Australian National University

Collaborative Leadership within the National Security Community

A Literature Review

Eliane Coates

National Security College Occasional Paper
No 2 November 2011

A joint initiative of the Commonwealth Government and The Australian National University

National Library of Australia Cataloguing-in-Publication entry

Author: Coates, Eliane.

Title: Collaborative Leadership within the National Security Community [electronic resource]: a Literature Review / Eliane Coates.

ISBN: 9780987221025 (ebook)

Series: National Security College occasional paper; 2.

Notes: Includes bibliographical references.

Subjects: National security.

Political leadership.

Other Authors/Contributors:
Australian National University. National Security College.

Dewey Number: 355.033

Editors: Dr David Connery
Ms Cathy McCullagh

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Published and distributed by:
National Security College
Building 69, 5 Liversidge St
Australian National University, Acton
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T: (02) 6125 6480
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W: http://nsc.anu.edu.au/

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Rodger Shanahan of the Lowy Institute for International Policy for his continual guidance throughout this project. Thanks are also due to Dr. David Connery of the National Security College and Jaimie Cullens of the Australian Defence College for their ever helpful advice.

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CONTENTS

OVERVIEW

The concept of collaborative leadership has attracted considerable scholarship, particularly within the private sector. This literature review, however, focuses on collaborative leadership in the public policy sphere and, in certain cases, its application to the national security community. The aim is to provide, through selected references to prominent leadership literature, a comprehensive overview of existing knowledge on the way collaborative leadership is both understood and practised within the public policy sphere.

The review initially outlines how the concept of collaborative leadership has developed before examining which sectors have most readily adopted the concept. The review then analyses the various elements that have both assisted and blocked its adoption. Despite most scholarship on the concept of collaborative leadership focusing on its beneficial nature as an organisational structure, the review also considers literature that examines the limitations of the concept. International examples of curricula developed to teach collaborative leadership are also examined briefly. Lastly, this review provides a selection of case studies, including Australia's Border Protection Command, and the intelligence sector in both Australia and the United States (US), to illustrate

collaborative leadership both within Australia and internationally.

HOW COLLABORATIVE LEADERSHIP HAS DEVELOPED

Literature on leadership has often been described as contradictory and, at best, fragmented.[1] To effectively examine the development of the concept of collaborative leadership, it is first important to define the term. According to O'Leary et al., collaboration means to 'co-labour, to achieve common goals, often working across boundaries and in multi-sector and multi-actor relationships.'[2] The concept emphasises trust, reciprocity, mutuality, drawing on dispersed knowledge, and the importance of developing and maintaining horizontal relationships. Wanna explains that the word 'collaboration' originally came into use in the nineteenth century, as a result of industrialisation, the emergence of more complex organisations, the division of labour, and

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1 M. M. Chemers, 'An Integrative Theory of Leadership' in *Leadership Theory and Research – Perspectives and Directions,* Martin M. Chemers and Roya Ayman (eds.), Academic Press, San Diego, 1993, p. 293.

2 R. O'Leary, B. Gazley, M. McGuire, L. B. Bingham, 'Public Managers in Collaboration' in *The Collaborative Public Manager*, Rosemary O'Leary, Beth Gazley, Martin McGuire, Lisa B. Bingham (eds.), Georgetown University Press, Washington DC, 2009, p. 3.

the increase in tasks.[3] Agranoff and McGuire argue that collaborative structures are interdependent and 'can be formal or informal, and they are typically inter-sectoral, intergovernmental, and based functionally in a specific policy or policy area.' [4] The breadth of settings and concepts involved in analysing collaborative leadership might help to explain fragmented nature of the literature.

Fragmentation continues into practice because the organisational structure that fosters collaborative leadership rarely grants authority to one manager across the sector as a whole. Instead, each organisational manager or representative retains their authority and manages collaboratively within the team setting. Indeed, the concept of collaborative leadership has been defined in much of the literature using characteristics such as negotiation, mediation, consensus-building, as well as members' promoting dialogue, having shared appreciations, undertaking participatory engagement and deliberative democracy, and possessing the ability to re-frame issues and develop new combinations of actions.[5] Mandell and Keast argue that 'the key element is recognition that leadership in collaborative networks is

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3 J. Wanna, 'Collaborative Government: Meanings, Dimensions, Drivers, and Outcomes' in *Collaborative Governance – A New Era of Public Policy For Australia?*, Janine O'Flynn, John Wanna (eds.), The ANU E Press, Canberra, 2008, p. 3.

4 R. Agranoff, M. McGuire, 'Managing in Network Settings', *Policy Studies Review,* vol. 16, no. 1, Spring 1999, pp. 20–21.

5 O'Flynn & Wanna, *Collaborative Governance*, p. xii.

about focusing on the processes of building a new whole rather than primarily focusing on more efficient ways to deliver services.'[6] The literature also draws attention to the many labels of collaborative leadership: cooperative leadership, collaborative public management, network governance/leadership, team collaboration, interagency relations, integrative negotiation, team/group leadership, change management, inclusive governance, horizontal collaboration, whole-of-government integration, collaborative behaviour, cross-sector leadership, and non-hierarchical management (to name many).

The concept of collaborative leadership initially stemmed from the private sector where it informed business administration for several decades. In theory, greater collaborative leadership in the private setting led to increased participation, dialogue and deliberation, leading to greater efficacy, and thus more desirable results. While the commercial sector remains one of, if not the key proponent of collaborative infrastructure and management, there is now a body of literature concerning collaborative leadership emerging in the public sector too.

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6 M. P. Mandell, R. Keast, 'A New Look at Leadership in Collaborative Networks: Process Catalysts' in *Public Sector Leadership – International Challenges and Perspectives*, Jeffrey A. Raffel, Peter Leisink, Anthony E. Middlebrooks (eds.), Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, 2009, p. 166.

