

THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF BUSINESS & MANAGEMENT

Developing Global Leadership Competencies through Kenyan MBA Programs

Benson Muteti Katulwa

Senior Lecturer, Business Leadership Department, Pan Africa Christian University, Kenya

Abstract:

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether Kenyan MBA Programs were perceived to be significantly contributing towards the development of selected global leadership competencies among their graduates. The collected data related to what the respondents perceived to have observed vis-à-vis what they would have considered adequate for the development of global leadership competencies. Stratified sampling technique was used to select the respondents using disproportionate allocation of respondents within strata. Data relating to the key research objectives were analyzed using the Chi-square goodness of fit test. The study found a significant perceived relationship between selected global leadership competencies and career success. Further, findings indicated an overwhelming need to increase the amount of time allocated to the development of each of the selected global leadership competencies. Consequently the study recommended Business schools in Kenya should deliberately incorporate the development of the global leadership competencies in their curriculum. MBA programs in Kenya should allocate more time and resources to the development of global leadership competencies.

Key words: Global leadership competencies, Leadership development, Management, Managerial success, MBA programs

1. Introduction

1.1. Background

The quality and relevance of the MBA education has been a matter of concern and debate to both practitioners and academicians in many parts of the world (Beck-Jones & Harper, 2009; Bolden, 2007; Bruce, 2010; Hill, 2006; Mathews & Edwards, 2005; Robbins, Bradley, Spicer, & Mecklenburg, 2001; Sulaiman & Mohezar, 2009; Zhao, Truell, Alexander & Hill, 2006). These point to the need to review and improve the quality of MBA programs in order to make business education more relevant to the needs of the graduates aspiring to serve in a fast changing business environment.

To produce effective leaders for the 21st century therefore, MBA programs must go beyond equipping business students with knowledge and skills for planning, budgeting, organizing and staffing. As important as such functional skills and knowledge are, business schools ought to endeavor to develop global leadership competencies relevant to the global business environment in which the students will operate.

1.2. Problem Statement

Globalization has created the demand for global leadership competencies among business leaders. This in turn, has made the development of global leadership competencies a crucial measure of relevance of any business education program in the 21st century. In order to gauge the relevance of their programs therefore, business schools need to solicit for stakeholder feedback in regard to their business education program's ability to prepare their graduates to address the challenges resulting from a changing global business environment.

Without effective and timely feedback from their graduates, business schools in Kenya risk becoming irrelevant in a fast changing business environment. This not only amounts to wasting their students' time and money, but also, the squandering of a crucial opportunity to make a positive contribution towards resolving the country's development challenges.

1.3. Research Objectives

The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent to which MBA graduates perceived their MBA education experience to have contributed towards the development of global leadership competencies in their lives. The following two specific objectives were derived from this broad objective:

- To investigate whether there was a perceived relationship between selected global leadership competencies and career success and,

- To investigate whether there was a perceived gap between the time allocated to and that considered adequate for the development of the selected global leadership competencies.

1.4. Research Hypotheses

To realize the specific objectives, the following research and corresponding alternative hypotheses were formulated:

- **H1₀**: There is no significant perceived relationship between selected global leadership competencies and career success,
- **H1₁**: There is a significant perceived relationship between selected global leadership competencies and career success.
- **H2₀**: There is no significant perceived gap between the time allocated to the development of selected leadership competencies and that considered necessary.
- **H2₁**: There is a significant perceived gap between the time allocated to the development of selected leadership competencies and that considered necessary.

1.5. Limitations

This study examined the subject of leadership development in Kenyan MBA programs from the students' perspectives only. This narrow focus is apparently limiting in that it overlooks the views of other stakeholders such as the MBA program administrators, instructors and the employers of the MBA graduates. Definitely the inclusion of the views of instructors and administrators would have given the study a broader perspective. Similarly, a content analysis of the curriculums of the studied schools could have been useful in determining the stated objectives and content offered by the business schools vis-à-vis the views of the graduates.

2. Literature Review

The difference in focus between managerial and leadership roles has become more pronounced over the last few decades. Zaleznik (1977), one among the first scholars to highlight the difference between the two roles perceived that, leaders and managers are essentially different types of people, and hence the conditions favorable to the growth of one may be contrary to the others. Underlying Zaleznik's argument is the fact that leaders develop differently from managers and therefore a different approaches are appropriate for the development of each.

Kotter (1990) took Zaleznik's insights further and pointed out that, while managers promote stability, leaders press for change and that, organizations need to thrive during turbulent times. Kotter's distinction between leadership and management lies within the key function and the activities involved in each role. In terms of function, management is about coping with complexity while leadership is about coping with change. Kotter's distinction of the two roles of management and leadership emphasized the need to apply the right approach depending on the desired result.

In spite of the recognition that leadership and management are two distinct and necessary complementary roles in organizational development (Buhler, 1995; Kotter, 2000), many MBA programs continue to treat leadership as a subset of management. In many management textbooks and MBA programs, the topic of leadership receives a casual mention, and in many instances, it is omitted altogether (Bosrock, 2007). This perhaps explains the strong functional orientation towards management knowledge and skills which makes traditional MBA programs strong in developing managers but weak in preparing effective business leaders for turbulent and complex business environment.

To develop leaders for the 21st century, MBA programs need to design their curricula in a way that strikes a healthy balance between the content meant to develop managerial competencies and that focused on developing leadership competencies. That way, the graduates from such programs will be able to function effectively in the complex business environment within which they will operate.

2.1. The Role of Business Schools in Leadership Development

The role of higher education in preparing graduates for careers in the business sector has been a subject for debate among scholars, business practitioners and business schools accrediting bodies for as long as business schools have existed (Cheit, 1985; McKenna, Cotton & Auken, 1995; Porter & McKibbin, 1988).

