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I N T E R N A T I O N A L L E A D E R S H I P J O U R N A L

IN THIS ISSUE

ARTICLES

**General Employee Satisfaction, Corporate Entrepreneurship, and Growth of Companies:
An Empirical Study in Slovenia**

Jasna Auer Antoncic and Bostjan Antoncic

Entry-Level Competencies Needed for Global Leaders

Barry L. Boyd, Lori Moore, Jennifer Williams and Chanda D. Elbert

**A Cross-Cultural Comparison of Business Ethics Study with Respondents from Afghanistan,
Pakistan, Iran, and the United States**

Bahaudin G. Mujtaba

Closing the Achievement Gap: A Leadership Challenge for an Eastern Seaboard School District

Jennifer M. Montone and Arleen Theresa Dodd

PEDAGOGY

**A Comparison of Traditional Instructional Methods and Accelerated Learning Methods in
Leadership Education**

Robert C. Preziosi and George Alexakis

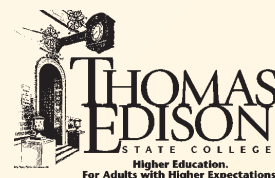
RESEARCH NOTES

**The Best of Both Worlds: A Quantitative Study on Afghan-Americans, Culture,
and Servant Leadership**

Belal A. Kaifi and Selaiman A. Noori

China and the West: Cultural Contexts in Leadership

Christopher K. Turner



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Contents

Volume 3, Issue 1, Winter 2011

From the Editor

Joseph C. Santora..... 2

ARTICLES

General Employee Satisfaction, Corporate Entrepreneurship, and Growth of Companies:
An Empirical Study in Slovenia

Jasna Auer Antoncic and Bostjan Antoncic 3

Entry-Level Competencies Needed for Global Leaders

Barry L. Boyd, Lori Moore, Jennifer Williams, and Chanda D. Elbert..... 20

A Cross-Cultural Comparison of Business Ethics Study with Respondents from
Afghanistan, Pakistan, Iran, and the United States

Bahaudin G. Mujtaba..... 40

Closing the Achievement Gap:

A Leadership Challenge for an Eastern Seaboard School District

Jennifer Marie Montone and Arleen Theresa Dodd-Nufrio..... 61

PEDAGOGY

A Comparison of Traditional Instructional Methods and
Accelerated Learning Methods in Leadership Education

Robert C. Preziosi and George Alexakis 79

RESEARCH NOTES

The Best of Both Worlds:

A Quantitative Study on Afghan-Americans, Culture, and Servant Leadership

Belal A. Kaifi and Selaiman A. Noori..... 90

China and the West: Cultural Contexts in Leadership

Christopher K. Turner 101

From the Editor

February 2011

Welcome to this eighth issue of the *International Leadership Journal*, an online, peer-reviewed journal. This issue contains four articles, one pedagogy piece, and two research notes.

The articles approach leadership in a number of different arenas, not only in business and in education, but also where these fields overlap, exploring how best to educate future business leaders. Antoncic and Antoncic look at the relationships between general employee satisfaction, corporate entrepreneurship, and company growth in Slovenia. Boyd, Moore, Williams, and Elbert challenge global leadership experts to develop a list of competencies every global leader should have. Munjtaba makes a cross-cultural comparison of the personal business ethics of local and expatriate Afghans with their counterparts in Pakistan, Iran, and the United States. Montone and Dodd-Nufrio's case study discusses ways a new superintendent approached closing the achievement gap in a low-performing school district.

The pedagogy piece by Preziosi and Alexakis examines the learning effectiveness of different instructional methods—traditional and accelerated—in college leadership education.

The research notes take on global leadership in two very different cultures. Kaifi and Noori look at servant leadership scores of Afghan Americans and how they differ by gender, age, and country of birth, while Turner applies Hofstede's cultural dimensions—particularly power distance, individualism, and long-term orientation—to discuss how an understanding of cultural differences can inform Western leaders to better engage followers in China.

Please let us know your thoughts about the articles in the journal and feel free to submit articles for review.

Enjoy!

Joseph C. Santora



Editor

ARTICLES

General Employee Satisfaction, Corporate Entrepreneurship, and Growth of Companies: An Empirical Study in Slovenia

**Jasna Auer Antoncic and Bostjan Antoncic
University of Primorska**

Regardless of their size or industry, all organizations achieve their business objectives through their employees. Corporate entrepreneurship is also very important for the business performance of companies. This article deals with general employee satisfaction, corporate entrepreneurship, and the growth of companies. The general satisfaction of employees in terms of their satisfaction with work, their work environment, and the organization for which they work are extremely important to business performance. It is vital that employees find challenge, interest, and a sense of accomplishment in the work they do. The authors presented and empirically tested hypotheses about relationships between general employee satisfaction, corporate entrepreneurship, and company growth. Data for a regression analysis for testing the hypotheses were collected via responses to a structured questionnaire on a sample of Slovenian companies. The research results indicate positive relationships between general employee satisfaction and corporate entrepreneurship, corporate entrepreneurship and company growth, and general employee satisfaction and growth of the company.

Key words: corporate entrepreneurship, firm growth, general employee satisfaction

Satisfied employees are an important factor for the sustainable development of enterprises, economies, and societies. Employees are key to the achievement of internal quality in every business organization, regardless of the firm size or industry, and, consequently, integral to the business performance of companies. Managers may identify the interests of employees and receive feedback from them in order to improve business results. Some companies have overly rigid hierarchical structures, operate according to established routines, lack strategic business connections, and offer poor organizational support, so corporate entrepreneurship—entrepreneurship inside existing organizations—as a driving force of the freedom and improved performance of employees becomes even more important for firm operation and growth. Key employees may leave the company if their needs are neglected. Organizations should take good care of all their employees, especially those with drive, innovativeness, and actual or potential contributions to the creation of better products or services. Organizations have many opportunities for employee development, and so do

individual employees. Neglecting employee satisfaction can be harmful to corporate entrepreneurship, which have been previously developed in the right direction, contributing to performance, competitive advantage, and growth. This article deals with general employee satisfaction, corporate entrepreneurship, and firm growth. It makes a significant contribution by developing and empirically examining the relationship between general employee satisfaction and corporate entrepreneurship. In the following sections, the theory, hypotheses, methods, and results of an empirical study on a sample of firms from service and manufacturing industries in Slovenia are presented.

Theory and Hypotheses

Under the pressure of globalization and the fight for market share, enterprises in different industries often forget that they meet their business objectives through their employees. Competencies, quality, commitment, and the activation of employees are important in the achievement of business performance (Merkac Skok, 2008). These rapid changes induced by globalization and market share battles have adversely affected labor productivity in production and, consequently, growth; hence, management should be aware of these changes and pay more attention to them (Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005).

The ways businesses deal with their employees determine whether those employees become a true competitive advantage of the company. Practices in Western countries regarding the management of human resources show that education, adequate pay, benefits, continuity of employment, and the right approach to employees encourage a high level of employee motivation and willingness to invest in themselves (Shaw et al., 1998; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997). The aim of these practices, from the viewpoint of the employer, is to boost the level of performance and the quality of the workforce (Gerhart & Rynes, 2003). Maintaining employee satisfaction and enhancing their motivation is a key challenge for the enterprise (Merkac Skok, 2008). Employees have different needs to meet in both the workplace and in their private life. If company executives realize that some of these needs can be met at the workplace, employee productivity will increase significantly. This increase can be a result of a motivation to work due to each employee's awareness of fulfilling his or her needs at work (Mozina, 2002a). Motivation is internal. External sources of

motivation, such as material goods, are mostly short-term; as people get used to them, their material-needs threshold increases, and their satisfaction decreases (Kafol, 1999). Investment in human capital (human resource management motives and investments) can enhance long-term mutual cooperation (Osterman, 1988). The importance of recognizing the real motives for work is therefore crucial for building a corporate and work-tailored environment (Smid, 2005).

In order to determine why employees behave in a certain way, why individuals leave the company, and what the other consequences of this behavior are for the company, it is necessary to take appropriate measurements in order to help executives obtain feedback on the needs and expectations of their employees (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004; Mozina, 2002b). For example, a growing number of companies in Slovenia measure organizational climate and employee satisfaction by undertaking comparative research to increase the awareness of their meaning and implementing appropriate methods for their development (SiOK, 2006). They note possible improvements in the management of human resources that can lead to a more positive atmosphere for employees, which may have a significant impact on the business success, growth, and future of the company.

One element that is important for the future of the company is the relationship between the employer and the employees. Employers tend to have big and widespread expectations regarding the work performance of their employees; employees may also tend to have high expectations related to their work. These expectations are different; employers and employees can have different priorities (Tsui et al., 1997). The employer can only expect his or her employees to show trust and support for his or her organizational and business decisions if those decisions can be backed up by a sufficient amount of knowledge and experience (Tsui et al., 1997). A company's performance depends on the internal and external organizational environment, while the way of running the company needs to be adapted to the given situation and time. Employees must believe in the leader so that they can convince the external public, such as customers, suppliers, shareholders, journalists, etc., to believe in the leader as well. The general satisfaction of employees should be considered an important element of the company, in the same range as consumer or owner satisfaction (Auer, 2008a).

Taking good care of the internal organizational environment and the employees is an important part of corporate entrepreneurship (entrepreneurship in existing organizations; Antoncic, 2007; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001, 2004), which includes corporate entrepreneurship activities such as new businesses, product innovation, technology innovation, and self-renewal. It can be beneficial for the company if the employees have opportunities for personal growth and development, can independently make decisions related to their work, and receive a sufficient amount of needed information, etc.; all of this may trigger an increase in the general satisfaction of employees (Antoncic, 2002; Auer, 2008b). Investing in employees should encourage their self-initiative (Hom, Tsui, Wu, & Lee, 2009). New value is not only created with capital and technology, but also with employees—through their productivity, commitment, and creativity (Merkac Skok, 2008). Employee satisfaction with work can be regarded as a summary of all negative and positive evaluations related to individual wages, emotional and psychological work conditions, prestige, work-performance-dependent awards, one's social status achieved in relation to work, and relationships with coworkers (Kunsek, 2003).

For the growth and development of companies, the dimension of general satisfaction is paramount for the performance of the duties and tasks of employees; this dimension contains elements of general job satisfaction and job characteristics such as work conditions, work time, and reputation, etc. These elements are important for individuals, teams, corporate entrepreneurs, and others who value the company on the basis of their interests. If the performance of the enterprise is congruent with their interests, based on their own needs, they tend to be satisfied; if it is not congruent, satisfaction decreases, which can be reflected in the reduced performance of organizations (Antoncic, 2008; Tavcar, 2006).

Companies should strive to optimize the work conditions, although this may not be easy to achieve in daily practice. Positive results can be expected if certain basic conditions of work are provided. For general employee satisfaction, such an essential condition is, for example, an appropriate working space protected from noise, well-ventilated, adequately lit, and warm. Such physical and climatic work conditions (Mozina, 1991) are required because there is evidence that a pleasant physical feeling positively influences one's mental condition (Mayer, 1991).

Noise, “cold” colors, and inappropriate furniture can adversely affect the productivity and lower the welfare of employees. Research (Miskell, 1994) on the effects of color and music in different work environments (for example, schools, spas, etc.) indicate that calming, light colors tend to have a positive impact on the welfare of employees; calm, quiet music can also have a relaxing effect. The work environment of employees should be stimulating. The monotony of a work environment can have a negative effect on employees, especially if their work is also monotonous.

For general satisfaction, it is important that employees have a sufficient sense of integration into the workplace and that they participate in changing plans, their proposals are considered, etc. (Miskell, 1994). Workers’ fatigue can often lead to conflict situations and frustration related to the saturation of repetition of the same work; in order to improve general satisfaction and productivity, the company could introduce various measures; for example, a change of work, new procedures, new and different methods, or setting short-term job goals. Similarly, the company’s performance may involve important psychological effects of the completion of work tasks as a natural form of motivation and improved interest in work.

Work conditions affect the atmosphere in the company. In each company's atmosphere, there is a general mood of satisfaction or dissatisfaction as the dominant mode of the employees' behavior (Lipicnik & Mozina, 1987). The mission of managers is to keep employees stimulated, taking their social, intellectual, and professional requirements into account. By providing a favorable work environment and a stimulating exchange of ideas, it is possible to meet certain social requirements. The intellectual development of employees can be enabled by redistributing work tasks. These conditions create the basic foundations for a climate in which employees can step up their efforts in the performance of their duties and tasks (Miskell, 1994).

The available time an employee has to carry out his or her functions and duties is also important for general satisfaction levels. A rigid working time is linked to the reduced humanization of work and to the neglect of private life, which is reflected in work results (Lipicnik, 1998). The ultimate objective of regulating working hours is, on one hand, the rational allocation of work or work efficiency, and on the other, the improved humanization of the work and well-being of

employees (Kaltnekar, 2000). Research (Ojstersek, 2008) shows that Europe's eight-hour working time, involving the rule of a 9:00 a.m. start, may be preferred by younger people coming from the urban environment; the attitude toward work hours can also be affected by one's family status—if someone has started a family, the employee may want more free time—and by career-building or a management position (time can be less important for those wanting a career and those in managerial positions). Flexible working hours for the majority of employees may contribute to general employee satisfaction (Lipicnik, 2000; Ojstersek, 2008).

Yet success, social recognition, personal growth, self-actualization, and responsibility for overall progress of the company can be more important than work conditions and wages (Mulej, 1986). Research in most developed countries shows that candidates for vacant job positions may prefer more reputable companies over other companies, even if they offer less favorable pay (Lesnik & Prah, 2008). By fulfilling promises given to and investing in employees, it can be easier for companies to hold a long-term status as a reputable company.

Therefore, besides general job satisfaction, the general satisfaction of employees can be significantly influenced by opportunities for personal growth and development and important elements of job characteristics, such as work conditions, working time, and reputation. These elements can also play a role in the development of corporate entrepreneurship, because corporate entrepreneurship can only be implemented through motivated and creative employees whose entrepreneurial actions can be stimulated by a supportive internal organizational environment (for example, Antoncic, 2002, 2007, 2008; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003; Antoncic & Zorn, 2004). Therefore, the relationship between general employee satisfaction and corporate entrepreneurship is expected to be positive.

Based on the above research, we proposed the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: General employee satisfaction is positively associated with corporate entrepreneurship.

Past corporate entrepreneurship research on the relationship between corporate entrepreneurship and firm growth (for example, Antoncic, 2007; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001, 2004; Antoncic & Zorn, 2004) found that the relationship between

the corporate entrepreneurship and growth of firms of different sizes and in different industries tends to be positive. Therefore, we also considered the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Corporate entrepreneurship is positively associated with growth of the company.

Method

The survey questionnaire, sample, and methods of the data analysis are presented below.

Questionnaire

The authors used a questionnaire with mainly closed questions in order to obtain exact answers. Answers to the questions were mostly set on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*very untrue*) to 5 (*very true*). General satisfaction was measured with questions taken and adapted from previous research and assessed the following general elements of employee satisfaction: general job satisfaction and satisfaction with job characteristics. General job satisfaction was measured with six questions (taken from Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1974; Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986; Dubinsky, Howell, Ingram, & Bellenger, 1986; Hackman & Oldham, 1974, 1975; Hampton, Dubinsky, & Skinner, 1986; Kohli, 1985; Oliver & Brief, 1983; Porter, Lyman, & Lawler, 1968; Skinner, Dubinsky, & Donnelly, 1984; Sohi, Smith, & Ford, 1996; Teas, 1979; Teas, Wacker, & Hughes, 1979). Employee satisfaction involving the characteristics of work, such as work conditions, work time, and reputation of the work, was measured with six questions (taken from Hunt & Chonko, 1984; Johnson, 1955; Kohli, 1985; Lucas, Babakus, & Ingram, 1990; Porter et al., 1968; Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976; Sparks, 1994; Teas, 1979; Teas et al., 1979). To measure corporate entrepreneurship, growth, and control variables (industry, age, and company size), the authors used questions from previous research (Antoncic, 2002, 2007; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2004).

The questionnaire was divided into three key sections (corporate entrepreneurship, general employee satisfaction, and growth) along with an additional section on the control variables (industry, age, and size of the company). The section measuring general employee satisfaction, which includes

overall satisfaction with work and job characteristics (work time, reputation, and work conditions), was composed of a set of 12 questions; when checking the reliability, we came to the conclusion that general employee satisfaction showed a high degree of reliability (Cronbach alpha reliability of 0.80). The 23-question section on corporate entrepreneurship, which assessed the entrepreneurial activities of entering new businesses, product innovation, technology innovation, and self-renewal, was also found to be reliable (Cronbach alpha reliability of 0.90). The section on the growth of a company included three questions and was found to be reliable (Cronbach alpha reliability of 0.75).

Description of the Sample

The authors collected the data through e-mail distribution of the questionnaire in Slovenia. The sample included companies with 20 or more employees from various manufacturing and service industries. The questionnaire was first tested on a small number of companies in order to ascertain the usefulness and understanding of the questions. To clarify the issues, some questions were amended by replacing a few words. The questionnaire was then sent out to companies. Two weeks after the procedure started, another contact was made with recipients with the goal of improving the response rate. When reviewing the e-mailed invitations to complete the questionnaires, it was found that some e-mail addresses had the wrong format (including s, c, z [Slovenian] characters), and some invitations were not delivered because the addresses no longer existed or were rejected by servers; in total, requests to fill in the questionnaire were sent to 2,275 e-mail addresses. After the repeated request, 134 usable questionnaires for analysis were returned. The response rate was relatively low because a lot of junk mail is sent by e-mail.

Data were collected from companies in the service and manufacturing industries. Service industries included in the sample were industries covering transport and utilities (20 companies or 13.9%); consulting and business services (17 companies, 11.8%); retail and wholesale trade (15 companies, 10.4%); tourism (9 companies, 6.3%); construction (8 companies, 5.6%); banking, investments, and insurance (6 companies, 4.2%), engineering, research, and development (6 companies, 4.2%); and consumer services (1 company, 0.7%). Manufacturing industries included in the sample were manufacturers of industrial

goods (38 companies, 26.4%) and consumer goods (14 companies, 9.7%). Most companies operated in service industries (82 companies, 55.0%) and had been in existence for 11 to 20 years. Most companies had total annual sales of EUR 1.6 million to EUR 4 million and were small, with 20 to 50 employees (full-time equivalent). The sample may be considered adequately representative of Slovenian companies with 20 or more employees.

