed	Eisendle, Messner

Table 26: Observed expedition leadership styles
(data from Chapter 4, Section 4.1.5.1 to 4.1.5.4)

All this could indicate that expeditions tend to show similar trends to those in corporations over periods of time. A learning is that this development began much earlier in expeditions. A reason might have been that it was seen as much more important to adopt these more democratic leadership principles in the expedition environment, because the senior expert climbers as experts in their field (comparable to the top management team in a company; see also Chapter 2, Section 2.4.4), would feel the entitlement of being included in the leadership process. In mountaineering this can also have a security aspect, since in this way the experts are involved in the assessment of risks.

Only recently has this democratisation of leadership in corporations taken place in practise, driven by new work models (smart working) and changed requirements. It may be assumed that the corporate world could learn from the agility of the expeditions nowadays, which are purely composed by expert climbers, completely independent, able and willing to undertake the expedition alone. This is a very similar situation as we see it in the entrepreneurial world and / or start up tech scenes.

Theoretical leadership styles	Displayed leadership styles
Reference: Chapter 2	Reference: Chapter 4
Distributed leadership	Democratic or participatory leadership
Distributed leadership ("Hybrid leadership")	"Demokratur"
Servant leadership	Servant leadership
Flexible leadership	Adaptive (situational, opportunistic) leadership Dynamic (fluid) leadership
Conversational leadership	Leading by "chatting"
Emotional Intelligence	"Good leader", Good carers and good listeners
Authentic leadership	"Good leader", Role model
Authentic leadership	"Good leader", Role model
Women leadership	*Not specifically mentioned but implicitly described*
not in the focus	"Neanderthal" and "Archaic" Leadership
not in the focus	Authoritarian leadership / Command & Control

Table 27: Theoretical and displayed leadership

Therefore, the mountaineering context builds on or provides further evidence of the relevance of certain theories or corporate senior leader experiences, especially distributed and servant leadership models.

This addresses the theory-practice gap (Roegman & Woulfin, 2019), which can help relating to the interconnections of theory and practice and which can contribute to close this gap.

5.2.1 Leadership development

An important point in the discussion with the expedition leaders was their accounts of how they started to lead, the reasons why they did and how they learnt to do it (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.4 and Chapter 4, Section 4.1.1 and 4.1.2). The explanations involved a whole array of reasons, from "it just happened", to where leaders, became leaders because they were good mountaineers. Few of them made a conscious decision to be a leader. When asked to explain how they learned to lead, the reasons were even broader. Some recalled some formal leadership training, such as in military service (Bonington, Härter, Kobler, Dyhrenfurth) or during their mountain guide training (Eisendle, Nairz, Härter, Jordan, Diemberger). Some of the respondents also had learned leadership in parallel professional worlds, such as medical doctor in a hospital (Oelz), a professor at university (Blum) or on an entrepreneur (Jordan, Nairz, Pasaban). Since there is no formal education to become an expedition leader, these different reasons and explanations are of no surprise.

The important question is whether there is any preparation for leadership, be it in the

expedition environment or in corporate management. The main difference between development programmes in corporate management and expedition leadership is that expedition leaders have more chances to have "qualified" experiences. They have more chances to operate as 'qualified' leaders. They have a chance to prove themselves in a challenging situation outside of their normal comfort zones. It is also understandable that most of the interviewees had someone who was their role model, whether father, successful expedition leaders or sometimes just climber peers. These people are reminiscent of the "notable people" (Kempster, 2008). Learning through observation of role models provides short cuts to leadership development, which was an important way for respondents to learn about leadership. In the corporate world this is not new but, in this context, there are a similar set of experiences. This emphasises the value of role models, gaining experiences in challenging situations throughout a manager's or a leader's life to make them fit for senior leadership especially in difficult, riskier times.

Most of the expedition leaders also stated that they improved their leadership skills through "collecting experiences". The value of "experience" in learning to lead is intuitive but not straightforward when it comes to arguments and proof of evidence. As discussed in Chapter 2 Section 2.3.4, "The Experience Conundrum" has been stated in the sense that learning to lead can only take place through experience (McCall & Morgan, 2010). Also, it is not only the experience, which helps the learning process, but the quality of the experience. Usually such an experience comes with a stretch target, but the reward is an exponential learning curve. One might even go so far to say that the qualified experiences add to the personal experiences developed by Kempster (2009) (Figure 5, p. 28).

Some expedition leaders started to lead without any theoretical concept to relate to what they were experiencing. Only later did they engage with this experience through a theoretical framework. Jordan described being somewhat "enlightened" when he talked the first time to a leadership expert who explained certain dynamics to him. He stated that at this point a lot of things which he had done intuitively during the expedition were given "names" and a whole new world opened up to him. This shows that theory also helps in the development process, if only to provide a name to things the leaders are experiencing. Only then was the analysis on a conceptual level was possible. Bonington and Blum on the other hand showed a high level of self-reflection recalling and analysing lived experiences. Writing diaries and later books,

they created their own learning cycle and conceptual framework. This shows that not only "the experience" counts when it comes to learning but also how the leader actively engages with the leadership experience. This further suggests that in corporate leadership development programmes the skills of reflection and self-reflection should be increased in leadership theory and the research curricula to bridge the practise-theory gaps. As discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.4, all these concepts are interlinked and in the centre is experience and personal learning.

When it comes to "technical experience" or "skills", the leaders agreed that the skill set develops proportionally to the training and a solid skill base is the foundation and prerequisite for developing into a successful leader. It is like driving a car. First you need to reflect on each step until you end up at a certain level of automation by practice.

The other factor mentioned is the moment "when you are first on your own". This kind of experience is one "that matters" and "makes a difference." Since we know that challenging experiences can lead to significant development of leadership abilities (Nicholson & West, 1988), this was apparently a situation which helped to build the leadership experience.

Bonington recalls his mistakes as a valuable experience during his first leading experiences in the military, when he neglected the advice of the older colleague and behaved like "*a bull in a China shop*". Whilst Bonington did not think he had learned a lot about practical leadership during his formation, he considered this practical experience was valuable. He had to live through it on his own as a learning experience. Seven key themes seem to have influenced Boningtons' understanding of how to lead based on his lived experiences: *"Notable people, role enactment, situated learning, identity development, performance capability, aspirational desire to lead and the role of formal training"* (Kempster, 2009, p.6; and Chapter 2, Section 2.3.4). There seem to be experiences, also depending on the quality and type, which have impact on the development of a leader (McCall, 2010; see also Chapter 2, Section 2.3.4). The underlying assumption about these strategies is that leadership capabilities can be developed, and that different people have different characteristics and qualities, which they bring to situations and that there might be more than one valid approach to the same situation effectively. The true challenge is to provide potential qualified experiences for people to learn how to handle situations in the right way. In this research, experiences of both models were mentioned, role models and first experiences being the most frequent.

Conclusion

Expedition leadership developed into a distributed leadership style earlier than was the case in the corporate environment.

Expedition leaders learned through experience, mostly in technical climbing, and learned to organize and manage expeditions afterwards. When it comes to experience-based learning in the expedition environment this research showed that all respondents had the chance to soon make "qualified experiences"; the right experience at the right time. The organization of the first expedition was part of the learning experience. Dyhrenfurth described how hard it was to get his US expedition up and running. It took him three years. Bonington worked on a trial-and-error basis to get his Annapurna South Face expedition organized (Bonington, 2001), as did Blum. Jordan learned first by observation of how "not to lead", at an expedition he took part in as a participant. Being a participant allowed the future expedition leaders to learn by observation (e.g., Härter, Messner, Blum, Jordan). All these leaders learned by launching themselves into the adventure of organizing and leading an expedition, with a lot of passion, and technical climbing expertise, but little management experience. Some leaders (e.g., Eisendle, Venables) mentioned that they did not really want to lead and even felt uneasy to do so. "Leading" was something that came with the job, something they had to deal with. They often applied a "laissez-faire" or "archaic" leadership style, which might have been based on the actual unwillingness to lead (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2.1) Not all leaders are meant to be leaders and some wish to simply be mountain climbers and develop strong technical expertise. Härter argues that it can even harm a person if he has to lead although he does not want to. Being a technically good climber does not mean that you are a good mountain guide or expedition leader.

5.2.1.1 Leadership versus management?

The concept of leadership and management needs to be revisited to identify parallels between expedition leadership and corporate management.

Some of the participants saw the managerial tasks as different to the leadership tasks and were convinced that a successful expedition leader needs both characteristics; other argued that it is the same. These views are also reflected in discussions on management and leadership in the corporate environment. Debates over the distinction between leaders and

managers notwithstanding (see Chapter 2, Section 2.3.3; Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002; Gronn, 2003), the general belief of the expedition leaders was that it needs both. This relationship is shown in Figure 29.
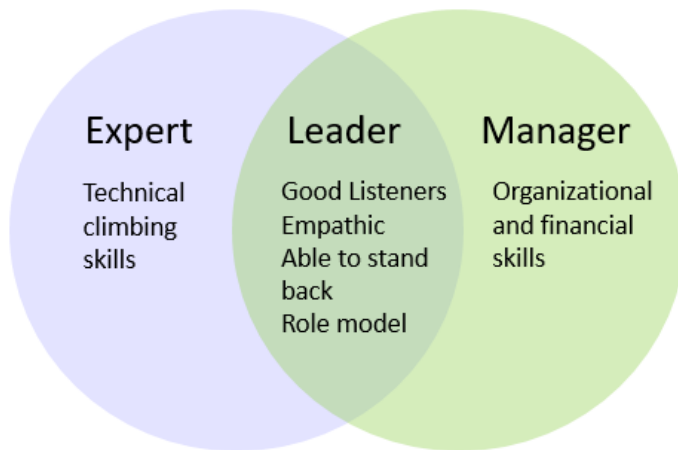
Figure 29: Expert-Manager-Leadership-Model derived from expedition experiences

There are expedition leaders, who proactively arrived in this position because they had a vision and wanted to realize a goal without necessarily being the best in breed of all climbers. They were, however often, excellent organizers and fundraisers, which legitimized their position (see Figure 30). They usually were very good climbers, but not necessarily elite climbers. Being an elite climber does not make automatically a leader of people. This is known in the corporate world especially when it comes to specialised skills (e.g., technological skills) but it not always wise to select any of these as leaders. This is a similarity between the two contexts in companies that require a high level of technical expertise, which is also shown in Figure 32, page 222 in an expedition context.
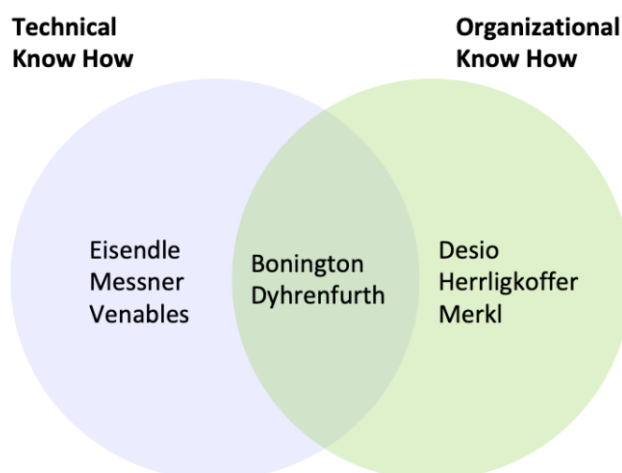
Figure 30: Examples of different expedition leadership expertise of selected expedition leaders.

Whether they subsequently became well-accepted leaders or not depended on the size and the overlap of these two patterns, as shown in Figure 31 and Figure 32. Figure 31 shows the degree of overlap of competencies; how much overlap there is between the managerial and the technical self of the potential leader.

Figure 31: Overlap of competencies in expedition leadership

Examples of pure technical experts and mountain climbers within this research include Eisendle, Messner, Venables, Diemberger, and in the overlapping part of "leaders" Bonington, Nairz and Dhyrenfurth. Blum and Pasaban could also be in the overlapping "leader" section, although the "managerial" part outweighed the "technical" part in both of their cases.

Some expert leaders (Eisendle, Messner, Härter, Bonington) came from the expert leader side and then developed, in different degrees, their managerial skills by creating more and more of an overlap and therefore enlarging the managerial expert circle. On the other hand, there are some expedition leaders in historical expeditions of the 1930s and 1950s, (Herrligkoffer, Desio, Merkl) (Chapter 2, Section 2.2.1 and 2.2.2 and Annex C) who clearly acted from a managerial basis and had little climbing expertise.
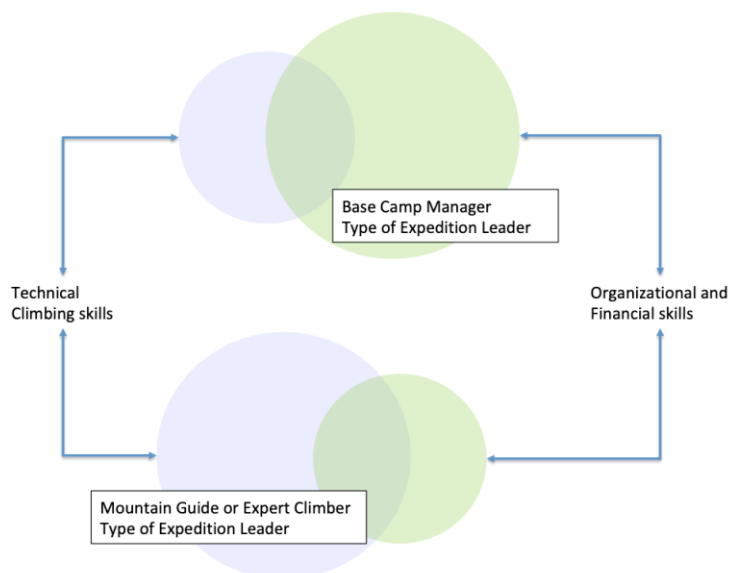
Figure 32: Expert Climber and Base Camp Manager

Summary

As discussed in Chapter 2 (Section 2.3.4; Watkins, 2012) there are some substantial changes (shifts), which develop managers into leaders. The *"seven seismic shifts"* (Watkins, 2012, para 4) could help explain how the two types of mountaineers ("technical expert" and "manager") undergo the transformation to the middle, "leader" part in the EML model. This could be from a specialist (here "expert") to a generalist, from a problem solver to an agenda setter, from an analyst to an integrator or from a brick layer to an architect (Watkins, 2012).

5.2.1.2   Developing from a climber to a leader

Research showed that the way that mountaineers become leaders is rarely through a structured approach and that there is no formal education for expedition leadership. Most of the interviewees obtained the technical training as prerequisites of an expedition leader, through their education as mountain guide, but did not have "managerial" or "leadership training". Some of the interviewees, who had outstanding climbing skills, would nevertheless not be assessed as a "good" leader. Furthermore, leaders just fulfilling the managerial part did not guarantee being a good leader either. These expedition leaders were rather seen as "technocrats" or tour organizers. In response, one can use the "Expert-manager-leadership model" (EML) (see Figure 29), which shows that it needs a certain amount of both, technical expertise and management skills to be a "good" expedition leader, in the sense of the interviewees´ definition (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.3.3.1 and Chapter 4, Section 4.1.5.2).

The overlap and size of the two areas, as shown in Figure 31 depends on the level of acceptance of the expedition leader as "leader". A leader needs a substantial amount of expert knowledge, i.e., technical climbing experience, to be accepted in the expedition environment. In different environments, this needs to be assessed on a case-by-case basis, depending on the company size, the industry, the geographic location etc. The EML-Model therefore shows the relevance of both, technical and organizational-managerial skills for the expedition leadership role. The size and the overlap of the two areas indicate the extent to which a leader will be perceived as a "good" leader. From a mountaineering perspective, the model provides two areas that are systematically linked offering a pragmatic approach to leadership development. Using this as a starting point for leadership development in organizational settings could be helpful.

5.2.1.3 Power bases and leadership maturity

An additional finding was that the power bases shift in the course of leadership development. This Expert to Referent Power Model (ERP) in Figure 33 shows the change of importance of the two power bases during the development cycle of an expedition leader.
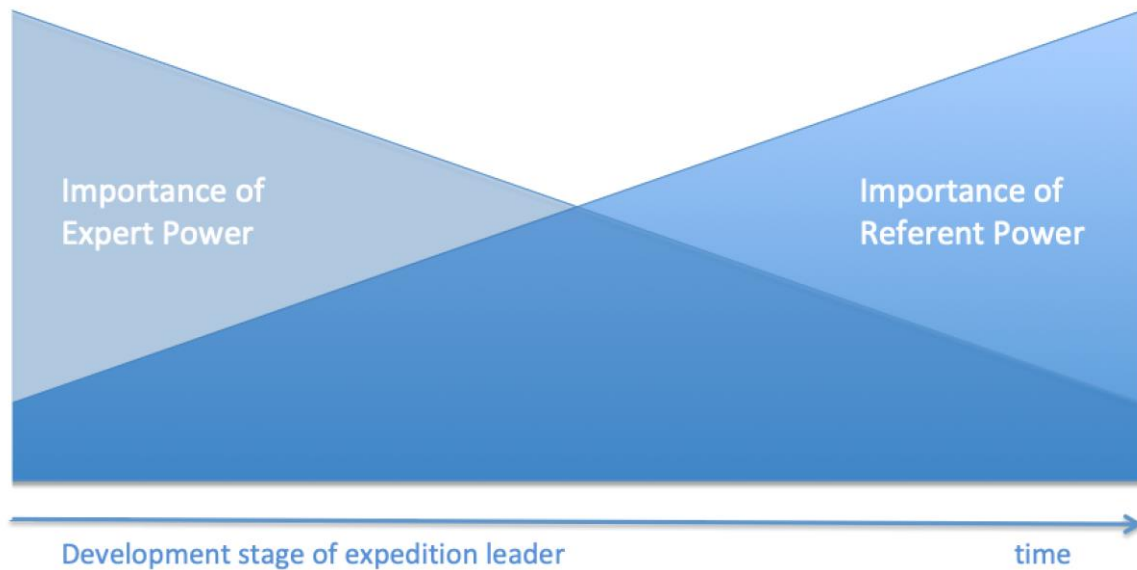
Figure 33: The Expert to Referent Power Model (ERP) based on expedition leadership.

This model based on expeditions, has some parallels to the contingency theories (discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.10.2), which assume that a leader should adapt the style on the given circumstances (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Fiedler, 1967). There is also a similarity between expedition leadership and organizational leadership at senior levels as the contingency theories are derived from organizations. It is suggested that the power bases are dynamic, and their focus should change in the course of the development and the seniority of the leader. Whereas at the beginning of their career the expedition leader rather gains acceptance by his technical knowledge, this changes over time and referent power might become a stronger influencer (Chapter 2, Section 2.6.2). Especially the "life cycle of leadership", which focuses on different behaviour according to the seniority of the leaders, has some similarities to the proposed Expert to Referent Power Model (Figure 33), showing different kinds of power necessary for the expedition leader depending on his own seniority (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). This research showed that most expedition leaders became accepted at the beginning of their career as expedition leader because they were very good climbers but later gained referent power due to their expert career experience and success.

The inclusion of power (Chapter 2, Section 2.6) when exploring leadership style over time sheds more light on the existing theory in relation to expedition leadership.

5.2.2 "Good" leadership

The concept of "good" or "bad" leaders was frequently mentioned during the interviews (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.3.1. and Chapter 4, Section 4.1.5.2). Good expedition leaders displayed emotional intelligence, authenticity, and were a role model so that the group objectives came before personal goals and they were able to adjust their leadership style to new situations or different people.

5.2.2.1 Emotional intelligence, empathy and intuition

One recurring theme in the interviews was the "human" and "caring" factor of the respective leaders and its importance for the participants, especially in physically and psychologically stressful situations. During these high-altitude expeditions, the empathy-factor becomes even more important, but it also means sometimes being intuitive.

Active listening, as discussed by Riordan (2014) and Nulty (1994), was identified as a key factor in the better and more successful expedition outcomes, and is said to be a similar requirement in corporates. It became apparent that engaging leadership and active listening is a key factor of "good" leadership, as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.9.1.

It is also deemed to be a necessary component of conversational leadership and/or servant leadership. Another factor of a "good" leader was emotional intelligence (EI) and specifically engagement, which was a recurring theme in the interviews.

Another theme which was mentioned several times (e.g., Kobler, Eisendle, Jordan) was "gut feeling" when leading. Sometimes this gut feeling was described as purely intuitive, and sometimes a result of previous experiences. Therefore, one of the most important questions for leaders is when to trust their gut feelings and related instincts. Research on this type of decision suggests that leaders cannot prevent gut instinct from influencing their judgments, but they can define mitigating measures to prevent flawed decisions (Campbell & Whitehead, 2010). This topic of intuition and bias will be dealt with in Section 5.4.2.4 on decision-making.

Summary

In the expedition environment where people are regularly in physically and emotionally exposed situations, the importance of leadership abilities regarding emotional intelligence might be even higher or valued as more important than in a superficially sterile corporate environment where emotions are usually banned. Following the recent trends of leadership development there might be nevertheless more importance in this topic than originally attributed. This environment is associated with a new set of rules, where it matters how to deal with each other and my findings re-emphasise its significance (Goleman, 2010). This refers also to the concept of servant leadership, where empathy is an integral part (Jit et al., 2017; see Chapter 2, Section 2.3.6 and Section 2.3.9).

5.2.2.2   Walk the talk

Throughout the research it was stated that the notion of authenticity of expedition leaders was very important and that they are authentic and "walk the talk". (Chapter 4, Section 4.1.2; p. 142). It also became clear, however, that authenticity is often seen as too black and white. "Authentic" is not only positive or only negative, but in the real world there are many combinations in-between. Chapter 2, Section 2.3.7. In the context of expedition leadership authenticity was stated as a very important trait and closely related to the expert knowledge being expected by the participants from their leader.