Judging from the recent increase in literature focusing on the importance of collaborative leadership in the public sector, this concept appears to be a relatively new phenomenon. Kettl argues that 'the most important change in administrative functioning over this past century has been increasing interdependence among public organisations, which has changed the jobs of public administrators, who must now build critical linkages with other agencies.'[7] Mandell and Keast assert that 'over time there has been a shift in the theorising and practice of leadership such that it no longer emphasises the properties of individuals or organisations but recognises the growing interaction and interdependence between people and the various contributions that can be made by diverse members.'[8]

There are also debates within the literature over why the concepts of collaborative behaviour and cross-sector leadership have only recently emerged as effective strategies in the public policy arena. One view argues that the information age has been the fundamental stepping stone in the development of collaborative leadership: 'Just as the hierarchical organisation

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[7] D. F. Kettl, 'Governing at the Millennium' in *Handbook of Public Administration*, James L. Perry (ed.), 2nd edn., Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1996 cited in M. McGuire, 'Collaborative Public Management: Assessing What We Know and How We Know It', *Public Administration Review,* December 2006, p. 34.

[8] Mandell & Keast, 'A New Look at Leadership in Collaborative Networks', p. 167.

emerged during the agricultural age and bureaucracy was the dominant form of organisation during the industrial age, the nascent information age has given rise to permeable structures in which people can link across organisational functions and boundaries.'[9] While another perspective agrees that collaborative leadership is a recent development; this approach contends that this is less connected to the growth of the network age and linked more to the increasingly complex issues, such as climate change and terrorism, that confront current governments and challenge their traditional bureaucracies. Taken together, both views have confirmed a clear transformation in leadership away from the vertical integration systems of conventional government organisations to a more adaptable and collaborative organisational infrastructure.[10]

A considerable portion of the research concerning the development of collaborative leadership takes for granted the alleged contemporary nature of the inter-sector management phenomenon. However, other work has sought to demonstrate that collaborative leadership in the public sector has been practised for many decades, with suggestions that this field was strongest in Anglo-American nations that have undergone public

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9 McGuire, 'Collaborative Public Management', p. 34.

10 C. Alter, J. Hage, *Organizations Working Together*, Sage Publications, Newbury Park, 1993, p. 70.

management reform.[11] In these administrative systems, it has been suggested that collaborative leadership is only the next 'wave' of public sector reform 'after hierarchy, managerialism, "new public management", outsourcing and market delivery.' [12] This view sees collaborative leadership as part of a continuum of change, where bureaucracy is moving from being hierarchical, separated, specialized and inwardly-focused towards a system that is flexible, responsive and efficient.

Collaborative leadership is also seen as inherent to successful policy implementation, with this line of thinking dating back to the 1970's work of Pressman and Wildavsky.[13] Hjern and Porter go further in highlighting specific international examples of implementation structures that used collaborative infrastructure to encourage group management and leadership by representatives of different agencies.[14] Hjern, Hanf and Porter report that 'collaborative structures used to implement manpower training in Germany and Sweden during the 1970s were characterised at that time by multiple power centers with reciprocal relationships,

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11 McGuire, 'Collaborative Public Management', p. 33.

12 Wanna, 'Collaborative Government', p. 7.

13 J. L. Pressman, A. Wildavsky, *Implementation*, University of California Press, Berkeley,1973; cited in McGuire, 'Collaborative Public Management: Assessing What We Know and How We Know It', *Public Administration Review*, December 2006, p. 35.

14 B. Hjern, D. O Porter, 'Implementation Structures: A New Unit of Administrative Analysis', *Organization Studies*, vol. 2, no. 3, 1981, pp. 220–33.

many suppliers of resources, overlapping and dynamic divisions of labor, diffused responsibility for actions, massive information exchanges among actors, and the need for information input from all actors.' [15] Wanna observes that, in Australia, collaborative leadership was most prominent during the postwar period when governments believed in Keynesian planning, and infrastructure projects such as the Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme which involved 'multiple government, inter-jurisdictional cooperation and shared commitments', were initiated.[16]

COLLABORATIVE LEADERSHIP IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR

Despite rarely being labelled 'collaborative leadership', the literature concerning the private sector explains the fundamental characteristics of the concept as essential factors in successful mergers, acquisitions, and joint ventures.

Characteristics of collaborative leadership adopted by the private sector are generally driven by goals of comparative advantage and the production of higher

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15 K. Hanf, B. Hjern, D.O. Porter, 'Local Networks of Manpower Training in the Federal Republic of Germany and Sweden', in *Interorganizational Policy Making: Limits to Coordination and Central Control*, Kenneth Hanf, Fritz W. Scharpf (eds.), Sage Publications, London, 1978, pp. 303–341.

16 Wanna, 'Collaborative Government', p. 5.

profit margins. In addition to these, Heckscher also identified other reasosn, which include companies which are 'paying increasing attention to cross-firm business systems linking them to allies and competitors' and 'thinking actively about their interdependencies with others and seeking to manage those relationships.'[17]

At the same time as leveraging one another's strengths, companies are able to share the risks of entering new markets through joint ventures. Indeed, encouraging greater horizontal integration and less hierarchical management allows multiple agencies to contribute assets such as knowledge and resources. Both the global auto industry and IT corporations are well known in the private sector for their frequent joint ventures, mergers, and acquisitions, of which all entail aspects of collaborative leadership. The acquisition by of AT&T Broadband Comcast Corp., the largest provider of telephone and broadband services in the US, is one of many examples in which post-merger integration strategies were vital to ensure a successful acquisition.[18] Yet, despite the success of many IT mergers and acquisitions, Bourgeois et al. provide a detailed examination of the 'difficulties companies face in

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17 C. Heckscher, *The Collaborative Enterprise- Managing Speed and Complexity in Knowledge-Based Businesses*, Yale University Press, New Haven and London, 2007, p. 168.

18 L. J. Bourgeois, N. Goodman, J. O. Wynne Jr., 'Comcast Corporation's Merger with AT&T Broadband', *Harvard Business Review*, 2004 (online issue).

integrating senior-management teams with different management styles and companies with different cultures.'[19]

Collaborative leadership has also taken hold within the auto industry. In one example, the French car manufacturer Renault was forced to rescue its Japanese counterpart, Nissan, during the Asian financial crisis. Collaborative leadership was described in this instance as essential to their effort to 'jointly develop vehicle platforms' for new models. This way of working provided the companies a considerable competitive advantage, allowed them to control more technologies and research, and inevitably helped them to cut costs in doing so.[20] Labelled 'platform sharing' in the auto industry, research has shown that the benefits of collaborative leadership are not only confined to the auto industry, but are also shared by the customer, as cooperation between carmakers [generally produces] lower car prices.[21]

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19 Ibid.