On the one hand, there has been those who have advocated for making business schools more professional oriented with more emphasis on equipping graduates for practical leadership roles (Hugstad, 1983; Oviatt & Miller, 1989), while on the other hand are those who would prefer to see business schools assume a more academic approach placing more emphasis on academic rigor and scientific research (Gordon & Howell, 1959; Pierson, 1959).

Milner and Stinson, (1995) observe that educational institutions educate people to function in, and be the leaders of the organizations of the future. From this perspective, business schools ought to play the role of change agents who proactively anticipate the future and tailor their education to remain relevant to changing times. Educational processes should thus prepare leaders to function in the type of organization within which they will operate. Hitt, Black and Porter (2005) identified change, technology and globalism as the three most serious challenges facing the 21st century managers. To overcome this challenge, the manager must learn to get things done through people. This in turn requires one to be proficient at assessing other peoples' capabilities; matching people's capabilities with appropriate responsibilities and motivating people.

2.2. The Content of MBA Programs

Business schools have been offering MBA education for over a century now. The Harvard Guide (2004) credits the Harvard University for having established the program and offered the curriculum for the first time in 1908. Since then, the demand for the MBA education has grown tremendously due to the prestige and prospects for promotion that it seems to confer to its graduates

(Sulaiman & Mohezar, 2009). This has propelled the program to become one of the most popular graduate programs in the world (Herrington, 2010).

A number of business schools have tried to keep pace with the changing business environment and have updated their programs regularly over the years. However, many programs have continued to offer the traditional management education initially designed to develop functional management knowledge and skills (Lorange, 2005). Pfeffer and Fong (2002) noted that the curriculum taught in business schools had little relevance to what managers needed to succeed in business. Mintzberg (2004) recommends a radical revision of the MBA curriculum to avoid what he termed as educating “managers with a 1908 product that uses a 1950s strategy” (p. 65). Pfeffer and Fong (2002) cited empirical evidence to show that MBA education had little impact on graduates’ future career prospects.

2.3. Perceived Short-Comings of the MBA Programs

The list of criticisms leveled against the traditional MBA programs is long and can be traced through time from as early as the late 1950s. Gordon and Howell (1959) with Pierson (1959) criticized MBA programs for employing poorly trained faculty and narrow trade-focused curricula within their programs among others

A recent debate on the role played by business schools in the development of the recent global economic and financial crisis, though not conclusive, strongly pointed to the need for restructuring MBA education in line with the changes happening within the global business environment (Patry, 2010; Onzonol, 2010). Apparently, MBA programs and business degrees have not produced well rounded managers with leadership qualities to match the needs of the business environment within which they operate.

Milner and Stinson (1995) highlighted the limitations of the traditional MBA education as follows:

First, it is structured to develop a strong functional orientation through a functional major and hence, produces graduates with limited ability to function effectively within the entire organization spectrum. Second,

it places less emphasis on the development of leadership and interpersonal skills which are essential for effective functioning in a dynamic and fast changing business environment where people are the most essential asset.

In order to address the limitations existing within the traditional MBA education, Milner and Stinson (1995) recommended adoption of a holistic approach, as opposed to the traditional business functions. For instance, instead of teaching functions such as finance, accounting and marketing from a theoretical perspective, business schools should endeavor to teach the actual business operations as practiced in the workplace. Further,

More emphasis should be placed on the development of behavioral skills and personal characteristics to complement the acquisition of theoretical knowledge.

In order to prepare effective leaders for the knowledge based economy of the 21st century and beyond, business schools need to understand and appreciate the differences between management and leadership. The logical conclusion is that, organizations need leadership within the context of changing business environment as is the case in the 21st century.

2.4. The 21st Century Global Business Environment

Ireland and Hitt, (2005) describe the 21st century’s knowledge economy as being “complex, challenging, and filled with competitive opportunities and threats” (p.63). The turbulence and complexity carried forward from the 1980s, and 1990s culminated into what they call the new competitive landscape where things change constantly and unpredictably. Walker, Walker and Schmitz (2003) describe the 21st global business environment as one consisting of a series of complex, interdependent developments which include unyielding competitive pressures, rapid market shifts, major acquisitions or mergers, the lowering of trade barriers, decreasing transport costs, heightened expectations on the part of customers and employees, advances in communication and information technology, global access to capital markets and inflation-driven staff reductions (p.3).

Within this context, change is widely acknowledged as a major characteristic of the knowledge based economy. Change in the 21st century is taking place swiftly, relentlessly, persistently and constantly. Consequently, change has been viewed as being revolutionary rather than evolutionary in nature since it affects all the parts of the organization simultaneously and thus, exerts pressure on the organization’s management to adopt a flexible leadership style that adapts constantly to the changing environment (Greenwood & Hinings, 1996).

2.5. Leadership Competencies Needed By the 21st Century Managers

Changing business environment of the 21st century implies changing roles for business leaders and hence the need for a new set of competitive capabilities. As Milner and Stinson (1995) point out, the role of the business leader has changed from that of a supervisor, director and controller to that of an enabler and energizer who communicates “incessantly, energizing the organization with a clear vision of the future” (p.1). Put differently, the effective business leader in the knowledge economy must be able to develop not only an appealing vision, but also be able to communicate the same in a way that persuades the constituents to join hands and follow willingly. This calls for institutions of higher learning and particularly business schools to focus more on equipping future leaders with capabilities that incline them towards leadership in addition to management.

A study carried out by the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) among African Managers identified several leadership challenges that MBA education should address. These include: leading diverse teams; being adaptable to the changing world of work; transferring knowledge and coaching subordinates; encouraging collaboration and communication; and dealing with complexity. Barrett and Beeson (2002) identified four essential leadership competencies that future business leaders of the 21st century will require to navigate the stormy business environment in the knowledge based economy. These include being a: master strategist, network builder, talent developer and, change manager.