The concept of authenticity can, however, also have a negative connotation, as described in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.7. (Gruenfeld, 2011; Ibarra, 2015). Ibarra suggests moving out of your comfort zone to advance in your career and at the same time remaining flexible, when it comes to your "authenticity style". She suggests that defining authenticity too rigidly might get in the way of effective leadership, *"The only way we grow on leaders is by structuring the limits of who we are – doing new things that make us uncomfortable but that teach us through direct experience who we want to become."* (Ibarra, 2015, p.15). She further argues that authentic leaders constantly work on increasing self-awareness, developing further and improving relationships with others.

Be a role model

Leading by example is a fundamental element of leadership. (...) Indeed, some CEOs have voluntarily given up their stock options and cut their salary when their firm hit a rough patch,

as a way of convincing their subordinates to accept a pay cut in order to save the firm. Putting in long hours at the office, especially when the firm is facing an unexpected major problem or decision, is also a way for the leader to show that he cares about the firm and others involved in the firm. (Bolton et. al. 2010, p.249)

Several expedition leaders underlined the importance of a good CEO at the top of a company. This corresponds with the notion of being a role model but also of the 'great man' concept. Bonington specifically stated that you need a good leader at the top and if this is not a good leader, it taints the entire organization. Pasaban argued, *"(...) the leader is the one who knows how to work as a team. The one who makes a team work together and who gets the best of this team for a good result*." This implies that a good role model as expedition leader has an important influence on the senior climber team and the bonding within a team, which has a lot in common with the top management team, as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.4.4; p. 53 (Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Klein, 2009).

Several respondents mentioned the importance of the leader as a role model. "Walk the talk" in the expedition environment is important and had a substantial impact on whether a leader was accepted by the team or not (see also Chapter 4, Section 4.1.1). A study at Harvard Business School shows that authentic leaders have a high level of self-awareness and have certain things in common, such as exploring their own life stories to understand themselves, engaging in reflection and introspective practises, seeking honest feedback from different stakeholders, understanding their leadership purpose, and working on their skill to adapt to different audiences (George, 2015).

Something, which was mentioned in several interviews, was the example of the expedition leader carrying loads from base camp to the different high camps: hard and tiresome work. Those expedition leaders also "qualified" as peer climbers and were the ones most respected by the team (Bonington, Dyhrenfurth, Blum, Jordan). Hunt and Dyhrenfurth also carried loads up until 8400 metres. This shows how the leaders acted as master and servant at the same time, which indicates a link to servant leadership theories (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.6).

A typical way to lead by example involves the leader´s approach to motivate the team members (Hermalin, 1998). Also, an *"individual´s authenticity is likely to be highly correlated with his or her "emotional intelligence"* (Goleman, 1995; Zupan, 2010, p.287).

Figure 34 shows the addition of authenticity to the EML-Model, a theme with an important influence on the perceived leadership capability of a person. This creates the next level, the Expert-Manager-Authenticity Model (EMA). A person in charge with organizational and managerial capabilities and who is authentic has the potential to be a good leader (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.3.1, Section 2.3.7, Chapter 4, Section 4.1.5.2, Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2). This model shows similarities to the needs of senior corporate leaders, who long for success. This research reiterates that that organizations should recognize these factors and focus on leadership development more.
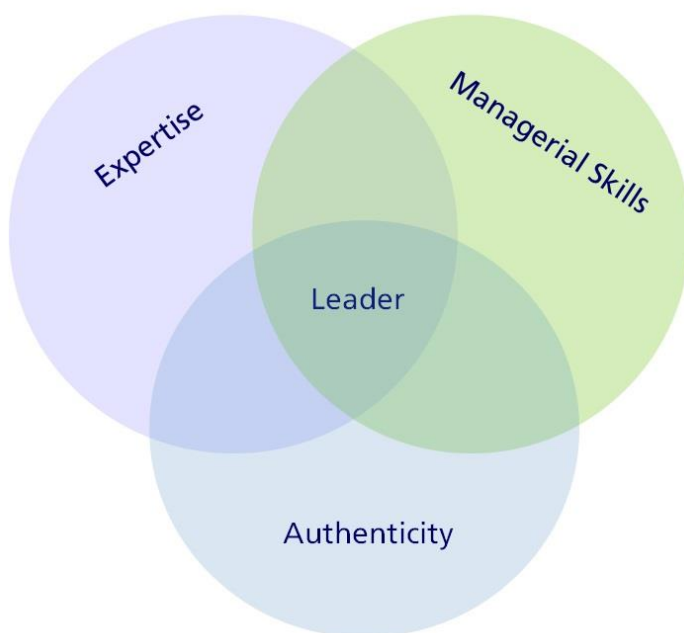
Figure 34: Expert-Manager-Authenticity Leadership Model
Based on expedition experiences

Putting yourself back

One of the similarities to the servant leadership theory was that several leaders mentioned that their own summit attempt or potential success was put back for the sake of the expedition goal. It seems the more the expedition leaders had already achieved in their lives and the more they identified with the organization and success of the expedition, the less was their ambition for their own summit experience (Bonington, Blum, Dyhrenfurth). They became a servant for the cause (Greenleaf, 1977; Chapter 2, Section 2.3.6).

This might not be something new in the organizational leadership research, but bridges the two worlds through a common theme.

Summary

Authenticity and leading by example add to the credibility of a leader (George, 2015; Gruenfeld, 2011; Ibarra, 2015; Zupan, 2010). To say what you do and to do what you say, to be a good role model and to "walk the talk" is arguably necessary behaviour for a "good" leader. These are additional elements of leadership, besides technical and managerial capabilities. Being authentic is something, which is also important in corporate life. It is related to ethical leadership as well, which means to be reflective regarding your own authenticity.

5.2.2.3 The ability to adapt the leadership style

Several respondents (e.g., Blum, Dyhrenfurth, Nairz) said that it was important to be flexible when it comes to the leadership style. Vroom's (2000) model states, "*each of the styles is appropriate to certain kinds of situations, and that an effective leader is one who explicitly tailors his or her style to demands of the immediate problem at hand*" (Vroom, 2000, p.84). This model will be further discussed in Section 5.3. Adaptive leadership, as described in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.10.2 and Chapter 6, Section 6.4.1 and Section e.g., 6.4.2, focuses on the fact that leadership can be learned and is an important way to drive and react to change management in organizations. Adaptive leadership can also refer to different situations where the leader needs to adapt to different people (Section 5.2.2.3) or to different situations and personalities and is essential in the expedition environment. With this adaptive leadership style I suggest something new and re-emphasise the value of this style that has been suggested by some authors to be important for the corporate world (Broueretal, 2013; Yukl, 2010; see Chapter 2, Section 2.3.10.2).

The concept of changing the leadership style between distributed and individual leadership has been mentioned by Gronn (2009) introducing a "hybrid" model (see Chapter 2, Section 2.3.7), which has a lot in common with the leadership applied by the expedition leaders. This type of leadership reflects the needs of the organizations of today for being agile and reactive.

5.3 Teams

5.3.1 Team creation and bonding

Much has been already said (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.4; Chapter 4, Section 4.2.1) about creating the expedition team, which was considered one of the most crucial success factors of expeditions. This team corresponds to the top leadership team (Canella, 2008) in the

corporate world (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.4). The expedition leaders needed to make sure they had the best available climbers with the highest commitment. Those climbers, however, were not always the best team players, some of them were known to be "prima donnas" or "shapers" (Belbin, 2010). This was often a trade-off, which the expedition leaders had to manage. In the case of the very successful expeditions of Bonington, Nairz, Pasaban or small expeditions with few, very strong partners, as Messner, Habeler or Kammerlander, Venables, participants and the expedition leaders knew and trusted each other since they had been climbing together for many years. Climbers nowadays regularly team up with the best available climbers in small teams. This was also true for e.g., Steve House and Vince Anderson[29] who climbed Nanga Parbat´s Rupal Face in 2005 as a two-man team and made history with this summit success. These ideas rather than having parallels with corporates, are more characteristic of entrepreneurial smaller organizations or start-ups, which are well known in applying the agile leadership style described in Chapter 2, Section 2.4.2. These agile forms can move quickly, be empowered, and make it easy to act.

A different approach was taken by some successful early expeditions where the expedition members had to sometimes apply formally for an expedition. This was true for the first US-Everest-expedition of Dyhrenfurth in 1963, the first all-female expedition of Blum in 1978 or the Broad Peak and Nanga Parbat expeditions in 1953 strongly influenced by alpine associations (Chapter 2, Section 2.2). Jordan reached out to the best climbers of Chile to staff his first Chilean Everest expedition. What those leaders had in common was that they sometimes needed a bit more of effort in creating a team out of the individuals who previously did not know each other. It was important that they started growing together as a team. Jordan called this bonding process "bake the team" which corresponds to the "forming and storming" phase of classical team building (Tuckman, 1965) (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.4).

The commercial expedition leaders (Härter, Kobler) did not choose the participants for their expeditions actively themselves but rather checked the profiles of those climbers who applied in order to assess their alpine track record. This selection or admission is based on technical skills and experience but does not provide any information about the personality of the individuals and how they would eventually fit into the team.

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[29] Steve House and Vince Anderson are two US-climbers who are now professional climbers and mountain guides

With bigger expeditions, there is evidence that nations, culture and most importantly language was one of the most uniting or dividing factors and linked to success or failure of the project, such as the International Everest expedition (Nickel, 2007b). Bonington specifically pointed out that all his expeditions consisted only of UK climbers, which made him feel more comfortable as a leader. Jordan led his expeditions only with Chilean climbers for the same reasons, stating that despite the same language, he would not have included members from other Latin American countries because of the different mentalities; cultures and the way people reacted. This was also the case when expeditions just needed a "national PR stamp" in the 1930s, but also in the race of the first conquests of 8000m peaks in the 1950s[30]. The cases, which were successful together, usually involved small groups of very few climbers with high technical competencies and the main reason to form that specific climbing team were their climbing abilities. The common objective e.g., to climb a difficult summit. with a flexible, technically very strong team of mountaineers increased the bonding between the climbers and is more relevant, than the differences owed to cultural heterogeneity. The negative impact and the lack of bonding when trying to form international teams on expeditions has been one of the learnings in this research.

5.3.2 Communication

Communication was especially important when it came to the common expectation setting, rules and definition of common values for the expedition. A mix of referent and legitimate power was applied in most cases (Chapter 2, Section 2.6.2). The acceptance of the group of these common values and rules was described as a necessary way to secure success.

There is a difference regarding commercial expeditions where people need and expect firmer leadership as opposed to small, expert groups of climbers, mostly influenced by referent power. Also, the rules that were installed needed to be more defined and transparent for commercial expeditions. Managing expectations, providing feedback or reflecting were mentioned as key success factors. I am suggesting that commercially led expeditions have a lot in common to large corporates using legitimate power, whereas small expert climber groups using referent power are more like smaller, entrepreneurial organizations or start-ups.

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[30] e.g. the "German" expeditions to Nanga Parbat, the "Italian" conquest of K2, the "British" success on Everest.

There are clear statements that it is easier to get people behind an idea, and accept common values in personal and informal meetings, rather than in formal meetings with everyone attending. Bonington called this "just chatting" whilst preparing the expedition or purposefully having one-to-one conversations to bring the teams together again. Pasaban talked to a member of her expedition through a difficult decision, Härter mentioned the necessity of one-to-one conversations in case of doubts, and Jordan had many conversations and reflections on the unfolding events during the expedition. This all shows how important relationship power as argued in the study of Ban (2008) is for the success of an expedition. These observations also correspond to the findings of Boden (1994) and Sjostrand et al. (2003) who claim that management is done by small talk and in areas, which naturally would not be associated with corporate management.

5.3.2.1   First bond, then go remote

When communication in the team was analysed there were several examples in the expedition environment, which showed the difficulty of communicating clearly and holding a team together if there were large distances involved, such as from base camp to high camps. As outlined above, one factor of success in remote communication is the bonding and maturity of the team as well as the fact that position power seems to decrease with remoteness and referent and information power take over, which is why building trust is so important. Another factor, which has been identified, was the kind of topics, which needed to be discussed. This research showed that there is a link between the maturity of a team and the complexity of the topics or problems discussed within the team. It shows the probability of this communication being successful if not undertaken face-to-face, as shown in Figure 35.

The higher the complexity and the less mature the team, the lower the probability of a successful outcome. The more the team has created a bond, the higher the probability of success. However, if the topics are well structured, and less complex, a team that has not reached high maturity, can also achieve a fairly good result.

As discussed before (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.9, Section 2.4.5), building up trust, teambuilding, communicating, developing a bond and a team spirit is best done in personal encounters face to face. After having built trust, communication can be maintained successfully also in a remote way. These learnings from the expedition environment can be potentially worthwhile

to be considered in the corporate world. As discussed previously, remote communication is a reality in today's organizations and even increasing given the trend towards smart working. Therefore, a learning would be to make sure that enough time is invested in building a team before moving into remote working models.
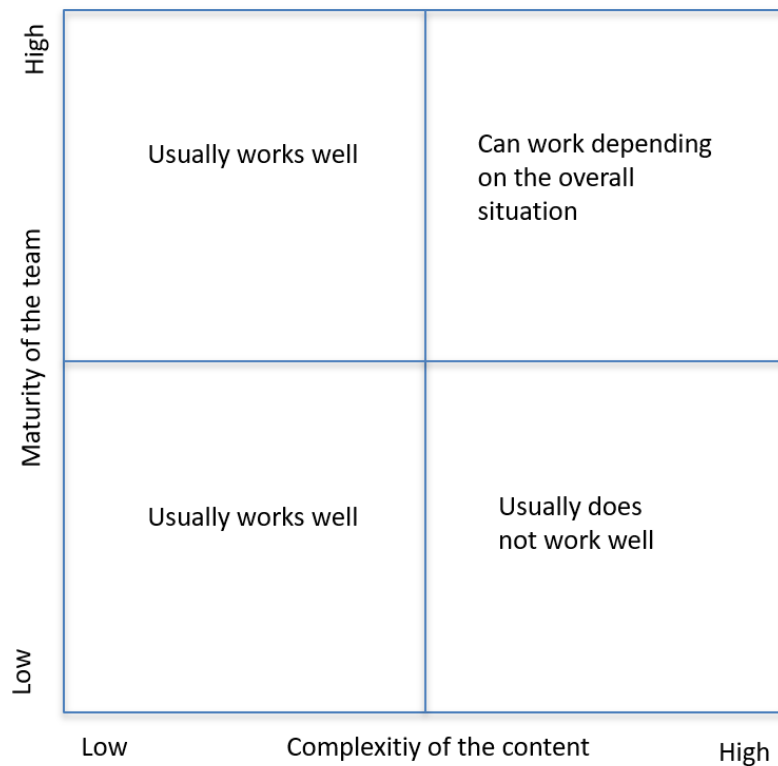
Figure 35: Communication Complexity Maturity Model (CCMM)

5.3.2.2   Conflicts and communication

When conflicts arose, they were mostly mitigated using position and sometimes referent power. Most of the conflicts happened within the team because of unclear leadership or exaggerated expectations (paying clients who see the summit as entitlement) or different opinions within the team (about technical capabilities, or national differences).

In most cases, exercising position power could resolve the conflict. When it came to differences within the team, reference power also helped (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.6). Clear and transparent communication was a key to success to mitigate conflicts that arose during expeditions. The length of expeditions makes it relevant to solve conflicts in a constructive way. Referent power exercised through transparent and clear communication is key to immediately intercept potential conflicts and avoid them.

Different speed among subgroups, different culture and poorly communicated decisions or actions must be managed with authority and quickly or they jeopardize the success of the expedition.

5.3.2.3 The Communication-Power Model

A model was developed to build up on the Expert-Manager-Authenticity-Model and bring all thoughts together. It includes the ideas of the need of expert know-how and managerial knowledge, as well as authenticity to form a leader. The authenticity factor takes into account the ethical responsibility and the leader as role model. Additionally, the power dimension shows which areas are supported with which kind of power. It also shows that only the combination of all the power types, maybe in different relations, can produce a leader.
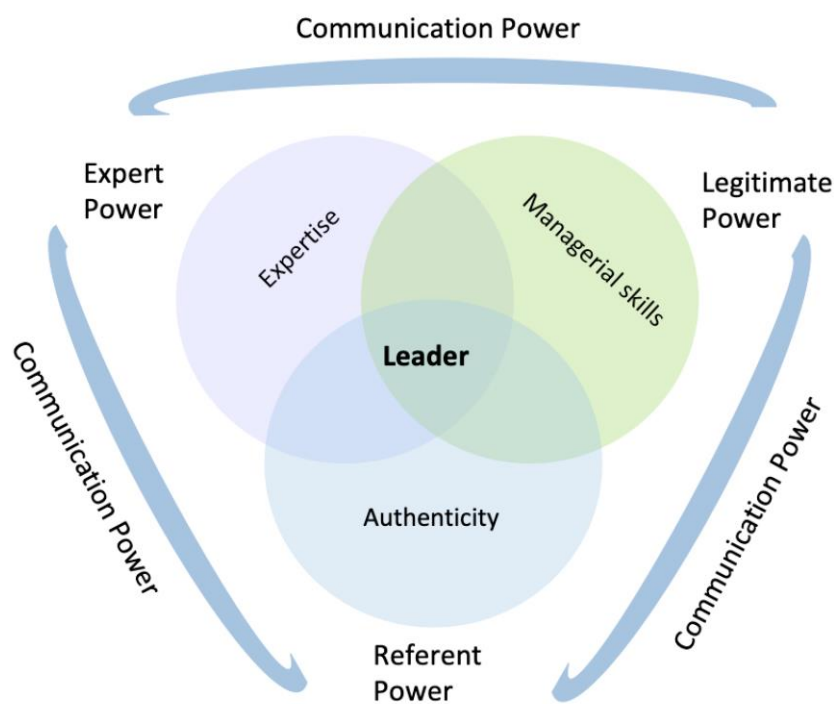
Figure 36: The EMA-Communication-Power Model

In the Communication-Power Model the overarching theme of communication is displayed as a new power base. An enlargement of information power to communication power is a logical extension and a theoretical contribution to the existing power categories (see Chapter 2, Section 2.6.2). Legitimate power is connected to management skills, expert power to the expertise, and the referent power with authenticity.

This all-inclusive model helps to integrate the developed ideas on leadership development and influence and power, by establishing communication as an important lever of leadership. In Figure 36 the discussion is summarised as it shows the development of expedition leaders in the interface between expertise, managerial skills and authenticity. The deriving leadership styles often resulted in a distributed leadership style based on emotional intelligence and empowerment was a crucial factor in leadership developing.

The shift from expert power to legitimate and referent power supports their authenticity. Finally, expedition leaders developed strategies for communication to exercise their leadership, which is introduced as a new power dimension. This topic is especially important as it also entails remote communication, which was imperative for a successful expedition long before this topic was relevant in the corporate world.

5.3.3 Women

There is still room for improvement to improve gender equality in the area of expedition environment as in corporate management as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.5.1. Attitudinal barriers are very similar, and it is difficult for women to gain credibility for their leadership from their male counterparts or colleagues. Structural barriers have been tackled to a certain extent in the corporate environment. Compatibility of family and expeditions is even more complicated than pursuing a career in the corporate world.

5.3.3.1 Women in mountaineering

Early women pioneers in the Himalayas were usually strong minded and facilitated by adventurous men, such as Hetti Dyhrenfurth who already participated in an expedition in the 1930s and Fanny Bullock Workman at the end of the 19th century (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2.2.) Both held the altitude record for women for many years, but both always climbed and travelled together with their husbands. They could participate in these expeditions only because they were married to mountaineers, who organized them (Dyhrenfurth, H., 1931; Workman, 1900). There were also some women who climbed mountains without husbands with local guides in the Alps and the first all-female Himalaya expedition was undertaken by pioneer three Scottish women in 1955 (Jackson & Stark, 1956). Those were exceptions, however.

It seems applying an "ecosystem" rather than an "egosystem" is necessary as a woman (see Section 5.3.3.2), therefore focussing and delivering on collective goals (Rhode, 2010). This was e.g., done by Pasaban, although the goal was *"Edurne has to climb all 8000m peaks"*, it was the same objective for the entire team. Her acceptance of the male team was therefore backed by the common goal. The male respondents nevertheless stated that her success was mostly based on the men surrounding her.

The new generation of climbers now climb in small teams where this issue diminishes, although prejudices persist. Once they are accepted in the climbing community, their gender becomes less important. It seems that women in smaller, entrepreneurial corporate environments, which are based on meritocracy, might have a chance to prove themselves better in the system.

5.3.3.2 Acceptance of women

The difference in how men see women, as described in Section 4.2.4 was mostly related to the topic of "having leadership qualities" or being able to "own leadership". None of the male participants acknowledged that any of the women leaders in the expedition environment were the real leaders of an expedition. The reasons brought forward were several, but it always came down to the same point: it was not the woman leading but the surrounding men in the team (Pasaban), the Sherpas (Blum), or their partners (Kaltenbrunner). This perception is understandable since for a long time it was impossible for women to participate in Himalayan expeditions alone, which is not the case anymore today, however. One of the reasons for the perception of men that women in the expedition were not really the leaders, is due to this historical fact that the local guides (once the Swiss, Italian or French guides; now the Sherpas in Nepal) were only men. Women were very rarely "on their own". Even in modern times, nearly all successful female high-altitude climbers either were the wives or partners of successful alpinists, or perceived as such.

Only in recent years have more purely female solo teams ventured out and climbed without the support of local guides or as equal team members sometimes also including men. e.g., Papert and Steurer are two strong women climbers who had already done a lot of climbing together (Hufnagl, 2015). Often it is the scarcity of women in alpinism and especially high-altitude mountaineering, which drives women into mixed teams since there is not much choice. There were few women who ventured into the high-altitude space alone, like Wanda

Rutkiewicz, Chantal Mauduit, Julie Tullis or Alison Hargreaves, the latter who had children and therefore got regularly criticized. None of these women are alive anymore and most of them have been linked somehow or dependent on male alpinists financially or romantically, at least for some time.

