GLOBAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK

Update to the 2006 Intercultural Leadership Skills Framework

ABSTRACT

Achieving leadership excellence is a journey. Knowing your destination provides the goal and having the tools to get there is critical. This framework provides that destination – a goal and an ideal set of skills, abilities, characteristics and behaviors that leaders need to operate most effectively in our global context today.

The Leadership Skills Framework was first published in 2006 by Ann Gordon, (MSc. University of Guelph and Nuffield Scholar). This update was inspired by a decade of experience working with leaders engaged in international and rural development.

It provides the Advanced Agricultural Leadership Program (AALP), Nuffield Scholars and other industry leaders with:

An *Ideal* Path to Leadership Excellence

GLOBAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK

Adaptation and Innovation

Enjoy & manage ongoing challenges ~ Show curiosity & creativity ~ Be interested in life-long learning & social interactions ~ Work independently/be self-reliant ~ Observe patterns of change & adjust to these shifts ~ Be improvement oriented ~ Display self-efficacy, functioning well in stressful or unexpected situations ~ Maintain balance between adaptation & own cultural identity ~ Be self-sacrificial, resilient, dedicated, flexible, a critical thinker & a risk-taker ~ Adapt to work in a new/different environment ~ Be open-minded & receptive to new ideas ~ Possess a sense of humor.

Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

Understand cultural dimensions & the relationship of history, values, religion, culture, & gender norms to people, their societal systems & leadership expectations ~ Observe mindfully ~ Conceptualize & interpret situations ~ Recognize own assumptions & unconscious bias ~ Adapt behavior to act appropriately & successfully ~ Show respect & unpretentiousness ~ Demonstrate positive moral perceptions ~ Possess realistic views specific to an ethnicity or host country/culture ~ Understand power dynamics.

Relationship Building Skills

Be aware of & sensitive to others' perceptions and concerns ~ Foster cooperation & collaboration ~ Strengthen others by recognizing contributions & encouraging capability ~ Manage conflict & difficult personalities ~ Be supportive ~ Mentor & coach ~ Possess strong oral & written communication ability, facilitation skills, creative problem solving capacity, solid negotiation & social skills ~ Be a team integrator ~ Inspire trust ~ Earn respect ~ Know when to lead and when to follow ~ Show dignity, integrity, authenticity & humility ~ Be honest, sincere & fair.

Analytical and Emotional Intelligence (IQ & EQ)

Know own values & beliefs & operate with a clear personal code of ethics ~ Be mindful of own motivations/expectations of life in or working with another country/culture or ethnic group ~ Possess solid cognitive ability ~ Maintain positive & enthusiastic attitude ~ Show good judgement ~ Be able to manage ambiguity ~ Set high level of performance & excellence ~ Be open to constructive criticism ~ Exercise self-care, management & understand own limits ~ Learn from mistakes and experience ~ Model exemplary behavior ~ Possess self-awareness, self-knowledge, self-confidence, social awareness, patience & determination.

Intercultural Communication

Understand diversity within & between cultures ~ Analyze situations appropriately ~ Communicate clearly & convincingly (verbal, non-verbal & written, multi-lingual, using new technologies & appropriate medium) ~ Practice observational, networking & advocacy skills, ~ Communicate expectations & principles for excellence ~ Empower others towards shared/common vision of the future ~ Give & receive suitably, constructive feedback ~ Use diplomatic conflict resolution, active listening & precision questioning ~ Display empathy & openness ~ Be inspirational, motivational & trustworthy.

Strategic, Financial and Organizational Abilities

Be visionary, resourceful, reliable, decisive, logical, administratively competent and a multi-tasker ~ Plan, organize & coordinate ~ Effectively manage information (investigate, analyze and verify facts) ~ Set priorities ~ Be intuitive, politically astute, globally-minded, financially & economically literate (micro and macro) ~ Succeed in complex systems and understand technology impacts ~ Advocate for good governance ~ Manage time and risk ~ Be supportive, accountable, & responsive ~ Display technical & sector competence ~ Balance family life & work goals.

Notes:

1. In addition to the literature review referenced below, this updated framework was informed by 20 semi-structured questionnaires/interviews conducted in March 2019 by leaders engaged in international and/or rural development from inside and outside Canada and the US.

2. Leadership is a process of influence to achieve a goal. It is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the organizations/entities in which they are involved. Much of the literature indicates that these skills and abilities are learned characteristics and behaviors (House *et al.,* 2014; Gordon, 2006).

3. The skills, competencies and behaviors in this framework are rooted in the charismatic and transformational leadership theories. These concepts are closely aligned and for some researchers are synonymous. Additional attributes have also been included, reflecting a wide variety of skills, styles and behaviors as outlined in the Globe Study (House *et al.*, 2014; Gordon, 2006).

4. The list is comprehensive and inclusive. There is also no absolute "correct" set of leadership behaviors, skills or competencies in the literature and it is common for leadership frameworks/taxonomies to include a combination of abilities or constructs. The evidence points to the importance of having a wide variety of leadership skills, competencies, and abilities in your toolkit to be able to use many different leadership behaviors consistent with societal expectations. Research also suggests that the most effective leaders use a collection of these competencies, each in the right measure and at just the right time (House *et al.*, 2014; Goleman, 2000).

5. While this framework attempts to categorize and clarify the unique elements of each skill area, the boundaries are not exclusive. For effective leadership across and within cultures, there must be an inter-relation and integration between the skills and categories depending on the situation and cultural context. This coincides with the Globe Study 2014 approach and others referenced below.

6. This work looks at leadership from a global context and the terms intercultural, multi-cultural and cross-cultural are considered interchangeable, albeit have slightly different characterizations.

Definitions:

Charismatic Leadership Theory: Contrary to the popular meaning of charisma (flamboyant, exciting, theatrical), the research literature describes this theory as a process that focuses on inspiring followers with a desirable and realistic vision. A vision that is decided based on appropriate analysis and an expectation of high-performance. Sincerity, decisiveness and credibility are clearly demonstrated because of their integrity and willingness to sacrifice their own self-interest (House *et al.*, 2014).

Cognitive/Cognition: The mental act or process of acquiring knowledge and understanding through thought, experience, and the senses. It also includes both awareness and judgement (Oxford 2019; Webster 1981).

Transformational Leadership Theory: A process that uses a combination of inspirational influence and motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual engagement and high-performance expectations. This dynamic raises the level of motivation and standards of both leader and follower to transcend/transform their own immediate interests to work hard for greater collective goals and compelling vision. These leaders have integrity, model the desired behavior and show consideration for each follower. They are viewed as sincere, decisive, credible, self-sacrificial and open to learning from experience (Gordon, 2006; House *et al.*, 2014; Lussier *et al*, 2004; Thomas *et al.*, 2009).

Positive Moral Perceptions: Seen as having the confidence and ability to do the right thing (Oxford *Living* Dictionaries, 2019).

Self-Efficacy: How well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations. This is developed through past performance, experience and social observation, communication ability and state of mind. It is also linked to cultural intelligence capacities (Bandura 1988; Mac Nab *et al*, 2012).

Self-Sacrificial: Putting the interests or goals of others (group/collective) above one's own self- interests or forgoing self-interest and make personal sacrifices for a goal or vision (House *et al.*, 2014).

Team Integrator: A person on your team who is an effective communicator and works hard to bring together all the pieces, provides the glue, ensures the team combines its distinctive expertise and work into a unified whole. (Balakrishnan *et al*, 2011; House *et al*, 2014).

REFERENCES

Balakrishnan, Aruna D., Kiesler, Sara, Cummings, Johathon N., Zadeh, Reza. (2011). *Research Team Integration: What it is and Why it Matters.* Hangzhou, China: CSCW.

Bandura, A (1988). *Organizational Application of Social Cognitive Theory*. Australian Journal of Management. 13 (2): 275–302.

Canals, Jordi. (Ed). (2012). *Leadership Development in a Global World: The Role of Companies and Business Schools.* Great Britain: Palgrave Macmillan.

Goethals, George R., Sorenson, Georgia J., Burns, James MacGregor. (Eds). (2004). *Encyclopedia of Leadership.* Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Goleman, Daniel. (2000). *Leadership That Gets Results*. Harvard Business Review. Mar/Apr 2000, Vol 78, Issue 2.