20 'Platform Sharing: Who Wins From the "Same Same But Different" Manufacturing Trend?' *Knowledge @ Australian School of Business*, p. 1 (online).

21 Ibid., p. 1.

SOME CHALLANGES OF ADOPTING COLLABORATIVE LEADERSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

John Wanna argues there are three areas that drive collaborative leadership in the public sector.[22] External drivers include the pressures of globalisation, greater international interconnectedness, community demands, the push to develop world markets, and the rise of transnational issues which can no longer be managed internally.[23] The increasing importance of think tanks in policy formulation, and of charities and firms to provide more integrated services, has also significantly assisted the adoption of collaborative leadership.[24]

Internal drivers within government include the 'political demands for public officials to be "responsive" to community needs' and the push to adopt 'flexible budgetary frameworks and the managerial focus on outcomes and performance results'.[25] The third area includes volition factors from the government. This encompasses 'political strategies for shared goals and understanding of problems across the community' with the public commitment to new performance-reporting

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22 Wanna, 'Collaborative Government', p. 8.
23 Ibid., p. 8.
24 Ibid., p. 7.
25 Ibid., p. 8.

regimes underscoring these strategies.[26] Wanna notes that 'policy makers began to recognise new dependencies, the role of extensive policy networks in implementation and the need to reach out to other bodies with interests in shared outcomes.' [27] Despite these drivers, there are numerous elements that have hampered the adoption of collaborative leadership in the public sector.

Bryson et al. describe various organisational issues which, they argue, have effectively thwarted a restructuring of the public sector to encompass collaborative leadership.[28] One of these is organisational 'self-interest'. Collaborative leadership can often be viewed as a dismantling of the bureaucratic structure, inevitably 'reducing rules, levels, and job boundaries' and thus creating a less structured bureaucratic model.[29] Allred et al. assert that 'entrenched defensive practices, as well as organisational structures and cultures perpetuate inter-firm and inter-organisational conflict and stifle collaboration.'[30] Moreover, efforts to remove these

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26 Ibid.
27 Ibid.
28 J. M. Bryson, B. C. Crosby, M. M. Stone, 'The Design and Implementation of Cross-Sector Collaborations: Propositions from the Literature', *Public Administration Review*, December 2006.
29 Heckscher, *The Collaborative Enterprise*, p. 25.
30 C.R. Allred, S.E. Fawcett, C. Wallin, G. M. Magnan, 'A Dynamic Collaboration Capability as a Source of Competitive Advantage', *Dynamic Sciences*, vol. 42, no. 1, February 2011, p. 151.

organisational barriers, such as aligning goals and metrics, improving information-sharing, and investing in greater education on the benefits of collaborative leadership, are isolated and seldom embraced holistically.

Much of the literature on collaborative leadership also notes the philosophical barriers that have blocked the adoption of collaborative leadership in some instances, describing it as resource-consuming and often painful. Two authors even advise readers that 'unless potential for real collaborative advantage is clear, it is generally best, if there is a choice, to avoid collaboration.'[31] They write of practical difficulties faced by managers who must agree common aims, build shared understanding, and ultimately manage trust and power relationships with partners who they may not know well. They describe the problem of 'partnership fatigue', which develops from constant collaborations and the effort required to sustain these.[32]

Not only are there organisational and philosophical issues that discourage collaborative leadership in the public sector. Personal issues such as tension, rivalry,

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31 C. Huxham, S. Vangen, 'Doing Things Collaboratively: Realizing the Advantage or Succumbing to Inertia?' in *Collaborative Governance – A New Era of Public Policy For Australia?*, Janine O'Flynn, John Wanna (eds.), The ANU E Press, Canberra, 2008, p. 42.

32 Ibid., p. 36.

and competition for influence, which many argue are inherent within government departments and agencies, also act as inhibiting factors. Allred et al. argue that 'strong functional orientations can instill counterproductive behaviour as "specialists" pursue their own goals to the exclusion of other concerns because they are rewarded on disparate metrics and operate with distinct reporting structures.'[33] While Sharfman, Gray and Yan found that both the institutions and competitive environments of the public sector helped stimulate the partnerships essential for collaborative leadership, they also noted that this tension quickly became a restraining force that hindered the concept's sustainability.[34]

Trust, an imperative component in consensus-building and a key feature of collaborative leadership, is often difficult to build in these environments. Vangen and Huxham examine the continuous effort required to sustain sufficient levels of trust in nurturing successful collaborative relations.[35] They argue that 'trust cannot be built in isolation of any other key variables' and that 'trust-building requires investment of time and careful

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33 Allred et al., 'A Dynamic Collaboration Capability as a Source of Competitive Advantage', p. 132.

34 M .P. Sharfman, B. Gray, A. Yan, 'The Context of Interorganizational Collaboration in the Garment Industry: An Institutional Perspective', *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, vol. 27, no. 2, 1991, pp. 181–208.

35 S. Vangen, C. Huxham, 'Nurturing Collaborative Relations: Building Trust in Interorganizational Collaboration', *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, vol. 39, no. 5, 2003.

consideration of the key issues including the management of purpose, power imbalances, credit sharing, [and] the need for leadership while not allowing anyone to "take over".' [36] They draw attention to the difficulty that both power relationships and credit recognition pose to collaborative initiatives, asserting that 'practitioners argue for the need to deal with power differences so as to minimize interagency hostility and mistrust, and they use phrases such as "power games" and "power struggles" which suggest that power issues are frequently seen to be problematic.'[37]

BENEFITS AND LIMITATIONS OF COLLABORATIVE LEADERSHIP

Literature focused on collaborative leadership generally presented the concept in positive terms; few studies measure the impact of the concept on program outcomes.[38] Instead, collaborative leadership is often presented as a new concept that almost always has desirable outcomes in the public policy sector. As McGuire notes, 'many studies, perhaps wrongly in some cases, equate the presence of collaboration with the success of a program without adequate empirical

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[36] Ibid., p. 8.
[37] Ibid., p. 13.
[38] See O'Flynn & Wanna, *Collaborative Governance*, p. 3.

verification.'[39] Yet the benefits of collaborative leadership are still considered wide-ranging. These often include benefits in terms of dealing with complexity, improving resource efficiency, and enhancing coordination and creativity.