In all cases, the leadership qualification of the women is being questioned and organizational communication often implies that women are not well suited for leadership roles (Ely, Rhode, 2010), which has been also discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2.1.

These convictions from the corporate world were also reflected in this research when men assessed women-leaders. There was gender bias in the remarks, if not negative stereotyping per se, , when the presence of women was seen to make the men on the mountain become "more civilized", women "giving it a more relaxed and civilized atmosphere" but also when referring to women as "good carers" which reflects the "nice-but-not-competent" part. This is a possible parallel to corporate life, where a woman in an all-male meeting also changes the entire atmosphere and the dynamics (Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2.1.). Sometimes the discussions and the behaviour tend to become more civilized and less hierarchical.

Pasaban, although never openly accepted as being the "real" expedition leader (although she had organized and financed nearly all of them due to her top-notch contracts with the Spanish TV) was still recognized as the driving force. As a leader she acknowledged her strengths and weakness and acted upon it. Pasaban focussed on a collectively defined goal, which was "*Edurne Pasaban will stand on all 8000m peaks*", which helped her acceptance as a leader within the team. She intuitively applied the principle of an "ecosystem", which seems more appropriate and promises more success as a woman (Rhode, 2010). Also, Elliot & Stead (2008) support this concept stating that usually women are supported and sustained by the community and they in turn support and sustain that community.

This behaviour was mentioned during the interviews with the female expedition leaders, who both stated that they were very concerned that everybody was committed and worried about the wellbeing of their teams; thus, displaying a high level of empathy (Goleman, 2010). Their leadership style was often a mixture between servant and distributed leadership (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.6, Section 2.3.7). In some situations, they adapted their leadership style (Section

2.3.10.2) and became more autocratic. This was the case when they had to take decisions (e.g., appointing the summit team), even though the team was opposing some of these.

Women leaders in top management teams possibly would increase the need for awareness of diverse groups, which is a competitive advantage in the corporate world of today (Chapter 2, Section 2.5.2.1). This is not something completely new but bridges the two worlds of expedition and corporate leadership. The move from expert and legitimate to referent power as described in Figure 36 seems to be especially important for women as it supports their authenticity (Yoder et al., 2006)

5.4   Decision making

The decision-making process in the expedition environment has shown close links between the leadership style, the influence level of the leader, and the type of decisions, which reflected the application of a situational leadership style. Analysing the decision-making patterns, we can see the parallel to applied corporate management where the freedom for the group or the direct reports often increases with their qualification or rank within the organization (Tannenbaum 1958, see Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3).

On the other hand, the topic of "summit politics", which is decisive and often emotionally loaded, plays one of the most difficult roles in the decision patterns of an expedition and was compared to a "wicked" problem, following the taxonomy of Grint (2005) (Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3). The decision of who gets first and maybe the only chance to climb the summit has an impact on the group dynamics of the expedition, but also on subsequent individual climbing careers and ultimately success or failure of an expedition. The decision is a very lonesome task of the leader and only he or she needs to be able to justify it at the end. The more objective the criteria applied, the easier it is to withstand criticism from any stakeholders. This too is like corporates and many business leaders have to make such decisions in difficult times, when deciding whether to let go staff or to close or not close down a business.

Intuition is discussed in Section 5.2.2.1 and Section 5.4.2.4 and found to be an important ingredient in decision-making in both the alpine and the corporate world. The interpretation can be extended to emotional intelligence and empathy. Being empathic and actively listening (Gynsberg & Slind, 2012) to the team was proven to be one of the most important factors to arrive at a broadly accepted decision by the team.

5.4.2 How to decide

According to Vroom (2000), there are two parts of decision-making in an organizational context - the "what", referring to the content of the decision taken and the "who" and "how" of decision-making. In this research three types of recurring decision types were identified: organizational decisions, summit politics and critical incidents and the way leaders made decisions was also analysed (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3). Useem emphasizes that, *"Direct study of leadership decisions provides for not only better understanding how leadership is exercised but also for better clarification of long-standing concepts of what leaders do"* (Useem, 2010, p.515). I discussed both aspects in relation to decision-making situations with the various expedition leaders.

Grint (2005) subdivides problems into "critical", "tame" and "wicked" problems, with each team requiring a different way to react and decide (Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3). The scale shows that increasing uncertainty about the solution of a problem needs more influence by authorities (leaders, managers). Also, different needs for collaborations are reflected by the differences of "power" or styles applied.

The decisions closely depend on the stage at which the problem occurs (Grint, 2005). One can see several analogies between the types of problems and potential reactions, and the decision situations in the expedition environment (Chapter 4, Section 4.3). Decisions about organizational questions of the expedition, concerning logistics or preparations, are typically "tame" problems and require calculative solutions, thus management and the organization of processes. Decisions that are difficult and uncertain regarding the outcome are typically summit decisions and could be defined as wicked problems. Most non-commercial expedition leaders described this process (preparing the climbers for the summit push and discussing the different scenarios within the team) as a normative character, consisting of asking questions. At the end of this process of discussing and considering the opinions of the team, a decision is made by the expedition leader. It is an autocratic rather than a democratic process. The expedition leader decides on who will be the summit team as if it was a critical problem (Rittel & Webber, 1973; Grint, 2005) and with coercive power. This is like corporate decision-making processes, where leaders might consult and ask questions, but often also has to decide in order to provide an answer.

Critical incidents, which involve a quick decision by the leader, need critical decision in the typology of Grint (2005). In the expedition environment there might also be the involvement of the team but at the end the decision is made in a typical "command style". Therefore, this problem-solving mode is especially typical at critical incidents, when decision-making involves "hard power" (Nye, 2004). *"The assumption that successful leaders are those who respond most appropriately to the demands of the specific situation is commonplace. When all is calm successful leaders can afford to relax, seek a consensus and make collective decisions at a leisurely pace. But when a crisis occurs the successful leader must become decisive, demonstrate a ruthless ability to focus on the problem and to ignore the siren calls of the sceptics and the cynics."* (Grint 2005, p.1468)

A problem can take various forms during its life. One example is the decision of the route that an expedition picks to climb. Beforehand this is a wicked problem, involving many questions, discussions and the team. Once the decision has been made it turns into a tame problem since it involves optimal management to organize the processes and logistics well to reach the goal. During the climb, the potential problems might be compared to critical problems and often need a command style to handle it. Whilst on a mountain, the lead climber will, depending on the circumstances, mostly apply a coercion style to be efficient and safe.

Grint (2005) not only describes the differences in the problems, but also how these problems are "labelled" by their owners. To return to the example of climbing, the lead climber could convince the other climbers that there is a critical situation in order to find legitimacy to act in a command structure. The view that a reality is being constructed implies a form of social constructionism or constructivism (Gergen & Gergen, 2003 in Grint, 2005, p.1471).

The taxonomy of Vroom (2000) (Figure 13, p. 757, Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3) can also be applied to different stages during an expedition. In this analysis, the phase of approaching the base camp, which lasts many weeks and where the group has the freedom to act, is reflected on the right side of the taxonomy. When it came to the Sirdar, the freedom of decisions in certain examples was on the right-hand side. As base camp manager, Bonington delegated the entire logistics and transport from the discharging of the material from the ship in Bombay until the base camp. With the shadow team in decision-mode, the leader's influence was no longer high. Some leaders proactively applied a "facilitation" style, defining the problem to be solved together as a team and making sure that their own opinion was not dominating. Jordan

remembered such a situation when they were discussing as a team how to make the summit push on Lhotse. At the end of the discussion the group came up with the unexpected decision for the entire team climbing together to the summit. Bonington also stated several times in his interview how he involved his team members in pending decisions and how he used both, "consult the group" and "consult individually"styles to ensure he gathered different opinions and to have buy-in on his decisions (Vroom, 2000; Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3). The far left-hand side of the taxonomy was used in different situations by my interviewees. The expedition leader usually made the last decision on the summit question. However, this decision style was applied when critical incidents happened or to avoid them happening.

5.4.2.1   Organizational and tactical decisions

Tactical and organizational decisions within the expedition environment are usually tame or critical problems (Grint, 2005), which are generally delegated by the expedition leader either to the Sirdar or the base camp manager. These people are entirely responsible for these areas of the expedition and act independently from the climbers in most cases. Within the Sherpa "shadow-organization" of the expedition, decisions are usually made by the Sirdar and handled in a command-like style with no room for discussions. When it comes to the relationship between the expedition leader, the Sirdar and the lead Sherpa climbers (who prepare the fixed lines and high camps for the guests in a commercially driven expedition), the participation of the Sherpas is higher and is rather mix between normative and soft power (Grint, 2005), which is applied here to make decisions. Regarding Tannenbaum's Taxonomy, the influence of the expedition leader could be between "facilitate" and "delegate" with regards to the respective leaders, the base camp manager and the Sirdar. Within those sub-teams the leaders' influence is higher between the "decide" and "consult group" (Tannenbaum, 1958), see also Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3.

These types of decisions are more comparable to management than leadership. If one wants to follow the definition of Blum, managers do something "with their hands". However, according to Zaleznik (1977), who distinguished between managers and leaders for the first time, leaders have a mission to fulfil and a vision to be followed.

There were some leaders who did a lot of the planning and logistics before and during the expedition (Bonington, Blum, Nairz) but were supported by someone who took over

organizational tasks during the expedition so that they could concentrate on leading the team.

5.4.2.2 Summit Politics - Strategic decisions

The most difficult decision during an expedition about which team to send first to the summit could be considered as a wicked problem, according to Grint's model (2005 and Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3) and based on the definition of Rittel & Webber (1973). It needs to be made by the expedition leader exercising position power. The team members in an expedition are a part of the "problem" and cannot be consulted. Blum tried a participatory approach at the beginning of the expedition but soon found she had to take the responsibility for certain decisions alone. At the same time, she was criticized by the team, when she used too much of her influence as a leader and decided without having informed the team before (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.2). This can be seen, however, as more a question of communication and information, than purely a critique of her decision-making. Although the problem seems to be a wicked problem, the advisory and questioning part with the team can only be applied to a certain extent. Expedition leaders usually tried to consult the group during the expedition to get a feeling of the general mood regarding certain proposals or ideas and then made the final decision. Nairz's "Demokratur", *first democracy and at the end dictatorship*", refers to the authoritarian part of the decision making. Most leaders considered themselves more inclusive than the team perceived them to be. Bonington reflected how much he consulted the team on a certain question but Scott described this as an authoritarian decision by Bonington - two very different views of the same situation (see Nair's Chapter 4, Section 4.1.5.4).

Similarly related are executive decisions within strategic leadership, as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.3.1), which refers to the top levels of organizational leadership.

5.4.2.3 Critical Decisions

Critical incidents in the expedition environment are often life and death situations (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.10.1. and Chapter 4, Section 4.3.3) This research showed that there are two different phases of reactions that followed critical incidents. The first phase is the immediate reaction after the incident with a command-and-control style that is quite directive. The decision of how to try to rescue a person, whether and how to carry the injured team member down etc., are decisions, which are made quickly and therefore at the expense of discussion or common consensus. Speed is crucial at this point of time. In the narratives were many

examples, such as the emergency with injured porters (Venables), the decision to run down to organize help in the case of the accident of Venables (Bonington), the decision to go up again to rescue missing team members (Härter), the decision to send a participant back who was late and badly equipped on the summit day (Eisendle) or sending back a participant because she was sick (Oelz). All these decisions missed out the "consulting" or "discussion" element (according to the Continuum Model of Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3) for the sake of efficiency and security.

The second phase of decisions needed a different type of reaction and a certain degree of adaptation. In the aftermath of a critical incident during the expeditions, a participative leadership style, involving the entire team was usually applied. After the first reactions and decisions necessary following accident, the leaders usually consulted their team to discuss next steps and whether and how to continue the expedition. Especially, when there were casualties at the beginning of the expedition, the question of whether to go home or to remain came up. Nairz mentioned that once one of his expeditions was terminated because besides a casualty, he injured himself after having been trapped in an avalanche. Another time he again made the decision as leader to end the expedition when two members had died, and he deemed the situation too dangerous. Dyhrenfurth stated that they discussed how to proceed after a team member had been killed in the Khumbu icefall at the beginning of the Everest expedition. Blum also considered ending the expedition because the avalanche danger became very high at the beginning, but the team wanted to stay and just continued to install high camps. After the death of two women in a crevasse, however, Blum did not even have to decide or discuss anymore, as the entire team considered this the end of the expedition. I have not found any indications or stories about conflicts after critical incidents during this research. The decision of how to proceed was usually straightforward and supported by the team.

Referent Power (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.6.2) is mostly applied to communication. It is rare and most often in critical incidences when communication is reduced to the minimum and pronounced by legitimate or expert power. Decisions are highly dependent on when the problem occurs, which is also shown in the data of this research (Chapter 4, Section 4.3) and depicted in the model by Grint (2005).

5.4.2.4   Decision making and intuition

Intuition as a part of emotional intelligence (see also Section 5.2.2.1) is an important part of leadership (Mayer, et al., 2002). In this research, decision-making based on gut feeling was mentioned several times. Intuition accesses our accumulated experiences directly, which allows us to assess situations and take action without any logical, conscious basis. It is a reaction before a person has time to think about what the appropriate reaction should be. The latest findings in decision neuroscience suggest that judgments of people start by the *"unconscious weighing of emotional tags associated with our memories rather than by the conscious weighing of rational pros and cons: we start to feel something—often even before we are conscious of having thought anything".* (Campbell & Whitehead, 2010, p.2)

Campbell and Whitehead (2010) have developed a test consisting of four questions to protect our decisions against potential bias or incorrect gut feeling. These are the "familiarity" question, the "feedback" question, the "measured-emotions" question, and the "independence" question, to mitigate bias.

5.4.3   Power-Decision Model

Based on the models of Tannenbaum (1958) and Vroom (2000), the person in charge needs to be a commander (Grint, 2005), deciding with high influence, using expert and legitimate power, delegating with a high freedom for the group. He can be a manager and use his legitimate power to delegate.

By combining the models of Tannenbaum (1958), Vroom (2000), and Grint (2005), power bases can be associated to solve different kind of problems with different types of decisions. By adding the power dimension to complete the picture, the Power-Decision Model is created (Figure 37). The role model of the expedition leader changes between commander, leader and manager, depending on the type of problems and on the group.
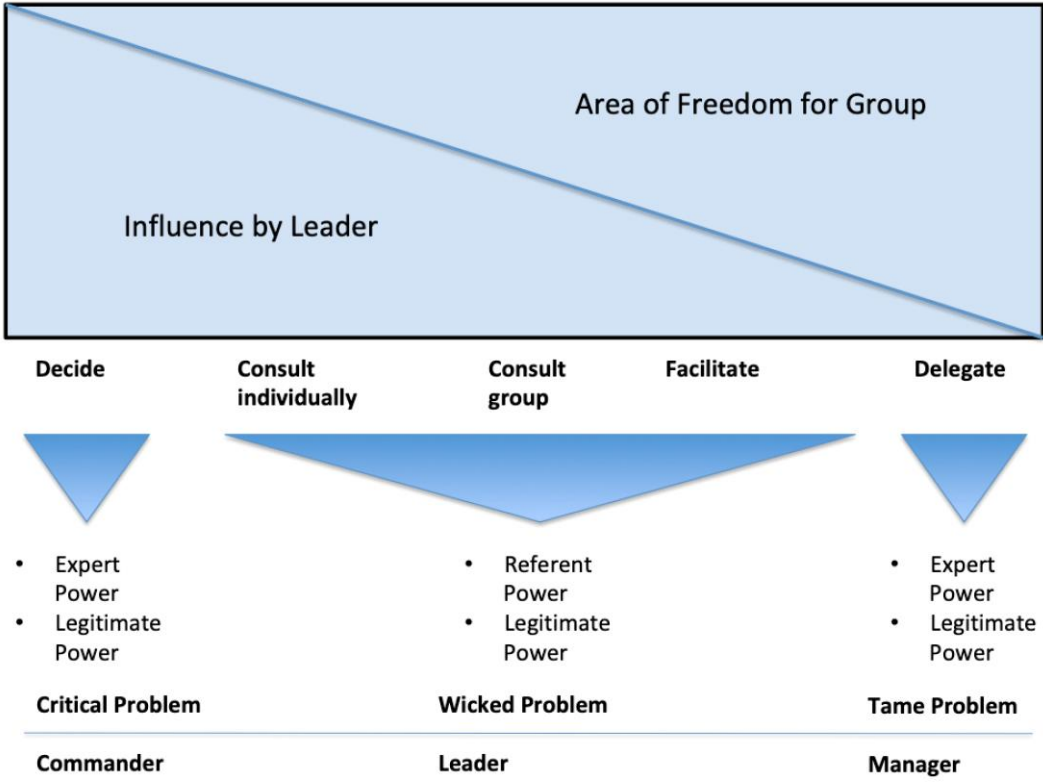
Figure 37: Power-Decision Model
based on Tannenbaum & Schmidt (1958), Rittel & Weber (1973), Vroom (2000), Grint (2005); amended by the author

Summary

Expedition leaders obtained their leadership skills by making qualified experiences. I observed a development of the leadership from a technical expert or manager to more of a leader. Expedition leadership has developed into a distributed leadership style earlier than leadership in the corporate world.

Due to the harsh circumstances, the importance of emotional intelligence and the concept of servant leadership in the expedition environment seemed to be even more important than in the corporate environment. I also found that authenticity and leading by example added to the credibility of a leader.

When it comes to decisions in mountaineering expeditions, there are three different kinds of decisions, which can be observed. First there are tactical or organizational decisions closely related to the expedition and the logistics involved. They are usually not political and can be solved easily. Secondly there are critical decisions, often during or after a critical incident, which has two responses; the immediate one with a command-and-control style and potentially directive and the second phase after the accident, where the leader stronger engages and interacts with the team to find a solution. The third type of decisions during an expedition are the summit politics, which are wicked decisions and very hard to decide upon in a group and which in the end have to be taken by the expedition leader. All these decisions are embedded on the framework of the Power-Decision model (Figure 37), which helps to structure and trigger the right ways how to act.

Chapter 6 : Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This Chapter discusses the contribution of this research, the answers to the RQs and the limitations and topics for future research. The main objective and contribution of this research was to fill the gap between expedition leadership experiences and possible lessons for corporate management. Several new models were developed (Chapter 5, Section 5.2) and will be discussed in Section 6.3. An overview on the references to the answers and contributions can be found in Table 28.

The question, whether corporate leadership could learn something from expedition leaders is treated in detail in this section. Although the answer simply is "yes", there were several topics, where expedition leadership was ahead of the curve compared to the corporate world. (1) (a) The development of leadership away from hierarchical, big organizations towards small, light, and agile teams. (b) A distributed leadership style based on empathy and emotional intelligence was a substantial reason for successful expeditions. (2) Empowerment was a crucial factor in developing expedition leadership skills. Most expedition leaders have lived through many qualified experiences. They started their journey based on expert power, which then grew into referent power, thus supporting their authenticity. (3) Expedition leaders developed strategies to create an ecosystem for remote communication (between the different high camps), which was imperative for a successful expedition long before this topic was relevant in the corporate world. (4) The hardest decisions to manage were not the ones following critical incidents, but the "wicked" decisions which were people related, especially involving summit politics in which expedition leaders invested a lot of time and thinking.

Research questions	Leadership theories	Contribution to theory	Contribution to practice
How do expedition leaders learn to lead and how do they define and practice leadership?	Chapter 2, Section 2.3.4, Section 2.3.5, Section 2.3.6, Section 2.3.7, Section 2.3.8, Section 2.3.9, Section 2.5	Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.2, Section 5.2.1.3; Chapter 6, Section 6.3.1, Section 6.3.2	Chapter 6, Section 6.4.1, Section 6.4.2
What are the dynamics and subgroups within an expedition team from a leadership perspective?	Chapter 2, Sections 2.3.8, Section 2.3.9, Section 2.4.4, Section 2.4.5, Section 2.5	Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2.1, Section 5.3.2.3, Section 5.3.2.3; Chapter 6, Section 6.3.3, Section 6.3.4	Chapter 6, Section 6.4.3, Section 6.4.4
How do expedition leaders make decisions?	Chapter 2, Section 2.6.3	Chapter 6, Section 6.3.5	Chapter 6, Section 6.4.5

Table 28: References to research questions and contributions to theory and practice

6.2 An overview: research questions and answers

In the following I will provide an overview of the answers to the research questions. Furthermore, because it was a narrative analysis, I drew out a number of equally interesting themes from my interviewees, which I will also include (remote communication, gender and team bonding).

6.2.1 Leadership and becoming a leader

Research question 1: How do expedition leaders learn to lead and how do they define and practice leadership?

Leadership theories	Contribution to theory	Contribution to practice (corporates)
Servant leadership Greenleaf, 1977; Parris & Peachey, 2012 Distributed leadership Gronn (2009), Spillane (2005) Bolden (2011) Conversational leadership Grosberg & Slind (2012) Goleman (2000) Emotional Intelligence Authentic leadership Ibarra (2015) Feminist leadership Chin (2007), Eagly (2007) Ely & Rhodes (2010) Kempster (2009) McCall (2010) Yukl (1989)	Expert-Manager-Leadership Model (EML) and the Expert Manager-Authenticity Model (EMA): framework for the development of leaders Expert to Referent Power Model (ERP): illustrates the change in leadership style over time	What can assume that expedition leadership is ahead of the curve when it comes to leadership. The corporate world could learn from the agility of the expeditions nowadays A good mix of attitude vs leadership and competence as a manager Try to build on the "hybrid model" of distributed and servant leadership. Conversation leadership (Groysberg & Slind, 2012) has a high focus on communication but also active listening (Nulty, 1994; Bower, 1997; Riordan, 2014). Empathy and emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000; Caruso, Mayer & Salovey 2002; Gardner & Stough, 2002) play an important role and seemed far more pronounced than in the corporate environment, where, from my experience this, is not often the case (Lama, 2019). Most expedition leaders had a keen interest in people. The focus to provide managers with enough possibilities to make "qualified experiences" needs to be in the focus in addition to all the other important leadership development tools. In corporate leadership development programmes the skills of reflection/self-reflection should be added to the leadership theory/research curricula to bridge the practise-theory gaps

Table 29: How leaders learn and lead

6.2.2 Expedition teams and leadership

Research question 2: What are the dynamics and subgroups within a team from a leadership perspective?