Gordon, A.L. (2006). *Intercultural Leadership Skills: Canada-China Agri-Food Experiences, University of Guelph, Retrieved from Nuffield Canada www.nuffield.ca Scholars and Reports* https://static.wixstatic.com/ugd/fadf46_8b7b5f747f114ad59859e4768a4639e3.pdf

Government of Canada. (2018). Global Affairs Canada. Centre for Intercultural Learning. *Country Insights*. Retrieve March 1, 2019 from https://www.international.gc.ca/cil-cai/country_insights-apercus_pays/countryinsights-apercuspays.aspx?lang=eng

House, R.J., Dorfman, Peter W., Javidan, M., Hanges, Paul J., Sully de Luque, Mary F., (2014). *Strategic Leadership Across Cultures Globe Study of CEO Leadership Behavior and Effectiveness in 24 Countries.* London, UK: Sage Publications Inc.

Kouzes, J., & Posner, B. (2010). *The Leadership Challenge – An Introduction to The Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership Participant Workbook*. San Francisco, Calif.: Pfeiffer An Imprint of Wiley.

Kouzes, J., & Posner, B. *The Leadership Challenge – A Wiley Brand*. Retrieved January 28, 2019 from http://www.leadershipchallenge.com/about-section-our-authors.aspx

Leautier, Frannie. (2014). *Leadership in a Globalized World: Complexity, Dynamics and Risks*. New York: Palgrave Macmillian.

Lussier, Robert N., Achua, Christopher F. (2004). *Leadership Theory, Application, Skill Development* (2nd ed.). New York: Thomson/South-Western.

MacNab, Brent R., Worthley, Reginald. (2012). *Individual Characteristics as Predictors of Cultural Intelligence Development: The Relevance of Self-Efficacy*. International Journal of Intercultural Relations 36(2012) 62-71.

Moon, T. (2010). *Emotional Intelligence Correlates of the Four-Factor Model of Cultural Intelligence*. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 25(8), 876-878.

Oxford *Living* Dictionaries - English (2019). Oxford English Dictionary (OED), Oxford University Press, Retrieved from https://en.oxforddictionaries.com

Ramsey Jase R., Rutti, Raina M., Lorenz, Melanie P., Barakat, Liva L. Sant'anna, Anderson S. (2017). *Developing Global Transformational Leaders*. Journal of World Business 52 (2017) 461-473.

Thomas, David C., Inkson, Kerr. (2009). *Cultural Intelligence Living and Working Globally*. San Francisco, California: Berrett-Roehler Publishers Inc.

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (1981). Springfield, Mass: G&C Merriam Company.

INTERCULTURAL LEADERSHIP SKILLS: CANADA-CHINA AGRI-FOOD EXPERIENCES

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of Graduate Studies

of

The University of Guelph

by

ANN L. GORDON

In partial fulfillment of requirements

for the degree of

Master of Science

September, 2006

ABSTRACT

INTERCULTURAL LEADERSHIP SKILLS: CANADA-CHINA AGRI-FOOD EXPERIENCES

Ann L. Gordon   Advisor:
University of Guelph, 2006   Professor J. Janakiram

This thesis is an investigation into the leadership competencies and behaviours necessary for effective intercultural ventures in the Canada-China agri-food industry. A modified grounded research approach was used which included a literature review on leadership and intercultural theories and open coding. The data was collected by semi-structured interviews, a case study analysis and participant observation methods. Findings confirmed a list of general intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours and specific skills needed for Canada-China agri-food ventures, such as, relationship building skills, intercultural communication, adaptation and innovation, and understanding cultural dimensions. A gender audit revealed that women are under-represented in leadership positions in the Canada-China agri-food sector. Implications for capacity development in leaders and international trade and development are outlined. With the emphasis today on the global marketplace and community diversity, this study provides a solid foundation in intercultural leadership theory and practice, and opens the door for additional research opportunities.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF APPENDICES

LIST OF DEFINITIONS AND ACRONYMS

Definitions

For the purpose of this research, a list of terms associated with leadership

competencies and behaviours has been compiled. These terms and definitions are

listed below.

Abilities

The capacity to do something or perform successfully. A high degree of general

skill or competence (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1973).

Attitudes

An opinion, viewpoint or general feeling about something, which is often affected

by values and beliefs. In terms of the components of leadership, it relates to

behaviours within the context of leader and follower self-awareness and shapes

their self-regulatory processes, as well. (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary,

1973; Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

Attributes

A quality, property, or characteristic of someone or something. Often mentioned in

association with traits and are cognitive in nature (Webster's New Collegiate

Dictionary, 1973; Northouse, 2004).

Behaviours

The ways in which someone acts. To act or perform in a particular way that

expresses general character, state of mind or response to a situation or other

people. In the context of leadership, may also be referred to as style, skills or the actions between leaders and followers under various circumstances (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1973; Northouse, 2004).

Characteristics

A feature or quality that makes someone or something recognizable. In the leadership context, similar to behaviours, skills or style and often associated with the discussion of traits (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1973; Hollander, 1978).

Competencies

The level of mastery of a set of skills, abilities or behaviours. The ability or skill to do something well or to a required standard or degree of capability. Competencies equal skill sets on a continuum from low to high (Evers et. al, 1998; Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1973).

Knowledge

The general awareness or possession of information, facts, ideas, truths or principles. It can be acquired in a cognitive way, which refers to the use of reasoning, intuition and perceptions for interpretation, understanding of information and acquisition of skills. It can also be acquired in an affective way, which refers to value-based, personal and cultural values, belief and attitudes and emotional associations about an idea or action (Ramirez, 1988; Evers *et al.*, 1998; Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1973).

Relationships

A significant connection, set of connections or networks between two or more people or groups and their involvement with each other, especially in regards to how they behave, feel, communicate or co-operate with each other. In the leadership context it refers specifically to the association and processes between leader and follower. In the context of relationships between countries, for this research it can also refer to business, trade and development (Bass, 1990; Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1973).

Skills

A set of actions or ability to do something in an effective and capable manner, usually gained through experience and training. They can be technical, administrative, interpersonal and/or conceptual and often implies what leaders can accomplish. It is used interchangeably with behaviours and competencies when referring to leadership or managerial abilities. More specifically, skill refers to ability, while competency refers to the mastery of that skill. If referring to advanced skills, these are defined as generic, non-technical, transferable competencies that are common across industry sectors (Yukl, 2002; Evers *et al.* 1998; Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1973; Northouse, 2004).

Traits

Special inherited, distinguishing characteristics, attributes or qualities, possessed in varying degrees by different people. When using this in the context of leadership, it often implies whom leaders are i.e.) their innate characteristics and refers to such qualities as unique physical factors and appearance, personality features, and ability characteristics. Examples include self-confidence,

extroversion, speech fluency, emotional maturity and energy level (Northouse, 2004; Daft, 2005; Yukl, 2002).

Values

Values are what individuals consider to be right, good and important. They are long lasting judgments on the merit of an idea, object, person, place or practice. They create the context for the use of skills and application of knowledge and are often used interchangeably with the terms, attitudes and beliefs (Bass, 1990; Dodd, 1998; Evers *et al.*, 1998).

Acronyms

BSE	Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy
CCIDCBP	Canada-China Integrated Dairy Cattle Breeding Project
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
EU	European Union
GDI	Gender-Related Development Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
MOA	Ministry of Agriculture
N	Total Number of Respondents or Observations
NGO	Non-government Organization
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
SARS	Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome
SBD&FCo	Shanghai Bright Dairy and Food Company
UK	United Kingdom
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
WTO	World Trade Organization

CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION

Leadership in a Global Context

Leadership has long been established as an essential component of successful organizations, projects and ventures. As a practitioner in leadership and rural development for over 20 years, I have witnessed this in the agriculture and agri-food industry. Today, this set of skills, knowledge, attitudes and relationships that form the core competencies and behaviours of leaders is embedded in an intercultural environment.

Intercultural situations are a part of life in our communities, as well as the global marketplace in which we live. Globalization, which is described as the opening of national economies and policies to global competition spurred by advances in technology, has been a reality since the 1980's. This phenomenon has created a complex web of networks of commodity chains that bind producers and consumers across the globe. Its economical, social, political, technological and cultural impacts have increased the importance of understanding and operating effectively in intercultural situations and relationships. Although these effects are seen in all sectors, it is especially noticeable in the forces affecting the agri-food industry because the resulting structures from globalization have linked agriculture and food industries around the world (McMichael, 2004; Coe *et al.*, 2002; Wikipedia, 2006).

Within this framework of globalization and leadership, do agri-food leaders in Canada have the capacity to be most effective in this international environment? Although our agriculture industry leaders have had much experience within the

1

Canada-U.S. context, the nature of doing business in other cultures around the world may be quite different. Do these leaders have the skills, knowledge, attitudes and relationships that form a set of core leadership competencies and behaviours that will enable successful agri-food ventures in this global context? These are the questions which form the backdrop for this intercultural leadership research.