Methods of Data Analysis

The authors used regression analysis to test the two hypotheses. Key variables were calculated as the averages of all items of each construct (general employee satisfaction, corporate entrepreneurship, and growth). For Hypothesis 1, the independent variable was general employee satisfaction, and the dependent variable was corporate entrepreneurship. For Hypothesis 2, the independent variable was corporate entrepreneurship, and the dependent variable was growth of the company. The control variables, age and size of the company, were included as additional independent variables in all regression equations. The impact of the industry control variable was tested in the separate industry subsamples—manufacturing and service.

Results of the Regression Analysis

Results of the regression analysis, testing of the hypotheses, and additional calculations are presented below.

General Employee Satisfaction and Corporate Entrepreneurship

Regression analysis was employed to examine the relationship between general employee satisfaction and corporate entrepreneurship as part of checking Hypothesis 1. The regression model was shown to be significant ($F = 29.74$, sig. 0.000). The adjusted determination coefficient was 0.16, meaning that 16% of the variance in the dependent variable (corporate entrepreneurship) can be explained by the independent variable (general employee satisfaction). The standardized regression coefficient was found to be 0.41 and was significant (sig. 0.000). The results indicate that general employee satisfaction tends to be positively related to corporate entrepreneurship, which is consistent with Hypothesis 1.

Corporate Entrepreneurship and Growth

In Hypothesis 2, a positive relationship was expected between corporate entrepreneurship and growth. The regression model was shown to be significant ($F = 28.77$, sig. 0.000). The corrected coefficient of determination was 0.16, meaning that 16% of the variance in the dependent variable (growth of the company) can be explained by the independent variable (corporate entrepreneurship). The standardized regression coefficient was found to be 0.40 and was significant (sig. 0.000). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is also supported by the results, showing that corporate entrepreneurship tends to be positively associated with growth of the company.

Additional Calculations

Additional calculations included an estimation of the relationship between general employee satisfaction and growth and an estimation of the impact of the control variables. When checking the relationship between general employee satisfaction and overall growth of the company by regression analysis, the following was found: The regression model was shown to be significant ($F = 19.98$, sig. 0.000), with 11% of the variance explained; the standardized regression coefficient for general satisfaction was found to be 0.35 and was significant (sig. 0.000); the results reveal a positive association between general employee satisfaction and growth of the company. The study also included an analysis of the impact of the control variables in the relationships between general employee satisfaction, corporate entrepreneurship, and growth. When checking the impact of the control variables (age and size of the company by number of employees) in the multiple regressions, we identified the influence of the control variables in the relationship between general employee satisfaction and corporate entrepreneurship. The results point to a negative association between age and growth of the company; other control variables, including type of industry, were not found to be influential.

Results and Discussion

The study results demonstrate a relationship between general employee satisfaction, corporate entrepreneurship, and growth of the company. Two hypotheses were developed and tested (Hypothesis 1: General employee satisfaction is positively associated with corporate entrepreneurship, and

Hypothesis 2: Corporate entrepreneurship is positively associated with growth of the company). The general employee satisfaction construct had two elements: general job satisfaction and job characteristics (work hours, conditions of work, and reputation). The research results using regression analysis support Hypothesis 1 because general employee satisfaction was found to be positively associated with corporate entrepreneurship (regardless of the industry). This result of the positive role of general employee satisfaction in corporate entrepreneurship is a key finding and a valuable contribution of this study. Hypothesis 2—on the positive association between corporate entrepreneurship and growth of the company—is also supported.

The authors also analyzed the relationship between general employee satisfaction and growth and the impact of the control variables (age, size, and industry). General employee satisfaction was found to be positively associated with growth of the company. The results suggest the conclusion that the age of a company tends not to be related to the company's corporate entrepreneurship. Thus, we recommend the introduction of a corporate entrepreneurial approach to both younger and older firms. The results show that the size of a company also tends not to be related to corporate entrepreneurship. We therefore recommend the introduction of corporate entrepreneurship to enterprises of all sizes; this is consistent with past research (Antoncic, 2007; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001, 2003). The control variable of age of the company revealed a negative relationship with growth (meaning that older companies grow more slowly and vice versa). It was found that company size does not affect growth. The survey results indicate that overall employee satisfaction is important for internal business as well as for the business to grow.

Conclusion

The purpose of our study was to determine whether there are relationships between the general satisfaction of employees, corporate entrepreneurship, and growth of the company because the role of employees is important in both manufacturing and service industries. The emphasis of this study was on the importance of general employee satisfaction. We showed the significant impact of general employee satisfaction on corporate entrepreneurship and growth of the company. Theoretical considerations of general employee satisfaction, including

general job satisfaction and job characteristics such as work hours, reputation, and work conditions and their importance for corporate entrepreneurship, have thus been upgraded with an empirical quantitative analysis of relationships between general employee satisfaction, corporate entrepreneurship, and company growth in service and manufacturing industries. The results of the study can be considered a contribution to theory as we developed and empirically tested the model, which is composed of relationships between general employee satisfaction, corporate entrepreneurship, and growth, the existence of which was supported.

In addition to the scientific contribution, recommendations arise for companies that may contribute to their growth: Companies should create internal organizational environments supportive of the provision of general employee satisfaction. It is important that executives share important information with subordinates and provide sufficient information regarding the effectiveness of the implementation of tasks. Companies should be flexible in responding to changes and strive for improvements. They need to ensure that opportunities for personal growth and development exist within the company and that flexible working hours and basic work conditions are provided to employees. Managers should allow employees opportunities to independently make decisions in carrying out their work and tasks. Also significant for the general satisfaction of employees are public praise and the company image. Corporate entrepreneurship is essential for a company's growth (in terms of new businesses, product innovation, technology innovation, and self-renewal). It is important for companies to stimulate fresh demand, work on new businesses in new markets, find new market niches, offer and develop new products, develop their own technology, introduce technological innovations, redefine their mission, recheck their business concept, rethink the industries in which they will compete, reorganize departments, increase the autonomy of units, improve the coordination of activities between units, and create a flexible organizational structure to improve business innovation. The appropriate financial and nonfinancial stimulation of employees can also improve a company's corporate entrepreneurship activities and growth.

The study is limited to general employee satisfaction and corporate entrepreneurship as important factors that affect a company's growth. It does not include other factors that might also be important for growth. In limiting the

sample, the authors only selected companies from Slovenia. The sample is representative of companies with 20 or more employees. The data were obtained through a questionnaire and was based on the perceptions of respondents, even with regard to the growth of the company. Such questions have been used, tested, and found relevant and valid in previous studies of corporate entrepreneurship (Antoncic, 2007; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001, 2004). The study was conducted on a representative sample covering the manufacturing and service companies; the sample was sufficiently large and chosen so as to ensure the credibility of the data. In future research, other countries and factors that might be important for employee satisfaction and company growth could also be included.

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Entry-Level Competencies Needed for Global Leaders

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The purpose of this study was to identify the global leadership competencies needed by leadership education graduates to be able to succeed in entry-level positions in global organizations. A panel of global leadership experts participated in a three-round Delphi process and identified 58 global leadership competencies. These competencies were distilled into eight themes: (1) International Experience; (2) Global Perspectives/Worldview; (3) Knowledge of Global Politics and Geography; (4) Cultural Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes; (5) Communication; (6) Technical Knowledge; (7) Intrapersonal Skills; (8) Critical Thinking; and (9) Interpersonal Skills. Understanding what global leadership competencies students need to master is the beginning step in building leadership education programs that enable people to effectively lead in international settings. These competencies should guide leadership educators in the modification or development of curriculum that prepares college students for international leadership opportunities and experiences.

Key words: competencies, curriculum, global, international, leadership

“The continued globalization of industries has led to the relentless quest by organizations worldwide for global leaders who can help their companies survive and, perhaps thrive, in this highly competitive environment” (Tung, 2004, 245). A specific skill set is needed to become successful in global organizations. According to Irani, Place, and Friedel (2006), many students do not have the knowledge or skills to effectively lead within a global setting. Since this finding, many college programs have responded by internationalizing their curricula to meet the needs of globalization. However, are the components included in these curricula addressing the competencies needed to become successful leaders in a global society? If leadership education programs are going to continue to meet the needs of a global society, competencies needed in the field must be continually refined.

Literature Review

Global Leaders

Too often, an organization takes a manager or leader who has a proven track record and transplants that person into a global arena expecting the same level of performance abroad as he or she had at home. Unfortunately, the skills needed to be a successful leader in one’s country of origin are not necessarily

the same skills a person needs to be successful abroad (Javidan, Teagarden, & Bowen, 2010). While there have been many studies looking at leadership development and international leadership practices, there is a continuing need to find the “how” as well as “what” in global leadership development (Smith & Peterson, 2002).

Thirty years ago, Hofstede (1980) began his research on the importance of culture in management. His seminal work was the beginning of research on leadership in a global society. The GLOBE study (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) built upon Hofstede’s work by explaining how history and culture shape leadership and successful leadership skills. These studies show the differences between Westernized leadership traits, skills, and theories and non-Western leadership practices.

While the research about the differences in leadership skills between Western and non-Western societies is increasing, research on infusing international leadership development into the college curriculum is still in its infancy. “The global environment has not only changed the way business is conducted, it has also changed the criteria of effectiveness for the firms’ leaders in the way business is conducted” (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009, 336).

Global Competencies

The first step in developing a global leadership curriculum is gaining a deeper understanding of the competencies needed by leaders in global settings (Perkins, 2009). Several studies have sought to identify these global leadership competencies (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998; Javidan et al., 2010; Rosen & Digh, 2000), resulting in a multitude of competencies that do not give clear direction for educators.

In a content analysis, Caligiuri and Tarique (2009) found a link between effective global leaders and certain personality traits. “The Big Five” personality factors of (1) extroversion, (2) agreeableness, (3) conscientiousness, (4) emotional stability (agreeableness), and (5) openness or intellect have been found to be consistent as a leadership indicator across time, context, and culture (Buss, 1991). Caligiuri and Tarique (2009) found studies that showed the two personality traits of openness to experience and extroversion “predispose

individuals for cross-cultural interactions which can facilitate the learning of appropriate cross-national behaviors” (339).

In 2010, Javidan, Teagarden, and Bowen interviewed over 200 senior executives and more than 5,000 managers who were active in global initiatives to gain their perspectives on what it takes to be a successful leader with a global mindset. Three themes emerged as important competencies for global leaders: (1) intellectual capital, (2) psychological capital, and (3) social capital. Intellectual capital includes knowledge of international business and the capacity to keep learning. Having an adventurous spirit, being open to challenges, and not being in control at all times are also integral parts of intellectual capital. Psychological capital is the ability to work and engage people who are culturally different than the leader. Psychological capital also includes being open to new cultures and the capacity and propensity to change. The third component of having a global mindset, social capital, includes “the ability to form connections, to bring people together, and to influence stakeholders” (110). Social capital puts these skills, which are traditional business and leadership skills, into a global setting. Having global business savvy, as well as a cosmopolitan outlook, is imperative to social capital for global leaders. Javidan et al. stress that intellectual capital, psychological capital, and social capital can and should be learned by students in business programs and conclude “in a bumpy world, we need leaders who can see past culture and politics to engage people who are wholly unlike themselves” (113).

An empirical study of global leaders by Gregersen, Morrison, and Black (1998) yielded four characteristics of effective global leaders. Inquisitiveness, or having the drive to experience new adventures, was found to be the foundational characteristic for effective global leadership. Exhibiting high moral character, including an emotional connection to the culture and the people of the foreign country, was also important. Embracing duality encompasses many aspects of global leadership. In duality, a leader must find the balance between “home” operations and global initiatives as well as balance planning and information gathering with action. Demonstrating savvy in both global issues and organizational theory and practice was identified as the fourth characteristic of effective global leaders.

Grouping global competencies and skills needed into classification systems is a reoccurring theme in the literature. Rosen and Digh (2000) organize the findings of their study into three literacy categories: (1) personal literacy, (2) social literacy, and (3) business literacy. Personal literacy is comprised of high personal leadership development skills. This includes understanding the need for authentic leadership, understanding personal values, commitment to continuous learning, and a strong moral compass. Social literacy is the interaction between leader and follower. Being an active listener and good communicator, as well as inspiring others to action and excellence, is imperative. Conflict negotiation is also a large part of social literacy. Business literacy includes empowering employees (if the culture dictates that practice as acceptable), creating an internal culture of learning and innovation, and helping others adapt to change. Rosen and Digh concluded all three categories were important to leaders in Western as well as non-Western situations.

Suutari (2002) completed an extensive review of literature on global leadership and found “two-thirds of identified global leader competencies appear to be common across global leaders, while one-third are context specific” (224), depending on industry or type of organization. This generalization of data and studies provide a basis of competencies needed by those striving for global leadership excellence. Students can be taught both the leadership/business competencies and industry- or specialty-specific competencies. This suggests that business schools and leadership education programs should partner with other programs that provide the technical know-how in order to train students to be 100% competent in global leadership.

While these studies give leadership educators a baseline metric to begin development of a global leadership education program, they focused on identifying the competencies of leaders already immersed in global leadership. Consequently, a lack of research exists for determining the competencies needed by recent graduates to make the transition to global leadership more effective.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine the global leadership competencies needed by leadership education graduates to be able to succeed in entry-level positions in global organizations.

Method

This study used a modified Delphi method to identify the global leadership competencies required by future leadership graduates. Dalkey (1969) defines the Delphi method as “a method of eliciting and refining group judgments” (v). It is used for gaining expert consensus in many fields, including public policy, education, and business. The validity of this method relies on a well-crafted research question and judicious selection of the expert panel.

The authors surveyed a panel of experts in global leadership education to identify the competencies in global leadership required for leadership graduates seeking entry-level positions in global organizations. Purposive sampling was used to identify persons with specific credentials important to this study. Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, and Allen (1993) note that purposive sampling identifies those persons who can best help answer the research question. Candidates for the panel must have met three of the following four criteria:

- Involved in undergraduate leadership education
- International experience (led study abroad, consulted internationally, lived or worked abroad)
- Consulted with global companies governmental or nongovernmental agencies, etc.
- Published articles on global leadership (broadly defined)

An initial list of potential experts was identified by examining articles published in leading leadership education journals and from the authors' personal knowledge. A snowball technique was then used whereby those on the original list of identified experts were asked to identify other experts who met the study criteria (Patton, 2002). Thirty-three experts were identified and contacted via e-mail; twenty-two experts agreed to participate and were e-mailed the first question.

This study utilized three rounds of surveys to gain consensus among the experts, following the guidelines proposed by Linstone and Turoff (1975).

Round 1

In the first round, the expert panel was asked the following open-ended question:

What competencies in global leadership should undergraduate leadership majors possess to be successful in an entry-level position in a multinational company or global organization?

A competency was defined as a knowledge, skill, motive, or characteristic that causes or predicts outstanding performance. Nineteen of the 22 members of the expert panel responded to Round 1. Dillman's Tailored Design Method (2000) was used for non-response follow-up. Dalkey (1969) found that when the size of the panel is greater than 13, mean correlations are greater than 0.80, satisfying questions of process reliability. Round 1 resulted in the identification of 77 competencies.

Round 2

Responses from the expert panel in Round 1 were evaluated by the four authors, who used the constant comparative method to compare and combine similar items and categorize them into common themes (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993). Each author worked independently to categorize the competencies. They then met and worked to reach consensus on theme names and which competencies fell within each theme. The categorized statements from Round 1 were used to create the instrument for Round 2. The instrument contained 77 competencies separated into the following nine themes: (1) International Experience; (2) Global Perspectives/Worldview; (3) Knowledge of Global Politics and Geography; (4) Cultural Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes; (5) Communication; (6) Technical Knowledge; (7) Intrapersonal Skills; (8) Critical Thinking; and (9) Interpersonal Skills. The instrument used to collect data for Round 2 was designed in Survey Monkey. All expert panelists who responded to Round 1 were e-mailed the link to the instrument and given 14 days to respond; those who had not responded by Day 12 were sent a reminder e-mail. All 19 members of the expert panel responded to Round 2.

The expert panel was asked to rate their agreement with each competency using a continuous scale where 1 = Not Important, 2 = Somewhat Important, 3 = Important, and 4 = Very Important. A competency was deemed essential if 75%

of the expert panel responded with important (3) or very important (4). This resulted in 65 of the original 77 competencies being used for the Round 3 instrument.

Round 3

In this round, the expert panel was again asked to rate their agreement with each statement using a continuous scale where 1 = Not Important, 2 = Somewhat Important, 3 = Important, and 4 = Very Important. All 19 panelists responded to the Round 3. As in Round 2, 75% of the expert panel must have rated a competency as important (3) or very important (4) for it to be retained. Fifty-eight competencies were retained from Round 3.

Results

All 19 experts participated in the final round of the study. Using an *a priori* level of consensus of 75% of the experts responding that the statement was important or very important, 58 items were retained from Round 3. The 58 items were categorized into nine themes.

In the International Experience theme, only one of the two statements retained from Round 2 reached consensus at the *a priori* level in Round 3. Of the 19 experts, 78.95% ($n = 15$) agreed that *Have international travel experience (2- to 4-week field experience)* was important or very important for today's leadership graduate.

In the Global Perspectives/Worldview theme, all five of the statements retained from Round 2 reached consensus in Round 3 (see Table 1 on next page). All 19 experts responded to three of the five questions retained from Round 2. For the three questions to which all 19 experts responded, 100% agreed that *Understand global issues* was important or very important; 94.74% ($n = 18$) agreed that *Possess a global perspective: The ability to recognize and address issues that are outside our national perspective* was important or very important; and 78.95% ($n = 15$) agreed that *Understand the multitude of cultures that form the foundation of international business and leadership* was important or very important. Of the 18 experts who responded to the other two questions, 94.44% ($n = 17$) agreed that *Develop the openness of a global mindset* was important or very important,

and 83.33% ($n = 15$) agreed that *Realize the role one plays in a global society* was important or very important.