Often adopted by the public sector as a strategy to address ongoing and complex issues, collaborative leadership allows policymakers to 'identify and target problems and achieve stakeholder agreement or acceptance of directions and decisions.'[40] Mandell and Keast demonstrate the importance of driving this model of leadership which 'reduces duplication and overlap of services, maximizes increasingly scarce resources and contributes to solving intractable problems' through better decision-making processes, often leading to superior outcomes. [41] Wanna observes that collaborative leadership can spawn 'new organisational and interactive forums — from dedicated task forces to reference groups and advisory bodies, or from new authorities and policy forums to new intergovernmental bodies.'[42]

Moreover, Allred et al. argue that collaborative leadership provides a model of how best to configure resources

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39 McGuire, 'Collaborative Public Management', p. 33.
40 Wanna, 'Collaborative Government', p. 9.
41 Mandell & Keast, 'A New Look at Leadership in Collaborative Networks', p. 163.
42 Wanna, 'Collaborative Government', p. 9.

across organisational boundaries.[43] Unlike many studies of collaborative leadership, they empirically evaluate the concept and its evolution through two cross-sectional, multi-method experiments over a six-year period. For these authors, collaborative leadership is achievable only if a company's resources are configured in a way that maximises its competitive potential, and fosters unique capabilities and competitive advantage amongst firms.[44] Based on the results of their experiments, Allred et al. argue that collaborative leadership and team decision processes 'lead to more balance in decision making and fewer disruptions in supply processes.' [45] Thus they emphasise the importance of collaboration capability for coordination, as processes that are more collaborative often lead to participants learning 'more about each others' value-added contributions [and building] relationships of trust [so as to] begin to view colleagues from other areas and firms as resources rather than as competitors.'[46]

While the literature establishes the many benefits of collaborative leadership, other scholarship describes how it disrupts pre-existing government systems. These sources of disruption include organisational rivalry, goal

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43 Allred et al., 'A Dynamic Collaboration Capability as a Source of Competitive Advantage'.
44 Ibid., p. 131.
45 Ibid.
46 Ibid., p. 146.

incongruence, and cognitive challenges to effective analysis. Unless the potential for collaborative advantage is clear, the pursuit of collaborative leadership will often prove futile. Governments do not naturally exchange information or follow joint pursuits. Instead, relationships between sectors within the public sphere can be characterised by rivalry, tension, and competition for influence. Legislative requirements such as privacy and security classifications can also impede information sharing. Participants are sometimes unaware of the nature of linkages and, more often than not, unequal amounts of power are distributed within the group. Cross-sector integration can often reduce ministers' interest in an initiative as they ask why they should 'volunteer to extend their political accountabilities, especially when they are likely to have less control over the outcomes.'[47] Moreover, teams can fail to agree on common aims and, as a result, trust and consensus-building may not emerge.[48]

Despite acknowledging the inherent importance of collaborative leadership for successful policy implementation, Pressman and Wildavsky note the fundamental complexity of joint action and leadership and

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47 Wanna, 'Collaborative Government', p. 9.

48 C. Huxham, 'Theorizing Collaboration Practice', *Public Management Review*, vol. 5, no. 3, 2003, pp. 401–23.

the 'multiplicity of participants and perspectives from all levels of government pursuing policy goals that, in practice, may be conflicting.' [49] Goal incongruence, especially among members of a supply chain, can often cause inter-organisational conflict and lead to 'dysfunctional behavior, frequent disagreement, and frustration.'[50] Poor performance by a government agency can also hurt the network as a whole.[51] Indeed, Keast et al. assert that the way governments traditionally conduct business essentially contradicts the operation of collaborative structures.[52]

The potential for groupthink to develop within collaborative partnerships illustrates a second critical limitation of the concept that is often omitted from the literature. Janis' research into groupthink uses psychological perspectives to examine and explain political and bureaucratic decision-making and leadership. Janis describes groupthink as 'a mode of thinking that people engage in when they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, when the members'

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49 Pressman & Wildavsky in McGuire, 'Collaborative Public Management', p. 35.

50 Allred et al., 'A Dynamic Collaboration Capability as a Source of Competitive Advantage', p. 132.

51 S. Goldsmith, W. D. Eggers, *Governing by Network: The New Shape of the Public Sector,* Brookings Institute Press, Washington D.C., 2004.

52 R. Keast, M. P. Mandell, K. Brown, G. Woolcock, 'Network Structures: Working Differently and Changing Expectations', *Public Administration Review*, vol. 64, no. 3, 2004, pp. 363–71.

strivings for unanimity override their motivation to realistically appraise alternative course[s] of action.'[53] Coupled with increased levels of integrative management and new cohesive behaviour is the frequent concern that the characteristics of groupthink will emerge and efforts to pursue vertical integration will begin to suffer. T'Hart argues that, when groupthink predominates, group members believe in the invulnerability of the group, producing closed-mindedness and the exertion of direct pressure on dissenters.[54] These changes also extend to the generation of pressures toward uniformity and self-censorship.[55]

TEACHING COLLABORATIVE LEADERSHIP: DEBATES AND CURRICULA

Research suggests that, over the last two and a half decades, there has been a growing body of literature on curricula developed to teach collaborative leadership. While numerous leadership development programs exist in American colleges and universities, often within postgraduate degrees such as a Masters of Public Administration, according to one prominent *Journal of Public Affairs Education* article, the growing importance of cross-sector collaboration has demanded the

