Scholarly Practices for Global Educational Leaders

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INTRODUCTION

Singh and Papa (2010) asserted that higher education institutions have been dramatically impacted by globalization in the 21ˢᵗ Century because they are the "main agents of global convergence" (p. 6). As a result, higher education institutions have responded to the complexities of a global world through various methods of internationalization (Hawawini, 2011). Examples of internationalization include student mobility, international branch campuses, digital learning programs, and global partnerships (Deardorff, 2009; Hawawini, 2011; Heyl, 2014; Knight, 2012). These methods and programs are designed to prepare students to succeed in a global environment and to function as globally competent citizens. In fact, "developing globally competent students" has been identified as the "foremost strategic priority for higher education" (Reade, Reckmeyer, Cabot, Jaehne, & Novak, 2013, p. 100). Galinova (2015) added that preparing students to succeed in a global society is no longer an option; it is now "a necessity and a moral imperative" (p. 17).

Faculty members are responsible for leading the processes of internationalization and for providing students with transformational learning experiences (Deardorff, 2011; Irving, 2010). In fact, faculty members are "the main engines" of higher education institutions (Galinova, 2015, p. 31). Therefore, it stands to reason that because "the main engines" (faculty members) are driving "the main agents" (higher education institutions), faculty members must serve as global educational leaders who are not only able to succeed in a global environment, but who are also able to lead students toward global competence. Consequently, global educational leaders must implement interculturally competent leadership practices.

BACKGROUND

Leadership has been discussed, theorized, and defined by scholars since the days of ancient Greece (Thrash, 2012). Biesta (2013) posited that leadership theories are rooted in anthropology, economics, and social studies, and a multitude of research studies surround different leadership theories. Researchers have examined traits inherent in leaders (Goldberg, 1990; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Stodgill, 1948, 1974), skills required by leaders (Katz, 1955, 1974; Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000; Stodgill, 1974), and behaviors exhibited by leaders (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Schriesheim & Bird, 1979; Stodgill, 1974; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973; Yukl, 2012). Specifically, Yukl (2012) synthesized behavioral leadership theories and placed them in four categories: "(a) task-oriented behaviors, (b) relations-oriented behaviors, (c) change-oriented behaviors, and (d) external behaviors" (p. 68).

Leadership studies also included contingency theories that addressed the motivation and power of the leader as well as the relationship between the leader and the led in a given situation (Blanchard, 1982; Fiedler, 1972). In addition, situational theories considered the maturity, competency, and commitment

of those who are led (Blanchard, 1985; Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 2013; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). Furthermore, Greenleaf (1977) added the servant-leadership theory, and Covey (2004) identified characteristics of a servant-leader as "listening from within the other's frame of reference" (p. 200).

Burns (1978) introduced transactional leadership, which was based on "modal values" such as "honor and integrity" along with transforming leadership, which was based on "end values" such as "liberty, justice, and equality" (p. 426). Burns posited that leaders who transform others help them reach their highest potential. Bass (1985) proposed a six-factor model of transformational leadership, which included charisma/inspirational, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception, and laissez-faire leadership.

Bass's (1985) model of transformational leadership led to multiple studies that resulted in the Full Range of Leadership (FRL) model (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bycio, Hackett, Allen, 1995; Howell & Avolio, 1993), which ultimately led to the development of leadership assessment tools known as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1990) and the revised MLQ(5X) (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Additionally, Bass and Riggio (2006) identified four components of transformational leadership that are referred to as the 4 I's of leadership:

1. Idealized influence,
2. Inspirational motivation,
3. Intellectual stimulation, and
4. Individualized consideration as well as three components of transactional leadership:
   a. Contingent reward,
   b. Management-by-exception (active and passive), and
   c. *Laissez-faire* leadership.

Bass and Riggio (2006) concluded that organizations need both transactional and transformational leadership. They asserted that transactional leadership is utilized to manage day-to-day activities within a fixed set of rules, but transformational leadership is utilized to enable people to reach higher potentials. They added that developing leaders is "at the heart of the paradigm of transformational leadership" (p. 2). Moreover, transformational leadership has been identified by multiple scholars as the most effective model of leadership for the 21st century because the globalized world is so complex (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Leithwood, 1992; Yukl, 2012).

This myriad of leadership theories does not include all leadership theories; however, it illustrates a framework of historical research. Bryant, Vincent, Shaqlaih, and Moss (2013) suggested that no theory applies to all situations, and every theory has strengths and weaknesses. Mendenhall (2013) added that each definition of leadership rests on a different perception. Perceptions of leadership have changed as the world has changed and become more complex. Complexities in a global world are created by what Gundling, Hogan, and Cvitkovich (2011) described as "physical distance, time zones, language, historical influences, institutions, cultural values, and common business practices" (p. 40). Multiple scholars agreed that changes and complexities do not negate the value of domestic leadership theories; however, domestic leadership theories do not equip leaders to succeed in a complex global environment (Gundling et al., 2011; Holt & Seki, 2012; Javidan & Walker, 2012; Jokinen, 2005; Osland, 2013; Story, 2011). Globalization has prompted numerous scholars to explore leadership from a global perspective (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Gundling et al., 2011; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002; Javidan & Walker, 2012). Nonetheless, scholars have not agreed upon an

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