Table 1: Level of Agreement within the Global Perspectives/Worldview Theme

Item	<i>n</i>	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Understand global issues	19	100.00	0.00
Possess a global perspective: The ability to recognize and address issues that are outside our national perspective	19	94.74	5.26
Develop the openness of a global mindset	18	94.44	5.56
Realize the role one plays in a global society	18	83.33	16.67
Understand the multitude of cultures that form the foundation of international business and leadership	19	78.95	21.05

In the Knowledge of Global Politics and Geography theme, all four of the statements retained from Round 2 reached consensus in Round 3 (see Table 2 on next page). All the experts responded to the four questions in this theme. Of the 19 experts, 94.74% ($n = 18$) agreed that *Have a general understanding of the world, regions, and terminology* and *Have knowledge of religious, historical, and geographical influence on culture* were important or very important; 89.47% ($n = 17$) agreed that *Have knowledge of geography, history, and language* was important or very important; and 78.95% ($n = 15$) agreed that *Have a global business, economic, and geopolitical foundation of knowledge* was important or very important.

Table 2: Level of Agreement within the Knowledge of Global Politics and Geography Theme (n = 19)

Item	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Have a general understanding of the world, regions, and terminology	94.74	5.26
Have knowledge of religious, historical, and geographical influence on culture	94.74	5.26
Have knowledge of geography, history, and language	89.47	10.53
Have a global business, economic, and geopolitical foundation of knowledge	78.95	21.05

In the Cultural Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes theme, eight of the 10 statements retained from Round 2 reached consensus in Round 3 (see Table 3 on next page). All the experts responded to all of the questions in this theme. All 19 experts (100%) agreed that *Be able to work in diverse settings and with a diverse worldview* and *Be able to work in a multidisciplinary and multicultural team* were important or very important. Eighteen of the experts (94.74%) agreed that *Be culturally sensitive*; *Be culturally aware*; *Have an understanding and appreciation of other cultures*; *Be able to develop adaptation strategies to successfully work/live in that culture*; and *Be able to identify cultural nuances as related to gender, power, and motivation* were important or very important. In addition, 17 of the experts (89.47%) agreed that *Be culturally competent and have a fundamental knowledge of the role culture plays in leadership* was important or very important.

Table 3: Level of Agreement within the Cultural Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes Theme (n = 19)

Item	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Be able to work in diverse settings and with a diverse worldview	100.00	0.00
Be able to work in a multidisciplinary and multicultural team	100.00	0.00
Be culturally sensitive	94.74	5.26
Be culturally aware	94.74	5.26
Have an understanding and appreciation of other cultures	94.74	5.26
Be able to develop adaptation strategies to successfully work/live in that culture	94.74	5.26
Be able to identify cultural nuances as related to gender, power, and motivation	94.74	5.26
Be culturally competent and have a fundamental knowledge of the role culture plays in leadership	89.47	10.53

In the Communication theme, four of the five statements retained from Round 2 reached consensus in Round 3 (see Table 4 on next page). All 19 experts (100%) agreed that *Be able to write in a clear and concise way*, *Be able to speak in a clear and concise way*, and *Be able to give clear and concise presentations* were important or very important. For the remaining question, 18 of the 19 experts responded, and 88.89% ($n = 16$) agreed that *Have personal communication skills in other cultures* was important or very important.

Table 4: Level of Agreement within the Communication Theme

Item	<i>n</i>	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Be able to write in a clear and concise way	19	100.00	0.00
Be able to speak in a clear and concise way	19	100.00	0.00
Be able to give clear and concise presentations	19	100.00	0.00
Have personal communication skills in other cultures	18	88.89	11.11

In the Technical Knowledge theme, five of the six statements retained from Round 2 reached consensus in Round 3 (see Table 5 on next page). All the experts responded to all of the questions in this theme. Eighteen of the 19 experts (94.74%) agreed that *Be technically competent in their selected field* was important or very important, while 89.47% ($n = 17$) agreed that *Have disciplinary specializations that enhance organizational functions*, *Have training in how to see and analyze the big picture and how the pieces fit together*, and *Have a good base of theoretical knowledge combined with practical experience* were important or very important. Sixteen experts (84.21%) also agreed that *Successfully complete at least one course in international leadership* was important or very important.

Table 5: Level of Agreement within the Technical Knowledge Theme (n = 19)

Item	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Be technically competent in their selected field	94.74	5.26
Have disciplinary specializations that enhance organizational functions	89.47	10.53
Have training in how to see and analyze the big picture and how the pieces fit together	89.47	10.53
Have a good base of theoretical knowledge combined with practical experience	89.47	10.53
Successfully complete at least one course in international leadership	84.21	15.79

In the Intrapersonal Skills theme, 14 of the 16 statements retained from Round 2 reached consensus in Round 3 (see Table 6 on next page). In this theme, all 19 experts responded to all but one of the questions. All 19 experts (100%) agreed that *Be adaptable and flexible* and *Be open-minded* were important or very important, while 94.74% ($n = 18$) agreed that *Be willing to self-correct* and *Be willing to share credit* were important or very important. Seventeen experts (89.47%) agreed that *Understand personal responsibility and ethics in the workplace*, *Have the ability to tolerate ambiguity*, *Demonstrate patience*, and *Be self-confident* were important or very important. Sixteen experts (84.21%) agreed that *Have a strong understanding of self* (values, strengths) and *Have the ability to examine their “mental models” and assumptions* were important or very important, and 15 experts (78.95%) agreed that *Be able to demonstrate empathy*, *Have the confidence to travel in a foreign country without language skills*, and *Possess knowledge of their cultural preferences* were important or very important. For the remaining question to which only 18 experts responded, 94.44% ($n = 17$) agreed that *Possess life learning skills* was important or very important.

Table 6: Level of Agreement within the Intrapersonal Skills Theme

Item	<i>n</i>	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Be adaptable and flexible	19	100.00	0.00
Be open-minded	19	100.00	0.00
Be willing to self-correct	19	94.74	5.26
Willingness to share credit	19	94.74	5.26
Possess life learning skills	18	94.44	5.56
Understand personal responsibility and ethics in the workplace	19	89.47	10.53
Have the ability to tolerate ambiguity	19	89.47	10.53
Demonstrate patience	19	89.47	10.53
Be self-confident	19	89.47	10.53
Have a strong understanding of self	19	84.21	15.79
Have the ability to examine their “mental models” and assumptions	19	84.21	15.79
Be able to demonstrate empathy	19	78.95	21.05
Have the confidence to travel in a foreign country without language skills	19	78.95	21.05
Possess knowledge of their cultural preferences	19	78.95	21.05

In the Critical Thinking theme, all seven of the statements retained from Round 2 reached consensus in Round 3 (see Table 7 on next page). All the experts responded to six of the seven questions retained in this theme. For those questions, all 19 experts (100%) agreed that *Be able to make decisions*, *Be ethical in decision-making*, and *Be able to problem-solve* were important or very important, while 94.74% ($n = 18$) agreed that *Possess the ability to think critically* was important or very important. Seventeen experts (89.47%) agreed that *Be able to think holistically* was important or very important, and 78.95% ($n = 15$) agreed that *Have the ability to reflect and think about the “thinking” process itself* was important or very important. For the question to which only 18 experts responded, 88.89% ($n = 16$) agreed that *Possess cognitive competencies* was important or very important.

Table 7: Level of Agreement within the Critical Thinking Theme

Item	<i>n</i>	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Be able to make decisions	19	100.00	0.00
Be ethical in decision-making	19	100.00	0.00
Be able to problem-solve	19	100.00	0.00
Possess the ability to think critically	19	94.74	5.26
Be able to think holistically	19	89.47	10.53
Possess cognitive competencies	18	88.89	11.11
Have the ability to reflect and think about the “thinking” process itself	19	78.95	21.05

In the Interpersonal Skills theme, all 10 of the statements retained from Round 2 reached consensus in Round 3 (see Table 8 on next page). All the experts responded to all of the questions in this theme. All 19 (100%) agreed that *Have an attitude for collaboration*, *Possess social skills*, and *Be open to people of different backgrounds and traditions* were important or very important. Eighteen experts (94.74%) agreed that *Possess knowledge of basic social etiquette* and *Have interpersonal intelligence* were important or very important, while 89.47% ($n = 17$) agreed that *Have the ability to network* was important or very important. Sixteen experts (84.21%) agreed that *Have the willingness to cross disciplinary boundaries* was important or very important. Finally, 78.95% ($n = 15$) agreed that *Possess the knowledge/ability to work in groups*, *Be able to lead others and participate in teams*, and *Be able to lead and manage others* were important or very important.

Table 8: Level of Agreement within the Interpersonal Skills Theme (n = 19)

Item	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Have an attitude for collaboration	100.00	0.00
Possess social skills	100.00	0.00
Be open to people of different backgrounds and traditions	100.00	0.00
Possess knowledge of basic social etiquette	94.74	5.26
Have interpersonal intelligence	94.74	5.26
Have the ability to network	89.47	10.53
Have the willingness to cross disciplinary boundaries	84.21	15.79
Possess the knowledge/ability to work in groups	78.95	21.05
Be able to lead others and participate in teams	78.95	21.05
Be able to lead and manage others	78.95	21.05

Conclusions/Implications

The overall findings of this study are consistent with the conclusions made by Perkins (2009) in that there seems to be a plethora of identified leadership competencies needed by those looking to lead in international settings. The nine inductive themes and subsequent 65 competencies identified in Round 2 of the study were pared down by the Delphi panel to nine themes: (1) International Experience (2) Global Perspectives/Worldview; (3) Knowledge of Global Politics and Geography; (4) Cultural Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes; (5) Communication; (6) Technical Knowledge; (7) Intrapersonal Skills; (8) Critical Thinking; and (9) Interpersonal Skills, with 58 competencies identified.

The competencies identified as important in the Global Perspectives/Worldview theme included internalization of global information as well as understanding the individual leader's role and place in internationalization. Understanding and appreciating other cultures and global issues with a lack of ethnocentrism was deemed imperative by the panel of experts. This finding is similar to the international competencies category of intellectual capital identified by Javidan et al. (2010). Knowledge of international issues while having the propensity to continue to learn is essential.

Understanding historical cultural, regional, religious, geographical, and geopolitical issues were the competencies identified in the Knowledge of Global Politics and Geography theme. With the lack of literature to support this theme and these competencies as imperative, one might conclude that these ideas are a given. The fact that these competencies may seem obvious demonstrates a need for further study into this theme.

The theme of Cultural Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes combines organizational leadership knowledge with international cultural knowledge. Gregersen et al. (1998) identified this combination as one of four characteristics of established international leaders. Being able to work in diverse settings with a diverse worldview and being able to work in a multidisciplinary and multicultural team are two competencies that 100% of the expert panel agreed as important characteristics for students planning to work in international settings to possess. Integrating international and multicultural aspects into organizational leadership courses is one strategy to produce students who possess this competency.

Writing, speaking, and presenting in a clear and concise way were the most important competencies identified in the Communication theme. While communication is a component of many international leadership competency studies (Rosen & Digh, 2000; Gregersen et al., 1998), it is often another victim of “obvious” skills. Most professional communication educators would argue that despite being an obvious skill, it is still one in which most people are not competent. More research should be done to determine how intercultural communication could be incorporated in an international leadership development and education program.

The interworking between technical skills and leadership skills is the basis for the competencies in the Technical Knowledge theme. These results support Suutari's (2002) study that found leaders need both taxonomies of skills to be effective in international settings. Having completed international leadership courses, as well as being technically competent in the field of study, were identified as two of the five competencies in this theme. This suggests that international leadership education programs should partner with technical programs to ensure the production of holistic leaders.

The Intrapersonal Skills theme yielded 14 competencies described as important for international leaders. Just as communication is a recurring theme in the

literature, so are intrapersonal skills. Most studies, such as Rosen and Digh (2000) describe these skills as a combination of personal literacy (personal leadership development) and business literacy (leadership paradigms). Many of the competencies in this study include items for which leadership educators debate teachability. Are adaptability and flexibility skills that can be taught, or do we have natural tendencies that guide our actions? Until more research is done in this area, some of these competencies will be difficult to incorporate into a leadership education curriculum.

Decision-making and problem-solving were two competencies identified by 100% of the panel as important in the Critical Thinking theme. These competencies and skills can and should be part of a leadership development program. This theme relates to the research of Gregerson et al. (1998), which states that leaders need the capacity to solve problems in the field quickly and without trepidation. Critical thinking as an important global leadership competency also matches Sherlock and Morgan's (2009) conclusion: "Critical thinking is an essential competency for leaders who must analyze issues and convince others of their point of view" (188).

The final theme of Interpersonal Skills includes those interactions between leaders and followers and leaders and organizations. An interesting finding in this theme is the lack of culture or global issues being listed by the panel as an integral part of these competencies. Interpersonal skills could and should transcend all cultures and situations. This is consistent with the social literacy skills set as defined by Rosen and Digh (2000).

Leadership educators must be purposeful in preparing students to work globally. While leadership is often learned in "trial by fire" situations or in the "leadership moment," leadership development in these manners is often counterproductive and less effective. The more leadership educators can prepare college students for international leadership opportunities and experiences, the more likely the students are to be successful in the complex world of international leadership (Perkins, 2009). It is strongly recommended that leadership educators examine their leadership curriculum to determine which, if any, of these competencies are being taught. Efforts should be made to incorporate additional competencies into the curriculum either through existing courses or through the addition of new courses. Educators should also develop students' intercultural

competencies by exposing them to other cultures on their own campuses as well as adding/expanding study abroad programs. This study forms the foundation of developing grounded theory in international leadership competencies needed by college students.

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A Cross-Cultural Comparison of Business Ethics Study with Respondents from Afghanistan, Pakistan, Iran, and the United States

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Business ethics is an emerging local and global challenge for public officials and private sector entrepreneurs. The creation of an ethical climate requires continuous and comprehensive education along with the communication and enforcement of relevant policies and procedures. This article is a study in assessing and determining the tolerance levels of respondents in business ethics. It discusses ethics, morality, corruption, and presents the results of a business ethics survey with 313 local and expatriate Afghans, then compares the results with those from respondents from Iran, Pakistan, and the United States. The findings suggest that cultural background is a significant factor since respondents from Pakistan, Iran, and the United States demonstrated less tolerance for unethical business decisions. These findings are important for managers, expatriates, government officials, and ethics educators who are creating, expecting, promoting, and/or trying to sustain a socially responsible business climate.

Key words: Afghans, Americans, bribery, corruption, CPI, ethics, Iranians, Pakistanis

A mixture of violence, lack of trust, and incompetence on the part of some public officials can easily lead to a corrupt business environment in a country. A corrupt business culture not only leads to inefficiencies, but also to lack of trust between the citizens of a country and the government (Kelman, 2000). Public officials must realize that successful transformations of the work environment come from rigorously assessing the realities of the culture and confronting each obstacle head on through ethical and legal means. The jobs of a public official and a business leader necessitate instilling high ethical standards, purpose, meaning and, thus, motivation to employees about their work in the institution, department, or organization. It is clear that ethical and “well-managed companies operating in competitive markets are the key to wealth creation, the growth of jobs, rapid innovation, and the advance of knowledge” (Griffiths, 1996, 48). Motivated, engaged, and involved employees are usually more productive, better committed, and demonstrate higher levels of energy toward their work. Giving meaning or purpose to employees is important in every culture and workplace. Managers must be conscious of how to approach this strategy in an ethical and culturally appropriate manner, since motivational approaches that work in Western societies are not always effective in other cultures if not adapted to the local

norms (Mujtaba, 2007b). Providing a fair and motivational work environment can lead to higher levels of employee commitment and better communication, which can, in turn, reduce the presence of pluralistic ignorance and cognitive dissonance.

The perceptions of widespread bribery or general corruption, for example, in Afghanistan or Pakistan, can very well be associated with what is considered to be a social comparison bias; more specifically, the concept of *pluralistic ignorance*. Pluralistic ignorance takes place when a person has an opinion about a situation and simultaneously, yet mistakenly, believes that others in the organization or community believe otherwise or differently (Allport, 1924; Glynn, Hayes, & Shanahan, 1997; Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004, 2009). For many, one consequence of pluralistic ignorance can be feelings of guilt or deviance, especially in a tribal or collective society such as Afghanistan. Many Afghans believe that tolerating bribery is inherently wrong and spiritually sinful. However, due to high levels of agreeableness, conscientiousness, and self-consciousness, which come from years of socialization in a high-context and collective culture, many individuals might mistakenly perceive that others see this as a fair practice due to low wages or high levels of poverty. As such, they may feel guilty and deviant for not sharing what appears to be the collective opinion expressed by their friends, peers, and colleagues in the community. People who are socialized in collective cultures are more likely to withhold their opinions in order to be in alignment with the group, and, over time, they become acculturated, thereby losing their feelings of deviance. This pattern of pluralistic ignorance unfortunately leads to the acceptance or even perpetuation of collective norms in a culture that are not necessarily supported or shared by independently thinking individuals in the community (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2009). Another unfortunate consequence is that the words and actions of one influential or vocal minority person, especially if he or she is in a position of authority, can greatly increase the widespread existence of pluralistic ignorance and tolerance for corruption.

Business leaders, government officials, and managers often emphasize the importance of clear communication, ethical standards, cultural awareness, and sensitivity to local norms (Cavico & Mujtaba, 2008, 2009). Business leaders and educators must “be concerned about due process. . . . People seek fairness—not favors. . . . They want to be heard. . . . They often don’t even mind if decisions

don't go their way as long as the process is fair and transparent" (Pralhad, 2010, 36). Educators and corporate trainers further emphasize legal and ethical values for providing purpose and adhering to policies, rules, and procedures in order to remain law abiding and socially responsible. Educators and trainers should define what is legal, moral, socially responsible, culturally acceptable, and legal when it comes to giving a gift or a bribe in each culture. As such, this article discusses the current circumstances in Afghanistan using data from sources such as the United Nations Development Programme (2008), Transparency International (2009, 2010), and the responses to this study's Personal Business Ethics Score (PBES) survey over the past year.