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53 I. L. Janis, *Groupthink,* Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1982, p. 9.
54 P. t'Hart, 'Irving L. Janis' Victims of Groupthink', *Political Psychology,* vol. 12, no. 2, June 1991, p. 259.
55 Ibid., p. 259.

transformation and adaptation of these programs to 'prepare students to meet the changes and challenges of contemporary public service provision.' [56] Given the changing landscape of the public sector, students of public administration and leadership can no longer solely be trained to function within a hierarchical bureaucracy. O'Leary et al. argue that, in order to encourage horizontal integration, public managers and administrators need to:

> combine many different disciplines; they need a synthesis of what we are learning not only in public affairs but also in political science, social psychology, organisational behaviour, and communications. They need to combine management skills with network theory, negotiation theory, and institutional theory to inform practice. They need to practice public policy dispute resolution, stakeholder processes, and civil engagement. They need to operate within public law's frameworks for collaboration. They need to understand collaborative governance at the local, regional, state, national, and transnational levels.[57]

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[56] S. R. Smith, 'The Increased Complexity of Public Services: Curricular Implications for Schools of Public Affairs', *Journal of Public Affairs Education,* vol. 14, no. 2, 2008, p. 115.

[57] R. O'Leary, L. Blomgren Bingham, Y. Choi., 'Teaching Collaborative Leadership: Ideas and Lessons for the Field', *Journal of Public Affairs Education,* vol. 16, no. 4, April 7–9, 2010, p. 567.

Some areas of the literature propose the development of a core curriculum to expose students to the basic theories of collaboration to assist them to operate effectively as professionals. Despite the substantial body of research and curricula on how best to teach collaborative capabilities 'within the fields of negotiation, conflict resolution, conflict management, and participatory democracy', O'Leary et al. argue that there is a fundamental need to redesign the field of public administration training (See Annex A).[58]

While elements of the literature note the importance of developing a core curriculum, other scholars in this field convey the challenge instructors face in trying to teach students through concepts, models and theories while, at the same time, realising that collaborative leadership is a concept best understood through actual experience.[59] Understanding what it takes to exercise successful collaborative leadership across sector boundaries, many practitioners argue, is only achievable through experiential learning.[60]

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58 Ibid., p. 570.

59 T. A. Flynn, J. R. Sandfort, S.C. Selden, 'A Three-Dimensional Approach to Learning in Public Management', *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management,* vol. 20, no. 3, Summer 2001, pp. 551–64.

60 C. S. Horne, T. V. Paris, 'Preparing MPA Students to Succeed in Government-Nonprofit Collaboration: Lessons from the Field', *Journal of Public Affairs Education,* vol. 16, no. 1, 2009, p. 27.

The Maxwell School of Syracuse University and its Collaborative Governance Initiative is a key example of an attempt to further education in collaborative leadership. Offering graduate courses in collaboration, negotiation, facilitation, and mediation since 2006, the School is, according to the *Public Administration Review,* significantly ahead of other initiatives in this field in producing 'a number of innovations aimed at promoting new knowledge and understanding of collaborative public management' and offering conferences for scholars and practitioners of collaborative public management to exchange ideas.[61] In the Maxwell School's Executive Leadership course, for example, students are expected, among other requirements, to 'design a collaborative network with the necessary players at the table; structure governance for a collaborative group; negotiate ethnically to best leverage resources; facilitate meetings of a network; [and] manage conflict among network members.'[62]

Although not targeted specifically at the public policy sphere, programs such as the Collaborative Leadership Fellows Program of the University of Minnesota offer courses which focus on teaching specific collaborative

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61 R. O'Leary, C. Gerard, L. Blomgren Bingham, 'Introduction to the Symposium on Collaborative Public Management', *Public Administration Review,* December 2006, p. 8.

62 O'Leary, Blomgren Bingham, Choi, 'Teaching Collaborative Leadership', p. 565.

skill sets, such as methods to multi-sector network, and how to apply these new skills to complex community issues.[63] Initiated in 2007, this program was designed by key stakeholders from local government, the funding community, businesses, and non-profit organisations, and aims to enhance community capacity for multi-sector solutions to community issues.

EXAMPLES OF COLLABORATIVE LEADERSHIP APPLIED TO THE NATIONAL SECURITY SECTOR IN AUSTRALIA AND OVERSEAS

The following section addresses three cases of successful and unsuccessful applications of collaborative leadership both within Australia and internationally. While emergency management and disaster mitigation case studies are most often used in the literature as the first examples of collaborative leadership within Australia,[64] and the National Security Committee of Cabinet is espoused as a successful example of collaborative leadership. [65] The following case studies comprise examples of effective collaborative leadership exercised within Australia's Border Protection Command, as well as

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63 Collaborative Leadership Fellows Program Website, University of Minnesota Rochester (online).

64 W. K. Waugh Jr., G. Streib, 'Collaboration and Leadership for Effective Emergency Management', *Public Administration Review,* December 2006.

65 See D. Connery, *Crisis Policymaking: Australia and the East Timor Crisis of 1999*, ANU E-press, Canberra, 2010, pp. 6-9.

both successful and unsuccessful cases of collaborative leadership within the intelligence community in Australia and the US.

Border Protection Command

The multi-agency task force known as Border Protection Command (BPC) is the Australian government's key organisation for security response in the Australian maritime domain and a leading example of successful collaborative leadership within Australia's national security community. The ability to draw officers from a number of Commonwealth, State and Territory government agencies, close partnerships with the private sector, and high levels of interagency collaboration and liaison allow BPC to fulfill its role as the chief agency for the maintenance of offshore maritime security. Despite the fact that there is little literature on Australia's BPC, notwithstanding information provided on its official website and various public addresses by its senior leaders, there is sufficient information available to indicate that collaborative leadership has proven particularly successful in the functioning of this organisation.