Problem Statement, Goals and Objectives

The problem statement for this study is that Canadian agri-food leaders may not be participating as fully as possible in the growing opportunities for trade and business with China. This is in part because they lack the awareness and knowledge of the competencies and behaviours which are needed to work effectively with China.

The goal of this research was to identify the skills, knowledge, attitudes and relationships that form a set of core leadership competencies and behaviours needed by Canadian agri-food leaders to ensure effective intercultural trade and development ventures in the Shanghai and Beijing regions of China. To do this, the areas of overlap between intercultural leadership competencies and behaviors in the Canada-China agri-food industry and development ventures were the focus. The diagram, Figure 1, conceptualizes this focus. Each of the four circles represents a different component of the study, which includes Intercultural Skills, Leadership Skills, Canadian Agri-Food Sector and the Beijing and Shanghai regions of China. The centre point represents the focus and goal of this study, to identify the competencies and behaviours which are important in this environment.

Figure 1: Conceptualization of Research Focus

A basic gender audit, that is, number of women and men involved, level of decision-making attained by men and women, and ideas about women's roles in the organization, was included to gain an understanding of the differences and similarities between the Canadian and Chinese agri-food sectors. Also, the gender audit provided further opportunity to understand the extent of any stereotypical views that have been present. An outside point of view about intercultural leadership skills from another jurisdiction, the UK, was also incorporated to provide additional perspective to the Canada-China context.

To achieve this goal, the objectives of the study determined:

- The general skills, knowledge, attitudes and relationships that comprise an effective set of intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours; and

- A specific list of leadership competencies and behaviours (which includes perspectives on gender) necessary for effective intercultural agri-food ventures between Canada and China in the region of study (Shanghai & Beijing areas).

3

Scope & Significance of the Research

Business, trade and development relationships with countries such as China, where a rapid increase in income and market growth has been occurring and more is anticipated, offer a unique context in which to examine leadership in an intercultural environment (Buckingham, Deng, Eaton, Henderson, Kirilenko, 2001; Roland-Holst, D., Tarp, F., Huong, P. L., & Thanh, V. T. 2003; Stuttard, 2000). The rapid changes taking place in China are due in part to China's entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO), the expectation that this growth will add to the purchasing power of billions of people and possibly increase the total quantity and quality of food consumed. The coastal areas of China, which includes Beijing and Shanghai, have been among the first areas to experience this tremendous economic growth and impact of international trade and development. Therefore, the Beijing and Shanghai areas are good places of focus for this study. In addition, Beijing, as the centre of government, and Shanghai, with a reputation for being a business and financial hub, brings together a good representation of sectors involved in trade and development (Zakaria, 2005).

According to information published in 2004 and 2005, Canada's development and trade relationships with China are anticipated to double by 2010 (People's Daily, 2004; Canadian Press, 2005). China's GNP is seventh in the world and has an economy that has averaged nearly 10% growth per annum over the last decade. With 1.3 billion people, which is approximately one-fifth of the earth's total population, China is the country with the world's largest population. The life expectancy of its population has risen from 49 years to 71 years since 1960. In 2004 alone, China's GDP growth rate was 9.5% and Canada imported $24.1 billion

4

and exported $6.7 billion to China. Today in China, there are more than 60,000

supermarkets, a rapid increase when one considers that the first one opened only

ten years ago. This kind of growth took the U.S. and Europe decades to achieve.

China Daily (2004) reports that, with China's food industry enjoying a sound

operation, there is a predicted year-on-year growth rate of more than 20%. This is

quite substantial when considering that the 2006 global economic growth is

forecasted to be 4.1% (The Canadian Press & CBC Business News, 2005). The

economic reforms China has undertaken have done much to increase the standard

of living for hundreds of millions of people and reduce the number of poor over the

last 20 years. In fact, in the last 25 years, China has moved 300 million people out

of poverty and quadrupled the average person's income. While there is still much

reform needed, these trends, along with others like China's distinct comparative

economic and social advantages such as an abundance of cheap labour, lack of

powerful unions, membership in the Pacific Rim and entry into the WTO, are

expected to continue (Spatafora *et al.*, 2004, Canadian Government in China,

2005; Canadian International Development Agency, 2005; Coates, 2003;

Zakaria, 2005; The Canadian Press & CBC Business News, 2005).

Canada has a good reputation with China. The medical aid of Canadian Norman

Bethune (1890-1939) laid some of the groundwork for this positive atmosphere

between Canada and China. Diplomatic relations began in 1970 and the

relationship building and projects that have taken place through the Canadian

Embassy in China over the years have built upon this trust (Canadian Government

in China, 2005; Government of Canada Digital Collections, 2004). However,

Canadians will still have to compete for business in this extremely different cultural

context (Joseph Caron, Former Canadian Ambassador to China, personal communication, February 25, 2003).

With this backdrop, it will be critical for the Canadian agri-food industry to recognize and navigate the unique context of relations that make up the Canada-China business and development environments today and in the future. And an important part of this understanding will include the leadership approaches necessary to enhance competitiveness and develop long-term markets. We only need to look to the recent BSE crisis to see the need for Canada's agri-food industry to further develop new and diversified markets that are less reliant on the United States (Bonnett, 2004). While a few studies are published involving agricultural leadership, none known to this author exist involving the Canadian agri-food industry and the intercultural leadership context. This is despite the general acknowledgment that the agri-food industry in Ontario and Canada needs to transform organizationally to maximize opportunities in the global marketplace (Agricultural Odyssey Group, 2002).

The leadership competencies and behaviours which emerge from this research provide a basis for the agri-food industry and other Canada–China agri-food projects and business ventures to draw upon. It opens the door and offers a foundation for:

- Leadership performance measurement for those agri-food leaders working in the international or intercultural environments;

- Influencing the success of future Canada-China agri-food projects;

- Designing or evaluating the intercultural curriculum components in leadership development programs and future Canada-China agri-food projects; and

- Further research in intercultural leadership skills.

CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This review begins by dealing with leadership definitions and levels of conceptualization of leadership. It then outlines the major leadership theories and provides a framework for understanding this body of knowledge. The areas of culture and gender are also reviewed in relation to leadership. Transformational leadership competencies and behaviours are described in detail to provide a specific leadership theoretical context for this research. Intercultural effectiveness theory is also summarized and a skill comparison is done with transformational leadership. Finally, the important Canada-China cultural dimensions are reviewed in relation to intercultural leadership.

A Compilation of Major Leadership Theories

Overview

Leadership theories are abundant in the literature. This is indicative of its complex nature, evolution over time and the researcher's conception of leadership and methodological preferences. As well, a wide variety of definitions exist for the term 'leadership'. Common threads in the concept are that leadership is a process which involves influence, occurs within the context of an individual or group, and involves goal attainment. Much of the recent literature acknowledges that skills needed to realize these concepts can be acquired and developed, although research and opinion still exists regarding whether traits are inherited or a learned

characteristic. These common threads will form the core of the definition for this research and some representative definitions from the literature are listed below (Yukl, 2002; Northouse, 2004).

- Leadership is "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization…" (House *et al.*, 1976)

- Leadership is "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization." (Katz & Kahn, 1978)

- Leadership is "an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purposes." (Rost, 1993)

- Leadership is "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal." (Northouse, 2004)

There is also a great body of literature and discussion about management and leadership. Management plans, investigates, co-ordinates, evaluates, supervises, staffs, and negotiates. A definition is as follows:

- The attainment of organizational goals in an effective and efficient manner through planning, organization, staffing, directing, and controlling group resources of a business and/or particular sector of a company or organization.

The difference between management and leadership is its orientation. While both attempt to do certain tasks, the level and manner at which they function to accomplish the task is different. Strictly speaking, a manager focuses on keeping an eye on the bottom line, organizing, controlling and creating boundaries, working in accordance with the established goals and vision. Their relationships are often

based on positional power. Their role is to maintain stability and create a culture of efficiency. Leaders focus on the vision and big picture to shape and set organizational goals, facilitating interpersonal interaction and empowering followers, aligning the organization with shared culture and values. Leaders often use personal power as their source of leader influence, and create change and a culture of integrity. This means leadership can take place outside the formal organizational context, is not dependent on legitimacy or authority of a position and not accountable for follower behaviour in the same way a manager is accountable for the job behaviour of those managed. Both in theory and practice, they can be synonymous and are often studied and referred to as such (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1973; Nicolaou-Smokoviti, 2004; Bass, 1990; Daft, 2005; Kotter, 1985; Zaleznik, 1992).