Tubbs and Schulz (2006) developed taxonomy of Global Leadership Competencies upon which leadership development efforts could be focused. Tubbs and Schulz's taxonomy of leadership competencies and meta-competencies included: teamwork and fellowship, understanding the big picture, attitudes are everything, leadership, the driving force, innovation and creativity, communication the leader's voice and, leading change.

2.6. Selected Global Leadership Competencies

The following section discusses eight competencies selected for consideration in this study based on their prominence in leadership literature.

2.6.1. Leading change

Rapid changes in the social, political and business landscape coupled with advances in information and communication technology have made the development of effective change management skills mandatory (Cacioppe, 1998). Mueller (1995) in a study involving senior business executives identified change management among the most important competencies needed by the future leaders. Hitt, Black and Porter (2005) pointed out that, everyone assuming a leadership role in the knowledge based economy will have an opportunity to manage change both at the organizational and personal levels. For this reason, managers need to be prepared to help their organizations to keep pace with, and if possible remain ahead of the changes taking place around them.

Authoritative sources including Hitt, Black and Porter (2005) and Kotter (2000) assert that managerial competence for leading change in the 21st is going to assume an increasing importance for future business and organizational leaders. This is understandable given the rate at which change efforts fail, the nature of change and the rate at which change is occurring. It has been estimated that strategic change efforts fail at the rate of between 50 and 70 percent (Beer & Nohria, 2000). Kotter (1996) outlines eight errors that lead to the extensive failure rate in change efforts and notes that the amount of waste caused by unsuccessful change efforts can be avoided by avoiding the identified errors.

In anticipation of change and the unpredictable rate at which change will occur, MBA programs should include a course on leading change or change management in their curriculum in order to prepare future managers to cope with change. The course ought to incorporate the various change models such as Kurt Lewin's framework of change process (Lewin, 1947) and Kotter's (1996) eight stage process.

2.6.2. Cultural sensitivity

In the 21st century cultural sensitivity and competence has been widely recognized as a critical factor to success of the leadership process and organizational transformation (Chin & Gaynier, 2006; Sulaiman & Mohezar, 2009). Increased globalization has amplified cultural diversity in the workplace has made the ability to lead across cultures a critical managerial competence for effective managers. With increased advances in communication and technological convergence, the degree of cultural diversity is bound to increase and that will continue to exert pressure upon organizational leaders to enhance their capacity to connect in non-technical ways (Williams, 2001).

Hitt, Black and Porter (2005) define culture as "A learnt set of assumptions, values, and behaviors that have been accepted as successful enough to be passed to newcomers" (p.115). The relevance of culture to business leadership lies in its impact on behavior. Consequently, business leaders with cultural understanding and sensitivity are better placed to leverage culture and use it to help accomplish organizational goals.

The business leader of the 21st century is more likely to work with a more culturally diverse workforce than their predecessors of the 20th century. Walker, Walker and Schmitz (2003) describe the knowledge based economy as the era of global business with "A different level of awareness, competence and skill is required to navigate the relativity and complexity of the multicultural global work and marketplace" (p.23). Further, they identify five interrelated aspects of cultural competence that they argue could be developed through continuous learning and development. These learnable interrelated aspects cultural competence as described by Walker, Walker and Schmitz include; open attitude, self awareness, other awareness, cultural knowledge and, cross-cultural skills

2.6.3. Teambuilding

MacMillan (2001) depicted the 21st century business as a team sport where new rules apply and world-class competition is the order of the day. To succeed in this environment, businesses need to function like high performance teams characterized by: clear, common purpose, crystal clear roles, accepted leadership, effective team processes, solid relationships and, excellent communication.

Campbell (2006) identified three critical reasons for developing teambuilding competency by business leaders in the knowledge economy. Such include: a) Team performance is a major determinant of the overall organizational performance, b). Business leaders of the 21st century are going to spend a greater portion of their time working in teams and, c). Business leaders wishing to maximize their personal potential should develop their team leadership skills on a smaller scale before they can advance to leading multiple teams

2.6.4. Strategic leadership

Strategic leadership has been identified as a source of competitive advantage (Day, 2000). Hitt and Ireland (2005) defined strategic leaders in terms of the manager's "ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, think strategically, and work with others to initiate changes that will create a viable future for the organization" (p.63). Looked at it from that perspective, strategic

leadership bears within it the potential to create a competitive advantage for an organization to the extent to which it is hard to be imitated by competitors. To function effectively in an interdependent, increasingly complex, and dynamic knowledge based economy of the 21st century, MBA graduates need to enhance strategic leadership skills more than ever before (Ortiz, 2004).

2.6.5. Conflict management

Conflict may be described as a struggle between at least two parties arising from incompatible goals, competition for scarce resources, different perception of given a situation or, perceived interference from the other party in achieving their goals (Campbell, 2006; Wilmot & Hocker, 2001). In the knowledge economy of the 21st century, conflicts are a prominent feature in the workplace.

To leverage diversity, promote cooperation, unify individuals around a common goal and, encourage innovative solutions, business leaders of the 21st century need to be adept at managing conflicts.

2.6.6. Communication skills

Leadership is about influencing others to achieve agreed desired goals and this is done through communication. Communication skills competence is widely regarded as a critical determinant of career success and significant contributor towards organizational success (Certo, 2000; Conrad & Newberry, 2011; Dilenschneider, 1992; Du-Babcock, 2006; Roebuck, 2001; Rushkoff, 1999). Wiemann (1977) described communication skills in terms of the ability to choose between different available communicative behaviors, in a way that successfully fulfills the users' interpersonal goals.