Originally the role of the Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) and Royal Australian Navy (RAN), civil surveillance of Australia's borders began in the early

1960s. In the late 1970s, however, with issues such as illegal immigration, people smuggling, and foreign fishing vessel activity on the rise, Australia pursued a closer and more coordinated civil surveillance effort led by the Department of Transport which was responsible for coastal surveillance at the time. Following the release of the 2004 Taskforce and Offshore Maritime Security report (the Tonkin Report), the Joint Offshore Protection Command (JOPC) was created and, on 30 March 2005, renamed BPC to 'better reflect the organisation's maritime surveillance and response role'.[66]

The BPC consists of personnel drawn from the Australian Customs and Border Protection Service and Australian Defence Force (ADF), with embedded liaison officers from the Australian Fisheries Management Authority and Australian Quarantine and Inspection Service. Headed by a RAN officer of two-star rank, and supported by two Customs and Border Protection officers and a Deputy ADF Commander, the Commanding Officer of BPC is accountable to the Minister for Justice and Customs and the Minister for Defence, and responds to a Joint Directive issued by the Chief Executive Officer of the Australian Customs and Border Protection Service and the Chief of the Defence Force (See Annex B). BPC also

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[66] Australian Government, 'Border Protection Command, History/Overview', available www.bpc.gov.au, accessed 27 January 2011.

responds to the Strategic Maritime Management Committee (SMMC) which provides 'high level whole-of-government policy and strategic direction with regard to Australia's maritime security, and advises the National Security Committee of Cabinet, through the Secretaries' Committee on National Security, on appropriate responses to maritime security threats.'[67]

Despite what appears to be a particularly formal, organised, and hierarchical public organisation, the critical cross-sector linkages and whole-of-government multi-agency approach adopted by BPC indicates that it has built the foundations of collaborative leadership into its organisational infrastructure. These interagency arrangements allow BPC to act as a central operations and intelligence centre for maritime security and encourage a combining of resources and intelligence from all four agencies. BPC is able to fuse information and intelligence from multiple sources as well as draw on resources from both Customs and Border Protection marine and aviation units and ADF ships, aircraft and other surveillance and response assets. Furthermore, BPC's routine coordination with sixteen Commonwealth, State and Territory government agencies creates a 'platform to develop counterterrorism policies, legislation,

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[67] K. Downs, 'Border Protection Command', *United Service,* vol. 60, no. 4, December 2009, p. 13.

plans and prevention strategies at a national level.'[68]

It is important to highlight that BPC also conducts regular liaison with foreign government agencies such as the Timor-Leste Defence Force, the Solomon Islands Police and the Indonesian Maritime Security Coordinating Board. This interaction also extends to regional and international inter-governmental bodies including the ASEAN Regional Forum Maritime Security Shore Exercises, the Council for Security Cooperation in the Asia-Pacific, the International Maritime Organisation and the Regional Cooperation Agreement on Combating Piracy and Armed Robbery against Ships in Asia.[69]

The Flood Report and Collaboration in Australian Intelligence

The July 2004 report of the inquiry into Australian intelligence agencies (the Flood Report) examined many of the oversight mechanisms and divisions of labour within Australia's intelligence agencies.[70] Importantly, Flood analysed the current state of integration and cooperation between the agencies, signalling one of few examples of collaborative leadership within Australia's

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68 Australian Government, 'Border Protection Command Fact Sheet — Maritime Terrorism', p. 2, available www.bpc.gov.au, accessed 27 January 2011.

69 Downs, 'Border Protection Command', p. 16.

70 P. Flood, *Report of the Inquiry into Australia's Intelligence Agencies*, Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet, July 2004.

national security sector. Despite the fact that there is little overlap between Australia's intelligence collection agencies, Flood noted the existence of 'grey' areas in which 'their respective roles are less clear, and where a collaborative approach is vital to avoid conflict or duplication.'[71]

Flood reported, however that, since 2003, there has been greater integrative behaviour amongst the Australian Intelligence Community (AIC). He noted that, from 2004, Australia's technical intelligence agencies, the Defence Imagery and Geospatial Organisation (DIGO) and the Defence Signals Directorate (DSD), have been working collaboratively on an assignment to examine the benefits of signals and imagery intelligence fusion, which involves 'imagery and geospatial analysts working alongside signals intelligence analysts to address common intelligence problems.'[72] Moreover, according to Flood, technological advances have allowed the Australian Secret Intelligence Service (ASIS) and other members of the national security community to find a common ground, thus providing encouraging empirical evidence for potential future collaborative leadership within Australia's security community.

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[71] Ibid., p. 71.
[72] Ibid., p. 71.

The Flood Report also paid special attention to the degree of collaborative leadership between Australia's AIC and the ADF. Deployed liaison officers with operational headquarters, Flood argues, fulfill a vital function in support of ADF operations.[73] Because liaison officers typically have electronic reach-back access to their home agencies, their interaction with the ADF is critical to furthering collaboration and encouraging cross-sector cooperation between the AIC and ADF.

It is also essential to underline Flood's focus on interagency forums within AIC, the most prominent of which is the longstanding Heads of Intelligence Agency Meeting (HIAM). Created after the inception of the Office of National Intelligence (ONA) by ONA's first Director-General, 'the HIAM was designed as an informal meeting to facilitate ONA's role of cooperative oversight of the intelligence community.'[74] In this instance, not only was the cross-sector collaboration driven by senior leaders, it was also supported by attending deputy secretaries from the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DFAT), Defence members, and the Australian Federal Police (AFP) Commissioner. Those involved describe HIAM as 'a unifying and useful forum, not only for facilitating

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[73] Ibid., p. 74.
[74] Ibid., p. 82.

communication, but also as a mechanism for resolving intra-community difficulties and furthering cooperation.'[75]

Collaborative leadership within the AIC also extends to the collection agencies holding formal bilateral coordination meetings at six-monthly intervals. Their agendas, Flood reports, cover both 'management and operations issues', but more importantly, 'they provide an effective mechanism for resolving organisational conflicts not able to be resolved at more junior levels.'[76]

Furthermore, the creation within Defence of a dedicated Deputy Secretary Intelligence and Security, reveals a recognition within the AIC of the need for greater collaborative leadership within Australia's national security sector. Flood argues that the position promotes the Defence intelligence agencies and staffs as 'distinct parts of a team, working towards the same basic goals'.[77] Moreover, the creation of this role has facilitated greater inter-sector cooperation as it provides a point of reference for engagement with Defence capability and resource planning with other departments on wider and more overarching national security challenges for Australia's national security sector. Flood argeued,

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75 Ibid.
76 Ibid.
77 Ibid., p. 191.

however, that the position is not sufficiently resourced to complete its associated coordination tasks.[78]

Flood's final assessment is that communication and cooperation amongst senior leaders of the AIC is quite strong, and there is little evidence of dispute or competition between the agencies. More broadly, he argues that there is a changing relationship between ministers and the public service in which governments are adopting more collaborative behaviour and seeking to build more collaborative infrastructure, illustrated by the creation of HIAM and the position of Defence Deputy Secretary, Intelligence and Security. Flood asserts, however, that greater cross-sector interaction driven by senior leaders would improve the existing overlap between the agencies and avoid the consequences of inadequate coordination amongst agencies housed in separate portfolios.