Literature Review

A Culture of Corruption and Bribery

Culture is made up of the way people think, decide, feel, act, and respond in a given location or environment; and it is based on such common characteristics as location, climate, language, religion, and other factors (Cavico & Mujtaba, 2011; Mujtaba, 2010c). Traditionally, cultural practices and values are deeply embedded elements of a society, and they are almost impossible to change through short-term gimmicks (Sanyal & Samanta, 2002, 40). However, since cultures tend to drive people's behaviors, leaders must think consciously about what behaviors are reinforced through their local customs and norms. According to Hors, an ineffective environment or organizational culture can condition public and private sector employees to be involved in corrupt practices (2000, 43). A strong cultural environment with like-minded members can condition people to tolerate corrupt practices (Sanyal & Samanta, 2002, 21). As Geert Hofstede (1980) defined it, *culture* is the collective conditioning or programming of people's minds (involving thinking, feeling, and acting) that distinguishes them from other human beings. People of different cultures have different norms, customs, and mores based on their years of socialization in a society.

When it comes to corruption and bribery in the business culture of each country, some claim that there is a "cultural convergence" in today's individualistic and self-centered world (Mujtaba, 2010c). Due to cultural and economic integrations, bribery in international business can be seen across various countries (Sanyal, 2005). *Cultural convergence* is a view that people around the globe are

increasingly seeing the same news, hearing similar concepts, learning related knowledge, desiring comparable outcomes, and, as a result, are thinking and acting alike. This cultural convergence can be illustrated by the increasingly widespread use and acceptance of bribes. Some people actually believe that bribery is a good thing for business and the economy because things get done faster—not realizing that these benefits are limited to the few who can pay bribes (Kestenbaum, 2010). Corruption or the misuse of public office for one's own benefit often leads to a waste of resources, undermining of fair trade, and human suffering due to the continual cycle of economic oppression (Quinones, 2000; Vogl, 1998). Bribes, which are payments in cash or other forms in order to unduly influence officials to grant business "favours," are likely to be found in every culture. Bribery can be seen as one form of corruption, along with other inducements, enticements, buyoffs, kickbacks, embezzlement, and payoffs to influence the outcomes toward favorable alternatives for oneself or one's family. People in the public and private sectors of each industry can be involved in corruption. It has been said that:

Although often corruption involves officials holding important positions, one can very well get involved in corruption without holding office in public, private, or voluntary organizations. Some examples of corruption [that] do not necessarily involve public officials include terrorism, smuggling, tax evasion, profiteering, fraud in selling and buying lands, defaulting of bank loans, under- and over-invoicing, currency manipulation, forgeries, deceit, adulteration of food and medicine, money laundering, and ballot stuffing. (Siddiquee, 2010, 155–156)

One very unfortunate form of corruption that exists in some poor economies is the abduction of people for ransom, and another is the abduction of children for organ sales to people who are willing to pay high prices for them. A very common form of corruption by people in the private and public sectors in Afghanistan is bribery, which is described using different terms in different cultures. Regardless of the term used, the unfortunate side of bribery is that it hurts people, cities, countries, and societies overall. While some governments have specific rules and enforceable policies in place to combat bribery, others allow some forms of payments to government officials or do not enforce their laws prohibiting bribery. What is clear is that in a collective culture such as Afghanistan, it is even more difficult to quickly detect bribery because the total group might mistakenly approve of such practices due to pluralistic ignorance and/or tribal and

paternalistic paradigms and overall group conformity (Bond & Smith, 1996). The unfortunate externality associated with group conformity is that it can legitimize behaviors that are commonly practiced (Husted, 1999).

Table 1: Corruption Perception Index (2010) for Selected Countries

Country/Territory	CPI Score
New Zealand	9.3
Sweden	9.2
Switzerland	8.7
Netherlands	8.8
Australia	8.7
Canada	8.9
Germany	7.9
Japan	7.8
United Kingdom	7.6
United States	7.1
France	6.8
Malaysia	4.4
Turkey	4.4
Italy	3.9
Thailand	3.5
China	3.5
India	3.3
Kazakistan	2.9
Pakistan	2.3
Azerbaijan	2.4
Russia	2.1
Tajikistan	2.1
Kyrgyzstan	2
Iran	2.2
Turkmenistan	1.6
Uzbekistan	1.6
Myanmar	1.4
Afghanistan	1.4
Somalia	1.1

(Transparency International, 2010)

There are many examples of firms and individuals across different continents and countries that have been accused of taking bribes or bribing others; and the following are some noteworthy common examples or accusations of wrongdoing (Cavico & Mujtaba, 2011; McFarlin & Sweeney, 2006, 87–102; Mujtaba, 2010a, 2010c). In 1995, Lockheed Martin paid \$24 million in fines and one of its

executives was imprisoned for bribing Egyptian government officials with \$1.5 million to secure an aircraft contract/deal; General Electric (GE) paid a fine of \$69 million when it was discovered that one of its employees bribed an Israeli general; officials in France were said to have offered aid to Vietnam in order to secure part of the Vietnamese telecom market; and a former consultant to the Afghan Ministry of Mines and Industry reported in 2009 that an Afghan minister was supposedly paid a \$20-million bribe by Chinese contractors to award the development of the Aynak project for copper mining to their state-owned China Metallurgical Group (MMC) firm. As presented by the United Nations Development Programme (2008), corruption is widespread and a major challenge for today's leaders.

According to Transparency International, which is a German-based private organization devoted to stamping out corrupt business practices, the Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) is designed to measure the perceived level of corruption in the public-sector. Transparency International's CPI is based on business surveys conducted by at least 13 different experts. The CPI data presented in Table 1 shows a selected number of countries' rankings and scores for data compiled in 2010. Such data can be helpful in cross-sectional studies and seeing the widespread existence of perceived corruption in the South Asian region. In this study, an index score of 10.0 means no corruption, whereas a CPI score of 0.0 means the country is likely to be highly corrupt; in this case, the CPI score indicates the "perceived level of public-sector corruption" as determined by Transparency International findings.

Due to the realities of foreign occupations and civil unrest over the past three decades, Afghanistan's most basic capacity-building infrastructures have been destroyed and, thus, the government cannot always consistently enforce basic anti-bribery and anti-corruption laws (Mujtaba, 2007a). Consequently, with a 2010 CPI score of 1.4, Afghanistan is currently perceived to be one of the world's most corrupt places for public sector transactions. In addition to Afghanistan, there are many developing and even developed countries that are not earning high scores for their levels of global integrity (Global Integrity Report, 2009). These negative perceptions of corruption and bribery impact the decisions of global entrepreneurs in terms of deciding where they should invest in business opportunities (Camerer, 2006; Kelman, 2000). Due to these unfortunate

circumstances and the inappropriate or illegal uses of public funds, many Afghans living or working in the country feel they are getting poorer every single day, not richer (Dalrymple, 2010).

Of course, as part of a comprehensive anti-corruption program, a country's citizens, as well as its political and business leaders, should become "ethical allies" by reporting cases of bribery and not tolerating it in order to have a business culture where people from around the world would want to come for pleasure, business, and investment opportunities. *Ethical allies* are those individuals who refuse to pay bribes and simultaneously discourage others from expecting kickbacks or giving bribes to unfairly influence others. Ethical allies say something when they see someone giving a bribe—if they see a situation in which it looks like a bribe is about to take place, they say something to discourage such unfair and unethical practices. Ethical allies support human development, because they understand that it is this initiative that can encourage people to exercise their rights and actively participate in the political life of their country (Hors, 2000, 44). Human development initiatives and efforts can lead to economic prosperity and reduce corruption (Ghazanfar & May, 2000, 367). Bribery, corruption, and other such secretly conducted harmful practices can sooner or later lead to unfortunate outcomes and bring economic, political, and social misery. When government employees and ordinary citizens are no longer tolerating corrupt practices, then there is hope for eliminating and eradicating the cycle of corruption (O'Higgins, 2006).

This widespread presence of bribery and corruption among government officials, police officers, and judicial members in Afghanistan is very dangerous, as these harmful practices will keep the cycle of poverty spiraling further downward. In the more rural areas of the country, corruption and bribery are at their highest levels. Many foreigners claim that these high levels of bribery and corrupt practices are part of a long tradition of patronage and nepotism in Afghanistan; thus, some level of corruption is considered to be socially acceptable, proper, and legitimate, as certain practices are "merely" considered a "present," "*bakhsheesh*," or even "*Shookrauna*" (that is, a token of "thank you" or "appreciation"). These "presents" are mainly in the form of cash, but at times are livestock, part of a harvest, clothes, food, and other such valuable commodities in the local villages.

Moral Development Framework

Moral development is the growth of a person's ability to distinguish right from wrong, to develop a system of ethical values, and to learn to act morally (Cavico & Mujtaba, 2011; Kohlberg, 1984; Mujtaba, 2010b; Mujtaba, Cavico, McCartney, & DiPaolo, 2009). The term *development* refers to the progressive changes that take place in one's life. Moral development occurs through the process of not only maturity, but also socialization as a person learns what is acceptable in a culture, acquires education, grows older, and obtains work experience (Kohlberg, 1972; Mujtaba, 2010a). Moral development education and awareness is needed more today than ever before in every nation in order to bring good governance. In 2010, Noore Alam Siddiquee wrote that:

Although corruption is not a new phenomenon, lately it has become a matter of growing concern all over the world. This is partly because of the changing economic and political environment around the globe and partly because of the growing consensus in both academic and policy circles of the negative impacts of corruption on socio-economic development. Now there is a far greater appreciation than in the past that corruption is not only morally wrong, it exacts a heavy toll on a nation's prosperity. Corruption undermines good governance, distorts public policy, leads to misallocation of resources, and hurts economic growth. (153–154)

Siddiquee (2010) further writes that “combating corruption or promoting integrity has become a major component of governmental reforms in many countries” (154), and this necessitates a focus on the moral development of each person in a place like Afghanistan. For a morally developed person, individualism is linked to the Golden Rule—treating others the way one likes to be treated by them. In this manner, the world simply becomes a reflection of one's own behaviors. If others are rude or mean to a person, it is not always a characteristic of the other individual since it just might be a reflection of oneself. So, instead of blaming others for not behaving properly, a morally mature person should look inward and reflect on changing his or her own behaviors toward others. In time, this change can bring about better and more improved behaviors in others. Afghans, if they are becoming more individualistic as a culture, should keep in mind that true individualism means wishing for others what one wishes for oneself. Otherwise, the culture will not improve toward peace, prosperity, and modernization as quickly as possible. In each culture, according to Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of

moral development (1972, 1984), as people gain more experience during their socialization and educational processes, they are likely to become more morally sophisticated and will be less tolerant of unethical behaviors (Mujtaba, 2010b).

While some forms of bribery and corruption are present in all societies and cultures, this study surveys the Afghan population to see how tolerant they are of various unethical decisions based on their years of cultural socialization in an unstable and war-torn environment.

Method

To assess the ethical maturity of respondents, the Personal Business Ethics Scores survey was distributed to 680 English-speaking Afghans living in the United States, Europe, and Afghanistan. From those, 342 surveys were returned—29 with missing information and 313 that were completed fully and used for this analysis. Of the total usable responses from the Afghan population, 144 were males and 169 were females. In this sample, even though many were currently working in Afghanistan, 85% (266) said they were born outside of the country. Almost all of the respondents (98%), including those who were born outside of the United States and those who are currently working in Afghanistan, reported having lived in the United States for a period of six or more years. The majority of the respondents (92%) were less than 35 years of age, with only 24 (8%) respondents being age 36 or older. For the education variable, 170 had a high school degree or less, and 143 reported having a bachelor's degree or higher. Of the total responses, 225 Afghans mentioned that they had received some form of ethics training in the past, and 153 had received two or more years of management experience. For cross-cultural comparison, the Afghan data was compared with responses collected by the author and his colleagues during the same time period from 161 American respondents in South Florida, 231 Pakistanis from Lahore, Pakistan, and nearby provinces, and 518 Iranians who completed a Persian version of the survey in Iran.

The Personal Business Ethics Score (PBES) survey consists of 11 short ethical vignettes describing business decisions. Respondents were asked to rate the ethical decision on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly approve) to 5 (strongly disapprove). A lower score means that the respondent approves of the unethical decision described in the vignette. For this study, a test of internal

reliability revealed a Cronbach alpha reliability of 0.77 for the composite of 11 items. The respondents replied to a number of demographic questions, including gender, age, nationality, education, work experience, and employment status.

This research focused on Afghans living abroad and within Afghanistan to test their moral maturity scores using a quantitative survey instrument. Moral development theory claims that as people become more experienced, they are likely to become more morally mature. The research question in this study tests the moral development theory to determine if Afghan respondents are more morally mature as a result of their culture and upbringing in Afghanistan. The hypotheses¹ for this study are as follows:

- *Hypothesis 1:* Male Afghans will have Personal Business Ethics Scores that are equivalent to female Afghans.
- *Hypothesis 2:* Afghans will have Personal Business Ethics Scores that are equivalent to respondents from the United States.
- *Hypothesis 3:* Afghans will have Personal Business Ethics Scores that are equivalent to respondents from Iran.
- *Hypothesis 4:* Afghans will have Personal Business Ethics Scores that are equivalent to respondents from Pakistan.

Results and Analysis

It is clear that Afghan women and men are different because they have different experiences and paradigms due to their years of diverse socialization in society. Historically, most Afghan women have not been in the workplace, and it is unfortunate that nearly 50% of the population has not been able to fully contribute to the social and economic development of their country. As such, it is important that researchers study Afghan women, hear their voices, and integrate their ideas into each aspect of the workplace so Afghanistan can become peaceful, modernized, and globally competitive a little faster.

¹ Some of these results were originally presented at the Seventh Academy for Global Business Advancement World Congress at the Universiti Putra Malaysia, held December 1–3, 2010.

Table 2: Afghan Personal Business Ethics Scores by Gender

	Sample Size	Mean	Standard Deviation
Males	144	34.674	3.66
Females	169	34.34	3.58

$t = 0.81$; $p = 0.42$ (cannot reject)

Hypothesis 1, “Male Afghans will have Personal Business Ethics Scores that are equivalent to female Afghans,” could not be rejected (see Table 2) since the $t = 0.81$ and the alpha value ($p = .42$) is greater than the significance level of 0.05. The study demonstrates that these Afghan males and females responded similarly to the ethical dilemmas posed to them. Gender does not appear to be a factor in moral maturity. Males and females appear to have similar levels of disapproval for unethical decisions. Since men have more work experience with the Afghan sector, they are likely to be more familiar with these ethical challenges and, thus, should better recognize unethical decisions.

Hypothesis 2, “Afghans will have Personal Business Ethics Scores that are equivalent to respondents from the United States,” was rejected (see Table 3) because Americans had a significantly higher mean score than that of the Afghans. This is not a surprise, as Americans tend to take more academic courses dealing with ethical dilemmas in business. Also, because the survey was created by Western authors for American audiences, this might be a factor—Afghans may not have full familiarity with such scenarios.

Table 3: Afghan and American Personal Business Ethics Scores

	Sample Size	Mean	Standard Deviation
Afghans	313	34.49	3.615
Americans	161	39.1	8.03

$t = -8.61$; $p < 0.0001$ (reject)

Hypothesis 3, “Afghans will have Personal Business Ethics Scores that are equivalent to respondents from Iran,” is rejected (see Table 4) because Iranians had a significantly higher mean score. This is a surprise because Iranians and Afghans tend to study similar books and come from similar religious and cultural backgrounds. Iranians probably scored higher because they have had access to better educational facilities than most Afghans over the past three decades. The

data from Iran indicates that those respondents are more obedient to laws, rules, and regulations than Afghans and Americans.

Table 4: Afghan and Iranian Personal Business Ethics Scores

	Sample Size	Mean	Standard Deviation
Afghans	313	34.49	3.615
Iranians	518	40.85	6.48

$t = -15.93; p < 0.0001$ (reject)

Hypothesis 4, "Afghans will have Personal Business Ethics Scores that are equivalent to respondents from Pakistan," is rejected (see Table 5) because Pakistanis had a significantly higher mean score. This is not a surprise because Pakistanis tend to have more access to educational facilities and a stronger government.

Table 5: Afghan and Pakistani Personal Business Ethics Scores

	Sample Size	Mean	Standard Deviation
Afghans	313	34.49	3.615
Pakistanis	231	38.58	8.79

$t = -7.43; p < 0.0001$ (reject)

It was expected that the reported personal business ethics scores for the Afghans when compared to their colleagues from Pakistan, Iran, and the United States would not be significantly different. However, this expectation was not supported because the study found statistically significant differences between the personal business ethics scores of respondents from Afghanistan and the respondents in each of the other countries studied. The personal business ethics scores of Afghans were significantly lower than Pakistanis, Iranians, and Americans. Pakistanis appear to be less tolerant of unethical business decisions and prefer that their government deal effectively with the violators. The PBES data from Iran indicates that Iranian respondents who participated in this study are perhaps more obedient to the business laws and rules, as well as to business regulations, than the Afghan respondents. Nonetheless, the PBES data shows that Iranians have a higher level of ethical maturity in business than the respondents from Afghanistan, Pakistan, and the United States. The personal business ethics

scores of the Iranian respondents are not in alignment with the CPI scores provided by Transparency International. The CPI scores indicate that the United States is perceived to be less corrupt than Iran and Afghanistan.

Discussion

The reduction and elimination of corruption requires coherent strategic leadership and strategies that are in alignment with the local customs and norms. As such, the right individuals must be selected, appointed, and supported for strategy creation, implementation, and execution aimed at reducing corruption and the creation of a healthy work environment for everyone in the country. The personalities and experiences of top leaders will have a great influence on the formulation and implementation of the strategy for the creation of an ethical business environment. Most government officials and organizational leaders know that strategy formulation and strategy execution are far more complex in today's global world, in which influence comes not just from the locals, but also directly and indirectly from foreigners across continents. Despite the complexities, as described by the contingency theory, many additional factors and conditions in the cultural environment must be addressed by government officials in order for the country to remain competitive in the global marketplace (Galbraith, 1973). According to the contingency theory, the situational variables and factors in the current environment should determine what solutions will be appropriate to an existing problem (Schoonhoven, 1981). Decisions regarding the extent of uniformity among diverse institutions and organizational operations determine the layout of functions and how each segment and person is expected to contribute to overall strategy.