Several studies have underscored the need for business education to include development of communication skills in the curriculum in order to address the apparent gap between the graduates' skills level and what is desired by the business industry (Lanier, Tanner, Zhu & Heady, 1997; Roebuck, 2001; Tanyel, Mitchell, & McAlum, 1999).

Considering that, a leader's performance is closely tied to her communication competence (Frederickson, 2006) and that most leaders will spend close to 40 percent of their time communicating with their constituents (Simpson, 2006), MBA programs would do well to address the graduates communication skills competency need by not only including it in their curriculum but also by allocating enough resources towards its development.

2.6.7. Global leadership mindset

Rogers and Blonski (2010) describe a global mindset in terms of "the capacity to engage in a boundaryless and synthesizing cognitive process that identifies opportunity and innovation in complexity" (p.19). This competency may also be viewed as the "ability to influence individuals, groups, organizations, and systems that have different intellectual, social, and psychological knowledge or intelligence from your own" (Cohen, 2010). Encompassed within the global mindset is the ability to see beyond national culture, organizational boundaries, corporate gain and functional responsibilities to the society as a whole.

The global leadership mindset is essential for success in the 21st century because it enables leaders to embrace paradox and complexity which are indispensable skills in a dynamic first changing environment. Such leaders according to Rogers and Blonski (2010) are able to simultaneously hold the tension between "ambiguity of opposing points of view, perspectives, data and values in their minds and then harmonizing these differences for greater leadership effectiveness" (p.2).

Studies have recommended a multi-dimensional approach as the most effective means for developing global leadership mindset competency (Cohen, 2010). This approach can be easily integrated into the MBA education through the combination of the following methods: Examination; Education; Experience; and, Exposure.

2.6.8. Leadership values and ethics

Leadership is a process whereby one person influencing one or more people towards the achievement of goals desirable to all. Satija (2009) notes that "Leaders carry out this process by applying their leadership attributes such as beliefs, values, ethics, character, knowledge and skills" (p. 25).

Though admittedly more difficult to develop than leadership behaviors (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006), business schools should direct leadership development efforts towards building a solid character as the foundation stone upon which to develop leadership behaviors. The widespread ethical lapses witnessed since the 1990s through corporate scandals are widely acknowledged as expressions of character flaws in the lives of senior business leaders (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004). With increasing demand for transparency and accountability from leadership stakeholders, the demonstration of solid character is going to be an indispensable quality in the lives of leaders of the 21st century.

A survey conducted by Sulaiman and Mohezar (2009) on the students' perception of the quality of MBA programs established the need for MBA programs to consider ways of improving ethical awareness among MBA graduates. Leaders in businesses and other organizations are daily faced with ethical issues such as conflict of interest, communication, lack of fairness and equity in rendering services, opportunities to offer or accept bribery and kickbacks among many others. Leaders therefore need to be acquainted with the basic knowledge of ethical language and implications of their choices before they can be preferred to deal with temptations that come with leadership positions which they hold.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design, Population and sampling Procedure

This study adopted a descriptive quantitative research approach within the framework of a survey design. Descriptive research seeks to describe a current state of affairs prevailing at the time of study (Salkind, 2006). The desired target population was

identified as the MBA graduates in Kenya. The defined target population was specified to include all MBA students in Kenya who graduated from private and public universities in Kenya in the year 2011. This excluded all MBA students who had graduated from Kenyan business schools before 2011 and thereafter.

Stratified sampling technique was used to select respondents for this study. Daniel (2011) describes stratified sampling as “a probability sampling procedure in which the target population is first separated into mutually exclusive, homogeneous segments (strata), and then a simple random sample is selected from each segment (stratum)” (p.131).

3.1.1. Sample Size Determination

Cochran's (1977) sample size determination formula for categorical data was used to decide the appropriate sample size for this study as shown below;

$$n_o = \frac{(t)^2 * (p)(q)}{(d)^2}$$

Where,

n_o = required sample size

t = value for selected alpha level = 1.96

(p)(q) = Estimate of variance = 0.25

d = acceptable margin of error for proportion being estimated = .05

$$n_o = \frac{(1.96)^2 * (0.5)(0.5)}{(0.05)^2}$$

Consequently,

$$n_o = 384$$

Given that 384 exceeds 102 which is the 5% of the population (2034), Cochran's (1977) correction formula was used to adjust the sample size as follows;

$$n_1 = \frac{384}{1 + 384/2034} = 323$$

Based on sampling theory (Bartlett, Kortlik & Higgins, 2001) as illustrated above, a sample size of 323 respondents was considered appropriate for this study. The total sample size figure of 323 was divided by the number of strata (which is 4) to determine the number of respondents needed for each strata thus giving 80.75 respondents per stratum. For practical purposes this was rounded up to 81 respondents per stratum, thereby increasing the sample size by 1 and hence final sample size was determined to be 324.

3.1.2. Sampling Frame

In this study, the sampling frame for each stratum was compiled from the graduation lists of the MBA graduates from the participating programs. Such lists were accessed through the respective university websites and school deans' offices of the participating programs. Czaja and Blair (1996) define a sampling frame as “the list(s) or resource(s) that contains the elements of the defined population”.

3.2. Data Collection Instrument and Procedure

A researcher designed questionnaire was used to collect data in this study. The data collection instrument took the format of a Likert scale which is recommended for most survey settings because it is easily understood by most respondents (Brace, 2004). First, the researcher made telephone calls to the selected respondents to explain the purpose of the study and request their consent to participate in the study. As a follow up step, the researcher sent an email to selected respondents who consented to participate in the study with a copy of the questionnaire and a letter of informed consent. Follow up calls were made and reminder emails sent at appropriate intervals to prompt respondents to submit completed questionnaires.

3.3. Data Quality Control

In this study a number of measures were taken to facilitate data quality.