Leadership theories	Contribution to theory	Contribution to practice (corporates)
Tuckmann (1965) Belbin (2010) Rhode (2011) Ely & Rhode (2010) Eagly (2007) Goleman (2000)	Community-Complexity-Maturity-Model (CCMM) Shows the connection between a bonded team and the complexity of communication in remote environments Communication Power Model the overarching theme of communication is displayed as a new power base	Trust between the leader and the team, and between the team members was a success factor (bonding; "bake the team"). Trust builds up by communicating and takes time. Common, shared experiences increase trust. Once there is maturity, one can engage in remote communication. Physical meetings / spaces are important to fill up the "trust account." Usage communication in relation with other power bases. Active listening and an adaptive approach being flexible and ready to react to changes. Raising awareness for subgroups (e.g. women) acceptance of diversity. Smaller, meritocracy-based teams might be easier for women; their acceptance increased through legitimate power and acceptance through their contributions as experts.

Table 30 Teams, subgroups and the leader

6.2.3 Leadership and decision making

Research question 3: How do expedition leaders make decisions? (Critical incidents, summit politics)

Leadership theories	Contribution to theory	Contribution to practice (corporates)
Vroom & Yetton (2000) Tannenbaum & Schmidt (1958) Grint (2005)	Power-Decision-Model provides some indication of how to solve different kinds of problems with different types of decisions.	The kind of decision, the maturity of the group and the kind of problem help to make decisions and need to be seen in the context of power dimension, which has been added here. Decisions are subdivided in three parts: Tactical decisions (tame problems) need "just" to be managed. Critical decisions refer to critical incidents (critical problems), and strategic decisions, mostly summit politics (wicked problems). By adding the power dimensions, the types of problems, and the leadership styles, this framework increases the quality of the decision-making processes. It indicates which power base and style to use dependent on the problems and the involved groups.

Table 31 Decision making of leaders

6.2.4 Leadership lessons for corporates

Distributed leadership and servant leadership, including conversational leadership, were the leadership types mostly used by the expedition leaders. Leadership approaches became less leader-centric, but a leader is still deemed necessary. An overview of the used leadership styles is found in Table 26, p. 216.

The climbing style has radically changed from large, lavish Siege style expeditions to small and agile Alpine style expert team adventures (Chapter 2, Section 2.2.1), dramatically reducing time, cost and people needed. This development has also started in the corporate environment (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.2). A by-product of efficiency gain is agility and a by-product of agility is equality (of diverse groups).

Expertise is relevant as a sound leadership base combined with emotional intelligence, high communication skills, the willingness to listen and the desire to continuously improve. Automatization and digitalization substitute many tasks provided by people, but emotion and intuition are difficult to replace. Suggestions for practice based on successful expedition

leadership would be that leadership development, whether formal or informal, should be based on qualified experiences.

There seem to be some parallels between expedition leadership and corporations but being an expedition leader is easier than leading a corporation for three reasons. Firstly, on an alpine expedition, the objective is very clear – to climb a mountain. There are also clear objectives in the corporate world in the case of projects, but not always when running the business. Secondly, an expedition is a project with a defined beginning and an end, whereas leading an organization in the corporate world is a "never-ending story" (Interview with Bonington). It is more complex to manage a corporation than lead an expedition, as there are many different types of pressures and influences on a CEO. The third reason is chance of critical incidents, the *"life and death thing"* (see also "in extremis leadership", Section Chapter 2, Section 2.3.10; Kolditz, 2007). This focuses the mind and makes decisions on the mountain simpler.

Decisions in the corporate world are much more complex (Interview with Messner). However, it is also recognized that there are lots of commercial distractions around an expedition environment, in particular the role of the sponsor and its influence on the climb.

Giving back: Looking at what can be learned from the expedition environment, giving back is a strong theme followed by most leaders, as shown in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.5.4. They either gave back to Sherpa communities or have created foundations or NGOs in order to help people in the countries where they have climbed. This is something that can be transferred into corporate management and to a certain extent already exists in the corporate responsibility strategies of companies, but is more common in the expedition environment. The personal engagement of leaders is definitely something that is worthwhile to take as a lesson learned from expedition leadership for corporate management.

6.3   Contributions to theory

In the literature review (Chapter 2) an overview was provided of the concept of leadership and mountaineering. It was contextualized within the existing range of literature. The review showed that there are several areas within which further research will add to existing knowledge.

Starting with these gaps (Chapter 1, Section 1.1.3.2) in the literature, the following contributions (see also Figure 38) were identified.
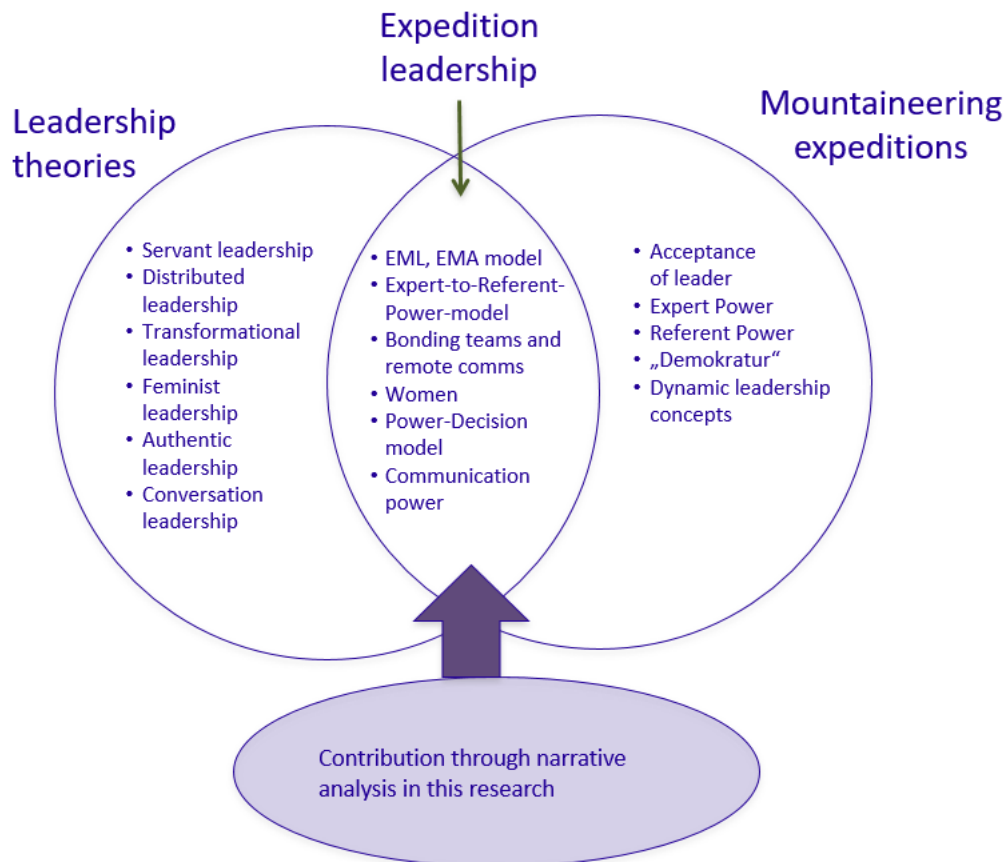
Figure 38: Visualization of the contribution

6.3.1 The EML and the EMA-Model

The Expert-Manager-Leadership-Model (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.1, Figure 29, p. 221) shows the importance of both, technical-expert knowledge and organizational-managerial skills for a leadership role and can be applied in corporate management. The size and overlap of the two areas provide an indication of where the aspiring leader will need to improve in order to become a "good" leader. The EML model shows that the requirements or factors for success of expedition leadership, despite being a possibly high risk, physical, extremis situation, are similar to those at senior levels in many large organizations. The only lesson to be learnt is that both worlds need to be aware of this and incorporate it into their leadership development plans or recruitment plans.

The Expert-Manager-Authenticity-Model (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2.2, Figure 35, p. 233) extends the EML-Model by the element of authenticity, a theme, which emerged in this research with a high influence on the perceived quality of the leadership of a person. Consequently, a leader needs not only organizational and managerial capabilities, but also to be authentic. So, the lesson to be learnt here is that at senior level in western societies authenticity is mostly a valued attribute and should be sought and encouraged.

The model provides three areas which are systematically linked in a way that has not been done in the leadership literature and which offers a new, pragmatic approach to see leadership and define leadership requirements.

6.3.2 The Expert-to-Referent-Power Model (ERP-Model)

Another important finding and contribution in this research was that the power bases of the leaders shift during their personal development as a leader. This is a useful contribution as power theory does not explore or state how or whether power shifts with experience and personal development.

As discussed before, being in a mountaineering environment, referent and expert power were the power bases mostly used in this research. The ERP Model (Section 5.2.1.3, Figure 33, p. 224) shows the change in importance of these two power bases during the development cycle of an expedition leader. This finding has implications for leadership development approaches, which need to specifically focus on referent power and the associated emotional intelligence (Section 5.2.2.1). This is a useful contribution as much of the power theory does not explore or state how or whether power shifts with experience and personal development, which could be linked to growing confidence in one's own ability as well as experience.

6.3.3 The Communication-Complexity-Maturity-Model

The CCM-Model (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2.1, Figure 35, p. 233) is an important finding and a contribution to the communication topic. It shows the relationship between the maturity of a team and the complexity of a topic. In several instances communication was difficult between the base camp, where the expedition leader was, and the high camps, where the climbers were. Communication was reduced to a minimum for several reasons and the teams, who knew each other well and who had bonded before to a good extent, succeeded in having good communication, even when the content was not straightforward.

This connection was identified when analysing the remote communication on the mountain. It has similarities with virtual meetings or calls in the corporate environment. Also, the outcome of calls depends on the maturity of the team and the complexity of the topic. With a well-established, bonded team the probability is high that simpler topics are tackled efficiently, and even complex topics have a chance to be solved. This would not be the case with an immature team. This model can be applied for greater transparency in the organization of teams and meetings. Team building activities should be seen under a new light, when considering the impact of a well created team on remote communication, which is one of the major forms of interacting today in the corporate environment.

6.3.4 The Power Communication Model (PCM)

In the Power Communication Model (Figure 36, p. 234), the overarching theme of communication is displayed as a new power base (see discussion on power in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.2). An extension of information power to communication power is a logical extension. It shows how to some of the conventional power bases (referent, legitimate, expert) need to be stronger linked by communication. Communication power is not yet included in the typology or categories of power bases and this could have been a possible gap, which was closed by this contribution.

Communication power seems also to be closely linked to the concept of conversation leadership Section 2.3.9. and servant leadership together with the emotional capabilities of the leader seems to become more important. Besides good expertise, which is key, social skills and a keen interest in people will make a difference (Gardner & Stough, 2002; Goleman, 2000). Emotional intelligence has become a topic in the corporate environment but is not universally used. If future leadership programmes draw from the learnings of expedition leadership, this topic might become more relevant, especially in senior levels of corporate management.

6.3.5 Power Decision Model

The models of Tannenbaum (1958), Vroom (2000) and Grint (2005) were extended by power bases, leadership styles, and problem types into the Power-Decision Model (Section 5.4.3). This provides some indication of how to solve different kinds of problems with different types of decisions. By adding the power dimensions, the types of problems, and the leadership styles, this enhanced model increases the quality of the decision-making processes. It

indicates which power base and style to use dependent on the problems and the involved groups. For example, when a critical situation, such as an accident happens during an expedition, the expedition leader faces a critical problem, which needs a commander type of leader who will decide thanks to his expert and / legitimate power, (see Figure 37, p. 245). This model is a framework for decision making and should be specifically useful for top leaders as it is very comprehensive (see also 2.6.2., p. 72).

6.4 Contributions to professional practice

This Section aims at filling the theory-practise gap (Roegman & Woulfin, 2019) by pointing out what of the learnings which could be transferred to practise.

6.4.1 Learning Leadership: lessons for professional practitioners and leaders

An insight for developing future leaders was that expedition leaders could grow rapidly into their new leadership roles because they were soon given the opportunity to make qualified experiences, but also to fail. This should also be the case in the corporate environment. Companies could provide their potential leaders with either some challenging projects or roles early in their career, which require new tasks so they can have their "qualified" leadership experiences.

It is important to also proactively include women leaders to make sure that these qualified experiences, which are often a jumpstart to the next career change, are also accessible to them. Also, the different mostly more transformational leadership style might be taken into consideration. Another fact, which could have parallels to the corporate world is that some of the interviewees never planned on being an expedition leader, but rather stumbled into it.
In the following, the key contributions to professional practice are emphasized.

Finding a role model

Another contribution to practice is that it is easier to become a "good" leader when you have a role model (Chapter 4, Section 4.1.1 and 4.1.6). Most of the expedition leaders had either a role model whom they personally knew or whom they admired from the books they have written. All leaders had been on expeditions before they became the leaders themselves and therefore had "passive" leadership experiences besides their experiences as a team member in a similar setting to what they would face in their own expedition. It would be worthwhile

to increase mentoring and coaching from senior leaders to young leaders and actively promote structured expertise transfers. This way the learning experience could be accelerated and made more effective by avoiding repeat pitfalls that have already been made by other leaders.

Being a role model requires an expert and referent power or coaching with equality of power, which is also considered a type of servant leadership style. Gender specific role models are difficult to find for women, which makes it harder to define their own identity. This is happening in the corporate world, but this research puts further emphasis on the demand for this, in times that are increasingly resembling the extremes of expeditions on mountains.

Be aware of the Expert-Manager-Leadership model and of the power base shift

A close parallel to the corporate world, as seen in the EML Model, is that neither pure technical expertise nor pure managerial knowledge makes a leader, but both characteristics are a perquisite and need to be fulfilled. Managers who have no technical background or expertise in the field will have a hard time to be accepted as leader. On the other hand, technical experts, who are weak when it comes to the organizational and managerial part of a task, will also not easily qualify as a leader. Only the combination of both – admittedly in different degrees – defines a leader who will enjoy the acceptance of the team.

When establishing a development plan for a manager, one needs to assess the stage the future leader is at between the two dimensions of technical skills and organizational or managerial skills. There should be a clear assessment of which background their future leaders come from, where they should be developed and what steps are needed. This assessment could be done with the help of the Expert-Manager-Leadership-Model, outlined in 4.1.4.

As indicated in Section 4.1, the development cycle for a good expedition leader starts by leadership via technical skills based on expert power and then focuses on soft skills and empathic capabilities. Regarding leader development, the importance of starting from one area of expertise, as a base should be stressed. From there, interpersonal skills, empathy, and a "human centered approach to leadership" (George, 2015) need to be developed and continuously improved in order to engage in a transformational leadership style. The longer leaders lead, the more time and effort they should invest to try to understand their teams, take time to actively listen and to learn from the team.

Coercion power has only negative connotations and is not suitable, especially for teams. Reward power should be used wisely only in certain circumstances and only in addition to other forms of recognition.

Be authentic and walk the talk

The relevance of role models was discussed earlier (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2.2) but the interviewees emphasised its value and importance in developing leadership capabilities. Therefore, it reiterates Kempster's (2009) findings in corporates and both contexts need to reflect on how best to manage this in an authentic, visible and formal way. A recurrent theme was that good leaders "walk the talk" and engaged in activities such as carrying loads up to the high camps. Also, in corporate management "to do what you say and to say what you do" is important and increases the credibility of a leader. Furthermore, in companies it is well perceived when leaders roll their sleeves up and get their hands dirty. Not only do they detach themselves from the reputation of being "snobbish" or "superior", but they also show a real concern for the great cause (Bolton et al., 2010). The times of displayed arrogance and ivory towers should come to an end as neither the values of engaged, servant, distributed nor the requirements of agile leadership (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.6, 2.3.7, and 2.4.2) are reflected.

Much of the learning had to do with the leader's respective willingness to learn and to improve leadership capabilities, to self-reflect and to analyse. This often very critical self-reflection was shown in quite a number of interviews, especially with Bonington, Blum, Jordan, Dyhrenfurth, and Härter and was discussed (Avolio & Gardener, 2005) in reference to the core of authentic leadership (Sections 2.3.7, 4.1.5.2, and 5.2.2.2). The objective of this self-reflection should be to not make the same mistakes again and to improve and learn from them once they happened. The transfer into corporate management includes not only gathering qualified experiences but also to install regular milestones for self-reflection in order to improve personal capabilities before the next qualified experience. With this in mind, the EMA-Model (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2.2) can be used to complete the requirements of authenticity. Rather than trying to describe authenticity, leadership programs and research should focus on how future leaders could develop their own authenticity (George, 2015).

Actively aim at transforming managers to leaders

Based on the position of Watkins (2012) (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1) it helps leaders to actively create space and opportunities for self-awareness and investment in "soft" skills, resulting in higher referent power.

There is some similarity in the expedition leadership, where operational tasks are delegated to the Sirdar or the base camp manager, in order to free up energy and time for the "leadership" tasks of the expedition leader. These assumptions also imply that a leader should use less time for organizational tasks. These tasks, however, are sometimes the key to make a leader more credible and authentic (see also Chapter 4, Section 4.1.5.2 and Chapter 5, 5.2.2). Leaders may engage someone else to focus on execution (chief of staff, strategic assistant), in order to free up time and at the same time guarantee perfect execution.

6.4.2   How to lead

Leading with a human touch

Another outcome of this research was that emotional intelligence and engaging leadership were important success factor for expeditions, as referred to in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2.1. Empathy and emotional leadership are topics that have been analysed in corporate management (Bower 1997, Goleman 2000, Mayer et al. 2002, Riordan 2014, Nulty 1994). Also, in expedition management empathic capabilities play an important role. A specific finding in this respect was the capability of "active listening", which was identified in several interviews (Bonington, Pasaban, Venables; Chapter 4, Section 4.1.5.2). Active listening underscores the empathic leadership capabilities, which have a relation to referent power. Whilst this was an important part in this research, it could be applied more often in corporate management. Transactional, autocratic leaders usually do not have the capability to use empathy and active listening. The capability of "active listening" was mentioned several times (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2.1). Therefore, when it comes to "good" leadership, communication plays a crucial part. Active Listening is part of communication and was identified as an important way in order to show empathy and really understand the team members' feelings. It implies and fosters empathy and understanding of the environment and is something corporations should put more focus on.

There seems to be room for improvement in corporate management (Lama, 2019; Kempster & Carroll, 2016; Chapter 2, Section 2.3.9) and therefore untapped potential, given the focus and the frequency this concept was mentioned (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2.1). The importance of finding ways to actively incorporate and apply it in corporate leadership is high. The practical application here should be an active promotion of active listening in corporate leadership training.

Several leaders described how good leadership for them means the ability to have feelings, intuition and to be empathic ("good leaders are good carers"). In organizational research this has been discussed already (see Parker-Follet for example) but this is a different context and a high-risk environment, in which leaders emphasise that these aspects are very important for success.

Empowerment and delegation to experts-the agile way

A recurring theme within the interviews was that the Sherpa team under the Sirdar was acting relatively independently since they were considered the experts in their fields of logistics but also in finding the way through the glaciers.

Success stories, when the Sherpas were entirely responsible for the transport without involvement of any Westerners, were mentioned in Section Chapter 4, Section 4.2.5.2. This improved the process and increased the motivation of the Sherpas. A parallel to corporate management is that more responsibility could be delegated to expert groups (e.g., IT experts or technically highly qualified staff). This has two positive impacts. The expert staff will be more motivated for the higher responsibility and it frees time for the manager to pursue other responsibilities. This strategy is the basis for agile leadership (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.2) and to react quickly in adapting the leadership style.

Adaptive leadership

In the expedition environment it is essential to be able to adapt the leadership style to the given circumstances. This has been mentioned by most of the leaders and corresponds to the notion of flexible leadership (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.10.2). Adaptive leadership is also relevant in corporate management, where personnel management is key for the success of a project or a corporation as well as the capability to act accordingly to the respective situation.

Flexibility is required in corporate leadership and, as research suggests, an adaptive leadership style is necessary in certain situations. *"Research on leadership and management during the past several decades provide strong evidence that flexible, adaptive leadership is essential for most managers."* (Yukl, 2008, p.1)

Create competitive expert careers

There is a strong similarity to the corporate environment when technically skilled staff or experts on an expedition get promoted and then have to lead other people without ever having wanted to do so or feeling at ease in doing it. Good specialists are not necessarily good leaders (see also Section 4.1.4). There is an implicit assumption in corporate life, that if somebody is an expert in something, a promotion needs to follow including responsibility for people. In corporate management one can shape a career in two ways: either in a leadership function or in a specialist function. Nevertheless, to make it to the top tiers of a company, competence in people leadership is needed. In the corporate environment, for the experts in a certain field there is usually no space in the top positions without management responsibility.

A lesson from expeditions is that there is the same, or even more recognition for the experts (climbers), than for the expedition leader. The "fame" of a successful expedition usually goes to the climbers, who made it to the top rather than the expedition leader. Who knows the name of James Hunt as expedition leader in the context of the first ascent of Everest in 1953? But everybody knows Edmund Hillary and Sherpa Tensing Norgay, the two climbers who made it to the top first. In the corporate world, the people who get all the fame in the case of success or blame in the case of failure are usually the CEOs or top leaders.

A development in the direction of more exposed expert careers and the creation of small and fully empowered expert teams could be taken from the expedition learnings.

6.4.3   Communication and composure of the team

Remote communication

An important type of communication in the expedition environment was how to communicate over big distances, sometimes very difficult circumstances (Chapter 2, Section 2.4.5.) Typically, these types of situations happened when communicating between the different high camps

with limited time on radios and under external challenging conditions. The analysis showed that the probability of communication failure could be decreased if involved parties had got to know each other really well and were bonded together as a team, thus having a higher maturity as a team, before this type of remote communication started (see the importance of team bonding; "Baking the team", Section 4.2.1.3.).