Changes in Australia since the Flood Report, which included the creation of a National Intelligence Coordination Committee (NICC) and a central role for a National Security Adviser, have aimed to build on the existing base of intelligence collaboration and expand that method of operating across the widest possible range of agencies involved in intelligence collection and analysis.

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[78] Ibid., p. 131.

The US Intelligence Community: Responding to 9/11

Analysis by the National Commission on Terrorist Attacks Upon the United States ('9/11 Commission') and a lead US academic provide some evidence to demonstrate how the US intelligence community faced significant barriers to collaborative leadership before and after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 (known as '9/11'). Unlike many scholars who emphasise individual failures as partly responsible for 9/11, Amy Zegart provides some of the most comprehensive and insightful comments on systemic failures, highlighting the crucial intelligence shortcomings and the failure of US intelligence agencies to adapt their methods to counter al-Qa'ida.[79] Zegart argues that the fundamental decentralised structure of the US federal government, as well as the inherent self-interest among US intelligence agencies, has made cross-sector collaboration enormously difficult, providing key reasons for the failure of US intelligence agencies 'to adapt to the terrorist threat before September 11'.[80]

The Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) in particular, Zegart argues, was unable to undertake cross-sector collaboration and collaborative leadership due to the way it was originally designed. Some of these structural factors

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[79] A. Zegart, *Spying Blind – The CIA, the FBI, and the Origins of 9/11,* Princeton University Press, Princeton and Oxford, 2007.

[80] Ibid.*,* p. 59.

included the way its employees were divided between headquarters and the field, and how each field office was responsible for a specific geographic region. Moreover, because of the traditional nature of the US intelligence community its members 'naturally developed strong internal bonds of loyalty and identified with their home agencies rather than with the Intelligence Community as a whole.'[81] This feature the was visible in the CIA of the 1990s, when cross-sector transnational issues such as the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMDs) and terrorism demanded new heightened levels of horizontal integration and changed management. Other entrenched ways of organisational functioning and counter-productive incentives within the CIA, such as not being rewarded, or even evaluated, for working across agency lines, and instead being rewarded for the number of items published in the President's Daily Brief, have fuelled the lack of collaborative leadership within the CIA.

Furthermore, security concerns have also encouraged an increase in barriers to information-sharing and collaborative leadership within the US intelligence community. As the 9/11 Commission Report states, information was compartmentalised to deny its exposure to technologically sophisticated adversaries.[82] As a

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[81] Ibid., p. 67.

result, there were 'numerous restrictions on handling information and a deep suspicion about sending information over newfangled electronic systems, like email, to other agencies of the U.S. Government.'[83]

It is important to acknowledge that attempts were made to achieve greater agency cooperation, though to little avail. Following the rise of the terrorist threat, between 1994 and 1998 the CIA made 'some notable improvements in its counterterrorism efforts'.[84] These included launching a program to exchange senior counter-terrorism officials between the CIA and Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), developing better relationships with foreign intelligence services, and creating a special unit to track the activities of Osama bin Laden. Attempts to increase collaborative leadership in the intelligence community, however, were dismissed by the Pentagon and Defense oversight officials who succeeded in obstructing intelligence reform bills in both the House and the Senate.

Organisational deficiencies are not limited to the CIA. Zegart describes the weaknesses in organisational structure, culture, and incentives of the FBI, which

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82 National Commission on Terrorist Attacks Upon the United States, *9/11 Commission Report*, W. W. Norton & Company, New York and London, July 22, 2004, p. 91.

83 Ibid., pp. 91–2.

84 Zegart, *Spying Blind*, p. 77.

significantly impeded any attempts at collaborative leadership. Indeed, the 9/11 Commission report states that 'the poor state of the FBI's information systems meant that access [to the intelligence community information] depended in large part on an analyst's personal relationships with individuals in the operational units or squads where the information resided.'[85] Zegart asserts that 'the FBI was less a single agency than a system of fifty-six affiliated agencies, each of which set its own priorities, assigned its own personnel, ran its own cases, followed its own orders, and guarded its own information.' [86] This structure was well suited to law-enforcement priorities, but poorly designed for encouraging cross-sector collaboration on transnational issues such as counterterrorism. Information was compartmentalised in individual offices with few opportunities presented to share, or collaboratively assess, the information collected. Zegart notes the extent of the lack of communication between the intelligence agencies by highlighting that 'the FBI was considered so peripheral to intelligence that before 9/11, the attorney general did not receive the President's Daily Brief, the most important community-wide current intelligence report.' [87] Moreover, organisational elements such as 'bounded rationality, structural secrecy, and the liability of

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85 9/11 Commission Report, p. 77.
86 Zegart, *Spying Blind*, p. 123.
87 Ibid., p. 122.

time' proved debilitating to implementing effective collaborative leadership.[88]

While lack of information-sharing and the failure to pool analysis are often cited as reasons the 9/11 plot eventuated, other literature has argued that these failures point to an overarching issue of poor management and leadership within the US national security sector in dealing with transnational issues such as counter-terrorism. [89] More specifically, the 9/11 Commission Report argues that the key issues concerning the 9/11 terrorist attacks related to the processes of broader management and the ways in which managers set priorities and allocated resources.[90]