- **Data collection instrument development**

Before the questionnaire could be distributed to all the respondents, a pilot test was carried out to check for ambiguity. This involved distributing the questionnaires to a few potential respondents followed by a careful analysis of the completed questionnaires to detect any cases where questions could have been interpreted differently by different respondents. Afterwards the questionnaire was revised to enhance clarity on items that where ambiguity was detected.

- **Data review**

The scripts for the collected data were reviewed by the researcher carefully before entering the same into the data analysis software for the purpose of detecting any incomplete answers or/and unclear responses with a follow up call to respondents to clarify issues where necessary.

- **Data post entry measures**

Since the data was entered from questionnaire scripts, basic checking of data entry was carried out by taking a subsample of the posted data to verify the accuracy of entered data. Frequency and range checks were also carried out to ensure entered values were within preferred range. Frequency counts were assessed to determine whether frequencies corresponded to theoretical expectations.

- **Treatment of Missing Data**

The incidence of missing data was minimized by pilot testing the questionnaire and follow up calls to respondents where possible to confirm the correct entry. On rare occasions where this was not possible the missing data were replaced using SPSS tool for replacing missing data with series mean.

3.4. Data Analysis

Collected data for this study was analyzed using the IBM SPSS software for predictive analytics. The demographic data was analyzed using descriptive statistics and presented in form of frequency tables and figures. Information in this category included distribution of the respondents by gender, MBA program, work experience, and work context.

Findings related to the key research objectives were analyzed using nonparametric tests. In most cases, nonparametric tests are considered appropriate for data that is non-parametric that has been ranked in categories (Siegel & Castellan, 1988). In addition, nonparametric tests were preferred because they make minimal assumptions regarding the underlying distribution of the data (Chan, 2003; Pappas & DePuy, 2004).

Chi-square goodness of fit test was carried out to analyze data on the perceived relationship between global leadership competencies and career success. Chi –square procedures are useful techniques for measuring the differences between the preferred occurrences and the perceived frequencies of nominal variables (Yount, 2006).

3.5. Ethical Considerations

The researcher provided a letter of introduction giving full details of the purpose of study and seeking the full consent of the respondents to participate in the research process, based on an informed choice. The letter of introduction and informed consent assured the participants of their right to withdraw from the study at any given time without giving the reasons for their withdrawal. The collected data was treated with utmost confidentiality with numerical ID numbers being used instead of participants' names.

4. Data Analysis and Presentation

4.1. Global Leadership Competencies as Predictors of Success

To investigate whether there was a perceived relationship between selected global leadership competencies and career success, chi-square test of goodness of fit was carried out to test the following null hypothesis for each of the selected global leadership competencies:

H₁₀: There is no relationship between the selected global leadership competency and career success.

The alternative hypothesis was stated as follows:

H₁₁: There is a significant relationship between the selected global leadership competency and career success.

The results from the chi-square frequencies and test statistics showed a significant chi-square test statistic for each of the selected global leadership competencies at an alpha of 0.05. Table 1 below shows the summary of the test statistics results for each of the selected competencies;

Managerial success = f(GLC)	Findings
a. Leading change	χ^2 (df = 2, n= 324) = 561.5, p < .001.
b. Cross-cultural competence	χ^2 (df = 2, n=324) = 470.4, p < .001.
c. Teambuilding	χ^2 (df = 2, n=324) = 601.0, p < .001
d. Conflict management	χ^2 (df = 2, n=324) = 567.0, p < .001.
e. Strategic leadership	χ^2 (df = 2, n=324) = 612.5, p < .001.
f. Global leadership mindset	χ^2 (df = 2, n=324) = 412.4, p < .001
g. Communication skills	χ^2 (df = 2, n=324) = 566.7, p < .001
h. Leadership Values & ethics	χ^2 (df = 2, n=324) = 595.5, p < .001.

Table 1: Chi-square test results for GLCs as predictors of career success

In response to the question, “To what extent would you agree that managers in Kenya need to be proficient in each of the following competency areas to succeed as managers in today’s business world?” The respondents were to indicate their level of agreement on a scale of 1-5 with 1 representing *Strongly Disagree (SD)* and 5 representing *Strongly Agree (SA)*.

Based on these findings, null hypothesis H_{10} , which stated that; there is no significant relationship between the eight selected global leadership competencies and career success was not supported. The study therefore rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that, each of the 8 selected global leadership competencies was perceived as a predictor of career success.

The mean and the median of the respondents (table 2 below) fell between 4 and 5 for each of the selected global leadership competencies. The lowest level of agreement with the stated proposition was 86% for global leadership mindset while the highest was 98% for strategic leadership. The significant chi-square test results shown on table 1 above are supported by corresponding means, medians and frequencies of agreement in relation to each of the selected global leadership competencies as summarized in table 2 below;

Managerial success = f(GLC)	Mean	Median	Frequency of agreement %
a. Leading change	4.65	5	95.
b. Cultural competence	4.35	4	90.
c. Teambuilding	4.66	5	97.
d. Conflict management	4.47	5	96.
e. Strategic leadership	4.75	5	98.
f. Global leadership mindset	4.37	5	86.
g. Communication skills	4.57	5	96.
h. Leadership Values & ethics	4.74	5	97.

Table 2: Summary of means, medians and frequency of agreement

4.2. Attention given to GLCs development

Objective 2 of the study sought to establish whether there was a gap between perceived and expected time directed towards the development of each of the 8 selected global leadership competencies. The following null and alternative hypotheses were formulated to test the relationship;

- **H₂₀**: There is no significant perceived gap between the time allocated to the development of selected leadership competencies and that considered necessary.
- **H₂₁**: There is a significant perceived gap between the time allocated to the development of selected leadership competencies and that considered necessary.