One way of showing the interdependencies of the maturity of the team and the complexity of the discussed topics in Figure 35, p. 233, can be applied to remote communication and should help to focus and channel the need for virtual and physical meetings and communication.

In corporate management the situation is often comparable when virtual teams are not physically at the same location (see also Chapter 2, Section 2.4.5.). Such teams spread over the globe are a corporate reality. Only few of them would qualify as a "team" in the sense of the word rather than "individuals put together". Virtual Communication within such teams becomes even more difficult than it already is.

Therefore, these calls are an area where the lessons learned in expedition leadership could be applied and have a chance for success depending on the maturity of the team and the context of the calls. The more mature a team is and the better the team members know each other, the easier it should be to understand and interpret the comments and questions. Therefore, a suggestion might be to have several physical team meetings when forming a new team or when new team members join, although this means travel and time costs. Even adding one new member might again change the team formation in such a way that the phases of his Forming-Storming-Norming-Performing will start from the again (Tuckman ,1965). Only when a certain level of bonding, confidence and trust has been reached can more complex topics be discussed virtually.

The other variable is content. In the expedition environment the leaders mostly applied a distributed or servant leadership style, where they discussed a lot. These discussions, however, only took place in the base camp when they were all together. As soon as the climbers left, the communication and the content were reduced to the minimum and no complex topics were discussed anymore.

For corporates this could mean, the more sophisticated, emotional, and complex the content of a meeting is via conference call, the higher the probability of a zero-outcome. On top of the

physical distance and sound quality of such meetings, different languages play an important role and further increase complexity. Experience shows that conference calls work well if they are only "check-up calls" meaning highly structured, with a precisely defined objective and possibly a detailed document, including necessary decisions at hand. Examples are typically, calls regarding budget or cost watch programs, "ticking off the boxes", IT- projects or other projects where purely technical questions are addressed or progress monitored meetings.

The communication complexity maturity model can be used as a framework to plan how to communicate what. This could include a detailed plan to organize face-to-face meetings to help the team to grow together. A meaningful communication can be done even remotely by a bonded team, which knows and trusts each other.

6.4.4 Teams

Team development

This research shows that in the alpine context team size matters. Today, highly professional, focussed mountaineers in pairs or small groups carry out the most successful climbs. The focus is solely on the mountaineering goal and leaves aside conflicts with regards to nationalities, politics or groups. When it comes to the corporate environment, the bigger the company, the more difficult it is to find a similar situation. Projects where people are specifically recruited for an expert project team can be comparable. Another area where small high performing teams are very successful are start-ups where highly skilled and committed people, who have a common vision, usually know each other well and reach outstanding goals. Agile teams with their own responsibilities and accountability are self-managed and reflect the development in the direction, which already has taken place in the alpine space more than 30 years ago (shift from Siege style to Alpine style; see also Chapter 2, Section 2.2.1, p. 12).

Teams should know and trust each other and small, highly specialized teams who can participate in the choice of their colleagues could be the answer.

6.4.5 Decisions

Parallels for corporate management can be found in the concept of "Demokratur" and hybrid leadership can be applied (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.7). A decision can sometimes be taken in a non-democratic way for the sake of efficiency. If leaders are not at the centre of the action

and if they have an expert team, they should delegate their power to those experts, trust them and let them decide. In situations where the team and the circumstances need decisions, the leader needs to make use of the legitimate power and decide.

	Expedition context	Corporate context
Technical and organizational decisions	Can be easily delegated to experts, "Tame" problems. (Grint, 2005)	This type of decision can also be delegated in a corporate environment, when skilled staff is empowered to make decisions and be accountable for what they do. In this way they not only feel trusted but also work more efficiently since there is no waiting for decisions of the manager. They are also accountable for their decisions.
Strategic decisions	In expeditions often "summit politics". "Wicked" problems. (Grint, 2005) A participatory decision style was usually applied to include the team but, in the end, it was often a decision by the leader alone.	The lesson for corporate management is to apply a participatory style to discuss questions with strategic and complex content especially with the senior management team, but at the same time to manage the expectations of the team. If no consensus is reached, the final decision will always be made by the leader ("Demokratur"). Some decisions must be made alone by the leader, such as succession planning for his own Top Management Team.
Decisions after critical incidents	Decisions are made quite quickly and usually do not involve a lot of discussion (experts), whereas after the incident the expedition leaders looked for a commonly accepted decision.	In the corporate environment, the procedures that need to kick in after a critical incident are usually related to risk management, where all the critical situations are covered with the data finding by the team. The better one is prepared for these incidents (protocol), the easier the reaction and therefore the decisions.

Table 32 Overview on decisions and transfer to corporations

When it comes to the way decisions are made, there are some parallels to the corporate world, as the sensible question of who will be chosen to the summit push, very much reminds me of delicate discussions in corporations on whom to promote and on which grounds. On the mountain, as in organizations, this is based on meritocracy, but often also on luck and being in the right place at the right time.

6.5 Limitations of the research

6.5.1 The Sample

The sample method was the snowball-method consisting of experts who were asked to participate. Originally, I had access to a few experts who were expedition leaders, but several leads enlarged this exclusive group. I am from the German-speaking world, and access to these highly specialized experts in the alpine area was easier than elsewhere, especially when it comes down to the practicability of the personal interviews. Nevertheless, the sample was very international. Further details are described in Chapter 3, Section 3.5.3. Only two women took part in the research and the sample would have been even more complete if more women were included in further analysis. One issue is that there were not many women who were expedition leaders, and the few existing ones, were not all accessible. I tried to get in touch with more female leaders but could not gain access. I have, however, read books from other expedition leaders to get better data (Kaltenbrunner, 2015; Reinisch, 1995).

Another limitation or opportunities for further research are the Sherpa guides and the Sirdars who have not been included in this research as interview partners on purpose, since they represent a sub-group. There are opportunities to obtain further information and explore leadership topics.

6.5.2 The Method

There are also other possible methods to investigate this subject, such as grounded analysis, linguistic analysis or case studies. I have chosen the narrative inquiry and analysed the transcripts with the help of a lateral analysis for the reasons described in Section 3.7.4.

6.5.3 Relation to performance

Another parallel to the corporate world is regarding the positive or negative image of a leader. Sometimes CEOs are quite successful regarding reaching the company objectives, but they do not leave a good legacy and their staff and employees might not consider them a great leader. In the expedition environment this was also the case when leaders were not liked but nevertheless succeeded in carrying out many successful, expeditions, where someone from the team reached the summit. This performance variable has not been explored here, but could be the focus for further research.

6.6   Topics for further research

6.6.1   Corporate leaders

An idea for further research could be to explore the ideas on leadership provided in this thesis from the perspective of corporate leaders. The mirroring of ideas and concepts that have been described in this research by managers of companies would complete the findings from another point of view. This triangulation, not only relying on the view of expedition leaders, but also actively involving corporate leaders and their point of view, would provide additional data for exploration and complete the picture from both sides. Connecting the narratives of the business world would provide an interesting link back to the findings of this research.

6.6.2   Diversity and inclusion

The two sub-groups of Sherpas and women are also relevant and can be compared to "Diversity & Inclusion" efforts in the corporate word. The assumption is that by having a diverse workforce, productivity and creativity in a company can be increased (Holvino, Ferdman, Merrill-Sands, 2004). Nowadays, there is a trend to put diversity and inclusion on the corporate agenda (Holvino, Ferdman, Merrill-Sands, 2004). There are companies that try to put local executives as CEOs in the "emerging" countries, which have previously always been staffed by expatriates (interview with the Group HR of a Global Insurance company). Inclusion does not come automatically but takes extra effort.

6.6.2.1   Women

The learning in this research is that women are enriching for expeditions, but that it also *"is a lot simpler without them"* (Section 4.2.4.2) which was one of the reasons for them not to be considered as team members. The fact that it also becomes more complex with women in any corporate setting has been confirmed in a study carried out by Stead & Elliot (2012) that showed that the main leadership learning approaches place women in a disruptive position. Therefore, it takes extra effort by male stakeholders to include women and to provide them with the same opportunities as men. This is an approach which needs to be chosen by companies dedicated to diversity and inclusion as a strategic commitment; women being one of them.

6.6.2.2 Sherpas

Sherpas represent a skilled or blue-collar worker serving the "Westerners", or "white collar workers", who climbed the mountains. They are clients and "management" at the same time. In corporate life, there is a similarity to factories with the factory or team leader who manages big groups of unskilled or partially skilled staff and reports to the manager. In the course of time some Sherpas have continued to evolve and develop away from pure "workers" to more self-responsible team members who are in charge. Regarding the empowerment of the qualified staff is something that is already sometimes done in the corporate environment.

6.6.2.3 Sherpa leaders

One the one hand, there are leadership lessons from Sherpa leaders, the Sirdars. The exploration of the Sherpas' point of view and their experiences of leadership would be an additional learning area. The Sirdars could provide interesting new insights into leadership skills about their Sherpa-teams. They could also provide additional data on the relationship with their respective expedition leaders, their leadership styles and their ways to engage with the group. On the other hand, how the expedition landscape has changed in Nepal in the last decade with Sherpas becoming more and more involved in and owners of expedition companies is an under-researched topic. This transformation, like the onehat happened in Europe 150 years ago, would be worthwhile exploring.

6.6.3 Remote communication

This research showed that there is a relationship between the maturity of a team and the level of complexity of discussion topics that can be efficiently handled from a distance. The role of remote corporate communication is certainly increasing with companies under cost pressure and the availability of new, virtual communication tools. In the corporate environment, the interdependence of group maturity and level of complexity of discussion topics would be worthwhile exploring.

6.6.4 Project management

Organizing and carrying out an expedition is a project with a defined beginning and an end. Questions of funding as well as choosing the right team showed that there are many similarities between expedition and project management. Therefore, exploring the lessons for project management learned from expedition leadership is an area for further research, but

certainly also the other way around. It would be useful to identify projects or programs and define lessons to take away for alpine expeditions.

6.6.5   Extending leadership models

The models (EMC, EMA model), and their impact on leadership could be interesting to explore further. One of the findings of this research is the relationship between technical, expert knowledge and the managerial aspect of leading and the leadership aspects found between those areas. Examining different patterns regarding countries, corporate cultures and entire industries could be a worthwhile extension of this research.

6.6.6   Motivation

Motivation, as an important part of group dynamics and leadership has not been treated separately as a topic since people participating in expeditions are usually highly motivated. Therefore, the topic of how leaders can and should motivate and encourage a team or an individual to reach given goals could be treated in future research.

6.6.7   Teams

A future research topic would be how to tackle international leadership practices in the future and how to define selection criteria. The learning from small, high achieving climber expert teams could provide input for further research and lessons learned in corporate management and how to create high achieving teams. Interviewing professional climbers or assessing the impact of the set-up of professional athlete teams in general could also provide valuable input and be the basis for further research.

6.7   Reflections

After this long journey in the mountaineering world, that has lasted more than a decade, I can say that this was a very interesting journey. So much has changed over this time, in the world of expeditions and in my personal corporate life. I have learned a lot about leadership by writing this thesis, and at the same time continued to have a lot of leadership experiences myself over these years.

If I reflect on the outcome of this research and whether there are any lessons to be learned, I have to say, "yes and no". Generally speaking, I was surprised to see how advanced the expedition leadership style already was 40, 50 and 60 years ago. Active participation of

Sherpas in the team, distributed leadership style and referent power induced decisions were already the norm. These are tendencies, which have only made their way into the corporate world in the last decade, at least from what I have observed.

Furthermore, the concepts of empathy, intuition and emotional intelligence showed a different value in the mountaineering world than in the corporate world, which has a lot to do with the risk involved and the trust one needs to develop with others whilst being on the mountain.

Remote communication is also a topic, which was already important in the expedition environment with the necessity to communicate between the camps and take sometimes tough decisions in difficult circumstances. Today this topic has become even more important in a word of home working, and with colleagues spread all over the globe. The mountaineering world also has something to teach here.

When it comes to the way decisions are made, there are some parallels with the corporate world, as the sensible question of who will be chosen to the summit push very much reminds me of delicate discussions in corporations on whom to promote and on which grounds. On the mountain, as in organizations, this is based on meritocracy, but more often than not also on luck and being in the right place at the right time.

Leadership is not an easy but fulfilling task and nor is climbing mountains.

There are lots of things in life that are worth the pain.

For me, being a leader is one of them, climbing mountains is another.

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Annex

A. My story to the DBA

The idea of doing a doctorate is not new to me and in fact is an objective which I have been considering since 1992. I actually started a doctorate twice before. The first time was just after the completion with my MBA (Mag. rer. soc. oec.) at the University of Business Administration and Economics in Vienna in 1992 where I grew up and where I completed most of my undergraduate and graduate studies. I was very interested in macroeconomics and Third World Countries at that time and therefore started to look into the field of Development Economics. A job offer abroad, too good to be turned down at the EFTA (European Free Trade Association) in Brussels, ended this idea. I remained in Belgium for a couple of years, even successfully obtained a fully-fledged scholarship for another Master's Degree and was fully absorbed in my career afterwards. The second attempt for a doctorate started in 1999, when I was a senior consultant at a market research company in Munich, Germany and wanted to leverage my insights and the available data from corporate studies in the M&A field and its impacts on employee commitment. I then enrolled at the University in Innsbruck in Austria and got all my DBA seminars taken previously in Vienna credited there. Innsbruck is only a 1.5hrs drive from Munich and I managed to interest a Professor in my subject who agreed to act as my supervisor. Again, I was pulled away by another job offer, this time in a financial institute in Zurich. So, I moved to Switzerland. The topic of my thesis was no longer doable as I no longer had access to the required data. The new employer, a bank, sent me to another postgraduate studies, the Swiss Finance Institute in 2001/2002 and I was busy becoming a financial expert and following my new career over the next years. The idea of the doctorate, however, never faded completely out of my mind.

When I discovered this DBA program at the University of Gloucestershire in 2010, I was intrigued by the more guided approach for working students which was offered there. It seemed manageable to me through the attendance of the four taught modules gently forcing me by assignments to reflect on the topic, approach, methods and literature research, in the right directions and with some strong guidance by the staff. Figure 39, p. 303 shows the start of the program in July 2010 with the elaboration of the status quo "How I arrived here today" showing all the different academic and professional steps.
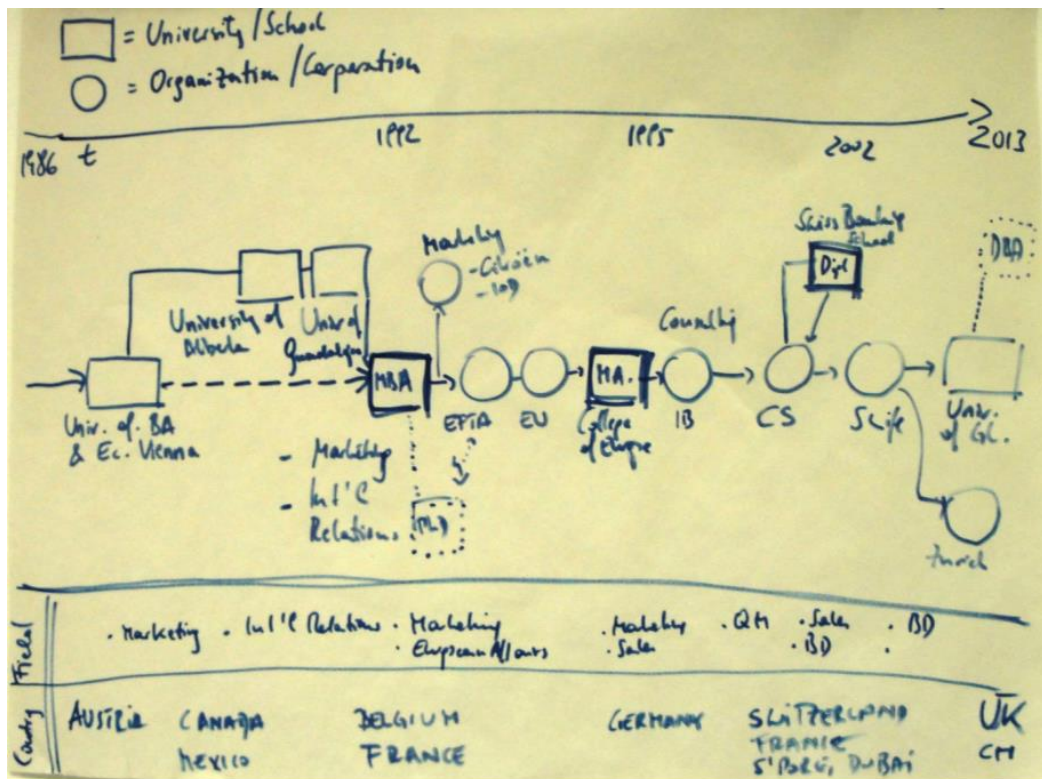
Figure 39: Overview designed in the Module DBA 504 on Reflective Development

What became clear to me was that, although I was always eager to obtain a doctorate in all those years, the motives and reason behind have changed quite substantially over the course of time. Whereas in 1992 the Doctorate was just a logical consequence to complete the full spectrum of academic studies available to me at the time, the main reason in 1999 was different. In Austria academic titles are still very important, but it did not really matter which sort of academic title it was. The difference between a Master ("Magister"), which I had already obtained, a degree in Engineering ("Dipl. Ing.") or a Doctorate ("Dr.") was not very important. These titles all became part of one's last name and are reflected on all written evidence such as your doorbell, the credit card and your business card. At that time also in Germany, I found a very strong two-class society, but unlike in Austria, not between the ones with and without graduate studies, but between people who held a Doctorate and those who do not. I found out that holding several graduate degrees in difficult subjects such as physics, chemistry or mathematics would be regarded as "less" than a Doctorate in any – even the easiest and least complex subject in the academic sphere. So, when I arrived in Germany with my two Master Degrees in my pocket, I quickly found out that as a young woman in my late 20s I sometimes had a hard time to make it clear to my clients that I was not the secretary of the team, but in fact the Senior Consultant. Having the "Dr" in front of my name would have

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made my life a lot easier in those se days and was the reason to restart the process to find a supervisor and a University.

When I arrived in Switzerland in 2000 all these concerns were gone. It was by no means easy to be a young female executive in Switzerland, but this had to do rather with gender than with a title. I felt very much relieved and the need to get the Doctorate was basically gone.
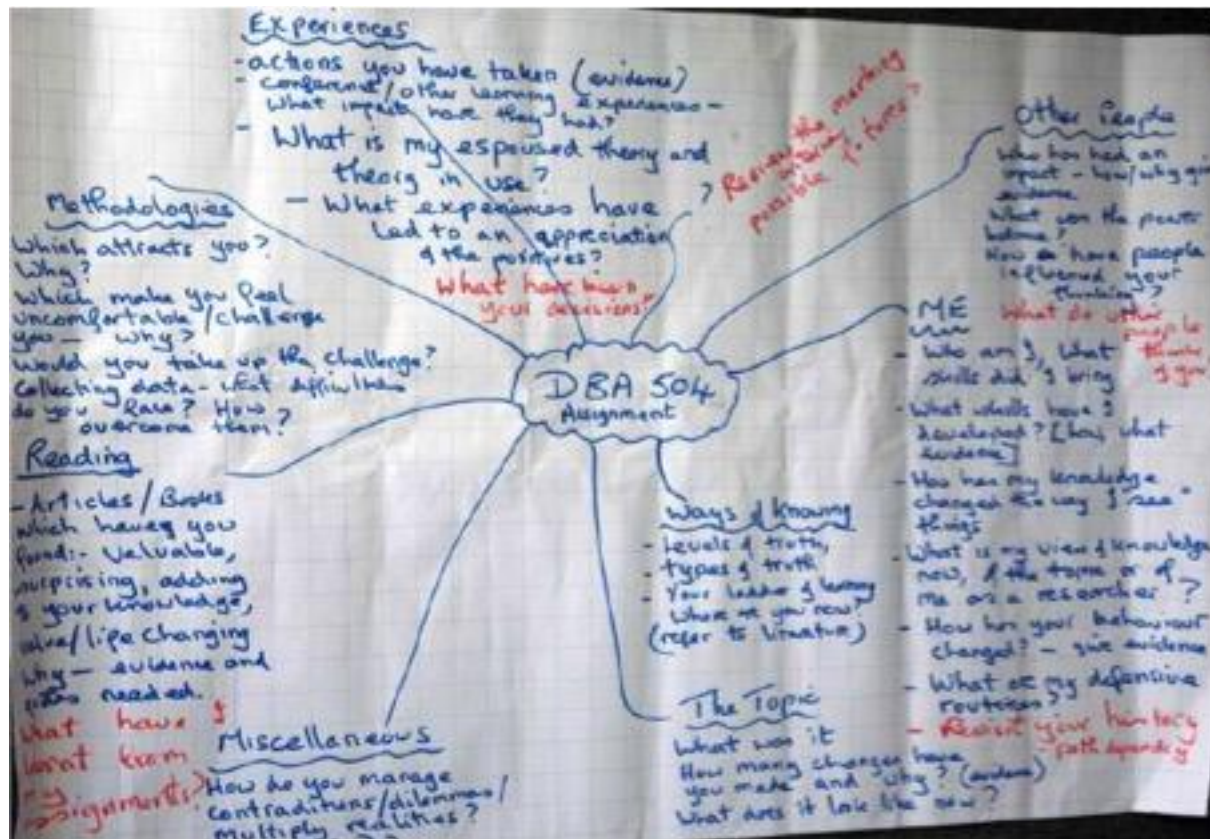
Figure 40: An overview on Reflective Development
(provided during module DBA 504, July 2010)

By 2010 I was in the lucky position that my career had developed quite nicely over the past decade. At that point I already had to prove who I was and what I was able to deliver professionally. Today after having been in the top management for years, a degree and a title more or less would not make any difference for my professional life now. The only motivation for me to pursue this doctorate now is my own personal interest in the subject and the wish to challenge myself intellectually outside of but still connected to my professional life. I consider it as a luxury to pursue an old goal out of the right reasons now.