For this collection, leadership theory will be discussed as an influence or the inter-relationship between leader and follower, as most definitions of leadership have this assumption in common (Yukl, 2002). The specific leadership theories documented in this review have been a focus of major importance to the development of the discipline, including the areas of gender and culture studies. This compilation will provide an overview of the theory, identification of those researchers making significant contributions to the area, and a context for those theories relevant to this study. A framework of my compilation of major leadership theories can be found in Figure 2.

Influence can refer to an effect, process and/or exchange between leader and follower. It is the explanation of the dimensions of this exchange between leader and follower that constitutes leadership theory. In very general terms, the different

leadership theories can be summarized in two very broad categories. These include one-way influence, such as the trait approach, and two-way influence, which encompasses the behaviour and relational approach, situational approach and an integrative approach, which is a combination of two or more of these. A power orientation approach is also identified as part of this two-way influence (Northouse, 2004; Glauser, 2002; Daft 2005; Yukl, 2002). Also, there are varying levels of conceptualization for leadership that affect the way this influence is interpreted. As such, leadership theory is often developed by focusing on one of the following processes: an individual process; a dyadic or coupled process; a group process; an organizational or community process (Yukl, 2002; Pigg, 1999; Flora *et al.*, 2003). Add to this a framework of leadership evolution that has tried to understand effective leadership in an environment that has gone from the stable pre-industrial era of the late 19th century to the much more global, interconnected, information age of today (Daft, 2005). Therefore, these varying lenses through which leadership is viewed make for a diverse and seemingly fragmented body of knowledge. While categorization is difficult and overlaps occur, some similarities emerge in the literature. This compilation will attempt to clarify the similarities and distil the quagmire of leadership theory that faces anyone in this discipline.

Figure 2: Framework of Major Leadership Theories

Leadership Is An Influence Process

Leadership is a process, involves influence, occurs within the context of an individual or group, and involves goal attainment. Much of the recent literature acknowledges that skills needed to realize these concepts can be acquired and developed although research and opinion still exists regarding whether traits are inherited or a learned characteristic (Yukl, 2002; Northouse, 2004).

Levels of Conceptualization   **Leadership Theories**

Much of leadership research & theory has been conducted from the perspective of the:

Individual

Group

Dyadic Relationship

Organization

Community
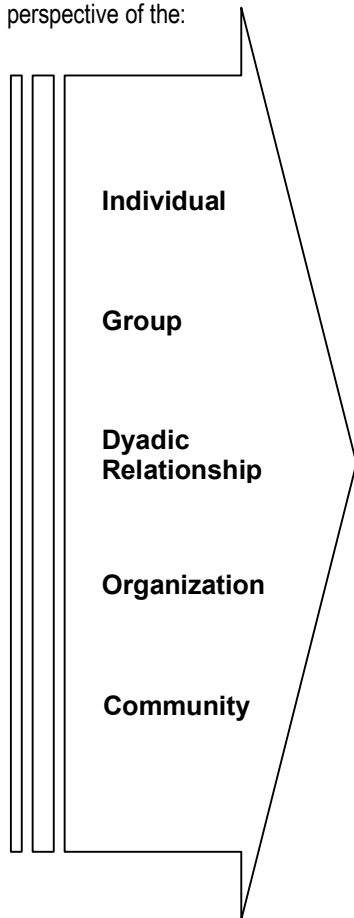
One-Way Influence
 Trait Theory
  - Great Man
Two- Way Influence
 Behaviour & Relational Theory
  - Autocratic/Authoritative & Democratic
  - Task Oriented*****
  - Consideration & Initiation of Structure*****
  - Individualized
  - Vertical Dyad Linkage
  - Leader-Member Exchange
  - Skill-Based
 Situational Theory
  - Fiedler's Contingency*****
  - Hersey & Blanchard's Situational
  - Path-Goal/Participation*****
  - Cognitive (Attributional & Implicit)
  - Vroom-Jago/Vroom-Yetton
  - Normative Decision
  - Leadership Substitutes
  - Team Leadership
  - Flexible Leadership
 Integrative Theory
  - Charismatic/Inspirational/Visioning*****
  - Transformational*****
  - Transactional
  - Ethical Leadership
  - Functional Integration
  - Systems Approach
  - Authentic Leadership
 Power Orientation Theory
  - Team Leadership*****
  - Participative Leadership*****
  - Leader-Member Exchange
  - Fiedler's Contingency
  - Transactional
  - Machiavellianism*****

 * *Indicates leadership theories tested in different cultures*

Source: Author's work from selected material in Bass (1990), Northouse (2004), Chemers (2000), Daft (2005), Pigg (1999), Glauser (2002), and Yukl (2002)

One-Way Influence: Trait Theory

Under the broad category of one-way influence theories or those focused on leader traits, leadership is often explained in terms of a general ability or universal set of characteristics or skills. These universal characteristics greatly determine the outcome or end result of an interaction between leaders and followers. Followers in this case are often seen as an object or entity which leaders need to shape to achieve the desired end result and leaders are perceived to have been born with these capabilities. Discussions of traits, characteristics and legitimacy dominated an early era of leadership theory, much of which took place in the first half of the 20th century. Within the one-way influences/dimensions, we find the theories addressing personal skill and trait approaches. This early work on leadership, focusing on the military and monarchies, gave rise to what we know today as the Great Man Theory. Leadership, in this context, is seen as a set of stereotypical attributes such as dominance, assertiveness, intelligence, intuition, foresight, and appearance that are born and bred naturally in leaders. Although it is a one-dimensional way of explaining the phenomena and does not factor in the situation or human interactions, it does fit in with our notion that leaders are out in front and leading the way in society (Northouse, 2004). Bass (1990) notes that this theory has over 100 years of research to back it up, beginning with Carlyle's (1841) essay on heroes.   Theorists such as Galton (1869), Woods (1913), Jenkins (1947), Stogdill (1948), Kirkpatrick & Lock (1991), and Smith and Krueger (1933) are among major contributors to this approach, which has given us some good benchmarks for leadership (Bass, 1990; Cawthon, 1996; Northouse, 2004; Chemers, 2000; Daft, 2005; Glauser, 2002; Yukl, 2002).

Two–Way Influence: Behaviour and Relational, Situational, Integrative and Power

Orientation Theory

The two-way influence or process-oriented approach is a concept that implies there

are effects, behaviours and interactions reciprocated between leaders and

followers. This change in the study of leadership began in the 1950's and is still

part of recent literature. In these theories, the leadership processes, skills,

functions, situations and outcomes are more of a focus, rather than simply the

leader traits (Bass, 1990; Chemers, 2000; Glauser 2002). There is an

acknowledgment that a number of intervening variables or situations operate within

the processes and relations between leaders and followers, which can affect the

outcomes. There is an understanding that a relationship between leader and

follower is developed. Concepts of interaction and social learning, perceptual and

cognitive models, behavioural approaches and a variety of hybrid explanations

have emerged. They are outlined below (Yukl, 2002; Chemers, 2000; Daft,

2005).

a)   Behaviour and Relational Theory

The inability of the trait theory to fully explain the dimensions of leadership have

lead to the development of behaviour based theory. At the basis of this approach

is the belief that leadership behaviours, competencies and styles can be learned.

They feature such models as Autocratic or Authoritarian and Democratic

Leadership, Task Oriented Leadership and Consideration and Initiation of Structure

Leadership. Descriptions centre on people-orientation and task-orientation

behaviours and a number of taxonomies have evolved. Katz's (1955) work on

developable skills set the groundwork for this approach by suggesting that technical, human, and conceptual skills were critical for effective leadership. Since then, a variety of studies of effective leadership behaviour have occurred, with theorists such as Hemphill & Coons (1957), Halpin & Winer (1957), Fleishman & Harris (1962); Korman (1966), Likert (1961), Yammarino (1990), Bass & Avolio (1990c), and Kahn (1951) providing significant research to this area (Yukl, 2002; Northouse, 2004; Chemers, 2000; Daft, 2005). Daft (2005) and Yukl (2002) outline more recent behaviour research, which has focused both on the relational nature of skills for social interaction and specific skills of leaders. Individualized Leadership, Vertical Dyad Linkage, Leader-Member Exchange and Skills-Based are some current types which represent this movement. Dansereau (1995), Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995), Schriesheim, Castro & Cogliser (1999), Bauer & Green (1996), Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly, & Marks (2000), and Yammarino & Dansereau (2002) have done substantial research in this field recently.

b)   Situational Theory

Often called contingency theory, this approach emphasizes that in order to attain leadership effectiveness, there must be an appropriate fit between the leader's style and the conditions of the situation. Variables of the situation, such as characteristics of followers, leader-follower relations, nature of the task, type and maturity of organization, position power, and nature of the external environment must be taken into account. Two branches of this type of research exist. One looks at leadership processes across different types of organizations, levels of management and cultures. The other group focuses on the relationship of leader behaviours and skills to achieve leadership effectiveness in different situations.