Table 3 below presents the summarized results of the Wilcoxon test statistics for the time invested in development of each of the global leadership competencies. As can be seen from the table, the Wilcoxon test statistic for each of the selected competencies, indicated a significant Z statistic at $p < 0.01$, which meant that the null hypothesis H_{20} was not supported by the findings.

Global leadership competency	Wilcoxon Test Statistics
a. Leading change	Z = 8.05, $p < 0.01$
b. Cultural competence	Z = 8.31, $p < 0.01$
c. Teambuilding	Z = 10.53, $p < 0.01$
d. Conflict management	Z = 10.86, $p < 0.01$
e. Strategic leadership	Z = 4.84, $p < 0.01$
f. Global leadership mindset	Z = 13.05, $p < 0.01$
g. Communication skills	Z = 7.92, $p < 0.01$
h. Leadership Values & ethics	Z = 13.49, $p < 0.01$

Table 3: Wilcoxon test statistics for time investment in selected competencies

Table 4 below presents a horizontal comparison between perceived and expected measures of central tendency. As can be seen from the table, the mean for the time perceived to have been invested in the development of each competence is lower for each competence compared to the mean that the respondents would have considered adequate to facilitate the competence development.

Global leadership competency	Means		Medians	
	Perceived	Expected	Perceived	Expected
a. Leading change	2.99	3.58	3	4
b. Cultural competence	2.63	3.27	3	3
c. Teambuilding	2.54	3.41	3	3
d. Conflict management	2.36	3.31	2	3
e. Strategic leadership	3.14	3.44	3	3
f. Global leadership mindset	1.52	4.03	1	4
g. Communication skills	2.78	3.38	3	3
h. Leadership Values & ethics	2.10	3.93	2	4

Table 4: GLCs development time investment (means & medians)

From table 4 above, the median for the observed time is lower in each case compared to the median for expected time for leading change, conflict management, global leadership mindset and leadership values and ethics competencies. For the other competencies, the median for perceived and expected time are the same. Comparatively, the global leadership mindset competency had the highest mean (4.03) and median (4) for the expected development time investment.

Overall, 72.8% of the respondents indicated a preference for one or more than one course unit time investment in development of global leadership mindset competence. Another competency that deserves attention for having indicated low perceived observation and high means and medians for expected time is leadership values and ethics.

About 67.8% of the respondents indicated an observed time investment of less than 50% of a course unit for the development of leadership values and ethics. This included on average, 40.1% of the respondents who indicated an observed time investment of less than 10% of a course unit and another 27.8% who indicated an observed time investment of between 10 and 49% of a course unit time for the development of global leadership competency.

The cross tabulation tables for expected time indicated total of 63.1% of the respondents preferring at least one course unit time investment for global leadership development. This includes 36.8% of the respondent to indicated preference for more than one course unit and another 26.3 who indicated preference for more than one course time investment.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1. Global Leadership Competencies and Career Success

The results on objective 1 of this study which sought to establish whether selected leadership competencies were perceived as predictors of the manager's career success indicated significant chi-square statistic for each of the selected global leadership competencies. The significant chi-square test statistics formed the basis for the rejection of the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between selected global leadership competencies and career success.

The chi-square descriptive statistics (table 2) showed between 86% and 98% of the respondents supporting the proposition that managers in Kenya need competence in each of the selected global leadership competencies to be successful as managers. On a scale of 1- 5, the corresponding measures of central tendency (mean and medians) for each competency ranged between 4 and 5 indicating that the respondents overwhelmingly perceived each competency to be a critical factor for success.

These findings are in line with those of previous studies (Hawawini, 2005; Friga, Bettis & Sullivan, 2003), which have emphasized business schools' need to restructure MBA education curriculum to include development of soft skills while at the same time preserving the more analytical and concept-based courses.

Kenyan Business schools therefore would do well to deliberately incorporate leadership development of such competencies into their curriculum. This would go a long way in ensuring relevance of their education content and customer responsiveness which are necessary for effective business operation in the 21st century.

5.2. Time Devoted to Competencies Development

The Wilcoxon test statistics carried out in respect to each of the selected competencies, indicated a significant Z statistic at $p < 0.01$, which meant that the null hypothesis H_0 was not supported by the findings. The results of the descriptive statistics indicated a higher preference for more time to be channeled towards development of the selected competencies than was perceived.

Connaughton, Lawrence and Ruben (2003) recommended student evaluation of MBA courses and instructors as a way of improving program effectiveness. Such evaluation yields relevant results to the extent it is measured against the program's stated goals and objectives. Unfortunately, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, none of the MBA programs in Kenya have leadership development of their students as a stated goal. Other than strategic management competence which is currently allocated an entire specialization in most of the programs, the other competencies receive only a casual mention either as a subtopic in the course readings or a single lesson addressed in class.

The results of the evaluation provided by this study serve as an indicator that MBA programs in Kenya can improve their effectiveness by making leadership development a deliberate goal and increasing the time allocated to the development of the selected global leadership competencies. It would therefore be appropriate for MBA programs in Kenya to evaluate the amount of

time and resources allocated to the development of the selected competencies in view of increasing time allocation and emphasis placed upon the development of each.

5.3. Recommendations

5.3.1. Program goals and objectives

Business schools in Kenya should deliberately incorporate the development of the global leadership competencies in their curriculum. This should include reviewing the vision, mission and goals of their MBA programs to create alignment between what they intend to teach and the competencies their graduates need to succeed given the challenges and opportunities provided by the global business environment.

5.3.2. Time and resource investment

MBA programs in Kenya should allocate more time and resources to the development of global leadership competencies. Since each of the selected global leadership competency addresses a major challenge or opportunity presented by the global business environment, this study recommends allocating at least 50% of an entire course unit to the study of each competency.