This study's significantly lower personal business ethics scores for Afghan respondents, although limited to a cultural comparison with only three other nations, is in alignment with Transparency International's 2009 and 2010 surveys on the Corruption Perception Index that the public sector in Afghanistan is perceived to be highly corrupt. When the Afghans' PBES increase, it is also hoped that their CPI scores will proportionally increase to where they are considered to be less tolerant of unethical practices. Business leaders and government representatives must work jointly and interdependently to reduce the negative externalities associated with bribery and any form of corruption because

of the boomerang phenomenon, “what goes around comes around.” While bribes are expected and accepted as a way of doing business in many countries, government and business leaders should prohibit and criminalize bribery payments because modern global investors want to feel safe. The businessperson must be concerned with all local and international laws that prohibit payments to government officials.

Practical Implications

One main practical application is that this academic study confirms the common perceptions concluded by Transparency International’s 2010 Corruption Perception Index study. Afghans can certainly decrease their level of tolerance for bribery practices by creating transparency and disclosure laws that are practical and enforceable. For example, perhaps public officials should be more transparent about their annual earnings and existing assets as they take a new position with the government, and disclose their financial earnings when leaving office. If the general public in Afghanistan finds bribery unacceptable and the government provides severe penalties for individuals and companies violating the rules, then the business community will respond accordingly by holding their employees to high ethical standards.

Afghan officials need to work very hard to create a business culture that is perceived to be fair, just, and transparent. Doing nothing is not a viable alternative, as that would only lead to local and international investors going to other countries. Taking relevant actions to reduce bribery and its perception in the public sector is a must for government officials and business leaders in Afghanistan. Government officials can communicate and promote the laws against bribery and other forms of corruption. The penalties for any violations should be clearly communicated and consistently enforced. Government agencies should provide training programs for ethical standards and their enforcement strategies. Businesspeople can also provide relevant training about ethical standards in their day-to-day practices. Training and human development can lead to economic prosperity over time; yet, it should be noted that economic prosperity or wealth does not necessarily lead to happiness as many other factors must also be taken into consideration (UI Haq, 1995). People must know how to use their economic prosperity and wealth in a balanced manner to

enhance the well-being of everyone in the community.

It is the responsibility of all public officials and their leaders to be ethical role models. According to Prahalad (2010), "managers must remember that they are the custodians of society's most powerful institutions. . . . They must therefore hold themselves to a higher standard. . . . Managers must strive to achieve success with responsibility" (36). Everyone must be role models of ethical standards, and managers should also provide training and development opportunities for their employees and staff. It is a fact that specific training and educational programs can greatly enhance the level of human development, which can lead to better economic developments and fewer chances for corruption or pluralistic ignorance (Husted, 1999). A better educated society is more likely to be intolerant of injustice and seek high moral standards from all public officials (Zhang, Cao, & Vaughn, 2009), while penalizing unethical behaviors (Sen, 1999). Business leaders and managers must become role models, as employees are likely to imitate what they observe from their leaders and the elderly in the community. An Afghan proverb implies that "If you sit with us, you will become like us; and if you sit close to the dishes in the kitchen, you are likely to become oily or greasy." So, it is important for leaders and managers to be role models of high ethical standards because their behavior is contagious.

It is best when any effort toward improving ethical behaviors and legal compliance are part of a comprehensive anti-corruption strategy to create awareness of existing laws and their energetic enforcement. Of course, in any developing country, an anti-corruption program must be based upon effective human development efforts. Given that relevant human development efforts are initiated in a developing country, many critical elements should be included in a comprehensive model for the creation and enforcement of an effective anti-corruption program. Any effective anti-corruption model, at the government or corporate level, should include education and training, transparency of recordkeeping and contracts, disciplinary actions for violations of legal and ethical standards, and regular auditing or inspections of major contracts to make sure everyone is compliant with the rules and policies. According to Siddiquee's study on the anti-corruption efforts of Malaysians (2010), "Evidence shows that despite governmental campaigns and initiatives, corruption has remained acute, widespread and, in fact, worsened in recent years" (153). Therefore, all efforts

must be continual and consistent. An important success element in Afghanistan is that this effort and initiative toward the creation of an ethical business culture must be driven by political, cultural, and business leaders who are Afghans.

The majority of the experts believe that a comprehensive anti-corruption program that includes the development of a highly ethical culture, education, management training, and capacity building is very important for sustainable, long-term success in Afghanistan. If this is the case, then perhaps people can become united around their common goal of achieving peace and prosperity through a fair and just work environment. The main focus of training should be on public education, because human development can ultimately lead to some modernization and development. Since Afghanistan has traditionally been an agrarian society, another aspect of education should be to help people invest in traditional crops. Some experts believe that:

The reconstruction of Afghanistan's agriculture is instrumental to the country's progress. With a bustling agricultural sector, Afghans will have access to legitimate jobs, poverty will decrease, the economy will come to life, and the government will win the hearts and minds of its people. But we cannot do it alone. The time is ripe and the possibilities are limitless for cooperation. (Haidari, 2010)

Cooperation between Afghan officials and their international supporters is critical for both infrastructure and human development in Afghanistan. As such, government administrators and foreign officials must do what they can to provide an environment in which people are encouraged and supported to complete their educational dreams by earning college degrees nationally or internationally. Educational opportunities for the local community, as well as programs to encourage the return of Afghan expatriates, will alleviate the brain-drain challenges facing the country. All such efforts toward the implementation of a comprehensive anti-corruption campaign should greatly assist in the reduction of bribery, corruption, pluralistic ignorance, and dependence in Afghanistan. Reduction or even elimination of corruption is a difficult task for any country, but very much a worthwhile objective and contribution toward the wellbeing of society and future generations.

Conclusion

This study is a start in the journey toward the ethical maturity of public and private sector workers in Afghanistan. Afghan leaders must energetically enhance the education and moral development training of the workforce in Afghanistan in order to create more competent professionals who are less tolerant of unethical and corrupt practices. The Afghan workforce must not accept bribes and should not be tempted to give bribes to others because such actions are important steps toward the development of an ethical business culture. It is only through the development of a fair and just work culture that Afghans can expect to attract local, national, and global entrepreneurs for investment opportunities in Afghanistan. Overall, this research is an important initial step in assessing and determining the tolerance levels of Afghans regarding ethical dilemmas and challenges.

Like most studies, this research has some limitations, and the smaller number of Afghan respondents born and raised in Afghanistan is one weakness. Another limitation is that this study surveyed Afghans who spoke English; in the future, the survey should be made available in Persian and Pashtu. The multicultural and expatriate Afghans have been socialized in Western as well as other Asian cultures and may not necessarily be representative of those living in Afghanistan. Despite the inherent limitations, this is one of the first-known scientific studies about the ethical and moral views of Afghans about business dilemmas. Therefore, it will hopefully be a good start for researchers and educators who want to see their Afghan colleagues succeed creating a peaceful Afghanistan where everyone can expect to be treated ethically and fairly.

Corrupt practices such as bribery can create huge obstacles to a country's efforts toward peace, prosperity, and modernization. Bribery impedes economic growth; erodes respect for law, order, and justice; and destroys people's trust in their leaders, institutions, and government. Therefore, government officials in Afghanistan must aggressively communicate and consistently enforce their anti-corruption laws in order to create a more ethical and socially responsible business climate. Furthermore, business leaders and government officials should continue to provide ethics awareness programs and promote anti-corruption policies so employees can always act in a legal and ethical manner, while

enforcing and expecting high ethical standards from their colleagues, business partners, and others in the community. These efforts will go a long way toward the creation of a socially responsible business environment that encourages ethical dealings. Today's global and competitive work environment, especially in the developing economies such as Afghanistan, needs true leaders both in the public and private sectors. True leaders have the confidence to stand alone with their ethical convictions, the courage to make tough decisions when it comes to building a strong character, and the compassion to listen to the needs of others in the community. True leaders do not necessarily set out to be leaders, but become leaders due to the equality of their convictions and actions and the integrity of their intent and purpose.

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Closing the Achievement Gap: A Leadership Challenge for an Eastern Seaboard School District

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This article addresses a project undertaken to assess an eastern seaboard school district and its newly installed superintendent. The project sought to evaluate supplemental service innovations and community partnerships to reduce the achievement gap within the school district. The superintendent built upon an existing strategic plan with three primary agenda items: a focus on improving faculty competencies through in-service training; an after-school program that would attack the achievement gap; and enhanced collaborative relationships between parent-stakeholders and the school district. This article documents the role that stakeholders played in managing the achievement gap. It also provides evidence of marked improvements in the achievement gap through Beta, courseware that allows students to access its tutorial to manage their schoolwork when out of school or struggling, helping them achieve proficiency. Recommendations are included for future research.

Key words: achievement gap, after-school programs, educational leadership, student achievement

For many years, policymakers, educators, and interested community members were concerned with student achievement. While great strides were made to foster student achievement, academic leaders have recently introduced new approaches to meet this national issue.

The term *achievement gap* is defined as the gap in academic achievement between the white and minority populations. The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, in part, seeks to address this gap by requiring children from all demographic groups (e.g., economically disadvantaged families, children with

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disabilities, children with limited English proficiency, etc.) to meet equal performance targets. In 2007, an eastern seaboard state required all school districts to meet the standards set by state regulation. In effect, this regulation requires a monitoring and evaluation system to assess the state's ability to meet the goals of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. If any particular subgroup does not meet the standard performance targets over a specified timeframe, districts must take action. Possible actions include supplemental services, public school choice programs, and school governance restructuring. Accordingly, academic leadership has moved in such directions as new leaders were hired to lower the achievement gap and attain greater results and accountability. Much of the literature addresses capacity building and partnership formation with parents and the stakeholder community (Brooks, 2009; Bryk, 2010; Ellingson, 2010; Farmer, 2010; Johnson, 2007; Kowal, Hassel, & Hassel, 2009; Rivero, 2010).

This article addresses a project undertaken to assess the "Alpha School District"¹ and the effect that a new superintendent had on efforts to close the achievement gap. The project sought to evaluate and design supplemental service innovations and community partnerships to reduce the achievement gap within the school district.

Literature Review

Leadership and the Achievement Gap

According to Kowal et al. (2009), President Barack Obama and U.S. Education Secretary Arne Duncan have called upon states, districts, and education leaders to improve the academic performance of the nation's 5,000 lowest performing schools. One approach to meeting this challenge is for low-performing schools to become "turnaround schools" by bringing in a "turnaround leader." Turnaround schools attain quick, dramatic and sustained change that is driven by highly capable academic leaders.

Herman et al. (2008) developed a guide of practices for turnaround schools. They claim that their guide can serve as a model for low-performing schools. Included in their recommendations about change are the ideas that:

- dramatic change is brought on by strong leadership;
- change is brought on by a continuing, ongoing effort to improve instruction;
- change occurs with “quick wins”—visible and early improvements in the turnaround process; and
- change occurs by building a committed staff.

Johnson (2007) asks the questions: What do successful turnaround administrators actually do? What skills do they need? Where should we be looking for such leaders, and what support do they need? Johnson reported on the Wallace Foundation-sponsored Public Agenda project that interviewed principals of high-needs school districts to better understand these issues. The Public Agenda project also surveyed educational leaders who worked with principals who had reputations for effectiveness. The report produced numerous insights into the “turnaround” concept. One conclusion from the study was that turnaround leaders were seen as “transformers” with clear vision for their schools. They also discovered that these leaders promote “can-do” cultures to overcome the barriers that lead to low achievement.

Catchings (2009) examined the leadership style of Stanley Blackmon, the highly regarded principal who turned around Lanier High School in Jackson, Mississippi. Blackmon's leadership style was modeled after Lewin's change management model. By exercising this model, Blackmon transformed Lanier High School from the lowest-performing high school in the district to one of the highest. Catchings documented that Blackmon:

- “unfroze” the negative mindset of the teachers, students, and community and
- made necessary changes within the operations of the school.

These changes were systematic and critical to increasing student achievement.

The literature on the meeting the achievement gap challenge also shows that successful turnaround leaders have strategic improvement plans. The Consortium for Policy Research in Education (2009) reported that schools never attain the goal of increased student achievement without “strategic management.” The Consortium defined *strategic management* in human capital terms. The *strategic management of human capital* is the systematic process of aligning school district academic goals with school district organization and practices,

from curriculum and assessment to teacher and administrator recruitment, retention, and compensation.

Likewise, the Center for Comprehensive School Reform and Improvement (Kowal et al., 2009) stated that a school improvement plan is based on a comprehensive needs assessment. The report states that assessment provides the framework to effect change in a school's programming, student support systems, and climate. The report presents six elements of an effective strategic plan: (1) an aligned and rigorous curriculum, (2) effective instruction, (3) use of formative assessment and student assessment data, (4) a positive school climate focused on achievement, (5) effective school leadership, and (6) family and community engagement.

Finally, Bryk (2010) identified five strategic elements in a school strategic improvement plan: (1) leadership that drives change, (2) a coherent instructional guidance system, (3) a student-centered learning climate, (4) development of the professional capacity of its faculty, and (5) strong parent-community-school ties.

Capacity Building: Staff Development

The literature suggests that the achievement gap is minimized by developing teacher competencies through a well-structured in-service training program (Bryk, 2010; Consortium for Policy Research in Education, 2009; Sentocnik & Rupar, 2009; Schmerler et al., 2009).

Sentocnik and Rupar (2009) examined the strengths and weaknesses of in-service training. Bryk (2010) concluded that there is a direct relationship between improving student performance and faculty competency building. The Consortium for Policy Research in Education (2009) made a similar conclusion. It found that high-quality professional development interventions can lead to improvements in teaching innovation and mentoring.

Seligman (2005) sees the achievement gap issue as both complex and perplexing to change. As much as the gap can be minimized through competency building, real tangible results rest with the student. In contrast, Guydish (2009) believes that change rests with school staff. Guydish encourages both teachers and administrators to be adaptive in their approach, and calls for more self-reflection on the part of faculty. They should ask themselves: What can I do to

improve student learning? Staff development workshops and professional development conferences can build competencies to lower the gap.

Supplemental Educational Services: A Case for Strategic After-School Interventions

For over 100 years, after-school programs have existed, but before the 1970s, family and members of the community (neighbors) fulfilled the role of after-school care (Hofferth, Brayfield, Deich, & Holcomb, 1991). Since then, demographic and economic trends have dramatically shifted after-school care away from the family and community to after-school facilities and programs. This was due to several causes: an increase in single-parent homes; a higher divorce rate; and an increasing number of homes with dual-career couples. These changes sparked the development and growth of after-care centers that were regional and local in nature. These centers often functioned without federal subsidies.

According to Dynarski and Moore (2004), the percentage of public schools offering extended-day programs has more than tripled from 13% to 47% between 1987 and 1999. Today, more than 6 million children and youth participate in after-school programs (Afterschool Alliance, 2004).

Within most after-school programs, an early intervention is an integral part of any strategy to manage the achievement gap. Peebles-Wilkins (2007) completed a 20-year longitudinal study of comprehensive child care among disadvantaged children. Advocates for expanded preschool enrollments suggest that such programs target both children and their parents as part of educational programming (Peebles-Wilkins, 2007).

Kruczek, Alexander, and Harris (2005) believe that the transition from childhood to early adolescence is a high-risk period for middle school students. Kruczek et al. also supported Roeser, Eccles, and Sameroff's (2000) contention that the child's perception of school during this transition period affects both their present (the value of school and learning) and their future (expectations of success). Likewise Miller (2001) and Peotheroe (2006) contend that the structure of a well-planned after-school program can help high-risk students apply the academic content of the school day. Further, they consider new skills (e.g., conflict resolution, anger management, etc.) to be critical to an after-school program. Both Roeser et al. and Kruczek et al. believe that acquiring such skills may

reduce the likelihood of future high-risk behaviors that impede learning and success.

Kruczek et al. (2005) state that effective after-school programs should include three core counseling interventions: individual counseling, family counseling, and group guidance. High school students should receive a one-hour minimum of both individual counseling and group guidance. Counseling services provide students with ways of expressing their feelings. Kruczek et al. say that some of the important outcomes anticipated in the program are motivation, a healthy identity, self-esteem, adaptive peer relations, an enriching academic experience, and conflict management skills.

Finally, an after-school program must focus on cultural diversity and social skills. These skills are developed through tutorials, group discussions, presentations, communication, and interpersonal skills workshops for parents and custodial guardians. An effective after-school program should also include activities that reinforce the learning that transpires during the school day.

Enhancing Collaboration between School District Stakeholders

Lee and Bowen (2006) found a relationship between parental involvement and child achievement. According to them, “existing inequalities in the levels of this type of involvement are likely to contribute to the achievement gap” (208). Lee and Bowen advocate for greater parental involvement to manage the achievement gap. They also identified barriers to parental involvement such as work schedules, transportation issues, and the discomfort of parents in the school setting. They concluded that creative strategies are essential to managing these barriers.

Rossario and Pablo (2004) argue that there should be enhanced collaboration between parents and school district stakeholders. These authors believe that an after-school organization must be equipped to facilitate dialogue among different stakeholders

McKay, Atkins, Hawkins, Brown, and Lynn (2003) also note that parental involvement is critical to the development of having both successful at-home and at-school activities. They believe that stakeholder collaboration is critical to successfully closing the achievement gap and can be accomplished by having all stakeholders involved both in strategic planning and in policy formation. Further,

McKay et al. reported on the success of “social networking events” such as welcome parties and mother’s day breakfasts. They found that such events drew more than 120 parents, while Parent-Teacher Association meetings drew only 20 parents. As such, it is imperative that school districts design collaborative events that draw the largest parent response. McKay et al. believe that social networking events not only promote parent visibility, but also open up lines of communication between parents and teachers.