15

(Northouse, 2004; Yukl, 2002; Daft, 2005). Fiedler's (1967) work was the cornerstone of this change in direction of leadership research. Types of models based on this theory include: Fiedler's Contingency Model; Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership; Path-Goal or Participative Leadership; Team Leadership; Cognitive Theory, which includes Attributional and Implicit Leadership; Flexible Leadership; Vroom-Jago or Vroom-Yetton Model, which is sometimes classified as Normative Decision Theory; and the more extreme form of situational theory, Leadership Substitutes. In addition to Fiedler (1967), other significant contributions in this area have been made by Hersey & Blanchard (1993), Evans (1970), House & Mitchell (1974), Vroom & Yetton (1973), Vroom & Jago (1988), Kerr & Jermier (1978), Yukl & Lepsinger (2004), and Bragg & Andrews (1973). These models acknowledge that leadership style includes diagnostic skills for organizational situations and flexibility in leadership behaviour (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004; Chemers, 2000; Yukl, 2002; Daft, 2005).

While cognitive models such as Attributional and Implicit Leadership theory are often associated with situational theory, they also cross over into behaviour and relational theory. Attributional Leadership theory concentrates on the leader's perceptions, behaviours and the results in those situations. It describes the cognitive processes used by leaders to determine the reasons for effective or ineffective performance and the reaction. In addition to this leader-centred focus on perceptions is a parallel body of research on follower attributes and insights called Implicit Leadership theory. While they are more closely linked with behaviour theories because they involve stereotypes and beliefs about relevant traits, skills and behaviours, implicit theories mainly assist in differentiating among various types of leaders. Most cognitive models focus on the extent to which

perceived and actual descriptions of the quality of leadership are held by leaders and followers. Calder (1977), Lord & Maher (1991) and Mitchell, Larson & Green (1980) have conducted research in this area. Other cognitive theories include Informational Processing and Rational-Deductive Decision Trees (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002; Chemers, 2000).

One of the most rapidly growing areas of research in situational theory is Team leadership. Related to Path-Goal Theory or Participative Leadership, it specifically conceptualized leadership in the context of a group or organizational process. It involves groups or teams of people empowered to share decision-making that was formerly made by an individual leader. Although much research in the organizational development literature is emerging about effective types of teams (that is, functional, cross-functional, self-managed, self-defining or executive), the broader and more multi-dimensional research on leadership theory as applied to teams is a shortcoming in the discipline. Kinlaw (1998), Porter & Beyerlein (2000), Zaccaro, Rittman & Marks (2001), and Lafasto & Larson (2001) are recognized to have had an impact in bringing this model to light (Northouse, 2004; Yukl, 2002).

c)   Integrative Theory

As a result of the apparent complexity of leadership research, more and more of the current theories of leader effectiveness are combinations or they cross over two or more types of leadership approaches. This began in the 1980's and was sparked by Burn's (1978) work on transactional and transformative leaders. Transformational Leadership is well recognized as a model in this category and is

widely applied today. Charismatic Leadership, also sometimes referred to as Inspirational or Visionary Leadership, is a model in this category. It combines trait or behaviour theory with situational theory in a dynamic way and acknowledges that emotional processes are as important as rational processes and symbolic actions are as important as making things happen. The Charismatic Leadership concept is very closely aligned to transformational leadership and for some researchers it remains synonymous. Both have a charisma component emphasizing strong beliefs, values and vision or long-term goals. Other common characteristics are high expectations, confidence and follower trust. A subtle, yet defining difference is in the changes of individuals, followers or entire organizations that define Transformational Leadership. This speaks to the underpinnings of Charismatic Leadership, which assumes that charisma is a special gift that gives the individual the capacity to do extraordinary things and so is closely associated with trait theory. Transformational Leadership transforms others to go beyond self-interest, fully actualize and change for the good of the organization. It is more rooted in behaviour and relational theory, with a focus on the outcome. Ethics and standards are also characteristics of the transformational model. House (1976), Burns (1978), Bass (1990, 1995), Bass & Avolio (1990c, 1993), Bennis & Nanus (1985), Conger J. (1999) and Tichy & DeVanna (1990) have provided critical research in this area of leadership theory (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004, Yukl, 2002, Chemers, 2000; Daft, 2005; Conger, 1999).

Studies in transformational and charismatic leadership paved the way for a focus on the more recent research into Ethical Leadership. Two streams of approaches seem to be apparent in this field. One focuses on the conduct of leaders and examines this in terms of consequences of leader behaviour and concern with

ends and purposes or duty, as well as rules governing leader behaviour. The second approach is about character and virtue-based theories. This focus on the character of leaders emphasizes qualities such as honesty, fairness, courage and fidelity. Models such as Principle-Centered Leadership, Servant Leadership and the more extreme form, Self-Protective Leadership, characterize ethical leadership and focus on the principles of respect, service, justice, honesty and community. Heifetz (1994), Greenleaf (1977), Burns (1978) and Covey (1992) are prominent leadership scholars contributing to our understanding of this area of leadership research (Northouse, 2004; Yukl, 2002; Covey, 1992; Spears, Lawrence & Blanchard, 2001).

Burn's (1978) work on transactional leadership can be described as a model that crosses various theories. This type of leadership involves an exchange process that may result in follower obedience with leader requests, but is not likely to generate enthusiasm and commitment to the objectives. Therefore, this approach can be seen as both a situational theory, with its roots in Leader-Member Exchange, and power orientation theory, as it involves contingent reward. Many theorists believe that truly effective leadership is a combination of transactional and transformational models (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002).

The whole area of follower development and contributions to effective leadership has increased in current research. It has become recognized that motivated, competent followers are necessary for successful leadership (Yukl, 2002; Chaleff, 2003). Transformational Leadership first gave recognition to this and since then we see more concentration on followers in Authentic Leadership and Servant

Leadership theory. Albeit, Authentic Leadership also includes an in-depth focus on confident sense of self and positive organizational climate. Theorists such as Avolio & Gardner (2005), Chaleff (2003), George (2003), Greenleaf (1977), and Spears (1998) are leading the way in fostering the understanding of these models.

The systems approach to leadership is an integration of situations, and behavioural and relational theory. Katz and Kaha (1966) pointed the way to developing this approach (Bass, 1990). It suggests that social process and relationships are the critical elements. Since the system never behaves the same way twice, yet with orderliness, the leadership behaviours are more focused on processes, patterns or facilitative courses of action and change. The intervening variables are also more intangible, non-material forces such as culture, values, vision and ethics. Scholars such as Wheatley (1999) and Senge (1990) have made the connection between systems and leadership in their recent works focusing on *Leadership and the New Science* and *The Fifth Discipline* (Wheatley, 1999; Parry 1998; Senge, 1990; Daft, 2005).

Yet another attempt at an integrated approach is by Chemers (2000), who proposes taking a longer view of common findings and streams of thought across the theoretical perspectives and offers integration around leadership and functions. Functional Integration theory focuses on image management, relationship development and resource deployment to achieve effectiveness in influencing followers toward goal attainment. It is influenced by the role that leadership efficacy, transformational behaviours and charismatic traits play in leadership.

d)   Power Orientation Theory

The concept of this area of research seeks to explain leadership effectiveness in terms of the amount and type of influence or power leaders have in their relationship with followers (Yukl, 2002). Northouse (2004) describes it as being related to leadership in terms of the capacity or potential influence and is based on French & Raven's (1959) work on social power. Power is conceptualized as influence in terms of the source and amount of power available to leaders and the manner in which they exercise power with followers. Sources of leader influences in this theory include positional power and personal power. Positional power is derived from the position in the organization and refers to legitimate power, reward power, coercive power, information power, and ecological power. Influence which comes from the personal characteristics of the leader is called personal power and it includes expert and referent or friendship power. Effective leadership is more often associated with personal power than positional power (Price, 2003; Yukl, 2002). Kotter (1985), Hinkin & Schriesheim, (1990), Kapoor & Ansari (1988), Yukl, Kim, & Falbe (1996). and Yukl & Tracey (1992) have contributed to the study of this theoretical construct, by looking at influence behaviour and tactics and their effectiveness.