CONCLUSION

According to van Wart, the normative debate concerning the benefits and limitations of collaborative leadership has 'long since stopped producing useful insights in terms of leadership studies.' [91] While the idea of collaborative leadership has been active for a century, it has been argued that, until the 1980s, only partial and

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88 Ibid., p. 147.
89 9/11 Commission Report, p. 353.
90 Ibid., p. 357.
91 M. van Wart, 'Public-Sector Leadership Theory: An Assessment', *Public Administration Review*, vol. 63, no. 2, March /April 2003, p. 224.

simplistic approaches existed which contributed little to the overall understanding of leadership.[92]

Indeed, despite many of the elements of leadership gaining clearer understanding in more recent times, and the fact that much leadership literature uses public sector examples, van Wart argues that 'existing knowledge has not been integrated into distinctive public-sector leadership literature, nor has it focused specifically on the significant constraints and the unique environment of administrative leaders' within this field.[93] Nor does the existing research expand on the extent to which collaborative leadership is being pursued by organisations and agency leaders. McGuire asserts that further research is needed to understand the limitations of collaboration and 'what collaborative managers do when faced with an imbalance of power and influence among participants within a collaboration, [how] managers ensure accountability in collaborative settings, and [whether] collaborations in the public sector evolve over time, such that there is an identifiable cycle or sequence to their development.'[94]

Thus an awareness of the concept of collaborative leadership must be generated within the public sector so as to demonstrate its potential in areas such as

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92 Ibid.
93 Ibid.
94 McGuire, 'Collaborative Public Management', p. 40.

Australia's national security community. As Heckscher observes, this can only be achieved when sufficient development and implementation of infrastructure is able to bring '"horizontal", networked relationships to the foreground, or at least on an equal plane with the hierarchy.'[95]

[95] Heckscher, The Collaborative Enterprise, p. 140.

Annex A

STRUCTURAL COLLABORATION ENABLERS[96]

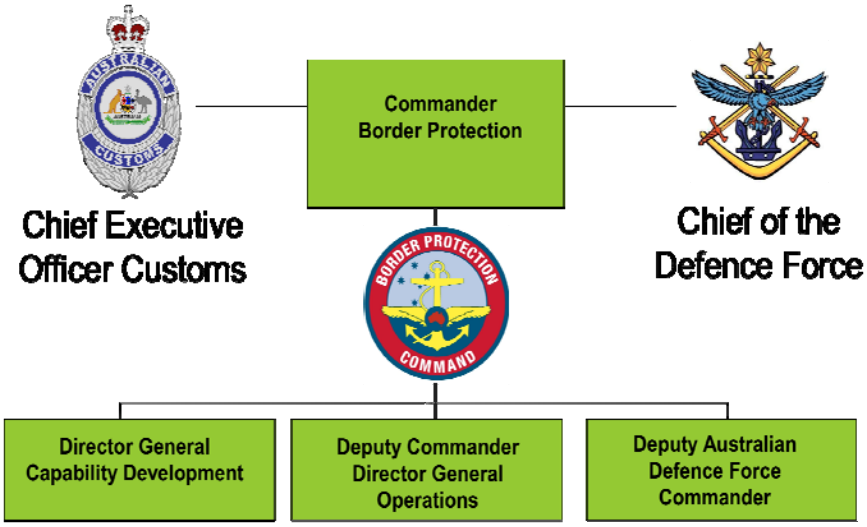
Table 6: Structural collaboration enablers used by interview companies.

Enabler	Role	Description
Collaboration strategy meetings	Define objectives and obtain buy-in for specific projects.	Key players meet together to define objectives, define the strategy, and establish key elements of the plan (e.g., activities, roles and responsibilities, milestones, measures). Each manager signs the document. A copy of the document is given to each manager. A copy may be posted to the company's Web site or displayed in a common area.
Executive steering committee	Prioritize and promote sustained collaboration.	Senior-level managers meet periodically with the specific task of identifying strategic priorities. Specific initiatives are prioritized according to their ability to help achieve strategic goals. The managers are then tasked with (i) removing obstacles to success, (ii) allocating the required resources, and (iii) providing visibility for the initiatives.
Collaboration workshops	Teach and learn about new collaborative tools.	Managers from across the organization (or the supply chain) come together for a short but concentrated time period to learn about new collaborative tools. Ideas are shared, documented benefits communicated, concerns raised, and commitment generated.
Cross-functional teams	Solve problems and implement initiatives.	Short-term teams created to solve specific problems, manage specific projects, or implement specific initiatives including but not limited to new product development, RFID implementation, supplier selection, supply chain mapping, and brainstorming resolutions to problems. Teaming is the most common structural enabler.
S&OP	Align expectations regarding demand and supply issues.	Brings the customer and supply sides of the organization together on a periodic and formal basis to plan operations to meet customer demand. The S&OP process forces managers to discuss strategies, confront realities, resolve discrepancies, and remove constraints so that the company's resources can be used to meet customer needs.
Supply chain advisory boards	Promote collaboration among SC members.	Advisory boards consist of key customers or suppliers and are tasked with evaluating potential collaborative initiatives. Act as sounding boards, sharing best practices and helping remove implementation barriers so that implementations can be streamlined. Board members are often used in pilot projects.
Co-located managers	Liaison to promote intense, long-term collaboration.	Locating employees on site at customers or suppliers to drive high-level interaction. Often used in conjunction with new product development or to participate in planning, forecasting, and ordering activities. Provides an inside view into a partner's culture and decision-making process.
"C"-suite SC executive	Executive-level integrator of ideas and resolver of conflicts.	Executive is responsible for value-added process from new product development to order fulfillment. Because marketing, logistics, production, sourcing, and engineering all report to the same executive, the blame game is mitigated and opportunities to work together to build better processes and deliver more value are easier to identify.

[96] Allred et al., 'A Dynamic Collaboration Capability as Source of Competitive Advantage', p. 152.

Annex B

AUSTRALIAN BORDER PROTECTION COMMAND ORGANISATIONAL CHART



Source: Australian Border Protection Command Website (online).

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