Beta After-School Program

Beta², an online tutorial program, has become popular in school districts that seek to close the achievement gap. Beta allows students to access its courseware to manage their schoolwork when out of school due to medical or other absentee issues. It also provides a viable option for those students needing supplemental educational assistance in order to reach proficiencies in targeted areas. Most recently, the Alpha School District began utilizing the Beta courseware as an alternative to summer school and thereby helping students advance from one grade to the next. Students can self-pace their work thorough the Beta program. According to one author, Beta has reduced the dropout rate in a southern U.S. school district and is an increasingly popular tool used in “alternative school” districts.

Wetzel (2008) reported that educators see Beta as effective, impressive, and beneficial. Like Shalash (2008), Wetzel also reported that the self-directed nature of Beta provides students with the flexibility necessary to meet their learning needs and believes that Beta is a proven tool to help close the achievement gap.

The Alpha School District Plan

In the Alpha School District, the new superintendent evaluated and enhanced a strategic plan with three primary agenda items: (1) a focus on improving faculty competencies through in-service training; (2) a well-thought-out after-school program that would attack the achievement gap; and (3) enhanced collaborative relationships between parent-stakeholders and the Alpha School District.

The superintendent referred to in this article made in-service training a primary agenda item in the strategic plan, and made sure the Board of Education was on

board before proceeding. The Alpha School District seeks to build such competencies and accountability. The superintendent now requires field reports following all in-service training activities. The superintendent, in collaboration with the school board, reviews these reports to determine the impact of all in-service training on the classroom and encourages turnkey solutions.

The second agenda item in the Alpha School District superintendent's strategic plan was the enhancement of a results-oriented after-school program. The Alpha School District designed such a program primarily through the utilization of the Beta courseware. Positive results reported in a southern U.S. school district utilizing the courseware, such as reduced dropout rates and popularity in alternative school settings, are similar to those in the Alpha School District. Those utilizing Beta in the Alpha School District are extremely happy with the program results, and look forward to opportunities to further utilize Beta in the near future.

Although the Alpha School District had used Beta as part of its evening alternative high school program for some time, there was no educational program using it during the normal school day. The district embarked upon a pilot program whereby Beta would be used during the day to keep suspended students, homebound students, and students in need of supplemental educational assistance on track, and collected data on the Beta pilot study and its users. Post-pilot test data revealed that attendance was 90% for March/April 2008 ($N = 29$ students); 80% for May 2008 ($N = 22$) and 90% for June 2008 ($N = 9$ students). A case study of four students who used this program instead of homebound instruction resulted in 10 out of 16 possible subject-area grades increasing at least one letter grade, with 9 of those 10 grades increasing by more than one letter grade (Alpha School District, 2008). These results led to the expansion of the program for the 2008–2009 and 2009–2010 school years. The program included three hours of classroom time using the Beta system and three hours of service within the community. Community service included activities such as cleaning up public places, social interaction with community leaders, and group counseling sessions (Alpha School District). Unfortunately, the program was discontinued for the 2010–2011 school year as a result of budget cuts. Beta continues to be used in the Alpha School District's evening alternative high school program and during the normal school day in very limited capacities. It is anticipated that a needs assessment will be conducted during the 2010–2011

school year and that the daytime program, in some form or another, will be reinstated to help combat low student achievement levels.

A third agenda item for the Alpha School District superintendent was to enhance collaboration between parent and school district stakeholders. Liaison committees made up of parents, students, teachers, and administrators were created. These committees meet monthly, and results are shared with the board of education as part of the superintendent's monthly update on board goals. The superintendent placed additional emphasis on faculty and administrators being supportive of community events, and attends many personally. Participation in local parades, fairs, and town meetings has become the norm for the Alpha School District. Most recently, the superintendent supported collaboration with the local religious establishments in order to reach as many community members as possible in order to garner parental and community involvement in school planning, processes, and challenges, such as closing the achievement gap.

Variables and Research Questions

The research variables for this project were tested, evaluated, and measured with a survey distributed to teachers and administrators in the Alpha School District. The survey was administered to the population employed in the local high school, the junior school, the intermediate school, and three elementary schools. A questionnaire (using a Likert scale) was designed to evaluate results from the program following the pilot test period.

The following variables were developed and measured: perceptions of the achievement gap, student achievement, staff development, supplemental educational services, and parental involvement. The primary research questions were:

- Can an increased emphasis on student achievement close the achievement gap at the high school?
- Can staff professionals further decrease the achievement gap?
- Can supplemental educational services such as Beta help reduce the achievement gap?
- Can efforts to enhance collaboration with parents improve student achievement and further address closing the achievement gap?

- What effect did the change in school leadership (new superintendent) have on closing the achievement gap?

Method

Following the introduction of new professional development policies, the Beta program, and efforts to enhance stakeholder collaboration, two groups of stakeholders (administrators and teachers) were asked to complete a 12-question survey designed to examine the impact of the strategic actions. A 10-question survey was administered to the same group one year prior to the strategic action.

Since the population size of stakeholders was less than 500, a 100% return rate was sought. In the pre-pilot test survey, 10 school administrators and 228 teachers were surveyed. In this survey, staff responded to four questions measured on a simple category scale. Four questions were measured on a Likert Rating Scale. One question was measured on a nominal forced ranking scale. In addition, respondents replied to open-ended questions. The same or equivalent questions were administered to staff in the second-year post-pilot survey.

Results

Four administrators and 110 teachers responded to the 2008 pre-pilot survey. This represents a 40% return rate for administrators and a 48% return rate for teachers. Two administrators and 76 teachers responded to the 2009 post-pilot test survey.

Although “achievement” initiatives were in place at all grade levels in the school district, the majority of teacher respondents came from upper grade levels in both years of the study. A number of questions from the pre- and post-pilot surveys are summarized below.

Question 3: Are you part of any committee, team, or other type of group with the primary concern of closing the achievement gap?

For the pre-test pilot year, 71.05% of respondents indicated that they were not part of any committee, team, or other type of group with the primary concern of closing the achievement gap, while 28.95% indicated that they were. In the post-test survey, 66.67% of respondents indicated that they were not part of any

committee, team, or other type of group with the primary concern of closing the achievement gap, while 30.77% indicated that they were; 2.56% of respondents did not answer this question. The change between the pre- and post-test data indicates greater participation on committees or teams devoted to closing the achievement gap.

Question 4: Does the school district place enough emphasis on closing the achievement gap as a major goal?

For Question 4, 84.21% of the pre-test survey respondents believed that the school district placed enough emphasis on closing the achievement gap, 14.04% did not, and 1.75% did not answer this question. In the post-test survey, 87.18% of respondents felt that the school district placed enough emphasis on closing the achievement gap, while only 11.54% indicated that they did not. Only 1.28% of the post-test respondents did not answer this question. These results imply that the administrators and teachers agree, slightly more, that the school district places enough emphasis on closing the achievement gap. Stakeholder consensus on this issue is critical to managing the achievement gap.

Question 5: Please rank (1 being the highest priority and 3 being the lowest priority) which activity best helps close the achievement gap: parental involvement, supplemental educational services, and staff development.

In the pre-test survey, 78.07% of the respondents ranked parental involvement as the highest priority for closing the achievement gap, and 16.67% ranked parental involvement as the second highest priority. The biggest shift on this question occurred when parental involvement was ranked third. In the pre-test, 4.39% of the respondents ranked parental involvement a third priority. In the post-test, 20.51% of respondents ranked it third. This shift may indicate that there were interventions in place to gain parental involvement. With parental involvement ranked lower, administrators and teachers may see a need to refocus to other areas, such as supplemental educational services and professional development. While .87% of the respondents did not answer this question in the pre-test, all participants responded in the post-test.

For Question 5 of the pre-test survey, 10.53% of the respondents perceived supplemental educational services as the highest priority to close the achievement gap. This ranking increased to 14.10% in the post-test. In the pre-

test, 45.61% of the respondents ranked supplemental educational services as the second priority. This had slightly increased to 48.72% in the post-pilot survey. In contrast, 42.11% of the respondents perceived supplemental educational services as a third priority. In the post-test this had decreased to 37.18%. One could argue that supplemental educational services are seen as more important after the post-test period. While 1.75% of the respondents did not answer this question in the pre-test, all participants responded in the post-test.

Also for Question 5, 14.04% of the respondents in the pre-test saw professional development of the highest priority to close the achievement gap. In the post-test this increased to 24.36%. In contrast, 35.09% of the respondents ranked professional development as a second priority. This reduced slightly to 33.33% in the post-test. However, in the pre-test, 50% of the respondents ranked professional development third in priority. This decreased to 42.31% in the post-test. (While .87% of the respondents did not answer this question in the pre-test, all participants responded in the post-test.) One could argue that these results indicate that professional development may be viewed more important after the post-test period. This shift may be explained by an increased sense of parental involvement; therefore, the school district can place a greater emphasis on professional development. Overall, the results of the post-test indicates that there is a shared sense of increased parental involvement, and, perhaps, a sense that the school district leadership must make professional development and the after-school program a higher priority.

Question 6: The school district has initiated an adequate amount of supplemental educational services and alternative programs to address closing the achievement gap.

Regarding this question (measured on a Likert-ordinal scale) the pre-test mean was 3.66, or close to agree. There was little or no change to the mean in the post-test. ($X = 3.61$). There was also very little variation in the data (coefficient of variation, or CVs, of .25 and .25 respectively). The data imply that there is a continued sense that the school district must support alternative programs like Beta.

Question 7: There is an increasing awareness of the achievement gap in the school district.

Regarding this question, the pre-test mean was 3.68 (close to agree). In the post-test, respondents also agreed on this question with a mean of 3.63. Again, there was minimal variation in the data (CVs of .24 and .24). There appears to be a continued sense that there is awareness of the achievement gap issue, and that more work needs to be done.

Question 8: The school district supports professional development activities that pertain to the classroom and will close the achievement gap.

For Question 8, the mean of 3.65 implies that respondents see the school district as supportive of professional development. The mean moved closer to agree ($X = 3.85$) in the second year. Again, there was minimal variation in the data as the CVs were .25 and .19 respectively. The data imply that there is a continued sense that professional development activities are important for managing the achievement gap.

Question 9: The school district has done a good job to gain parental involvement to improve student achievement and close the achievement gap.

In the pre-test, respondents were close to neutral on this question ($X = 2.79$, with a CV of .37). In the post-test, the mean changed slightly (2.68, CV = .37). Perhaps these neutral perceptions of administrators and faculty are explained by a general lack of apathy that increased parental involvement can occur.

Question 10: The change in district leadership has moved the school district in a positive direction to manage the achievement gap.

For the pre-test year, the superintendent was not employed by the school district; therefore, this question was not posed. However, in the post-test survey, this question produced a mean of 3.37 (with a CV of .188). This may imply (on the surface) that staff see no marked improvement brought on by the new district leadership. Research supports the notion that cultural change takes years to implement. Additional longitudinal data may shed more light on the impact of the new superintendent's style and agenda to change the culture of the school district.

Limitations

Some of the strategic actions to manage the achievement gap in the Alpha School District (e.g., Beta) were introduced before the new superintendent's arrival. The new superintendent built on this need as well as identified new policies governing professional development. He also pressed for enhanced stakeholder collaboration. To judge his agenda, with less than one year in office, would be unfair. Future post-test surveys should contain questions on leadership variables and the effect of the superintendent's style on school district culture and change. Another limitation is the survey response rates in both the pre and post-test. A stronger response rate is needed on future post-test surveys. Accordingly, all teachers and administrators must be encouraged to return the survey; this is critical for obtaining further commitment to manage the achievement gap.

Finally, there was neither a pure, nor perfect, fit between the pre- and post-test surveys vis-à-vis the research objectives. To manage this issue, post-test survey questions are needed to better measure the change effort. Specifically, Likert-based questions might serve better than rank order questions. Aforementioned additional leadership questions are to be added to post-test surveys. Use of secondary measures can also gauge real change to the district's achievement gap.

Conclusions and Recommendations

For several years, the Alpha School District had not adequately managed the achievement gap. Cultural disparities—such as gender, ethnic, and economic boundaries—contributed to the achievement gap district wide. The Alpha School District built a program based on the academic literature and local community needs. This article documents the roles that staff development, supplemental educational services, and parental involvement played in managing the achievement gap. While this article provides evidence of progress, there is a need for future survey-based research to manage the school district program.

This article provides evidence of marked improvements in the achievement gap using the Beta program and its reported results. However, data collection on the Beta program should continue to better assess its success within the Alpha School District and to determine how the school district could benefit from

expanding use of this courseware. Further, the article offers evidence of change from the post-test survey results. Specifically:

- There is greater participation on committees or teams devoted to closing the achievement gap.
- Stakeholders continue to see the achievement gap as a critical issue.
- Parental involvement needs to increase.
- Professional development and the after-school programs, such as Beta are priorities.
- There is a district-wide awareness that more work is needed to manage the achievement gap.
- There exists some skepticism (by administrators and faculty) that increased parental involvement can occur.

The school district may want to consider these results as it moves strategically, over the long term, to manage the achievement gap.

Notes

1. This article does assess effective or ineffective administrative management
2. The name of the school district and the software have been altered to preserve their anonymity and refrain from any endorsements.

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PEDAGOGY

A Comparison of Traditional Instructional Methods and Accelerated Learning Methods in Leadership Education

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This study examined the effectiveness of a variety of instructional methods as they relate to the maximization of learning. The importance of instructional delivery methods and the effect of leadership education's relation to organizational outcomes were considered. The model draws on the pedagogical work of Ostrander and Schroeder (1997), who reported on the work of Georgi Lozanov and other researchers and practitioners. Based on the literature review, it was expected that there would be a difference in learning effectiveness between traditional instructional methods and accelerated learning methods. The Solomon four-group research design methodology was used to test the hypothesis with the results being favorable.

Key words: accelerated learning methods, instructional design, leadership education

To state that people in recent years think that effective leadership is lacking in the world is an understatement, yet its significance cannot be understated. As one group of international management researchers aptly put it, "leadership is vital for effective organizational and societal function" (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004, 5). Tellingly, leadership education has increasingly become a main goal among business practitioners. The quality of leadership influences the business. Educational improvement through optimization of time and energy expended by leadership instructors and learners demonstrates sound judgment. Arguably, leadership development fosters management development, which are both tantamount to professional development (and perhaps personal development, too). Good leadership can be a strategic advantage and provide unambiguous professional direction. This, of course, assumes the acceptance of a model of leadership behavior as an example of what needs to be learned (Preziosi, 2009). The challenges inherent in the current business environment make such an endeavor imperative (i.e., the dearth of effective managers and leaders). Implementing accelerated learning principles is perfectly suited to make applied

leadership education time- and cost-effective in all the business disciplines. The minimalist, or *optimizationalist*, approach should be important to leadership educators for two reasons: the excess of leadership theories that do not translate well to industry actualities and the time compression experienced by the majority of today's students.

Learning initiatives throughout the world are continuously examined to determine the effect on or relationship to leadership education and, thusly, leadership performance. However, do accelerated learning environments actually cause learning to be amplified? Do they make a difference? As Williams and Lau (2004) reasoned, reformers always have a duty to provide evidence that their assertions are necessary, sound, practicable, and progressive. Under review in this study was the effectiveness of a variety of educational and training tools as they relate to increased learning. The factors taken into consideration were the importance of instructional delivery methods and the effect of leadership education, i.e., how it relates to organizational benefits and outcomes. The conceptual model for the study drew on the work of Ostrander and Schroeder (1997), who reported on the work of noted Bulgarian educator and psychologist Georgi Lozanov, who developed the learning/teaching theory *suggestopedia*.

Good teaching is a moot point if the learners are not learning much. Thus, it is important to add to our understanding of what makes for good learning results. Learning, which is usually the result of facilitating, was the core of this study. The outcomes orientation of this article is based on the assumption that the business industry is pragmatic and results-oriented in nature.

Traditional Versus Nontraditional Instruction

The traditional role of college instructors was that of *content deliverers* (Miller, 2007). They determined the subject matter. They set the expected standards for what was to be learned. What they thought was important information was lectured to a group of students in a classroom. Time was left at the end for students to ask questions. The material presented later appeared on an examination. Many professors gauged their instructional worth, often with pride, by the rigor of their class and testing instruments. Less thought was given to what students actually learned and could actually apply some day on their jobs. If the class was hard and most students were passing the tests at levels that

approximated a bell curve, it was assumed students were learning. It has been understood for decades that the straight lecture/tutorial modality is outdated spoon-feeding that stifles creative thinking and keeps the pupil inferior to the teacher (Williams & Lau, 2004). Still, the passive pattern is repeated worldwide nowadays in traditional institutions with large class sizes. Why? Because it has always been done that way, and old habits die hard. One can also argue that it is an inexpensive method of educating large numbers of people.

Few question that leadership education should involve rigorous coursework and pedagogical approaches that have been demonstrated to enhance student success for all students (Rhodes, 2007). However, progressive instructors have never accepted the idea that cramming students with information is an optimal way for them to learn. In the early 20th century, William Butler Yeats clarified this idea by using a metaphor, "Education is not the filling of a pail, but the lighting of a fire." In short, the most optimal way for learners to learn is not through a surfeit of facts and an emphasis on rote memory that unsurprisingly results in a bloated curriculum and less learning.

Identifying the correct level of academic difficulty should be one of the means (albeit a very essential one), and learning should be the major end. Teaching is a complex task, and an expert facilitator has a repertoire of strategies (Hmelo-Silver & Barrows, 2006). Education unquestionably has more to do with learning than teaching. Learning is enhanced by giving students just the right amount (i.e., the optimal level) of information and assignments. If the amount and depth of learning is unjustifiably too demanding, learners become discouraged. If it is too unchallenging, the learners become uninterested. Either way, the result is certainly not accelerated learning.

Facilitation is a subtle skill that is aided by assessing and understanding the levels of students' cognitive abilities and prior experiences. The appropriate amount of class work, homework, and overall rigor can be gauged if the scholastic, demographic, and psychographic data of the students are known. Instructors concerned with accelerating learning in classroom often collect this data from the very beginning of the first class, using comprehensive pre-tests, *icebreaker* exercises, and informal questioning (e.g., What do you think about the new CEO's leadership so far?) to the extent possible. Through these inquiring techniques and others, conscientious instructors continually collect information

about the classroom profile until the very end of the course. They fully understand the main rule in presenting information: know your audience.