One of the earliest theories within this power orientation perspective is Machiavellianism, which combines power and political manipulation. First articulated by Nicolo Machiavelli (1513/1962) in *The Prince*, this style is probably more widespread than acknowledged. Christie & Geis (1970), Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson (1980) and Coates (1984) have taken a closer look at this approach by measuring authoritarianism of both leaders and followers. Task-orientation, limited

interpersonal or social influences, status, power, position and a number of influence tactics such as pseudo-democratic actions, manipulation of information, invoking passed favours and rules, using ingratiation, and blocking are common characteristics (Bass, 1990; Conger, 1989).

Many of the preceding theories in this review, while their core orientation is in trait, behaviour and relational, situational or a combination of these approaches, can also be seen in terms of their power dimensions. Participative and Team Leadership can be considered a type of power orientation theory, as it deals with decision-making, delegation, power sharing and empowerment, although it also crosses over into contingency theories as well (Yukl, 2002; Mintzberg, 1983). Leader-Member Exchange, while principally a behaviour theory, is also considered by some to be power based, as the exchange interaction between leader and follower is built on rewards, benefits or consequences of the interaction experience. Followers make contributions at a cost to themselves and receive benefit (Bass, 1990). Fiedler's Contingency Model, which incorporates leader position power, can also be considered in this classification (Northouse, 2004). Bass (1990) and Yukl (2002) identify transactional leadership as a power orientation theory due to its focus on contingent reward and Greenleaf (1977) looks at servant leadership from a legitimate power perspective.

Culture and Leadership

Bass (1990) notes that research has been carried out over the years regarding leadership in various countries and cultures. Even though the unifying effects of globalization are taking place, culture and national differences continue to affect

the influence process between leader and follower. A major issue in research on leadership in different cultures is the extent to which leadership theories that are developed and tested in one culture can be generalized to different cultures. Still, two ways of approaching cultural difference have dominated leadership theorizing, while a third emerging area is a combination of the two. One emphasizes a values-based approach and the other focuses on testing specific leadership theories cross-culturally, while the third utilizes both in a more integrative way (Chemers, 2000; Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004).

The value approach originates in social psychology and looks at the effects of culture on social processes. Within this context, there is the belief that leadership is grounded in one's own identity and the dimension of culture, which form the way we think, our identity, beliefs, values and outlook on the world (Blondin-Andrew, 2003; Dodd, 1998). Theorists such as Hofstede (1980) and Triandis (1990) have provided sound research in this area. The elements of: traditionalism (the importance of family, status, and reverence for the past); particularism, (obligations to friends & family relations); collectivism (concern with relationships, group achievement and co-operation); and idealism (moralism & idealistic values linked to social, aesthetic and religious elements) are identified as the dimensions of values that are of particular importance to leadership. Linked to these are attitudes to competitiveness, preference for risk-taking, sense of duty, interpersonal abilities, communication skills, need for achievement, and affiliation and power. The basic thrust of the value theories is that organizational processes in different cultures will reflect what is considered appropriate and significant. For example, it is important to adapt the leadership style to fit the prevailing pattern in the host

country for the success of an organization internationally (Chemers, 2000; Bass, 1990). Dwivedi (2003) expressed this idea as taking a moral approach involving national vision, integrity, dynamism and global consciousness.

The second approach to leadership and culture involves looking at how the various leadership theories hold up across different national and international groups. Misumi & Patterson (1985) and Ayman & Chemers (1983) have looked at behaviours using Consideration and Initiation of Structure theory. Other research has involved power orientation theory such as Contingency, Participative Leadership, Task Oriented Leadership and integrative theories such as Transformational or Charismatic Leadership (Shenkar & Ronen, 1987; Dorfman *et al.*, 1997; Gerstner & Day, 1994; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1986). As much of leadership research is based on studies in North America and Western Europe and often builds in an assumption that other cultures should assimilate these theories, the cautions of direct incorporation of Western & European leadership theories should be noted as a possible limitation in this type of research. Korabik & Miller (2003), Bond & Smith (1996), Blondin-Andrew (2003), Nicolaou-Smokoviti (2004), and Yukl (2002) identify this caution.

An emerging area of study provides a third approach. This involves a combination of the value-based and leadership theory application, which may help to minimize the limitations to the second approach mentioned above. House *et al.* (2004) in the GLOBE project studied cross-cultural leadership in 62 different cultures representing all the major regions of the world in a collaborative, coordinated long-term effort. Using the value-based cultural dimensions of Hofstede (1980) in combination with measures of gender egalitarianism, they looked at a variety of

leadership theories to understand the relationship between societal culture, organizational process and leadership. Various behavioural and relational, situational, and power orientation theories are used. These include: Charismatic Leadership; Team Oriented Leadership; Participative Leadership; Humane-Oriented Leadership, which is similar to Consideration & Initiation of Structure; Autonomous Leadership, which has dimensions similar to Individualized Leadership; and Self-Protective Leadership, which appears to be an extreme focus on ethical egoism of Ethical Leadership or Machiavellianism, which is centered on how to keep and maintain positional power (House *et al.*, 2004).

Gender and Leadership

In the area of gender and leadership, the literature identifies divergent views, largely due to inconsistent patterns and persistent stereotypes about men and women over the years. Research in this area has concerned itself with legitimacy, sex-based discrimination, the possibility of differing behaviours between men and women, and barriers to women's advancement in organizational levels. Recently, feminist organizational studies point to new ways of looking at organizational behaviour such as leadership and use of power (Chemers, 2000; Yukl, 2002; Hambly Odame, 2002; Northouse, 2004).

When the cultural context is added into the mix, a different viewpoint emerges. Nicolaou-Smokoviti's (2004) study of leadership styles of men and women among 27 countries finds that men follow a more competitive style of leadership, while a democratic style of leadership is the main characteristic of women, except in higher decision-making roles. It appears that women in positions of higher authority take

on a perspective consistent with men in high authority positions. In the GLOBE project by House *et al.* (2004), gender egalitarianism i.e. the way in which societies divide roles between men and women, was used as the measurement. The more gender egalitarian a society, the less it relies on biology to determine men's and women's roles. Overall findings suggested that societies currently rely to some extent on biological sex to allocate appropriate roles to members in the workplace, despite the fact that most managers reported that this practice was not an ideal one. Societal and organizational values with regard to the division of roles between men and women drove beliefs about the attributes that contribute to effective leadership. The more gender egalitarian a society's organizational culture values, the more strongly it endorsed Participative and Charismatic or Value-Based leader attributes, whereas it rejected Self-Protective Leader attributes like those found in Machiavellianism or ethical egoism, which is found at the extremities of Ethical Leadership.

From a leadership competency and skill perspective, Evers *et al.* (1998) identified that there were statistically significant differences between men and women in the competency areas of communicating, and mobilizing innovation and change. Women rate themselves better and are rated better than men on communicating, while men rate themselves better and are rated better than women on mobilizing innovation and change. These findings differ from Chemer's (2000) information, which may be due to the implicit nature of leadership and gender studies.

Bass (1990) identifies scholars such as Dobbins & Platz (1986), Eagly & Johnson (1990), and Powell (1993) who have also addressed this area of research. Generally, findings in the analysis of the gender effects in leadership studies over

the past 30 years, indicate that the difference is more about equal access and fair evaluation for women. When the barriers of unequal access and unfair evaluation are removed, men and women exhibit similar leadership behaviours (Chemers, 2000; Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004; Yukl, 2002; House *et al*., 2004).

<u>Summary</u>

While the two-way influence models of leadership still dominate, recent studies acknowledge that leadership theory has been dominated by quantitative methodologies that are influenced by periodic fashions in research philosophies, which are fragmented and less durable over time. The conundrum between the universality or prescriptive nature of leadership behaviour and the appropriateness or fit between behaviour and situations is just one example of this dilemma. Clearly, the phenomenon of leadership is rooted in how one looks at the nature of the subject, which includes its definition, purpose, historical context, level of analysis, and relational and dynamic aspects (Chemers, 2000; Parry, 1998; Avolio & Gardner, 2005). While the snapshot presented here is not meant to be exhaustive, this compilation of major leadership theories attempts to put the prevailing theories into perspective and provide a framework on those more closely pertinent to this study.