Finding the right topic was not at all immediately straightforward and clear to me. At the beginning I still believed I should stick with some topic in the financial area, where I felt

competent and comfortable and which reflected my professional environment. I originally picked a topic related to "Cross Border Sales in the Insurance Sector", my expertise and working area at the time. How financial solutions develop in an international environment with a possible focus on life insurance distribution strategies and operating models.

The subject was definitely interesting and related to a wide field of interesting areas for me, such as marketing, distribution strategy and sales steering including solicitation questions and legal implications. This was also reflected in the Module One (DBA 504; Reflective Development) in July 2010 when I presented it for the first time. I still sensed, however, a lack of passion from my side. As mentioned before, this time the reason to do this was for personal intellectual stimulus only so the topic should really interest me a lot. Figure 41 shows the outcome of brainstorming and input of the group on the first idea for a topic ("Cross border sales in the international insurance industry")

Figure 41: Brainstorming on first topic with the DBA cohort in July 2010
("Cross border sales in the international insurance business")

B.   The Topic

   a.   Finding the Topic

In 2010 during a job change and a sabbatical between jobs, I decided to start my doctorate. It was the time when I quit my job to accept a new challenge, which was proposed to me within an international insurance company. This change provided me with some time off in-between jobs, which I used for some mountaineering ventures in the Himalayas in India and Nepal as well as in Mexico. I still had not decided on the topic when I set off to an expedition in the Indian Himalayas to Ladakh in August 2010. I was going to try to climb my first 6000m peak - which I successfully did - there with a small group: a Nepali guide, two Ladakhi pony men (North Indians), a Nepali-Indian kitchen crew and a German couple. It was the time when Pakistan and Northern India got flooded quite badly involving a lot of casualties. Due to the bad weather, mud avalanches and flooding, the group got stuck in the middle of the trek and could neither continue over the next pass nor get back, where they came from as the river was cutting off the way now. Only then did it become apparent that the crew did not work together as a team and a leader was missing. The young Nepali guide in his twenties was not accepted by the two older Indian pony men, the Kitchen crew was somewhat split as they were made up of two different nationalities and us, the tourists did not have a formal "Western" guide. The friendly German couple was not very adept in English and had never travelled alone. Therefore, I became quite naturally the "Western" leader of the small group. I was used to work as a tour guide during my studies and I speak fluent English. Communication was far from being perfect within the group, switching between Nepali, Nepali English, Hindi, German etc. and the situation was all but satisfying for the tourists, with tactics and tricks being played by the crew out of self-interest. As we, as a group continued to be blocked and sat in the tent, the German woman and I started discussing the situation. This woman was also a manager in a company. We concluded that this difficult situation reminded both of us somehow of difficult and comparable situations in international projects within a company. All the issues which typically arise, such as language and translation problems, seniority and different cultural background within a team, as well as the role of leadership, which in this case was missing, seemed quite familiar to both of us comparing our corporate experiences. We were also joking that we could easily create a management course by scribbling down "lessons learned" on a trekking tour on some power point slides and go out there and teach

it. At the same time, I was reading a book about the famous climber and expedition leader Sir Chris Bonington (Curran, 1999), which included many reflections on his own leadership style and skills during his various expeditions. This was the moment when I was struck like a lightning bolt that this topic – leadership questions in an expedition environment – would be the topic I was looking out for in order to combine my two passions and fields of interest and expertise – mountaineering and leading.

Figure 42: Travel diary of the Stok Kangri expedition in August 2010

From that day on I started reading all mountaineering books and autobiographies of climbers through the eyes of a leadership researcher.

When I went back to the University of Gloucestershire in September 2010 for the second Module (DBA 503, Literature Review), although I was not sure at all how this idea would fit into the DBA requirements and whether I would not be dismissed with coming up with such an exotic idea, I had a brief chat with Dr. Philippa Ward who herself has some inclination to the climbing world and explained her ideas to me. Dr. Ward proved to be more than open and confirmed interest in and support of the topic and also quite spontaneously suggested a Professor and leadership expert who would later, for some time, become my supervisor, Dr. Sharon Turnbull.

Figure 43: Brainstorming with the DBA cohort
July 2010

Very soon afterwards I decided to go for this topic. This was a decisive step in the journey up to and towards the Doctorate and put away all the previous doubts, even though I was not sure at all at the time of how to tackle this topic. But I was confident that it was the right one.

The commitment was total, personal, detached from my daily work and purely out of personal interest and intrinsically motivated.

The thesis combines two fields that are very valuable to me – a corporate career, my development as a manager and my interest in leadership questions and my passion for the mountains being an alpinist. This is also a metaphor and reflects how torn I often am between these two lives, which are hard to combine in an everyday life. To manage these two passions and do that by a valuable research project which as such has never been tackled before seemed very interesting and at the same time quite a challenge regarding the time involvement over these past years within a very demanding job environment.

b. Shaping the Topic

By trying to identify the scope of the research project, the aim at the beginning was to compare leadership situations in expeditions with those experienced in the corporate world.
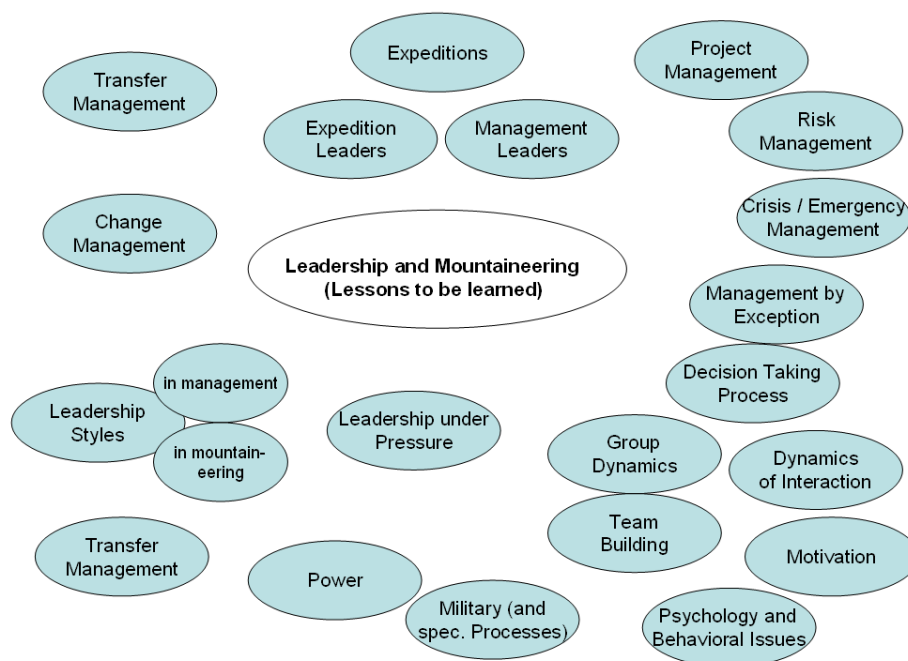
Figure 44: Reflections on leadership and mountaineering
November 2010

The first idea was to interview mountaineers and then managers in the corporate environment. Soon after having discussed the then still very raw topic with several people at the University of Gloucestershire and the cohort, I realized that the scope was too wide and as someone put it, "including also the corporate side based on interviews and conclusions

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would be the scope for another thesis". The advice was to just limit the scope to explore leadership in an expedition environment and then draw some conclusions out of this research that could be valuable for the corporate world.

Figure 44, p. 309, shows how the brainstorming evolved and the different topics developed - combining mountaineering and leadership questions.

At that point I also started to generate some ideas about how to carry out the research and I considered in-depth interviews with expedition leaders. I also decided to use expedition reports and autobiographies of expedition leaders and to investigate these sources with regards on the leadership issues arising. The books of Bonington (1976, 1987, 2001) and Blum (1980, 2005) who apart from providing detailed expedition reports, used to reflect a lot on their leadership style, influenced me a lot. This was the trigger for the idea of the research topic. Regarding the leadership literature new dimensions opened up for me, when, after having read classical leadership literature, I discovered new approaches to the topic which up to that point was unknown to be, such as Grint, Kempster, Turnbull, Western. The combination of the modern ways to think about leadership combined with the leadership reflections of expedition leaders was the basis for this research.

C. The most important expeditions in the Himalayas

Expedition	Nationality	Expedition leader	Year
Everest (Reconnaissance) Expedition	British	Colonel Howard-Bury, Charles	1921
Everest Expedition	British	Brigadier-General Bruce, Charles G.	1922
Everest Expedition	British	Brigadier-General Bruce, Charles G	1924
Himalaya Expedition (Reconnaissance)	International (Swiss)	Dyhrenfurth, Günther	1930
Nanga Parbat Expedition	German	Merkl, H. Wilhelm	1932
Nanga Parbat Expedition	German	Merkl, H. Wilhelm	1934
Everest (Reconnaissance) Expedition	British	Shipton., Eric	1935
Nanda Devi Expedition	British	Tilman, H. W.	1936
Annapurna Expedition	French	Herzog, Maurice	1950
Everest Expedition	Swiss	Wyss-Dunant, Edouard	1952
Nanga Parbat Expedition	German-Austrian	Herrligkoffer, Karl Maria	1953
Everest Expedition	British	Sir Hunt, John	1953
Cho Oyu Expedition	Austrian	Tichy, Herbert	1954
K2 Expedition	Italian	Desio, Ardito	1954
Kangchenjunga Expedition	British	Evans, Charles	1955
Makalu Expedition	French	Franco, Jean	1955
Everest-Lhotse Expedition	Swiss	Eggler, Albert	1956
Manaslu Expedition	Japanese	Maki, Yuko	1956
Gasherbrum II	Austrian	Moravec, Fritz	1956
Broad Peak Expedition	Austrian	Schmuck Markus	1957
Gasherbrum I	American	Clinch, Nick Schoening, Peter K.	1958
Dhalaugiri Expedition	Swiss	Eiselin Max	1960
Everest Expedition (American)	American	Dyhrenfurth, Norman	1963
Shisha Pangma Expedition	Chinese	Ching, Hsu	1964
Annapurna (South Face) Expedition	British	Bonington, Chris	1970

Everest Expedition	International	Dyhrenfurth, Norman	1971
Gasherbrum III Expedition	Polish	Rutkiewicz, Wanda	1975
Mount Everest (South-West Face) Expedition	British	Bonington, Chris	1975
Annapurna I Expedition	American	Blum, Arlene	1978

Table 33: The most important expeditions in the Himalayas

Sources: Buhl, 2005; Curran, 1999; Dyhrenfurth, 1942; Herzog, 1952; Hillary, 1999; Hunt, 1954; Nickel, 2007a and 2007b; Tichy, 1955; Seyfferth, 2006

D. Overview of the relationships between the interviewed expedition leaders

The following figure should provide an overview of the interviewed leaders and the relationships of the different interviewees and some other leaders who have been mentioned to each other.
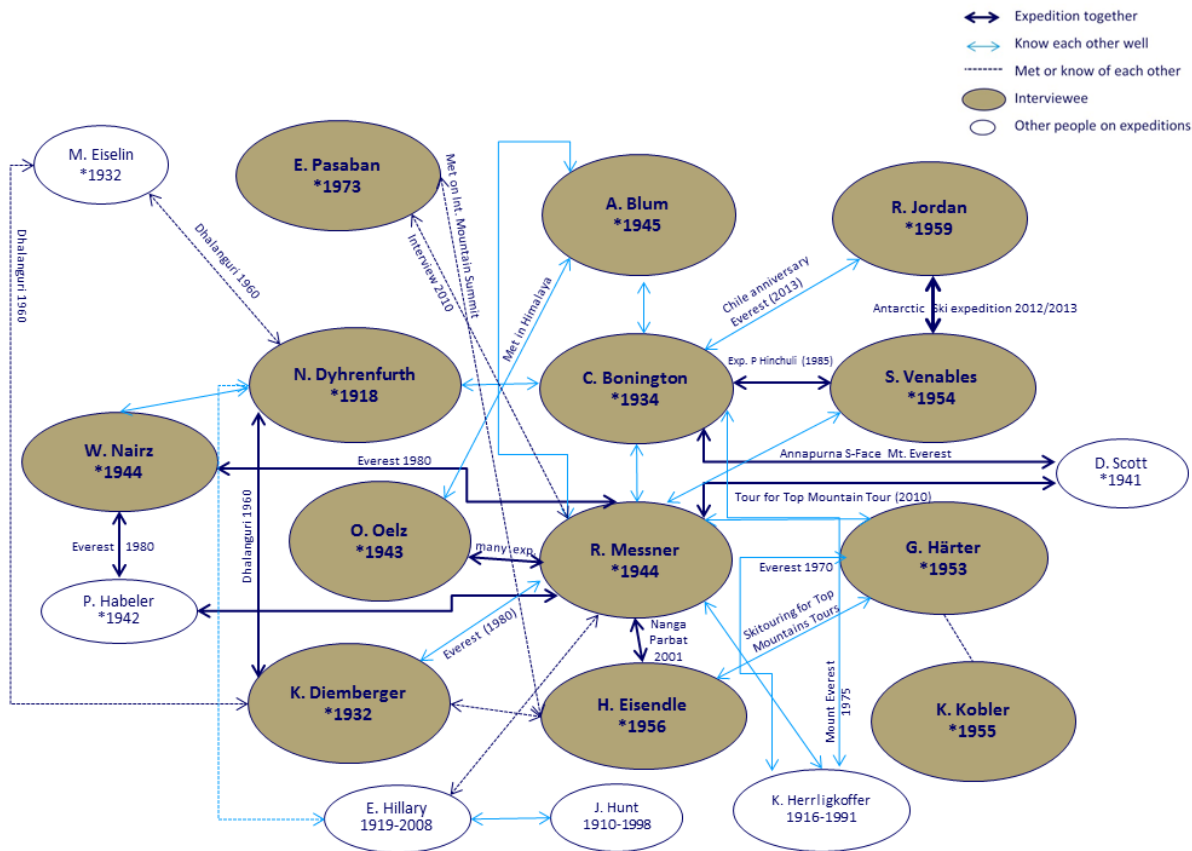

Figure 45: An overview on the relations between interviewees

E. Biographies of interviewees

Arlene Blum, Dr.

Interviewed in September 2011, Chamonix, France

Arlene Blum is an American scientist and mountaineer born on March 1, 1945. She has played a ground-breaking role in women's mountaineering and is famous for leading the first American and all women's ascent of Annapurna in 1978. She is the author of: "Annapurna: a woman's place", which has been included in the list of the "hundred best adventure books of all time" by the National Geographic Adventure magazine and "Breaking Trail: a climbing life". She is the Executive Director of the Green Science Policy Institute and a Research Associate in Chemistry at UC Berkeley. Blum's research and policy work has contributed to preventing the use of harmful chemicals in many products world-wide. She was California Hall of Fame class of 2018 for her innovative spirit and those who have made their mark on history. Blum lives in San Francisco and is still trekking regularly in the Alps and the Himalayas with friends and clients.

Sir Christian John Storey Bonington, CVO, CBE, DL

Interviewed in May 2012, Lake District, UK

Sir Chris Bonington was born on August 6 in 1934 in Hampstead, London. He is one of the most famous and multifaceted mountaineers in the world, known from TV appearances, books and lectures worldwide. Within his career he has carried out many expeditions to the Himalayas including Everest and the first ascent of the south face of Annapurna, the biggest and most difficult at that time. In 1974 Bonington received the Founder's Medal of the Royal Geographical Society. Bonington was appointed Commander of the Order of the British Empire (CBE) in 1976 in recognition of the successful ascent of Everest and was knighted in 1996 for his services to the sport. He was appointed Commander of the Royal Victorian Order (CVO) in the 2010 Birthday Honours for his services to the Outward-Bound Trust. He was appointed as a Deputy Lieutenant of Cumbria in 2004. Bonington also serves as the Chairman of Berghaus.

Kurt Diemberger

Interviewed in April 2013, Bologna Italy

The Austrian mountaineer Kurt Diemberger was born on March 16th in 1932 in Austria. He attended the University in Vienna, where he concluded his studies with two diplomas and soon started climbing the most difficult routes in the Alps and Dolomites. Diemberger is one of the best known and most successful mountaineers in the world and author of several books and a high-altitude filmmaker. He also received the prestigious 5th Piolets d'Or Lifetime Achievement Award for his very impressive career in 2013. Kurt Diemberger belongs to an elite club of three men who have made the first ascent of two 8000m peaks. His climb of Broad Peak together with Buhl, Schmuck and Wintersteller was a landmark ascent: the first time an 8,000m peak had been climbed in lightweight style, without the use of high-altitude porters and oxygen.

Norman Dyhrenfurth, Prof.

Interviewed in September 2014, Salzburg, Austria

Normal Dyhrenfurth was born on May 7, 1918 in Breslau, in current day Poland. After emigrating to Switzerland, he became Swiss and later his service in the United States Army enabled him to gain joint U.S.-Swiss citizenship. He was the founder of the Motion Picture Division of the Department of Theatre Arts at UCLA, but resigned that position in 1952. His parents Hettie and Oscar Dyhrenfurth have been mountaineering pioneers who ventured on an expedition to Kangchenjunga already in 1930 and received an Olympic gold medal for their outstanding achievements. Norman Dyhrenfurth became famous, when he managed to initiate, fund and successfully lead the first American Everest expedition in 1963. He personally was awarded the Hubbart medal by President JFK for this success. Dyhrenfurth passed away in 2017.

Hanspeter Eisendle

Interviewed in February 2012, Valle Meira, Italy

Hanspeter Eisendle was born November 8, 1956 in Sterzing, South Tyrol, Italy and is a professional mountain guide. He has done a lot of difficult rock climbing in the Alps, the US and in Oman, as well as expeditions in the Himalayas and in South America. Furthermore, he did some and is first and solo ascents primarily in the domestic Dolomites. Eisendle has been

a mountain guide since 1980. Two years later he was invited by Reinhold Messner to an expedition to Cho Oyu, but the winter ascent failed. Eisendle tried and succeeded on other 8000m peaks, but decided that his focus will remain mountain guiding in the local mountains. He continues to run his mountaineering school in South Tyrol.

Günther Härter

Interviewed in February 2013, Valle Meira, Piemont, Italy

Günther Härter was born in 1953 in Starnberg, Germany. Härter was already trekking and climbing as a teenager. He then became a mountain guide during his military service and mastered some very difficult climbs and first ascents in the Alps. He then climbed several 8000ers in the Himalayas and became the managing director of a trekking company. In 2009 he founded his own trekking agency, Top Mountain Tours, near Munich, which he has been successfully running since whilst travelling to the high mountains of the world several times a year.

Rodrigo Jordán, Dr.

Interviewed in May 2012, Zurich, Switzerland

Rodrigo Jordán Fuchs was born on June 30, 1959 in Santiago, Chile. Jordán is an Industrial Engineer by training. During university he began his career as a mountain climber. From the beginning he stood out in this activity and gained the distinction for the "Best Athlete in Climbing". In addition to writing his Ph.D. thesis at Oxford he also trained as mountain instructor at the National School for Outdoor Activities of Great Britain. In 1992, Jordán led the first South American group who reached the summit of Everest. He then created creating his company "Vertical S.A.". Since 2003, Jordán has been leading educational expeditions for the students of the MBA program of Wharton School of Business. Today Jordán is well known in Chile as host of "Leadership in Person" a TV show where he interviews Chile's most important.

Kari Kobler

Interviewed in May 2012, Berne, Switzerland

The Swiss Kari Kobler was born on March 7, 1955 and is the owner and managing director of the leading expedition organization - "Kobler und Partner"- founded in 2001 in Switzerland.

Today, he is the most experienced and most successful organizer of Mount Everest expeditions on the North Side. Kobler was a postman first but became infected with the mountain virus in his early 20s. In 1985 he received his mountain guide diploma and started gathering first experiences as a mountain guide. Until now, Kobler has been the expedition leader of many expeditions in Asia and South America and has climbed Everest himself several times as well as other 8000m peaks.

Reinhold Messner

Interviewed in January 2013, Zurich, Switzerland

Born on September 17, 1944, in South Tyrol, Italy, Reinhold Messner is one of the greatest mountaineers and best known as the first person to climb all 14 of the world's 8000-meter peaks without supplemental oxygen in 1986. In 1970, Messner was invited to join his first expedition on Nanga Parbat in the Himalayas with his brother Günther. After having successfully summited, his brother died descending. Messner survived but lost most of his toes, which put an end to his rock-climbing career. He and the Austrian Peter Habeler summited Everest without the use of artificial oxygen in 1978 as the first people in history. Two years later he completed the first solo ascent of Mount Everest without oxygen. After his climbing career Messner served in the European Parliament until 2004. Since then, Messner has opened six museums. He has also established the Messner Mountain Foundation. Messner was awarded the Princess of Asturias Award for Sport in 2018.

Wolfgang Nairz

Interviewed in February 2013, Innsbruck, Austria

Wolfgang Nairz was born on November 27, 1944 in Tyrol. He became a mountain guide in 1967 and after having worked in the glacier measurement area he also became assigned within the Austrian Alpine Association and the Austrian mountaineering school. Niarz took part in the first expeditions to the Himalayas in the early 1970s. In 1978 he was the expedition leader and, together with two others, the first Austrians on Everest. On that expedition Peter Habeler and Reinhold Messner were also the first people on earth to summit Everest without oxygen. Nairz has also been responsible for press, media and marketing for the Austrian tourism and is retired nowadays but still regularly in Nepal, where he supports lots of projects for the local population.

Oswald Oelz, Dr.