Conscientious instructors ensure that their presentation style and classroom activities are conducive to learning, as opposed to making it hard just for the sake of making it a difficult class. They use methods and techniques that further accelerate learning. They create circumstances through a multitude of large and small actions that make learning more likely to occur. These may include moving the clock to the back of the classroom so as to be out of students' sight or hosting a portion of the course from an interactive online educational platform to supplement learning material. Like scholarly interchange among business educators, facilitating classroom instruction often means allowing students to do more of the talking than they would in the traditional setting. It means being warm and kind to students collectively and each student individually.

Outstanding instructors tend to be flexible. They are continually adapting by assimilating new subject matter and pedagogical methods. Of late, technology has provided a multitude of opportunities to do just that. For instance, the idea that technology-based learning environments will cause students to be learners who are more active corresponds to the results of recent research conducted by Douglas, Miller, Kwansa, and Cummings (2008). Their study indicated that the student-subjects were stimulated by the simulation experience and perceived it as useful.

When progressive instructors facilitate learning to the best of their ability, it results in intensified learning. The role of learning style must be understood and applied (Gooden, Preziosi, & Barnes, 2009). The authors address which instructional method fits which learning style. Many of the methods discussed in this article are accelerated methods of learning that provide new ways of improving leadership education and have implications for leadership practice.

Accelerated Learning

Meier (2000) declared that "Accelerated Learning is the most advanced learning approach in use today It is based on the latest research on the brain and learning. It can use a wide variety of methods and media. It is open and flexible" (9). Trainers and educators, then, are no longer information *shovelers*, but *orchestrators* of a total environment where learners happily do most of the work.

The replacement of didactic teaching with an enhanced minimalist approach does not mean that lectures and tutorials must be eliminated from business curricula. Rather, it views them as two options within a host of pedagogical methods that can be considered toward the objective of optimization. There exist myriad ways to shorten the time in which students will learn a given topic, concept, etcetera. Tafoya (2004) outlined an integrative model that draws on transactional analysis and accelerated learning systems with the purpose of improving teaching and learning methods, teacher-student relationships, and the empowerment of learners. However, strengthening the quantity and quality of learning can be accomplished by modifying three main factors: aspects about the student, variables related to the instructor, and temporal factors.

Miller (2007) called for teachers to become instructional designers who create courses and learning managers who deliver them. In his estimation, the core competence of both of these new education professions is the combination of a broad understanding of educational technology with a deep knowledge of learning. Hostetler (2007) found that something as simple as introducing practices that create a safe place to learn constitutes accelerated learning. She also emphasized, "Learning is critical for leaders, especially those in complex, fast-moving industries. . . . but the kind of learning necessary to develop strong leaders is the kind that requires introspection, a notion that is counterintuitive in fast-paced organizations" (63). Problem-based learning is an ever more popular accelerated instructional method in which students learn through facilitated problem solving (Hmelo-Silver, 2004). Problem-based learning is directed by the students themselves. Students often work in collaborative groups to identify what they need to learn to solve a problem. They engage in self-directed learning and then apply their new knowledge to the problem and reflect on what they learned and the effectiveness of the strategies employed. The teacher acts as a facilitator of the learning process rather than a provider of knowledge. The evidence suggests that problem-based learning is an instructional approach that offers the potential to help students develop flexible understanding and lifelong learning skills (Hmelo-Silver, 2004).

Classroom applications aside, learning theory is continually evolving, but the information that actually works in practice often does not enter the mainstream in most countries. For instance, appealing to various learning styles is important.

One student processes information different from the next student. Understanding how the brain learns is just one area that can be instructive in strengthening facilitation. Bradley (2004) described that the left brain is the logical hemisphere, which recognizes words, letters, and numbers. It thus processes speech, analysis, time, and sequence. The right brain is the intuitive hemisphere, which gathers information more for images than words. It looks for patterns. It processes many kinds of information simultaneously. It interprets language through context—body language and tone of voice—rather than through literal meaning. It specializes in spatial perception and is capable of fantasy and creativity. It recognizes places, faces, and objects. Consistent with Bradley's findings, Tesone (2004) suggested that a holistic learning model might be useful for training both experienced and inexperienced managers in terms of leadership development.

Effective instructional design means looking beyond the mainstream content and pedagogical literature. Current theorists and practitioners are beginning to distinguish what are essentially the two types of leadership thinking in existence today: mainstream and *multistream*. Multistream leaders are more aware of the multiple tensions facing them (Dyck & Neubert, 2010). The multistream approach “is being increasingly advocated by management professors and becoming more evident among vanguard practitioners” (Dyck & Neubert, 2010, 21). Amplified learning occurs when teachers have broad knowledge, constitutes the focal point of excellent facilitation, and is thus the driver of the study at hand.

Hypothesis

This study examined the difference between traditional instructional methods and accelerated learning methods. Based on the literature review, it is expected that there would be a difference in learning effectiveness between traditional instructional methods and accelerated learning methods. Therefore, the research examined the following single hypothesis: There will be meaningful or significant differences in learning outcomes in leadership education as measured by test scores between adult students taught using traditional methods and those using accelerated learning methods.

Method

Design and Sample

Survey research constituted the research methodology. The Solomon four-group research design model was the methodology for the study. The research design, shown in Table 1, was used to remove the influence of pre-testing.

Table 1: Solomon Four-Group Research Design

Pre-test	Experimental Group I	Post-Test
Pre-test	Control Group I	Post-Test
	Experimental Group II	Post-Test
	Control Group II	Post-Test

The participants in the study were 135 graduate management students (nontraditional students). They were taking their final course, Leadership Seminar, before being awarded master's degrees in business administration, healthcare administration, or human resource management. A significant characteristic of the students was that they were gainfully employed in full-time professional or managerial positions in private sectors. The average age was 31 years. The sample size for each of the four groups is shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Sample Size for the Experimental and Control Groups

Group	N = 135
Control I	n = 40
Control II	n = 31
Experimental I	n = 30
Experimental II	n = 34

Procedures

Group membership was self-selected, as students were permitted to register for any of the four groups (selections) of the course. Experimental Group I and Control Group I were given pre-tests to determine whether there were any pre-existing differences in productivity between the management knowledge groups.

The mean scores of 4.5 for the Experimental Group and 5.02 for the control group indicate no statistically meaningful difference between groups. Thus, self-selection did not contaminate the treatment effects.

The control groups were taught using traditional instructional methods. Accelerated learning methods were used with the two experimental groups. Traditional instructional methods were defined as those that included (a) lecture by the instructor, (b) one-to-one question-and-answer interactivity between the instructor and a single student, and (c) little, if any, interaction between/among students during classroom learning activity. Accelerated learning methods were those characterized by (a) the instructor performing the role of learning facilitator, (b) interaction between/among students during classroom learning activity, (c) collaborative classroom activities, and (d) the students using somatic learning while engaged in classroom activity. Somatic learning incorporates physical activity as part of the learning process. These accelerated learning methods include any kind of physical activity, games, peer learning, self-assessment questionnaires, and behavior incident analysis.

The leadership course was delivered in a one-week intensive format. An instructor-developed test was administered as a post-test to the two control groups and the two experimental groups for the purposes of comparative analysis. The test was both factual and applied. The test was objective in nature to eliminate any potential bias by the instructor. The tests were scored by the instructor. The instructor was one of the authors of this research paper.

Findings and Discussion

Table 3 shows the means and standard deviations of the post-test scores for the four groups.

Table 3: Means and Standard Deviations for the Post-Test Scores

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	<i>n</i>
Experimental I	17.4	5.8	40
Control I	7.8	4.3	31
Experimental II	16.8	5.4	30
Control II	8.1	4.5	34

Summary

The procedures outlined were followed closely to assure that the data collection and analyses were done in a manner that is both statistically correct and confidential. The research supports the hypothesis that nontraditional instructional methods lead to significantly better learning than traditional instructional methods.

In the past, it was sufficient to simply teach or train business management students about the various relevant subjects. Not so anymore. The expectation is quickly becoming that student time will be efficiently used in education and training. Over-challenging and under-challenging classes are not optimally effective. The literature indicates a new direction in pedagogy throughout the world, which increasingly compels the instructor to become a facilitator of accelerated learning. The learner methodologies employed in the above study are examples that can be immediately implemented by those in academic and nonacademic settings.

Future Research

Accelerated learning methods are preferred by business management students with long work schedules who desire interactivity. It is no surprise then that the majority of senior-level students in business programs are more likely to prefer active, sensing, visual, and sequential learning styles as compared to reflective, intuitive, verbal, and global learning styles. A comparison of a cohort of business students akin to the adult students in the this study would likely produce similar outcomes to the results presented above.

A model to describe a learning process that may be applied to the development of leadership practices of managers who are current practitioners in business establishments globally would benefit all stakeholders. The cutting-edge prototype would perhaps be called a *Holistic Leadership Development Model* for managers in the business disciplines.

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RESEARCH NOTES

The Best of Both Worlds: A Quantitative Study on Afghan-Americans, Culture, and Servant Leadership

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With a generation of Afghans who were born and raised in the United States, Afghan leaders emerging in all fields, and Afghans being exposed to both Eastern and Western cultures, it becomes imperative to learn about their leadership style. Based on responses to a leadership survey, there was a statistically significant difference between the servant leadership scores of male and female respondents. More specifically, male respondents had a higher servant leadership score when compared to their female counterparts. Younger respondents had a significantly higher tendency toward a servant leadership orientation than their older counterparts. Finally, the respondents born in Afghanistan had a higher servant leadership score than the respondents born in the United States. Overall, the Afghans who participated in this research have a “high” servant leadership orientation. Suggestions, implications, and future research avenues are presented.

Key words: Afghans, Afghan-Americans, Afghanistan, culture, organizations, servant leadership

Today's competitive organizations demand servant leadership. In an organization, leaders must believe in change, innovate continuously, recognize the need for transparency, and stress the importance of unity and collaboration. “In highly competitive, rapidly changing environments, caring and appreciative leaders are the ones to bet on for long-term success” (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, 78). The 21st-century leader must be equipped with the right tools to be effective, empathetic, and efficient in all aspects of the workplace. A study by Mujtaba and Kaifi (2009) illuminated how Afghan leaders have higher scores on the relationship orientation, which relates to higher levels of emotional intelligence and better job performance.

Afghanistan has a high-context and collective culture in which individuals continuously work together to accomplish all goals. For example, in Afghanistan, “The schools generally requested help from students' fathers for renovations and improvements to classrooms and schools, which accorded with traditional gender roles and expertise” (Hoodfar, 2007, 280). Throughout history, Afghans have

been exposed to many diverse cultures and have acquired many new values while holding on to the threads of their own culture. This research seeks to understand whether there is a difference between those who were born in Afghanistan with regard to their servant leadership orientation compared to those who were born in the United States as first-generation Afghan-Americans.

Servant Leadership

Some people are more naturally endowed for leadership than others. Winston and Patterson (2006) provide an integrative definition of leadership by stating:

A leader is one or more people who selects, equips, trains, and influences one or more follower(s) who have diverse gifts, abilities, and skills and focuses the follower(s) to the organization's mission and objectives causing the follower(s) to willingly and enthusiastically expend spiritual, emotional, and physical energy in a concerted coordinated effort to achieve the organizational mission and objectives (7).

Greenleaf (1970) first presented the term "servant leadership" in a 1970 essay entitled "The Servant Leader." In his essay, he stated that servant leadership "begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead" (Greenleaf, 1970, 7). Most people can be developed into strong leaders. Servant leadership emphasizes that leaders should be attentive to the concerns of their followers and empathize with them; they should take care of them and nurture them (Northouse, 2004, 309). A servant leader leads by pure example and equips "followers by providing appropriate tools, equipment, and other resources so the followers can be successful in their completion of assigned tasks" (Winston & Patterson, 2006, 9). As Lao-Tzu (Father of Taoism) expressed, the key qualities that great leaders possess are selflessness, unbiased leadership, acting as a midwife, and being like water (Wren, 1995, 70). In selflessness, the wise leader is not egocentric, which equates to being more understanding and open-minded. Unbiased leadership means treating everyone equally without having preconceived notions. By being a midwife, leaders do not intervene in all organizational affairs and instead allow employees to resolve issues on their own. A leader is like water because a leader cleanses, purifies, and refreshes an organization's political climate.

Being able to deliver a warm style of leadership and paying attention to everyone are key elements of gaining the trust and respect of employees.

Maxwell (2010) states the following:

Trust plays the same role in all relationships, and it always impacts communication. To be an effective connector over the long haul, you have to establish credibility by living what you communicate. . . . If you don't, you undermine trust, people disconnect from you, and they stop listening (231).

The importance of paying attention is to show people that you care, and the best way to do this is to pay attention to what they're doing, how they're feeling, who they are, and what they like and dislike. "Paying attention demands that you put others first" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, 79). One should not think of paying attention as "patrolling" or "inspecting," but rather as being there by supporting, coaching, and directing employees. Leadership is "an alternative style of management aimed not at control but rather at assisting individuals in discovering and pursuing their own developmental needs" (Denhardt, 1993, 204).

If employees acknowledge a person as a caring and supportive leader, he or she will gain their trust, respect, and friendship. While leadership is easy to explain, it is not so easy to practice. Leadership is about behavior first and skills second. It all comes back to promoting positive expectations and having these expectations realized. It is important for a leader to know his or her own strengths as a "carpenter knows his tools" (Rath & Conchie, 2009, 13).

Servant leaders are always complimenting and motivating employees and recognizing their achievements. With this outgoing and friendly behavior, it is easy for employees to open up and communicate how they feel about every aspect of the organization. Servant leaders will respect everyone's opinion, even if someone challenges an organizational policy. "Learning to understand and see things from another's perspective is absolutely crucial to building trusting relations and to career success" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, 79). Servant leaders treat people as they would like to be treated. "You express joy in seeing others succeed, you cheer others along, and you offer supportive coaching, rather than being a militant authority figure who is out patrolling the neighborhood" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, 77).

Servant leaders are followed because people trust and respect them, not because of the skills they possess. Leadership is both similar and different from

management. Management relies more on planning, organizing, and controlling outcomes. Leadership relies on some management skills too, but more so on qualities such as humility, concern for others, controlled discipline, seeking what is right and good for the organization, showing mercy in beliefs and actions with all people, focusing on the purpose of the organization and on the well-being of the followers, and creating and sustaining peace in the organization—not a lack of conflict but a place where peace grows (Winston & Patterson, 2006, 8). Most people don't seek to be leaders. Those who want to be leaders can develop leadership ability. It is important to understand that “as you take the role of a caring leader; people soon begin relating to you differently” (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, 77). A strong leader must be able to listen, consult, involve, and explain why and how things should be done. “Many organizations build leadership programs around competency models, a list of core skills they expect all leaders to cultivate” (Schwartz, Jones, & McCarthy, 2010, 29). Organizations need employees who can be molded into leaders with the ability to influence others to complete tasks and follow the mission of the organization. Leaders are also able to empower followers by “making key behaviors automatic” (Schwartz et al., 2010, 37). Leadership programs have become the norm for many organizations who value strategic leaders. “By embracing our own opposites and getting comfortable with our contradictions, we build richer, deeper lives. . . . This is especially crucial for leaders, who must weigh multiple points of view, balance conflicting priorities, serve numerous constituencies, and make decisions about issues with no easy answers” (Schwartz et al., 2010, 29).

Leadership in the workplace is about having vision and being able to transform that vision into action by influencing others to complete relevant tasks in a timely manner while maintaining healthy relationships with colleagues, customers, suppliers, and other stakeholders. According to Jago (1982), “Leadership is expressed or displayed through interaction between people and necessarily implies its complement, followership. For one to influence, another must permit himself to be influenced” (316).

Afghanistan

Afghanistan, a country with a history that is both bitter and sweet, has become the center of attention throughout the world. Afghanistan's strategic location has

enticed invaders to conquer the country time after time, and yet none have ever been successful in the long-term. “Uniquely among the nations of Eurasia, Afghanistan has steadfastly resisted conquest, despite being a crossroads for ambitious empires throughout ancient and medieval times and a battleground in the modern age during the Great Game and Cold War” (Tanner, 2009, 26). The past three decades of continuous war has left the country with a frail social, economical, and political infrastructure that is in desperate need of assistance.

In the mid-20th century, Afghans began migrating to Europe and the United States for educational and professional purposes. The first wave of Afghan refugees arrived in the United States shortly after the former Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan in 1979, which resulted in a 10-year war with millions of casualties. As a result, most Afghans have spent at least two decades in America. Afghans have successfully built networks and opened up restaurants and other small businesses. With the emergence of a generation of Afghan children raised and educated in the United States, the Afghan community has proven to be a dynamic force with high standards and goals. Afghans are focused on becoming successful by obtaining advanced degrees and integrating into the Western culture while keeping their own traditions (Kaifi, in press).

The first-generation Afghans who have grown up in United States are successful in pursuing their educational and entrepreneurial dreams in various industries. Afghan leaders from all professions have started emerging. “There are currently many Afghan-American medical doctors, engineers, attorneys, professors, police officers, and many who work in either the private or public sectors of the workforce” (Kaifi, 2009, 10). Many Afghans have also proven to be strong leaders in their professions (Kaifi, in press). The three research hypotheses for this study are as follows:

- *Hypothesis 1:* Male and female Afghans will have similar servant leadership scores.
- *Hypothesis 2:* Afghan respondents who are 26 years of age and older will have higher servant leadership scores than Afghan respondents who are 25 years of age and younger.
- *Hypothesis 3:* Afghan-American respondents who were born in the United States will have similar servant leadership scores as respondents who were born in Afghanistan.