Transformational Leadership: A Theoretical Approach to Leadership Competencies and Behaviours

Transformational theory, an integrated approach to leadership, has been the focus of much of the literature since the 1980's. It goes beyond exchange theories and

transcends self-interest and the good of the group, to consider longer term needs of individual development. Followers are converted into leaders. This theory is a hybrid involving the trait concept that is found within the Great Man and Charismatic theories and the process oriented, behaviour and relational theories between leaders and followers, with a focus on the outcome. However, it does not include a similar power-influence dimension, but rather an idealized influence, which focuses on values and intrinsic motivation. The focus is on the cognitive, interaction and behavioural areas and is more likely to directly interrelate leaders, followers and outcomes. Bennis, Spreitzer, & Cummings (2001) argues that this synergy between leaders, followers and outcomes empowers the collective effect of their leadership and shared leadership results. This refers to a set of people who collectively perform all the essential leadership functions. Bass (1990) conceptualizes the theory along four, correlated dimensions which include idealized (charismatic) influence, inspirational influence, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. It develops an expectation of high performance and seems closer to the prototype of the ideal leader and therefore, provides for role modeling (Bass, 1990). It is the combination of these dimensions that binds followers and leaders together in the transformation process. This theory also concerns itself with emotions, values, ethics, standards, assessment of follower's motives and needs and long-term goals. Individuals engage with others and a leader to create a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both leader and follower. Mahatma Gandhi is an example of this theory in practice. He raised hopes and demands of millions of people and, in doing so, he also changed himself (Northouse, 2004).

While critics argue that this model has a weakness on the lack of clarity in components and measures, like vision and how leaders encourage followers to challenge leader goals, one of the strengths of this theory is that it has been researched from a number of different perspectives, including the business and non-profit sectors. Secondly, it is consistent with society's expectations of leadership and makes sense in a changing and complex world. The attributes of followers are considered as important as leader traits in the overall process and this broader view brings a synergy to the combination of process and trait theories. Its strength also lies in the emphasis on values and morals. This adds an uplifting component in contrast to the coercion component of the power-influence dimension, which we have seen in leaders like Hitler (Northouse, 2004; Yukl, 2002). Price (2003) cautions that the values component does have the potential to be misused due to differing or changing values.

A wide variety of skills make up the leadership competencies and behaviours in transformational theory. According to Bass (1990), Northouse, (2004) and Avolio & Gardner (2005) these include:

- Managing attention and meaning;

- Articulating goals and vision;

- Empowering collective effort;

- Creating trust, predictability and reliability;

- Having charisma and motivation;

- Developing a purposeful and organizational search for change;

- Using systematic analysis;

- Demonstrating strategic ability;

- Possessing technical and organizational skills;

- Developing people and building teams;

- Exhibiting a positive moral perspective;

- Showing integrity;

- Encouraging leader and follower self-awareness and self-regulation;

- Encouraging performance beyond expectations;

- Promoting positive social exchanges;

- Ensuring access to information;

- Providing resources and support;

- Fostering a learning organization where there is empowerment and everyone is engaged in identifying and solving problems; and

- Building and sustaining human, social and psychological capital.

Leaders must display self confidence, and competence, communicate high expectations, possess a strong sense of their own moral values, strengths and weaknesses and be able to arouse motives in others. They have skills in creating a supportive climate and act as coaches and advisors, while assisting followers to self-actualize. It is often said that these leaders "lead by example". Transformative leaders stimulate followers to be creative and innovative with an emphasis on intrinsic rewards. They are the social architects for the organization and therefore have skills in recognizing the need for change and can break down old structures and build new relationships and structures (Northouse, 2004). Korten (1980) also

identifies these skills in his case study work. He describes effective leadership as strong, sustained, charismatic and connected to the grassroots.

Based on the integrated theory of House *et al.* (2004), a number of leadership competencies and attributes were identified as universally desirable across the globe. The Charismatic/Value-Based Leadership, which, as pointed out earlier, is fairly synonymous with transformational leadership theory, was one of the theories examined. In particular, the subscales or competencies of vision, inspiration, self-sacrifice, integrity, decisive and performance-oriented were measured. Their findings indicate that this theory is generally reported to contribute to outstanding leadership. Team Oriented Leadership, with its competency subscales of collaborative team orientation, team integrator, diplomatic, malevolent (reverse scored) and administratively competent, was also rated as generally contributing to outstanding leadership. Participative leadership and its subscale characteristics of non-participative and autocratic (both reverse scored) were also rated highly. However, some differences between country clusters did exist. The GLOBE study (House *et al.,* 2004) is ongoing and in the next phases will look at identifying the behaviours that result from such attributes. For example, while integrity was rated highly, does that mean the same thing to the Chinese as it does to a Canadian or European? Korabik & Miller (2003) endorse transformational leadership from a cultural diversity perspective looking specifically at strategies for minority leaders to use to overcome cultural barriers. So, while there is still research needed to delve deeper into the specific leadership behaviours and skills as they relate to the universally desirable leadership styles and different cultures, this gives some indication that transformational leadership is a relevant theory in which to look at

the intercultural context of leadership competencies and behaviours (House et al., 2004; Bass, 1990).

Turning to Canadian research by Evers, Power & Mitchell (2003) and Evers, Rush & Mitchell (1998), we find the skills, competencies and behaviours identified in transformational leadership examined longitudinally in the context of the need in the Canadian workforce to develop leaders and successors for the sustainability of our economy. Their research identifies a list of skills that form base and advanced competencies. A compilation of these skills consists of: a) Mobilizing Innovation and Change, which includes the ability to conceptualize; creativity, innovation, change; risk-taking; and visioning; b) Managing People and Tasks, which includes co-coordinating; decision-making; leadership and influence (inspires and motivates others, supportive, mentor and coach, effective team builder, sensitivity to diversity and the ability to take on the role of follower as necessary); managing conflict (which includes diplomatic conflict resolution); and planning and organizing; information management; and environmental and situational analysis; c) Communicating, which includes interpersonal skills; listening; oral communication; and written communication; and d) Managing Self, which involves learning; personal organization and time management; personal strengths; strong business ethics; integrity; multi-tasking; accountability; and problem-solving and analytic skills. While these studies have an educational theoretical construct, they also identify transactional and transformational leadership theory as a basis of their work. Therefore, as you can see in the comparison in Table 1, it is appropriate to conclude that these competencies for the job, workplace and corporate environment closely parallel transformational

32

leadership competencies. One shortcoming, however, may occur in how adequately the area of values and ethics is represented in this work as compared to true transformational theory. And as per the findings of House *et al.*, (2004), more specifics regarding the behaviours associated with these attributes are needed.

Intercultural Effectiveness Theory and Subsequent Competencies and Behaviours

To be effective in another culture, one must have skills to communicate, to understand others and to make oneself understood (Kealey, 1990). These are fundamental skills of intercultural relationships and communications. Intercultural effectiveness is the ability to function successfully within a culture and involves skills and qualities within the area of communication, social and personal factors (Kealey, 1990; Dodd, 1998; Vulpe, Kealey, Protheroe, & MacDonald, 2001).

A variety of competencies and behaviours have been identified as being important for intercultural effectiveness. These include adaptation skills, an attitude of modesty and respect, an understanding of the concept of culture, knowledge of the host country and culture, relationship building skills, self-knowledge, communication, organizational ability, and personal and professional commitment (Vulpe *et al.*, 2001). Dahles & Wels (2002) add ongoing openness and flexibility and considering different meanings to intercultural communication. Also, the importance of modesty and respect are stressed and offered as lessons learned. Harris also cites a key set of behaviours. These include the capacity to

communicate respect, the capacity to be non-judgmental, the capacity to accept

the relativity of one's own knowledge and perceptions, the capacity to display

empathy, the capacity to be flexible, the capacity for turn-taking and tolerance for

ambiguity (Harris & Kumra, 2000).