6. References

1. Barrett, A., & Beeson, J. (2002). *Developing business leaders for 2010*. New York: The Conference Board.
2. Bartlett, J. E., Kotlik, J. W., & Higgins, C. C. (2001, spring). Organizational research: Determining appropriate sample size in survey research. *Information Technology, Learning, and Performance Journal*, 19(1), 43-50.
3. Beck-Jones, J. J., & Harper, V. J. (2009). Rethinking management education: strengthening the development of leadership in business and healthcare management programs. *ASBBS Annual Conference (Vol. 16)*. Las Vegas.
4. Beer, M., & Nohria, N. (2000, June 1). Cracking the code of change. *Harvard Business Review*, 80(10), 133-141.
5. Bolden, R. (2007, April). Trends and perspectives in management and leadership development. *Business Leadership Review*, IV(II). Retrieved from <http://www.mbaworld.com/blr-archiv/scholarly/7/index.pdf>
6. Bosrock, R. M. (2007, June 25). Leadership is more than management [HighBeam Research] [Electronic version]. *Star Tribune*.
7. Brace, I. (2004). *Questionnaire design: How to plan, structure and write survey material for effective market research*. London: Kogan Page Limited.
8. Bruce, G. D. (2010). Exploring the value of MBA degrees: students experiences in full-time, part-time and executive MBA programs. *Journal of Education for Business*, 85, 38–44. DOI: 10.1080/08832320903217648
9. Bueno, C. M., & Tubbs, S. L. (2004, September). Identifying global leadership competencies: An exploratory study. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, Cambridge, 5(1), 80-87.
10. Cacioppe, R. (1998). An integrated model and approach for the design of effective leadership development programs. *Leadership & Organization Development*, 19(1), 44-53.
11. Campbell, N. M. (2006). *Correctional leadership competencies for the 21st century: Manager and supervisor levels (National Institute of Corrections, U.S. Department of Justice. No. NIC Accession Number 020475)*.
12. Certo, S. (2000). *Modern management: Diversity, quality, ethics and the global environment*. Upper Saddle River, NJ:: Prentice-Hall.
13. Chan, Y. H. (2003). *Biostatistics 102: Quantitative data - parametric & non-parametric tests*. *Singapore Med J.*, 44(8), 391-396.
14. Cheit, E. F. (1985). Business schools and their critics. *California Management Review*, 27(3), 43-62.
15. Chin, C. O., & Gaynier, L. P. (2006). Global leadership competence: A cultural intelligence perspective. Presented at the MBAA Conference. College of Management, Lawrence Technological University.
16. Cochran, W. G. (1977). *Sampling techniques (3rd ed.)*. New York:: John Wiley & Sons.
17. Cohen, S. L. (2010). Effective global leadership requires a global mindset. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 42(1), 3-10.
18. Connaughton, S. L., Lawrence, F. L., & Ruben, B. D. (2003, October 1). Leadership development as a systematic and multidisciplinary enterprise. *Journal of Education for Business*, pp. 46- 50.
19. Conrad, D., & Newberry, R. (2011, Spring). 24 business communication skills: Attitudes of human resource managers versus business educators. *American Communication Journal*, 13(1), 4-22.
20. Czaja, R., & Blair, J. (1996). *Designing surveys*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.
21. Daniel, C. A. (1998). *MBA: The first century*. Cranbury, New Jersey: Associated University Presses.
22. Daniel, J. (2011). *Sampling essentials: Practical guidelines for making sampling choices*. London, UK: Sage Publications Inc.
23. Day, D. (2000). Leadership development: Review in context. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11(4), 581–613. Retrieved from <http://www.ila-net.org/Publications/LQArticles/DavidDay.pdf>
24. Dilenschneider, R. L. (1992). *A briefing for leaders: Communication as the ultimate exercise of power*. New York, NY:: HarperCollins.
25. Du-Babcock, B. (2006). Teaching business communication: Past, present, and future. *Journal of Business Communication*, 43(3), 253-264.