Interviewed in March 2013, Zurich, Switzerland

Dr. Oswald Oelz, born in 1943 in Austria, is a well-known expedition doctor and author of several books who started accompanying expeditions in the 70s. He often climbed with Reinhold Messner whom he got to know in 1970 in the hospital when Messner was recovering after his accident on Nanga Parbat. From 1991 to 2006 Oelz was the chief physician in a major hospital in Zurich. He is also the third person to have climbed the "Seven Summits", the highest peak of each continent. Oelz has written several books and is a public speaker.

Edurne Pasaban

Interviewed in March 2012, Basel, Switzerland

Edurne Pasaban was born on August 1, 1973 in the province of Gipuzkoa in Spain. In May 2010 she became the first woman to climb all the fourteen eight-thousand peaks in the world. Within her career she was the leader or participant in over 20 expeditions. She is also a trained engineer and holds an MBA. Pasaban also had some difficult moments in her climbing life when after the expedition to K2 in 2014 she was severely frostbitten and lost two toes. Pasaban is very well known in Spain, as her quest to climb all 8000er was broadcasted and sponsored in the Spanish TV within the program "Al Filo del Imposibile". Nowadays Pasaban is a guest at TV-Shows and speaker of leadership topics.

Stephen Venables

Interviewed in May 2011, Milan, Italy

Stephen Venables, born on May 2, 1954 is a British mountaineer, the author of more than a dozen books, and a public speaker. He was the first Briton to climb Everest without supplementary oxygen, by a new route up the gigantic Kangshung Face. He reached the summit alone and had to bivouac in the open at about 8600 metres when he lost some toes. Venables has appeared in several BBC television documentaries and is a past President of the Alpine Club. Venables was also the father of the only known child in the UK to be diagnosed with both autism and leukaemia. His son then died aged twelve years old. Venables is a speaker and writer and continues to be in the mountains, most recently in St. Georgia, where he leads ski touring expeditions from a ship.

F.   Interview Guideline

This was the interview guideline which was slightly adapted during the research process and was applied during the 13 qualitative interviews conducted between May 2011 and December 2014.

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1.   Definition of leadership:

•   What does leadership mean to you?

•   How would you define good / bad leadership?

•   How would you define the role of an expedition leader (role, behaviour, tasks)

2.   Definition of a leader:

•   What is it for you that makes up a good leader?

•   Do you have any examples of good / bad expedition leaders and why would you consider them like that?

•   What did they do to become good / bad leaders in your eyes?

3.   Leadership style

•   How would you describe your leadership style?

•   How did you impose discipline (style, measures)

•   Tell me about an experience where you had to manage people conflicts during an expedition - could you describe an incident like this?

•   When faced with two equally qualified candidates, how do you determine whom to assign the task?

•   How did you share leadership (who did what?)

•   What is the biggest challenge facing (expedition) leaders today?

4.   Decision making

•   How were decisions taken in your group (e.g., when deciding on the assignment of tasks, defining the summit teams, defining the summit push strategy…)?

•   Tell me about a time where you had to stand firm and make a tough or unpopular decision in order to maintain the standards you had set.

5.   Communication:

•   What is your communication strategy as a leader?

•   What are your communication beliefs?

6.   Development:

•   How have you evolved as an expedition leader over the years?

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- • What insights have you gained about your talents and strengths?

- • What are the greatest lessons you've learned as an expedition leader?

7. Group dynamics

- • How did you create teams?

- • What were the strengths and the weaknesses of the team that you led on the expedition?

- • How did you detect tensions and how did you react on them?

8. How did you manage leadership challenges regarding:

- • Hierarchy (sahibs, Sherpas, porters)

- • Language / Age / Gender (women expedition in paternalistic systems)

- • Were there any perceived differences because you're a woman / you were young?

9. Please tell me about following critical incidents that have occurred during your expedition:

- • Injuries / Death

- • Life and death situations / decisions

- • Group tensions / fights

- • Financial problems

- • Logistical problems

In depth questions:

e.g:

"Would you be able to tell me the story with leadership lenses?"

"Would you tell me an account of that?"

"How would you recall that…. event under the aspect of leadership?"

"Can you take me back on that moment … - which was particularly disturbing…?"

"…That's interesting…can you think of a story in that context?"

"…Can you think of a story to illustrate this point?"

"What do you mean by that?"

"Could you provide me a story regarding this …?"

"What was your experience with that…"

"What was it that you made feel like this…?"

G. Examples of Mind Maps

These are two exemplary mind maps based on the two interviews with Günther Härter and Rodrigo Jordán. Such mind maps were done for each of the 13 interviews.
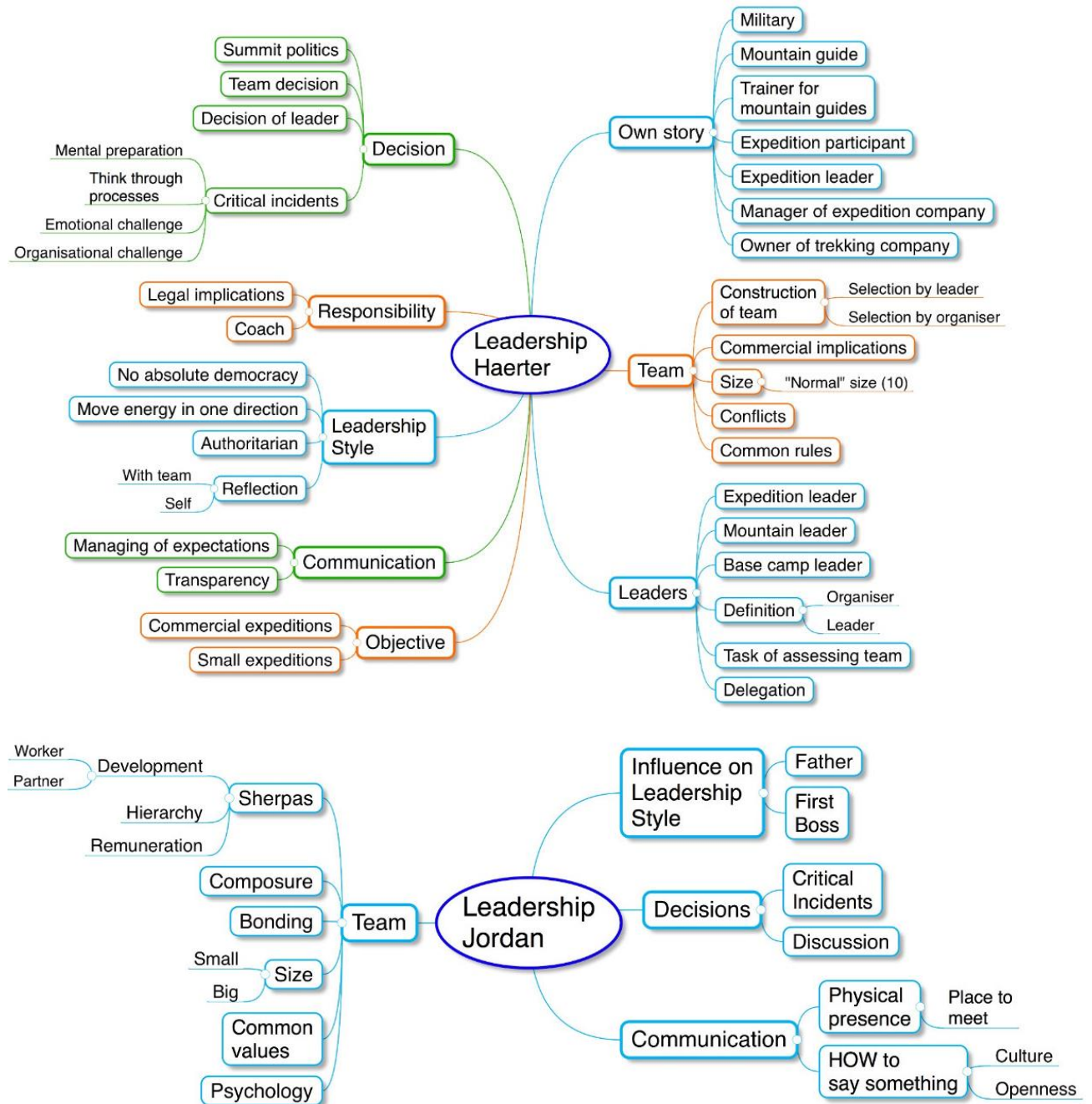

Figure 46: Examples of Mind Maps

H. An overview on leadership theories

Leadership approaches

Servant Leadership
- Leadership is a social process, which means that leaders interact with other people.
- Followers are active participants in this leadership process.
- Leaders have more power, but there might be times, when this is not the case and followers have more influence (Gertzen, 2015, p.89).
- For completeness the "Leaders and Followers" theory (LMX) should also be mentioned.
- Up to this point followers have been treated as passive recipients of leadership executed by a leader.
- The concept of servant leadership falls into the area of distributed leadership, where leaders see it as their duty to serve their followers and they adopt a philosophic approach to life and work.
- Greenleaf (1977) was the first one to propose this concept and for him the primary responsibility of a leader is to serve others. Spears (1995) put it this way, "at its core, servant-leadership is a log-term, transformational approach to life and work, in essence, a way of being that has the potential to create positive change throughout society" (Spears, 1995, p.4)
- Several empirical studies have suggested that servant leadership can enhance the well-being and the emotional health of its followers by creating a positive work climate (Black, 2010; Jaramillo et al., 2009a; Neubert et al., 2008).
- Servant leadership still has limited empirical evidence (Yukl, 2010) to support its effectiveness, but the few studies which have been published suggest that this topic could be a promising leadership area in which to conduct further research.
- The research of Jit, Kawatra, Sharma (2017) suggests that that servant leader with the help of their „empathy, compassion, healing, altruistic calling, and listening - adopt a compassionate approach to manage employees' emotional turmoil."

Authentic leadership
- Authentic leadership: "acting in a way that feels truthful, candid, and connected to who you really are is important, and is a leadership quality worth aspiring to" (Gruenfeld, 2011)
- George, 2015; Gruenfeld, 2011; Ibarra, 2015; Zupan, 2010 agree that authenticity and leading by example add to the credibility of a leader
- Authentic and ethical leaderships have many traits in common, but the concept of authenticity can also have a negative connotation. (Gruenfeld, 2011; Ibarra, 2015), since a person also could be true to a bad value system and still be authentic (Shamir & Eilam, 2005)
- Gardner et al. (2005) believe that leaders pursue "an integrated set of goals that reflect personal standards of conduct" and that they are "intrinsically motivated".
- Toulesh (2019) argues that the concept has not been discussed sufficiently, yet and that it is associated only with positive leadership.
- Hoch et al (20126) show in their research that only servant leadership out of the three theories examined (servant, ethical, authentic) showed more promise as a stand-alone leadership approach that is capable of providing researchers and practitioners of leadership a concept to explain a wide range of outcomes.

Ethical and value leadership
- Ethical leadership: personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making (Brown et al. 2005).
- Their followers need ethical behaviour, high morality, and doing what he says (Monahan, 2012)
- Sometimes seen as a subset of authentical leadership (Koch, 2016; Toulesh, 2019)

Compassionate Leadership
- The Dalai Lama (2019) emphasises leadership based on mindfulness, compassion and selflessness.

Engaging Leadership
- Leadership started to be seen as a social process, focussing on the ethical behaviour of leaders
- Nevertheless, they do not directly address the question as to how to engage employees in the work of the organization (Alban-Metcalfe, 2012)
- The engagement model does not emphasise heroism but serving and enabling others.
- Teamwork, working together and removing barriers was identified as another ingredient of engaging leadership
- "Encourage questioning and challenging of the status quo and to ensure this happens by creating an environment in which these ideas are encouraged, listened and truly valued; and in which innovation and entrepreneurialism is encouraged." (Alban- Metcalfe et al. 2008, p.12).

Conversation Leadership
- Groysberg & Slind (2012) argue that a new force of organizational power is being used, which is organizational conversation.
- Conversation shall help to create cohesiveness, productive energy.
- It consists of four elements: intimacy, interactivity, inclusion, and intentionality (Groysberg, Slind, 2012, pp. 4)

In extremis Leadership
- Concept to describe leadership in extreme situations
- In extremis leadership involves leading in dangerous, unpredictable environments (Morrell & Capparell, 2001).
- "as giving purpose, motivation, and direction to people when there is eminent physical danger, and where followers believe that leader behaviour will influence their physical well-being or survival" (Kolditz & Brazil, 2005, p. 347

Feminist Leadership
- First the focus was on understanding women's experiences and the reasons for oppression (Eagly & Carli, 2007, Chin et al., 2007)
- Feminist research addresses differences or similarities between genders (Calàs and Smircich, 1996)
- Only until relatively recently that women have made it to the top ranks of corporations and therefore feminist leadership became more in a focus (Colvin, 2015)
- Understand the intersections between leadership and gender (Chin et al., 2007)
- Research on feminist theories of power, representation, and ethics overlaps with feminist leadership (O'Connor, 2010)
- Feminism is divided into three groups: (1) gender reform feminism; men and women are the same (Greer and Greene, 2003) (2) Men and women are seen differently; women have a given form of behaviour (Ahl, 2006). Differences are seen as enrichment (Ndlovu et al., 2016) (3) social construction feminists: believe that there is a difference between men and women. Social differences justify treating women unequally (Lorber, 2010)
- Cultural feminism: argues that women have certain attributes that can contribute to society (Vasavada, 2012).
- Social transformation cannot exist only at the level of the individual but must also address society at large. Thus, when attitudes towards women change, the organization must also change (Batliwala, Bhogal, Mehra, 2018)
- Although most feminists recognize that organizations are hierarchical and usually dominated by male players., they also assume that structures are gender neutral, which is not the case. This worker is actually a man; men's bodies, sexuality, and relationships to procreation and paid work are subsumed in the image of the worker. Images of men 's bodies and masculinity pervade organizational processes, marginalizing women and contributing to the maintenance of gender segregation in organizations

Toxic Leadership
- Toxic leaders as "those individuals who, by virtue of their destructive behaviours and their dysfunctional personal qualities or characteristics, inflict serious and enduring harm on the individuals, groups, organizations, communities and even the nations that they lead." (Lipman-Blumen, 2005, p.2)
- Toxic leadership is a very costly issue. It destroys individuals, groups and organizations, even countries. Failing to deal resolutely with the complex forces that foster our acquiescence to toxic leaders will only promote the destruction such leaders create." (Lipman-Blumen, 2005, p.8)

Distributed / shared leadership; Eco-leader discourse
- Western (2008) the continuous search for new leadership explanations is driven by two main reasons:
- "The need to find contemporary leadership solutions to the changing social, political and economic conditions;
- Shared leadership refers to a form of leadership that is distributed and shared among multiple participating individuals, rather than being produced by a single individual (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Pearce & Conger, 2003).
- The need to keep the huge leadership/management development industry afloat, through selling the latest ideas through books, consultancy and training, business and management schools, etc." (Western, 2008, p.173).
- Western (2008) states that even though this might be the case, there are signs of new leadership discourse emerging, which he calls the Eco-leader discourse.
- Some authors see the distributed or dispersed leadership (Gronn, 2002) as a future leadership model, or engage in the Eco Leader discourse
- Western (2008)-an Eco-leader is a leader with a holistic view, who takes into consideration that growth on one side might have a negative impact on the other side. It is leading within interdependencies and connectivity and takes wider circles as an approach (Western, 2008, p.183f).
- Western (2013)-the Eco-leadership organization is a network of distributed leaders
- "eco-leadership discourse" reflects the growing use of environmental and network metaphors in the literature of leadership.
- Another impact of this point of view is that organizations cannot be led top-down. The other point is that the organization itself is connected to other ecosystems, such as economic, social or financial ecosystems.
- "Eco-leadership is the application of an ecological worldview to organizations, and social and political movements. It describes a way of organizing
- "Based on sustainable principles, many of them learned from nature. Yet it doesn't ignore technology and human potential. Eco-leadership is about recognizing the multitude of talent in society, and harnessing the creativity and adaptability in our technical, social and natural ecosystems. The task of Eco-leadership today is to 'Adapt and Belong', to co- create organizations that are adaptive to change, and also 'belong' to the social and natural world. Eco-leadership is to develop 'webs of work' and then connect these to the 'webs of life'." (Western, 2013, p.279)

Adaptive Leadership
- Introduced in the mid-90s (Heifetz, 2009)
- Is the idea that leadership is not based on position or on authority only but rather something which can be practiced and done by anyone
- Focuses on successful adaptation which requires using the past as a basis and observing which changes can be made while still respecting the history of an organization
- Adaptive leadership relies on experiments and diversity in order to succeed and can be learned and implies the opposite of the previously common thought that that leaders have to be strong personalities who imprint their will on the organization.

Worldly Leadership
- A recent aspect of leadership theory is covered by the worldly leadership wisdoms from all parts of the globe
- Gosling and Mintzberg (2003) proposed that managers should develop their worldly approach and mind set by putting themselves within a strange context.
- "With these new technologies, an opportunity now presents itself for leaders across the world to share and combine the leadership knowledge and practice that exist in many corners of the world: wisdoms that would otherwise remain unknown outside their community. Ancient philosophies can enable us to reframe and rethink the enormous challenges of responsible, ethical and sustainable leadership of the world". (Turnbull et al., 2012, p.3)

Agile Leadership
- There are several reasons why companies focus more and more on agile leadership.
- Digitalisation is changing the technical and social complexity of the working environment as well as the constant need for innovations in corporate organizations.
- In these environments the leader role becomes more an empowerment role where cross- functional and autonomous teams substitute many of classical leadership functions.
- Within Agile Business Management, the primary job of an Agile Leader is to encourage and empower cross-functional teams. This demands that team members are granted sufficient personal responsibility, accountability and authority to deliver the customers' requirements (Leybourn, E., 2013)
- Agile leadership should lead to a cohesive community. (McKinsey Agile Tribe, 2017)

Table 34 Overview of recent leadership approaches

I. Trustworthiness in qualitative research

Credibility is the confidence of the qualitative analyst about how true the research results are. To develop credibility in research, the qualitative researchers use triangulation to ensure the research result is trustworthy.

Transferability shows how the research results can be applied in other settings. The similar settings mean the same conditions in terms of the same population size and the same circumstances. Qualitative analysts may explain it in detail to depict the reliability of the results to other settings, conditions, and phenomenon.

Conformability shows the degree to which the study results are neutral. This also means that the results are related to the respondents' answers and free from biases or personal motivation for the analyst. This ensures that the analyst bias does not distort the analysis of what the study respondents answered to adopt a specific narrative.

Dependability ensures that the research results would be reliable if other researchers use it to get sufficient data and the same research results as my research report contains. To ensure that the research results can also be applied to other settings and would be pertinent, can be achieved by analysing the narrative of all interviewees, since they all had the know-how and the experience to relate to these situations and described them in their narratives. The overarching questions in the interviews helped to support a stringent research process.

J. Example of the thematic analysis

This is an example of a thematic analysis based on the themes of the mind map and going back to the original transcript of the interview text.

Analysis of the interview with Rodrigo Jordán

Personal story

On how he started climbing

Rodrigo was always interested in the outdoors and started climbing when he was studying at University (engineering). He needed academic recognition for doing sports – so he chose climbing. He then got to know his wife, when he tried to climb Aconcagua.

On failure

They lost a team member in an avalanche.

Rodrigo founded "Vertical" and how he started making presentations

Rodrigo got invited by a businessman to hold a presentation in his house, which he successful did.
-On founding "Vertical" his company foundation
-MBA Wharton program where he teaches
-MBA students (they used the case study of Arlene Blum!)

Team

On selecting the team

Rodrigo decided to actively recruit climbers from all over Chile; not just from his University. *"…I said, look that can't do. We gonna get the best equipment from all the place, we gonna get more people, more climbers (…) so I collected climbers from different clubs (…) I am getting goad climbers from all over."* – He got climbers whom he did not know beforehand.

On getting them to know each other

They stared climbing together up to a year in advance [of the expedition]

On the size of the team

R. decided on 12 people as a group size.

On the team as a unity

He realized that all these people from the different clubs did not bond as a team, yet.

They knew names but had not climbed together, yet. → Example –locking tents

On failure on a team

 "Yeah, but I blame myself. I talked to my wife again and said, look we failed because of resources. We couldn't blame the weather on the very last day and we could, you know, all come out and say, look but surely there was something in this team and then, you know, it is not a theme of only resources and the big number of climbers, it is how these guys bonded and worked together. And I saw things that I did not like, for example, people locking their tents."

On reflection and feedback

Rodrigo believed in reviewing expeditions and introduced feedback rounds after having successfully climbed Everest with two others in order to learn.

On how the team started bonding

(Story): *"I was great because, for example, on K2 something incredible happened. As you know on a specific day at K2 when we climbed at night, you go and climb at night because....so by eleven o'clock at night three or four had to work there, maybe one or two are resting. And so this was amazing. The four guys who wanted to climb would meet at the dining tent and have something to eat and then go climbing. I was expecting that those two who were staying would, they most show themselves outside the tent have a good day guys and go back. Now they woke up and they went to the climbing tent and had breakfast altogether. I didn't force them, there was no order, there was nobody...it just happened. And you started feeling those work together. And so now I, from then on, when we went climbing, we all have breakfast together whenever the breakfast time is."*

On the importance of respecting common values

On how a team member did not integrate, but when he did, he would avoid a very critical situation: *"One example at K2. On the climb together there was a new guy...the first time he is climbing with us. He had done this south face of Aconcagua solo. So, you know he had the ......so he comes to us, we invite him, it shows up that he is a nice guy and we climb together and I said, would you like to come with us and he says yes. So, he keeps on climbing. But then I realized two or three times that after I reached the summit he would as I do the same? He would run now. But I liked to go faster and he would do the same. But you don't do that on expeditions. You climb down together. (…) And one day I go down to him and say look, ..., we both like going down and we know it's a safe thing. ...you should go as fast as you can. So, I am not blaming you to do that but we in our group we have to stay together. And we had a big discussion. He said these guys are too slow, it is safer to come down quickly. I agree, we talked to them but for whatever the reason we want to come back down together. As fast as we can but together. On the K2 case I show the film at the end, a short piece of film over eight minutes. .... was one of the summit groups of the four. These two are going down from the summit, the other two are coming slower. One of them collapses, sits down and says I am not going down any further. Christian is with him, talked to me on the base camp and said, you need to help him down, I can't just on my own. (...)And these two are going out of sight. And suddenly the ...comes in and we.... already and literally, he says in Spanish, I came down to where we had our table where we have left some things maybe 100 metres below. And waiting here because the idea is going all of us together down. He said, okay, but we have this ...actually he came back up and finally we get everybody out."*

On bonding

"(…) I call it bake the cake; you bake the team"

On integrating Sherpas in the team

(Story) When the entire team agreed to postpone the celebrations until the last Sherpa was down.