Method

Afghan-Americans who participated in this study completed a modified MLQ Form 5X-Short (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) survey that was originally developed by Bass and Avolio (1992) for leadership studies. The survey instrument used for this study had 10 short questions designed for the population. Many leadership researchers (Jansen, George, Van den Bosch, & Volberda, 2008; Kearney, 2008; Ling, Simsek, Lubatkin, & Veiga, 2008; Pounder, 2008;) have used similar instruments to study the leadership styles of various participants. For example, Pounder (2008) used a modified version of the MLQ Form 5X-Short that “involved a sample of instructors and undergraduate students in a Hong Kong university business school” (2). Pounder (2008) also used a version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire that was modified for a classroom situation to better understand the styles of prospective leaders (2).

The questions are set up in a Likert-scale format in which a response of 1 means *never* a characteristic of the responder and a response of 5 means *always* a characteristic of the responder. The respondent would rate himself or herself on a scale from 1 to 5 by addressing each question. The higher the overall mean scores, the more likely he or she is to have a stronger orientation toward a servant leadership style. One’s range for being a servant leader can be expressed with scores from very low to very high as presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Servant Leadership Orientation Range

Self-Rating	Score
45–50	Very high
40–44	High
35–39	Moderately high
30–34	Moderately low
25–29	Low
10–24	Very low

The survey instrument was distributed to 700 Afghan-Americans who all attend the same Islamic Center in Concord, California. A total of 606 surveys were returned. Of the 606 surveys returned, six were eliminated because all questionnaire items were not answered. A total of 600 surveys were completed successfully by Afghans, which represents a 85% response rate.

The research questions focused on the extent to which Afghans are servant leaders based upon their mean survey scores. For this survey, the higher the overall sum of the scores, the more likely that the participant is more oriented toward a servant leadership style.

Results and Analysis

The responses of 600 Afghan-Americans demonstrate that their mean servant leadership is 41.266, which falls in the high range (Table 1) for having a servant leadership orientation.

The first hypothesis predicted that “Male and female Afghans will have similar servant leadership scores” and, as presented in Table 2, this study could not support this supposition because the mean male score falls in the high range, which is significantly higher than the mean female score.

Table 2: Servant Leadership Score by Gender

Descriptive Statistics and T-Test of Two Means			
Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	Sample Size
Males	44.7933	2.18689	300
Females	37.74	2.56049	300

$t = 25.64; p = 0.001$

The second hypothesis predicted that “Afghan respondents who are 26 years of age and older will have higher servant leadership scores than Afghan respondents who are 25 years of age and younger” and, as presented in Table 3, this study could not support this supposition because the mean of the younger respondents’ scores falls in the high range, which is significantly higher than the mean score of the older respondents.

Table 3: Servant Leadership Score by Age

Descriptive Statistics and T-Test of Two Means			
Age	Mean	Standard Deviation	Sample Size
Younger	42.048	4.15	500
Older	37.36	2.097	100

$t = 8.03; p = 0.001$

The last hypothesis predicted that “Afghan-American respondents who were born in the United States will have similar servant leadership scores as respondents who were born in Afghanistan” and, as presented in Table 4 (next page), this study could not support this supposition because the respondents who were born in Afghanistan had a significantly higher score than the respondents who were born in the United States.

Table 4: Servant Leadership Score by Place of Birth

Descriptive Statistics and T-Test of Two Means			
Place of Birth	Mean	Standard Deviation	Sample Size
Afghanistan	44.1	2.36	180
United States	40.0524	4.316	420

$t = 8.37; p = 0.001$

This study has demonstrated that Afghan-American respondents scored in the high range (41.266) for having a servant leadership orientation. Furthermore, there was a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female respondents with males having a higher tendency toward servant leadership. Younger respondents had a significantly higher tendency toward a servant leadership orientation than their older counterparts. Finally, this study showed that the respondents who were born in Afghanistan have a higher servant leadership orientation than the Afghan-American respondents who were born in the United States.

Implications and Limitations

Afghans seem to have a natural propensity toward servant leadership, perhaps because they have a higher need for such empathetic leaders. Or perhaps, Afghans ideologically tend to lean toward servant leadership because they are more focused on relationships with their colleagues, peers, and customers. A research study by Mujtaba and Kaifi (2009) explained that:

Afghan respondents from a high-context culture of Afghanistan are more relationship-orientated. Interestingly, their task orientation score is also in the moderately high range. Therefore, managers and supervisors should feel comfortable in knowing that Afghan employees will complete the task at hand in a timely manner while maintaining a healthy relationship with their colleagues, peers, customers, and superiors (120).

The Afghan culture places a considerable emphasis on the Golden Rule and respecting others. This corroborates the findings of Sendjaya (2007), who suggested that there is a “strong connection” between the Golden Rule and servant leadership (111). According to Ewans (2002), “They [Afghans] will carry hospitality to embarrassing extremes, but are implacable enemies” (9). In the 21st century, Afghans can actually be the most promising applicants when recruiting for management positions because of their servant leadership capabilities, such as having a strategic vision, leading by example, and practicing high ethical standards.

There are some limitations to this study and one is the modified MLQ Form 5X-Short survey used for this research. This short survey can be combined with other more comprehensive instruments to enhance and confirm the results. Future studies can duplicate the research with a greater number of Afghan participants that are compared to other ethnicities. Future studies might control this variable by expanding the research population to include respondents from Wardak, Kandahar, Kunduz, Herat, and other provinces within Afghanistan. Finally, future researchers should consider translating the survey instrument into Persian and Pashto languages to utilize the test subjects’ preferred and dominant reading skills.

Conclusion

This study focused on the Afghan-American population to better understand their tendencies toward servant leadership. The results demonstrated that the respondents scored in the high range of servant leadership orientation. Afghans have servant leadership tendencies that are sought by many organizations today because “subordinates view the style [servant leadership] positively in terms of effectiveness, satisfaction, and motivation to expend effort” (Pounder, 2008, 4).

The modern workplace for a multinational firm can be very diverse, as today’s workforce is filled with people from many different leadership styles. As such, “Cross-cultural connecting requires a lot of mental, physical, and emotional energy” (Maxwell, 2010, 153). It is for certain that Afghans bring diverse views and perspectives, with an orientation toward servant leadership, into the workplace, which can help make them ethical and respected leaders within their teams, departments, organizations, and communities.

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China and the West: Cultural Contexts in Leadership

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China is rapidly changing and becoming significantly influential across the globe both politically and economically. Understanding the contrasting mindsets that inform Chinese behavior is imperative for Western leaders working cross-culturally with Chinese. This paper utilizes Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions, focusing on power distance, individualism, and long-term orientation as a way to review cultural dynamics from both Chinese and Western perspectives.

Key words: Chinese culture, cultural dimensions, leadership, Western culture

China is increasingly influential in our current world order. It is projected to have the world's biggest economy by 2020 (Prasad, 2004). The nation takes greater responsibility regionally and internationally with the largest foreign direct investment to the continent of Africa as it quietly secures its natural resources for the next century to ensure its geopolitical primacy in the future (The Economist, 2008). By 2050, some 20% of the English language will use Chinese words, and where words communicate and reinforce culture, a significant shift in global ways of economic and political organization is well underway (Graddol, 2000). In the future geopolitical economy, understanding both Chinese language and culture will be essential for Western leaders. Various theories, models, or frameworks have been developed that assist the cross-cultural leader in better understanding and engaging cultural differences (Hofstede, 1980; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). This paper uses the cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede (1980, 1991); empirical studies that compare, explain, and flesh out these dimensions in the Chinese cultural context; and contemporary events to provide Western leaders with examples to better understand how leadership can both function and engage followers in this geographic sphere.

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions were developed through extensive research over six years with IBM professionals in 40 countries. Through this process, four, and later five, cultural dimensions were identified by Hofstede, against which each country was indexed on a range from 0 to 120, for

comparative and descriptive purpose (Hofstede, 1991). The following cultural dimensions measure to varying degrees:

1. Power distance, or how power or authority is distributed and accepted by the powerful and powerless alike;
2. Uncertainty avoidance or how risk, the ambiguous, or the uncertain is embraced;
3. Masculinity, or how aggressiveness or assertiveness is valued;
4. Individualism, or how the “self” is viewed, individually and personally and focused on immediate family, or within an in-group/out-group division where loyalty to the in-group is paramount; and
5. Long-term orientation, or how the members of a society accept delayed gratification and make choices with the future in mind.

The Chinese score high for power distance and long-term orientation, and low for individualism. As is easily observable in Figure 1 (next page), the United Kingdom and United States “are at the extreme opposite pole on these dimensions” (Conte & Novello, 2008, 1012), while the scores for uncertainty avoidance and masculinity are comparable. The remainder of this paper will focus on these three contrasting dimensions using historical background, empirical research, and contemporary examples to provide greater understanding of the Chinese mindset for Western leaders operating in this cross-cultural context.

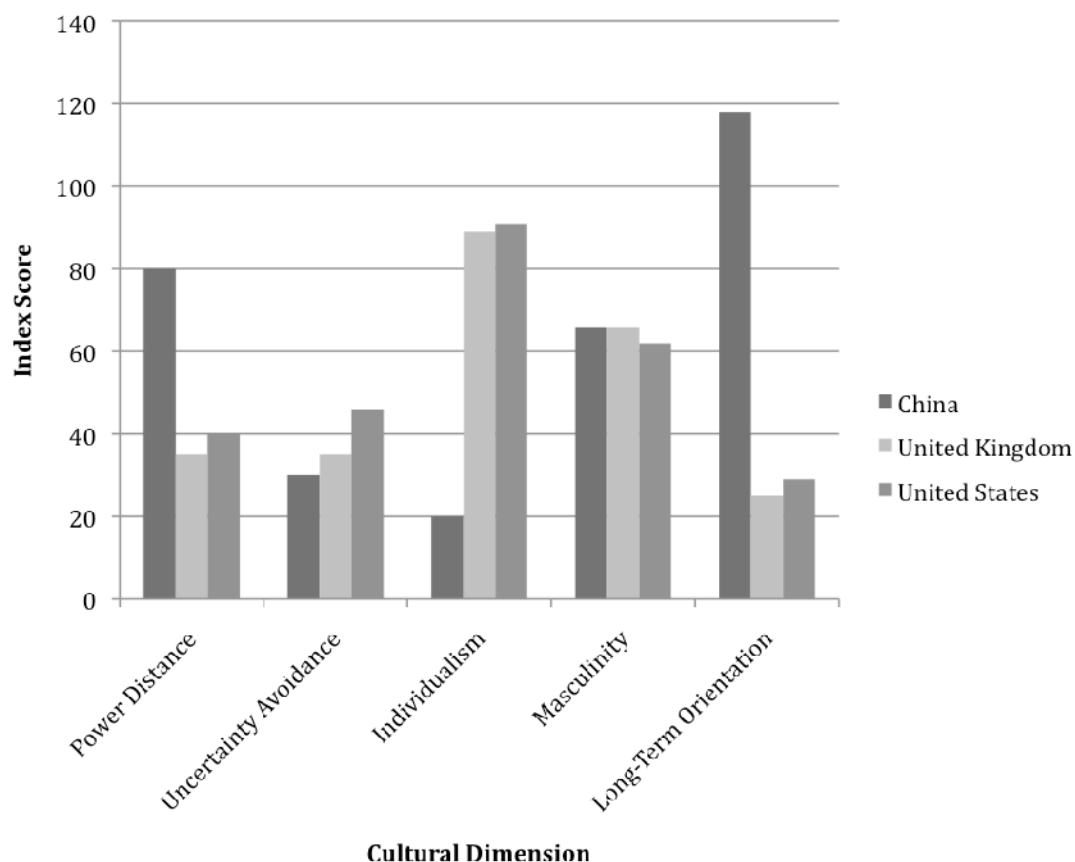


Figure 1. Comparison of cultural dimension index data for China, United Kingdom, and United States. Adapted from "Culture and organizations: Software of the mind," by G. Hofstede, 1991.

Grasping the historical and cultural effects of Confucian tradition and philosophy is imperative for leaders in understanding the values that operate behind each dimension from a Chinese mindset (Dikötter, 1992). The simplicity of Hofstede's cultural dimensions model is rightly challenged in a rapidly globalizing and changing world where culturally homogenous or holistic ethnic groups no longer exist (Pittinski & Zhu, 2005). Indeed, the empirical research and contemporary events introduced below demonstrate the effects of globalization in generating change. Equally, direct critiques denouncing a reductionist assessment of Confucian thought as an oversimplified explanation for human behavior are also available (De Bary, 1998). However the degree of social scientific research—and, for the purposes of this paper, leadership research—that focuses either implicitly or explicitly on the relational organizing structures that promote harmony and reinforce hierarchy found in Confucian tradition shows that considerable influence remains, is empirically available, and widely documented (Fu & Yukl, 2000;

Mansour, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006).

Confucian philosophy proposes a framework of five ordering relationships, or the *wulun*—emperor-subject, father-son, husband-wife, elder-younger siblings, and friend-friend (Oxnam, 2009). From this structure a set of moral obligations are inferred, including honor, submission, filial duty, and national service, that purport to ensure the maintenance of the status quo and harmonious community. Consequently, the *wulun* relational framework collectivizes and influences behavior. Where social dignity is communal, an individual action that produces shame affects the entire community and ruptures social harmony (Shen & Shun, 2008). Therefore, relationships primarily serve the group or collective interests. This provides the philosophical or conceptual foundation for the effect of low individualism scores on China's cultural dimensions index. The hierarchy of the *wulun*, with submission being reciprocated with or rewarded by acceptance within the social collective, tacitly endorses authoritarian rule and reinforces the inequality of relationships as a necessity in maintaining harmony (Kulacki, 2003). This generates insight into the effect of China's high power distance scores on the cultural dimensions index. Finally, where the *wulun* provides feedback systems and relational networks that are collectively focused, they are inherently, and by necessity, long-term in orientation (Mansour et al., 2006). Parents invest in their son's (preferably) education, set up his family home so that he will care for them in old age, and remember them, along with the ancestors, in death (Li, 2007). This is the Confucian theory that undergirds long-term orientation in the cultural dimensions framework.

Where this section introduced the philosophical foundations that inform the Chinese mindset, the following section fleshes out these ideas using empirical studies from leadership research and contemporary events to confirm evident concepts or demonstrate current cultural changes in the People's Republic and how these may be engaged by Western leaders.

Power Distance

Within scholarly studies, the dimension of power distance has been well recorded as a phenomenon within Chinese businesses, management, and leadership. Casimir and Waldman (2007) surveyed 224 white-collar workers from China to comparatively assess how they rated leadership traits in comparison to their

Western counterparts. Using multivariate analysis, findings demonstrated results consistent with the hypothesis that the Chinese counterparts would favor leadership traits comfortable with the unequal distribution of power. Westerners preferred traits that encouraged equality and camaraderie. Researching the degree of trust Chinese managers place in followers and its effects on follower participation in organizational decision-making process, Wang and Clegg (2002) used qualitative surveys to demonstrate findings “consistent with the argument in the literature that degrees of trust in interpersonal relationships correlate with power distance” (39). Their Western counterparts significantly preferred participatory and inclusive patterns of working. This cultural dimension can be easily observed in the absence of the usual freedoms taken for granted in countries with a low tolerance for power distance. The Great Firewall of China is famed for its control over what content the nation’s Netizens are allowed to see (Hewitt, 2010). While this remains official policy, the power of the Internet is subverting the power of hierarchy: “In China, information was always controlled by a hierarchical system—now we have an alternative structure where people can go beyond geographical boundaries and connect based on common interests” (para. 13).

Individualism

While studies on the effects of collectivism in the Chinese workplace connect Confucian ideals to practices that preserve in-group harmony, empirical research begins to refute the low individualism score of this cultural dynamic. Assessing the effects of culture on work values, Jaw, Ling, Wang, and Chang (2007) demonstrated how Chinese individualism, while evident, is affected by terms of service in Western countries or organizations. Collectivist tendencies remain an element requiring awareness in cross-cultural assignments, particularly in more parochial locations (Wright, Berrel, & Gloet, 2008). However, external influences are shaping how expatriate leaders engage the dynamic. Sibylle (2007) researched the relationship between self-leadership and cultural dynamics among U.S. and Chinese undergraduates. Because of the effect of postmodern philosophies and changing values regarding socialism, Chinese undergraduates from Beijing were unexpectedly found to report higher levels of individualism than the students from New York. This shifting trend is also observed in marketing—

the Chinese are considered to be more self-focused and utilitarian in their purchasing habits (Ross, Broyles, & Leingpibul, 2008), seen in Beijing in the recent crazed purchasing of Apple's iPhone, an icon of 21st-century individualism (Cao, 2010).

Long-Term Orientation

This particular cultural dimension is directly observable in the political and economic progress made by China in the last 30 years (Jing, 2000). Long-term orientation provides Chinese leadership with the capacity to make difficult decisions that facilitate long-term growth—despite short-term pain—without fear of electoral repercussions. China's ascension to the World Trade Organization perfectly exemplifies this process (Prasad, 2004). At the personal level, this dimension materializes with the desire for self-enhancement, stability, and security, as well as to contribute to developing society (Jaw et al., 2007). Selvarajah and Meyer (2008) profiled 671 managers in China to assess local perceptions of what constitutes excellence in leadership, demonstrating a significant relationship between these particular traits and the long-term cultural dimension. Currently, pressure mounts upon China from the West to float its currency. The short-term orientation of politicians facing the wrath of their unemployed constituents drives the issue. Yet within China, a stronger currency means comparatively greater unemployment and probable unrest, calamitous for both China and the global economy. Able to look back in history to the mass unemployment that sparked countless uprisings, China's leaders have a long vantage of such issues (Jing, 2000).

Conclusion

Given China's increasingly important role in the world economy, it is important for global leaders to be able to effectively engage the historical and philosophical foundations that affect or influence behavior in this cross-cultural context. Using the five cultural dimensions of Hofstede (1980, 1991) this paper has sought to introduce the Confucian principles that inform power distance, individualism, and long-term orientation with additional comparative material from empirical studies and contemporary situations in comparison to Western attributes in those same dimensions. Understanding these foundational dynamics, and the emerging

worldview changes in the Chinese context as globalization and post-modern philosophies take effect, are imperative for Western leaders to effectively lead and function as they are deployed into cross-cultural assignments in the People's Republic.

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