26. Frederickson, P. J. (2006). Political skill at work. *Academy Management Perspectives*, 20(2), 95-96.
27. Friga, P., Bettis, R., & Sullivan, R. (2003). Changes in graduate management education and new business school strategies for the 21st century. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 2(3), pp. 233-49.
28. Gordon, R. A., & Howell, J. E. (1959). Higher education in business. New York: Columbia University Press.
29. Hawawini, G. (2005). The future of business schools. *Journal of Management Development*, 24(9), 770-782. DOI 10.1108/02621710510621286
30. Hernez-Broome, G., & Hughes, R. L. (2004). Leadership development: Past, present, and future. *Human Resource Planning*, 27(1), 24-33. Retrieved from <http://www.mendeley.com/research/full-leadership-development/>
31. Herrington, J. D. (2010). MBA: Past, present and future. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 14(1), 63-76. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=976b7bd2-53a8-462d-ba83-4b04b1704f40%40sessionmgr112&vid=1&hid=106>
32. Hitt, M. A., Black, J. S., & Porter, L. W. (2005). *Management*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
33. Houghton, J., & Sheehan, P. (2000). A primer of the knowledge economy. Melbourne City: Centre for Strategic Economic Studies, Victoria University.
34. Hugstad, P. S. (1983). *The business school in the 1980s*. New York: Praeger.
35. Jokinen, T. (2005). Global leadership competencies: A review and discussion. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 29(3), 199-216. DOI 10.1108/03090590510591085
36. Kinuthia, W. (2009). Educational development in Kenya and the role of information and communication technology. *International Journal of Education and Development Using Information and Communication Technology*, 5(2), 6-20. Retrieved from http://www.google.co.ke/search?q=role+of+business+education+-+kenya&hl=en&rlz=1T4ACGW_enKE410KE400&prmd=ivns&ei=KYOTTculBM2r-gb_3KizCg&start=10&sa=N
37. Kotter, J. P. (2000, December 1). What leaders really do. *Harvard Business Review*, Best of HBR(R0111F).
38. Lanier, P., Tanner, J., Zhu, Z., & Heady, R. (1997). Evaluating instructors' perceptions of students' preparation for management curricula. *Journal of Education for Business*, 73(2), 77-84.
39. Lewin, K. (1947). Frontiers in group dynamics. *Human Relations*, 1, 5-41.
40. Lorange, P. (2005). Strategy means choice: Also for today's business school! *Journal of Management Development*, 24(9), 783-790.
41. MacMillan, P. (2001). *The performance factor: Unlocking the secrets of teamwork*. Nashville, Tennessee: B&H Publishing Group.
42. Mathews, P., & Edwards, D. (2005, January 1). Creating management leadership for the future: An integrated model. *Journal of Academy of Business and Economics*, 5(1).
43. McCauley, C. D., & Douglas, C. A. (1998). Developmental relationships. In C. D. McCauley, R. S. Moxley, V. Van & E (Eds.), *The center for creative leadership handbook of leadership development*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
44. McKenna, J. F., Cotton, C. C., & Auken, S. V. (1995). Business school emphasis on teaching, research and service to industry: Does where you sit determine where you stand? *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 8(2).
45. Milter, R., & Stinson, J. E. (1995). *Educating leaders for the new competitive environment*.
46. Mintzberg, H. (2004). *Managers not MBAs: A hard look at the soft practice of managing and management development*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
47. Mueller, R. E. (1995, February 15). The inadvertent entrepreneur: Acceoting change is a shortcut to success. *Success*, 47(11).
48. Onzonol, S. I. (2010). Management education: the best is yet to come. In D. LeClair, J. Peters, V. Williams & M. Wood (Eds.), *From challenge to change: Business schools in the wake of financial crisis*.
49. Ortiz, J. (2004). International business education in a global environment: A conceptual approach. *International Education Journal*, 5(2).
50. Oviatt, B. M., & Miller, W. D. (1989). Irrelevance, intransigence, and business professors. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 3(304-312).
51. Pappas, P. A., & DePuy, V. (2004). An overview of non-parametric tests in SAS: When, why, and how (Paper TU04). .
52. Patry, M. (2010). Business education and the current Economic crisis: An institutional perspective. In D. LeClair, J. Peters, V. Williams & M. Wood (Eds.), *From challenge to change: Business schools in the wake of financial crisis*. Emerald Group Publishing.
53. Pfeffer, J., & Fong, C. T. (2002). The end of business schools? Less success than meets the eye. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 1(1), 78-95.
54. Pierson, F. C. (1959). *The education of American businessmen*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
55. Porter, L. W., & McKibbin, L. W. (1988). *Management education and development: Drift thrust into the 21st century?* or. New York: McGraw-Hill.
56. Powell, W. W., & Snellman, K. (2004). The knowledge based economy. *The Annual Review of Sociology*, 30, 199–220. Retrieved from 10.1146/annurev.soc.29.010202.100037.
57. Robbins, C. J., Bradley, E. H., Spicer, M., & Mecklenburg, G. A. (2001, June 1). Developing leadership in healthcare administration: A competency assessment tool. *Journal of Healthcare Management*, 46(3), 188.
58. Roebuck, D. (2001). *Improving business communication skills*. Upper Saddle River, NJ.: Prentice-Hall.
59. Rogers, E. M., & Blonski, D. (2010, June). The global leadership mindset [The chief learning officer].

60. Satija, K. C. (2009, December 1). What kind of leadership model would be required to create vision, mission and directions in the changing global context? *Advances In Management.*, 2(12), 25-33.
61. Siegel, S., & Castellan, N. J. (1988). *Nonparametric statistics for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
62. Simpson, R. (2006). Masculinity and management education: Feminizing the MBA. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 5(2), 182-193.
63. Sulaiman, A., & Mohezar, S. (2009). Quality in an MBA program: Students perceptions. *International Journal of Management Education*, 7(2), 1-8. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=8d9c43a9-d459-4837-980e-dfe447b01a00%40sessionmgr113&vid=1&hid=106>
64. Tanyel, F., Mitchell, M., & McAlum, H. (1999). The skill set for success of new business school graduates: Do prospective employers and university faculty agree? *Journal of Education for Business*, 75(1), 33-37.
65. The Harvard Guide. (2004). The faces, places, history and lore of America's oldest university. Retrieved from <http://www.news.harvard.edu/guide/lore/lore9.html>
66. Tubbs, S. L., & Schulz, E. (2006, March). Exploring a taxonomy of global leadership competencies and meta-competencies. *The Journal of American Academy of Business*, 8(2).
67. Walker, D. M., Walker, T., & Schmitz, J. (2003). *Doing business internationally*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
68. Wiemann, J. M. (1977). Explication and test of a model of communication competence. *Human Communication Research*, 3, pp. 361-370.
69. Williams, M. A. (2001). *The 10 lenses: Your guide to living and working in a multicultural world*. Sterling, Virginia: Capital Books.
70. Yount, W. R. (2006). *Research design and statistical analysis in Christian ministry* (4th ed). Fort Worth, Texas: W.R. Yount.
71. Zaleznik, A. (1977, June 1). Managers and leaders: Are they different? *Harvard Business Review*, pp. 67-78.
72. Zhao, J. J., Truell, A. D., Alexander, M. W., & Hill, I. B. (2006). Less success than meets the eye? the impact of master of business administration education on graduates' careers. *Journal of Education for Business*, 81, 261–268.

7. List of Abbreviations

List of Global Leadership Competencies	
CCL	Center for Creative Leadership
GLC:	Global Leadership Competencies
MBA:	Master of Business Administration