On how important it is to fit new persons in the team.

"They [Students of MBA classes] think about the parents, they think about marketing, they think about their products, they think about the quality. Even they think individually when hiring people, they think about the person they need in terms of their technical skills and the knowledge of the business. But they don't think how I am gonna fit this guy or this woman into this team."

On how somebody else chose team members

Once a commander – in – Chief made a formal invitation and picked team members to participate on an expedition. It worked quite well as military guys respect authority and hierarchy.

- Story: *"from the army because I know they have been trying to climb Everest for many years and I said look, I talked to the commander-in-chief and I made a formal invitation. And I said look, I am willing to take two or three from your army to go with us. This was back in June, last year. You know, everything worked very well but they decided who was going to go. They chose from the rights who was going to go. Not me. These are the three guys that are going with you. Because I couldn't go and to the ...and decide going through over the Generals (…) We have to. And I said look, okay I am fine. You can choose whoever is gonna go but they need to be chosen by August last year because I need to, you know, train with them and work with them. And they said, what do you wanna train with them? The commander-in-chief said, they are good mountaineers. I know that because that is why I was inviting them. But I need to build a team among them and us. And it worked perfectly. (…) I reached the summit and it was absolutely great.*

(…) They tended to look at me as a sort of general."

On delegation

He picked a deputy leader in order to have more time to concentrate on the team.

The deputy leader, since he is very good climber, even goes to the summit.

On communication with Sherpas and Category 5 (Communication)

How Sherpas wanted to join the Chilean team again although they could not pay as much as the other team.

On Sherpas on the summit

Rodrigo mentioned that eight of ten climbing Sherpas went to the summit.

Decisions

On a Critical Incident

They turned back when the avalanche killed a member (Victorio; in 1986).

You need to prepare for these situations, which had not been the case with the leader (Claudio).

On deciding to go for the summit/date

Story: *"So, but going back to the question. I finally decided, we had a long talk a conversation and we said, Okay guys we're moving out on the eighteenth (…) the whole discussion was: we go first or last (…) Nineteenth and twenty we were back. We... Nobody would know for sure, but we know a lot of people were climbing on the nineteen and twenty. So, we would say, we'll move it to the twenty-six. But then come our deliberations with the Sherpas. It is better for the Sherpas to be off the mountain early, because they have more time with their families. And I talked to the Sherpas, and said, you know we, we can go now on the eighteenth (…) but we'll have to fix the ropes; or we can go last on the twenty-sixth (…) We'll go first! And so, we went first"*

On decisions which are taken by a team

In order to be able to take decisions together, you need to make sure that the team has grown together.

On decision by / with Sherpas

-Story: *"on how a Sherpa did not obey for the good of the group: "Everybody goes, yeah and I'll stay behind with ....and go down with him slow. One Sherpa stayed with us. Nima Tensing.*

I said, Nima, go down, that is an order. You go down! He said, I am not going down, I am staying with you. Nima said I am not going down and he stayed all the....at about 9.30 at night. Happily, he stayed with us. Because when we were arriving the South core, we thought the only tents in the south core was our camp."

Values, Vision

On establishing values

Before climbing K2, Rodrigo formally established a set of values. He deemed this to be necessary as he did not assume that anything was given.
Then the team committed to these values.

Communication

On way how to communicate

Claudi [expedition leader] communicated too directly and bluntly and therefore made people [expedition members] angry.

On an example of how culture influences communication

-Story: *"? You need to understand this in Chilean culture. I wanna point out that I wanna thank you all because we were able to tell difficult things to each other looking directly into their eyes. The Chilean culture, whenever you have a problem with somebody in the organization, in the family, you never confront the guy directly. You go out and talk to somebody else. And you go around and you know, this thing stands into gossip. And you know, that kind."*

On a (physical) place to communicate

The Dining tent – you get together every one or two days with the guys.

On open, regular communication / feedback

It was important that all team members provided regular feedback and communicated on problem or issues before they become too big.

Leadership style

On the first expedition (Everest)

Rodrigo mentions that he considered himself an only the administrate leader of that expedition; mostly due to the fact that they had not given too much thought a leadership topics or HR in general.

Parallels to Corporate Management

The larger the organization, the more difficult this is to attain.

Relation and Comparisons to Corporations

Chris has an interesting point of view about parallels between expedition leadership and corporations. He thinks that being an expedition leader is easier than to lead a corporation for 3 reasons:

(1) On a mountain expedition, the objective is very clear. This is the case in the corporate world as well if one talks about projects.

(2) In the expedition environment the goal is to climb a mountain, which is a project with a defined and whereas in the corporate world, leading an organization is a never-ending story. "It never ends". And it is very complex to manage a corporation. There are many different couples of pressures coming in.

(3) The critical incidents – the "life and death thing"

This focusses the mind and makes decisions on the mountain quite single. Decisions in the corporate word are much more complex. But Chris also recognizes that often there are also lots of distractions in the expedition environment for the commercial aspects and in particular that role of the sponsor of the climber.

On hierarchy

In fact, Chris found the structures in the military less hierarchical than in his first company, where management and ordinary staff has been divided by different kinds of symbols, such as different canteens and laboratories. (signs of status).

K. Example of thematic clustering of narrative

In this part, two examples of thematic clustering of the stories derived from the interviews with Rodrigo Jordán and Günther Härter are provided. Within this process I have applied colour coding in order to group relevant narratives around the already defined themes from the previously carried out lateral thematic analysis.

Legend:

Communication – Teams and Conflicts – Leadership – Decisions – Learning – Critical Incidents

Here are some examples of how stories from interviews have been colour-coded and related to topics.

On an example how culture influences communication (Jordán)

Story -: *"(…) You need to understand this in Chilean culture. I wanna point out that I wanna thank you all because we were able to tell difficult things to each other looking directly into their eyes. The Chilean culture, whenever you have a problem with somebody in the organization, in the family, you never confront the guy directly. You go out and talk to somebody else. And you go around and you know, this things stands into gossip. And you know, that kind."*

On failure on a team (Jordán)

"Yeah, but I blame myself. I talked to my wife again and said, look we failed because of resources. We couldn't blame the weather on the very last day and we could, you know, all come out and say, look but surely there was something in this team and then, you know, it is not a theme of only resources and the big number of climbers, it is how these guys bonded and worked together. And I saw things that I did not like, for example, people locking their tents."

On how the team started bonding (Jordán)

"I was great because, for example, on K2 something incredible happened. As you know on a specific day at K2 when we climbed at night, you go and climb at night because....so by eleven o'clock at night three or four had to work there, maybe one or two are resting. And so, this was amazing. The four guys who wanted to climb would meet at the dining tent and have something to eat and then go climbing. I was expecting that those two who were staying would, they most show themselves outside the tent have a good day guys and go back. Now they woke up and they went to the climbing tent and had breakfast altogether. I didn't force them, there was no order, there was nobody...it just happened. And you started feeling those work together. And so now I, from then on, when we went climbing, we all have breakfast together whenever the breakfast time is."

Team / Conflicts / On the importance of respecting common values (Jordán)

"On how a team member did not integrate, but when he did, he would avoid a very critical situation: *"One example at K2. On the climb together there was a new guy...the first time he is climbing with us. He had done this south face of Aconcagua solo. So, you know he had the ......so he comes to us, we invite him, it shows up that he is a nice guy and we climb together and I said, would you like to come with us and he says yes. So, he keeps on climbing. But then I realized two or three times that after I reached the summit he would as I do the same??? He would run now. But I liked to go faster and he would do the same. But you don't do that on expeditions. You climb down together. (…) And one day I go down to him and say look, ..., we both like going down and we know it's a safe thing. ...you should go as fast as you can. So, I am not blaming you to do that but we in our group we have to stay together. And we had a big discussion. He said these guys are too slow, it is safer to come down quickly. I agree, we talked to them but for whatever the reason we want to come back down together. As fast as we can but together. On the K2 case I show the film at the end, a short piece of film over eight minutes. .... was one of the summit groups of the four. These two are going down from the summit, the other two are coming slower. One of them collapses, sits down and says I am not going down any further. Christian is with him, talked to me on the base camp and said, you need to help him down, I can't just on my own. (...) And these two are going out of sight. And suddenly the ...comes in and we.... already and literally, he says in Spanish, I came down to where we had our table where we have left some things maybe 100 metres below. And waiting*

here because the idea is going all of us together down. He said, okay, but we have this ...actually he came back up and finally we get everybody out."

On integrating Sherpas in the team (Jordán)
"When the entire team agreed to wait with the celebrations until the last Sherpa was down"

On how somebody else chose team members / Team (Jordán)
"Once a commander – in – Chief made a formal invitation and picked team members to participate on an expedition. It actually worked quite well as military guys respect authority and hierarchy."

(Story) - "from the army because I know they have been trying to climb Everest for many years and I said look, I talked to the commander-in-chief and I made a formal invitation. And I said look, I am willing to take two or three from your army to go with us. This was back in June, last year. You know, everything worked very well but they decided who was going to go. They chose from the rights who was going to go. Not me. These are the three guys that are going with you. Because I couldn't go and to the ...and decide going through over the Generals (…) We have to. And I said look, okay I am fine. You can choose whoever is gonna go but they need to be chosen by August last year because I need to, you know, train with them and work with them. And they said, what do you wanna train with them? The commander-in-chief said, they are good mountaineers. I know that because that is why I was inviting them. But I need to build a team among them and us. And it worked perfectly. (…) I reached the summit and it was absolutely great. (…) They tended to look at me as a sort of general…

On deciding to go for the summit/date (Jordán)
(Story) - "So, but going back to the question. I finally decided, we had a long talk a conversation and we said, Okay guys we're moving out on the eighteenth (…) the whole discussion was: we go first or last (…) Nineteenth and twenty we were back. We… Nobody would know for sure, but we know a lot of people were climbing on the nineteen and twenty. So, we would say, we'll move it to the twenty-six. But then come our deliberations with the Sherpas. It is better for the Sherpas to be off the mountain early, because they have more time with their families. And I talked to the Sherpas, and said, you know we; we can go now on the eighteenth (…) but we'll

have to fix the ropes; or we can go last on the twenty-sixth (…) We'll go first! And so, we went first"

On decision by / with Sherpas (Jordán)

(Story) – *"on how a Sherpa did not obey for the good of the group: "Everybody goes, yeah and I'll stay behind with ....and go down with him slow. One Sherpa stayed with us. Nima Tensing. I said, Nima, go down, that is an order. You go down! He said, I am not going down, I am staying with you. Nima said I am not going down and he stayed all the....at about 9.30 at night. Happily, he stayed with us. Because when we were arriving the South core, we thought the only tents in the south core was our camp."*

Communications / Team (Härter)

"Günther mentioned the situation during a ski-mountaineering week, when some group members articulated that they were not very happy about the too big size of the group and the uniform speed. For some it was too slow and they wanted to go quicker. So Günther immediately decided as a reaction to subdivide the big group into two groups, for the next day."

On leadership style (Härter)

An example where Günther lead to loosely and the group fall apart.

Even in groups of experts and friends you cannot assume that everybody knows what to do. The group might fall apart.

Decisions / Leadership / Communication / Critical Incidents (Härter)

On how a new idea was born out of a seemingly negative situation. The decision on what to do – in this case a bold, new objective, has been taken in the group, with some members opting out instantly. At the end it was a success, despite the altitude health problems of a participant.

Decisions (Härter)

On a situation where it was imperative to take a decision as an expedition leader.

After an avalanche on Tilchio Peak, there was a participant, whoalthough unhurt,just sat in his tent and did not move at all. Günther as an expedition leader climbed up and after having tried to convince him to descend, he simply started dismantling the tent relieved him from his sleeping bag and made him walk until apathy was gone.

Critical incident (Härter)

"We have been up on Way 1 with the first group and have built up everything. We had a relatively good summit day (…). Then we descended and stayed overnight in Camp IV in 7400m. We descended the next day and the second group went up in line with the plan. We met in 7000m altitude and have exchanged information and experiences; especially regarding what is still left up there in the tents, so they would be informed on the remaining supplies. We have continued to descend and they continued in the summit direction. At this point one already saw that a thick layer of cloud lowered. Actually, they were unlucky to be in a sudden (temperature weather change drop). That was in 1990

(…) In these times the weather forecast was not that precise as today, which is the reason that one was exposed to sudden weather changes more often. Maybe they turned around too late or they have been caught in an avalanche."

(…) "So, this is one of the most difficult things which can happen to you when you are an expedition leader. To just leave from the mountain with four people less, this is a new level, a new level of experience per se.

We have processed [this situation] quite well-we also had good people.

We have carried out commemorative service in Basecamp and have tried to get through… (…)"

"The weather has been good the day after. We were down and couldn`t get up anymore. Due to the sudden bad weather change, there was much too much fresh snow – too much danger of avalanches.

[Our] Sherpas then went up to 7000 m and we forbid them to climb any higher. The way through a slope to Camp IV was avalanche-prone and then there would have possibly been even more dead people, so they have built up another tent with sleeping bags, gas etc. below that slope. We had good weather and could nearly see Camp IV. So, if someone had stepped in front of their tent, they would have hand visual contact with Base Camp, which was not the case." (…)

"And then it was relatively clear that they have hand an emergency. But we wouldn`t bring them down, as we wouldn`t walk up. (…) Therefore … the normal thing, which is also part of the process, is to immediately write a protocol about the entire sequence of events, as far as known by the group. (…) You have to write down everything and then have everybody sign, so that you have witnesses etc.

That is the reviewing on this [organizational] level. On the other human level, we have also reviewed what happened quite well; because we had someone (…) who has stayed the commemorative service in Base Camp and we have built a huge stone pyramid and so on. This is what you can do afterwards, in order to put up with something like that as a group together. But this is a part of mountain climbing, a part of life. [Always] in the hope that something like this doesn`t happen that often. On the other hand, you must be mentally prepared for these kinds of things."

In the next step these stories were translated where necessary and included in the analysis in Chapter 4. Some parts were defined from the original interviews in order to use them as quotes and narratives.

L. Example of categories, emerging themes and power

Categories	Codes	Emergent Themes	Power Type	Power Type	Leader
A good leader has to be sensitive and be empathic. Go and listen and talk to the staff.	On being a good leader	active listening	Referent		CB
For Bonington it is important to point out that in order to be a good leader you interact with your team (or "followers") and taken the chance to actually chat with the people around him.	On being a good leader	active listening	Referent	Information	CB
...you know, you had...and I realized at that point, that no, my place was not to be in the third summit bid, my place was actually going down and basically soothing brows and soothing egos. So, so that's what I did! But it is... I think once again, as a leader you've got to be very aware of the politics of your team and the feelings your individuals. Your job is to you know, good leaders are good carers	On being a good leader	The summit is not the leaders' priority. Empathy, Respect for others, Feelings.	Referent		CB
Arlene believes in "servant leadership" i.e. that the leader's job is to make sure everybody has what they need to do the job. Get the team to succeed. Not get necessarily all the credit (21:43) She gives a good example when she explains that she did not reach the summit of Annapurna (at her expedition), but team members did.	Servant Leadership	provide the needed support: pratical and mental	Referent		AB
Arlene is convinced that leadership is really all about inspiring people so that they are motivated from the inside.	On being a good leader	Intrinsic motivation sparked by leader	Referent		AB
The leader has to be honest and inspiring.	On being a good leader	trust	Referent	Reward	AB
(3:51) Arlene is a big believer in participating leadership. Being alive and friends after an expedition were the most important objectives for her. [friendship and safety] (4:55)	On being a good leader	Friends and safety as objectives	Referent		AB
Edurne succeeded in changing a team members attitude, because she knew him very well. He was hesitating and homesick. She managed turnaround.	On being a good leader	Motivator, empatic	Referent		EP

Categories	Codes	Emergent Themes	Power	Power	Leader
Journey					CB
Bonington didn´t want to become a climbing guide. He just wanted to climb with his peers. Only in the course at time he figured out that he could make a living around climbing. Bonington associates his efforts of being able to make a decent living out of climbing with his ability to communicate well. Bonington turned into an expedition leader, because he decided to be one at a certain point and after long discussions. (17' 31'') We talked and talked and talked, but nobody did anything about it. That´s when I think I thought, "Well, gosh! I better get ordered".	On how he/she became a leader	rather than how, why?		Authority	CB
Bonington has a very precise way about how to make an expedition successful. For him, as person it wasn't important to reach the summit himself (although he was keen in reaching the summit), but rather to make the expedition per se a success. (17' 32'')	On how he/she became a leader	team spirit / selflessness			CB
Bonington also discovered quite soon that the goal of the expedition is higher than his own objectives	On how he/she became a leader	team spirit	Referent		CB
Learning to be a leader for him was learning it the hard way – all the challenges of managing a group of single minded individuals. ("So that was really how I became an expedition leader" 19'16'')	On learning to be a leader				CB
Recalling his experience in the military, Bonington had made some valuable experiences, but also said that "you learned very little about practical down to earth leadership". He also realized that one of his early mistakes was to not take into consideration more senior people (such as an old, wise Sargent) and he "went in like a bull in a China shop". He also acknowledged that it took him about half a year to undo the damage, which he had created in less than a week. (20' 34'')	On learning to be a leader	listen to more senior people	Authority		CB
Bonington learned to lead on a young lieutenant. He realized that "being		Legitimate power alone does			

Table 35 Emerging themes and power

By filtering the categories i.e., "Summit Politics", emergent themes and the associated power categories could be identified and analysed.

Categories	Codes	Emergent Themes	Power
Bonington (for himself) had identified the winning team ("the Weapon"; 39'34'') at a very early stage at the expedition. A mistake in his eyes was that he left the impression with the rest of the team, that he favoured one pair of climbers to get to the top. (This happened when he talked on the radio, which per se is a medium which doesn't allow for a very sophisticated communication and the possibility for misunderstandings is high).	Summit Politics	Nepotism; how to avoid it	Authority
Most difficult decision was how to define a summit team. Bonington was very unsure about when to put together; Collaborative / distributed leadership style; Bonington asked the team itself and then put all eggs in one basket (1.30'28'')	Summit Politics	collaborated, distributed leadership	Authority
Blum explains that the decision for the summit team is hard. Sometimes command/control style is OK, sometimes participatory is the right approach	Summit Politics	Situational leadership	Authority
(37:52) In order to decrease competition between the team members and to make it more a team effort, Blum suggested NOT communicating the names of the summit team to the outside world. "So, it could be the team who climbed the mountain." A proposal which has been rejected	Summit Politics	proposal of leader rejected; against authority	Group
(36:44) Less summit politics in small groups	Summit Politics		
Blum thinks this was always one of the most difficult parts or decisions in an expedition. (25:09) "There was a lot of competition to be in the first summit team"	Summit Politics		

(37:27) Blum took, however, the decision who would go to the summit and same team members had strong objections. No consensus could be reached, so she took the decision based on her impression who the strongest climbers were. (37:50)	Summit Politics		Authority
"I think this was nothing done by the team itself."	Summit Politics		
"This is very decisive, especially on Everest itself."	Summit Politics		
First the physically fittest go in front to prepare and often then also get the first summit push. (40:56)	Summit Politics		
You always need to be transparent and communicate; especially if there is a change in plans. Do not try to build or communicate anything behind the back of the others.	Summit Politics	open communication	
He tells a story where he was too soft and allowed a team member to participate on the Summit push. The team member then hardly managed to come down again because of exhaustion, which Kobler thought was available if he hadn´t given it.	Summit Politics	Decision was too soft is not in the interest of the client	
Lhotse experience. On how a new idea was introduced by a team member. Go together. Everybody summited.	Summit Politics	Innovation - new approach to summit	
So, but going back to the question. I finally decided, we had a long talk, a conversation with the Sherpas. But we'll have to fix the ropes [=more and harder work, then you have off earlier] or we can go last on the twenty-sixth (…) "We'll go first!" And so, we went first.	Summit Politics	Distributed leadership	
With him throwing his (Bonington) weight around as the senior member of the party. And as you know, we went to attempt a peak at the last minute; at the eleventh hour, on very slender means. But you know, we felt, 'This is the kind of adventure we came for!' And I felt rather that Bonington was trying to hold us back.	Summit Politics	powerplay young and old	

Nairz went to the summit himself	Summit Politics	summit shall be reached by a team member. For the expedition leader himself it is not a priority or right to summit	
Kobler usually also went on the summit.	Summit Politics	summit shall be reached by a team member. For the expedition leader himself it is not a priority or right to summit	
Dyhrenfurth is against the fact that the expedition leader himself has summit ambitions.	Summit Politics	summit shall be reached by a team member. For the expedition leader himself it is not a priority or right to summit	
There was a discussion whether the daring and new route on Everest [a traverse] should be chosen first or the "natural route". Dyhrenfurth resisted the protests and insisted to go on the normal route first and thus leave a successful US Everest climb and then do the traverse.	Summit Politics	priority of expedition is to reach the summit	Authority
"We didn´t have a chance to climb Everest anymore. The normal route was done. And I have also given the Sherpas a vote. She was very upset that I had given the Sherpas a vote. [Yvette Vaucher was very upset. Her goal was to be the first woman to climb Everest.]"	Summit Politics	Powerplay; Inclusion	

Table 36: Filtering categories