Table 1: Comparison of Intercultural and Leadership Competencies and Behaviours

Intercultural Competencies and Behaviours	Competencies and Behaviours in Leadership Theories	
	Transformational Leadership	**Bases of Competence and Advanced Competence**
Adaptation skills, cope & enjoy ongoing challenges, sustain values, yet behave in some different ways to enhance acceptance, self-reliant, positive attitude, flexibility, tolerance	Stimulates creativity and innovation, Positive moral perceptions (values, cognitive, emotion, ethics, integrity)	Creativity, innovation, change, risk-taking, critical thinking, integrity, personal strength (positive attitude, function in stressful situations, work independently), sensitive to diversity, business ethics
An attitude & behaviour of modesty & respect, humility, promote change when needed	Positive moral perceptions (values, cognitive, emotion, ethics, integrity)	Can take role of follower when necessary, business ethics, integrity, accountable, initiate change,
An understanding of the concept of culture, relationship of values & culture to people & societies	Positive moral perceptions (values, cognitive, emotion, ethics, integrity)	Ability to conceptualize, sensitivity to diversity, integrity, business ethics
Knowledge of host country & culture, learning, cognitive skills, capacity to be non-judgmental	Positive moral perceptions (values, cognitive, emotion, ethics, integrity)	Environmental and situational analysis, ability to conceptualize, sensitive to diversity, integrity
Relationship building skills, socialization skills, facilitate communication & local language skills, trust, team spirit, balance process & task-achievement, motivates, gain respect, negotiation skills	Building and sustaining human, social and psychological capital, create trust, charisma, develop people, build teams, coaches, advises & develops others potential, provides inspiration, , empower collective. positive moral perceptions	Inspires and motivates others, supportive, mentor & coach, team builder, managing conflict, listening, oral & written communication, problem solving, coordinating,
Self-knowledge, know own values & beliefs, personal strengths and weaknesses, work style, manage ambiguity, capacity to accept the relativity of this knowledge	Self-confidence, self-regulation, self-awareness, knows strengths & weaknesses, high expectations, Positive moral perceptions (values, cognitive, emotion, ethics, integrity)	Personal strengths (high energy level, optimal level of performance, positive attitude, function in stressful situations, take constructive criticism, work independently)

Intercultural communication, convey thoughts, opinions etc. in a way which is understandable, meaningful & culturally sensitive, participation, not afraid to make mistakes, listening & observation skills, resolving conflict, display empathy, openness, considering different meanings	Articulation, manage attention & meaning, inspiration, positive social exchanges, communicating high expectations	Interpersonal communication, listening, sensitivity to diversity, diplomatic conflict resolution, risk-taking, sensitivity to diversity, oral & written communication
Organizational skills, balance between adaptation & maintaining own cultural identity, networking skills, create organizational practices that reconcile cultural perspectives, vision, see big picture, focus on task, yet manage cultural & organizational resistance, political astuteness, resourceful	Articulate vision effort, strategic skills, move resources, change agents, access to information, resources and support, self-regulation, lead by example, foster learning organizations	Visioning, decision-making, planning & organizing, coordinating, supportive, information management, multi-tasker
Personal and professional commitment, contribute to local community, realistic awareness of own motivations & expectations of life abroad, fulfill their potential	Analysis, systematic & technical skills, performance beyond expectations, competence	Learning, personal organization & analytical abilities, time management, personal strengths

Note: Shaded areas indicate the likely competencies and behaviours of focus in the Canada-China context.

Source: Author's work based on selected materials in Evers *et al.* (1998 & 2003), Bass (1990), Avolio & Gardner (2005), Northouse (2004), Vulpe *et al.* (2001), Dahles & Wels (2002), and Harris & Kumra (2000)

Comparing Leadership and Intercultural Competencies and Behaviours

In relation to intercultural competencies and behaviours, there are many overlaps with transformational leadership components, as shown in Table 1 above. Positive moral perceptions, which are competencies and behaviours identified in transformational leadership, are critical elements for a number of the intercultural competencies and behaviours. It is possible that in the intercultural environment, they impact all of the skill areas. However, based on the literature, they are most likely included in adaptation skills, an attitude and behaviour of modesty and respect, understanding the concept of culture, relationship building skills, self-knowledge and knowledge of the host country. It may also play a secondary role in intercultural communication, organizational skills and personal and professional commitment. Self-regulation, while primarily a competency and behaviour aligned with self-knowledge, may also be important in the area of organizational skills and personal and professional commitment, especially where balance between adaptation and maintaining one's own cultural perceptions is concerned. The skills acknowledged in transformational leadership correspond almost directly to Evers *et al.* (1998 & 2003), keeping in mind the limited references to values and the associated behaviours. House *et al.* (2004) also recognize this as a general weakness in leadership research. As well, it should be noted that, while business ethics are mentioned in the findings of Evers *et al.* (1998 & 2003), it may not be a broad enough representation for the area of positive moral perceptions, which we see in transformational leadership (Evers *et al.*, 1998 & 2003; Bass, 1990; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Vulpe *et al.*, 2001; Northouse, 2004; Dahles & Wels, 2002; Harris & Kumra, 2000).

The Canada-China Context

<u>Cultural Dimensions</u>

Culture is a holistic system of interrelationships that encompasses a group's identity, beliefs, values, activities, rules, customs, communication patterns and institutions. Its function is to teach significant rules, rituals and procedures, reinforce values and relationships with others. At the core of this system are elements such as history, identity, beliefs, values and worldview of a culture. These are the most significant elements of culture. The next level of elements radiating out from the core include customs, rules and communication patterns of a group. In this section, these cultural activities are tied to the core but have some degree of flexibility. The outer section comprises the institutions and organizations within a culture. They are the visible structures in the cultural elements such as education, religion, economics, health, kinship and political systems. Underlying the various cultural elements are dimensions of culture. These forces, called cognitive culture, are the fundamental ways we process knowledge, awareness, information, perceptions and judgements. They shape the core elements of culture. These powerful dimensions of culture form the way we think, our identity, beliefs, values and outlook on the world (Dodd, 1998).

While there are a number of perspectives on cultural dimension, Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions provide an explanation that can be applied to both intercultural communications and the business environment. These dimensions include: the power distance index, which incorporates respect for elders, equity, humanitarian

38

orientation, inclusion and exclusion, and in and out groups; the individualism-collectivism concept, which consists of guilt and shame, personal freedom, respect for parents, identification and self worth, obligation, harmony, morality and ethics; the idea of masculinity and femininity, which measures material well-being, emotions, time success; and the uncertainty avoidance index, including the need for tolerance of options, rules, laws, regulation, control and the relationship of honesty, morality and ethics. Recently, due to a study of Chinese employees and managers, a fifth dimension of long-term orientation, which focuses on respect for ancestors, work and play, tradition and natural resources, has been added (The International Business Center, 2004).

Looking more specifically at the Canada-China cultural environment and applying Hofstede's (1980) dimensions, the following comparisons can be made. Canada ranks highest on individualism and lowest in long-term orientation (The International Business Center, 2004). This indicates that, on the whole, Canadian culture measures success by personal achievement. Self-confidence, personal privacy and openness to direct discussions are admired. The low score on long-term orientation means that change can occur more rapidly in this culture, as traditions and commitments are not as long lasting and do not get in the way of change. China scores highest for long-term orientation and power distance and lowest on individualism. This indicates that the Chinese culture values long-term commitments, tradition, reputation and trust, harmony and a collectivist environment.

The impact of Confucianism is a major influence on China's long-term orientation and collectivism (Buckingham, Deng, Eaton, Henderson, & Kirilenko, 2001).

Confucius (circa 551-479 BC), according to Chinese history, was a philosopher, educator and political figure. He influenced many with his teachings, life examples, rules and sayings, which gained acceptance in part because of their basis in common Chinese opinion. He championed strong familial loyalty, respect for elders and superiors, ethical thought, honesty, responsibility for one's actions and treatment of others, compassion, self-discipline, and altruism. One of his most famous sayings is what would be referred to as the golden rule, "What you do not wish for yourself, do not do to others". These teachings formed the basis for education in China for 2,000 years and is known as Confucianism (Riegel, 2002).

Confucianism is characterized as an ethical and social system, rather than a religion. Central ideals include ritual, propriety, and etiquette, love of family, righteousness, modesty, respect, honesty and trustworthiness, benevolence and loyalty to the state. A pervasive history, in combination with Confucianism's lifetime commitment to character building, gives importance to long-term orientation. It contributes to the complex values and patterns of behaviour of contemporary China. This underlying theme of Confucianism shapes the Chinese way of looking at and doing things. Stuttard (2000) notes the following examples which include:

▪ *Guanxi*, a Chinese word that combines the complex concepts of building relationship, reputation and trust, and which is extremely important in China;

▪ Importance of *Respect* and treating partners as equals;

▪ *Patience*, as things do not happen overnight and can even be lengthy;

▪ *Flexibility*, which has been a long time survival technique in China, as the past has offered little stability in Chinese life; and

▪ *Face or saving face,* an important concept closely linked to relationship and consensus, which means that frequently a problem can only be solved if one party backs down, so that face can be preserved. Stuttard (2000) comments that "those who back down today may be those who see others back down tomorrow".

Siu (2001) finds additional factors and influences in a study of marketing practices in small firms in China. This research (Siu, 2001) indicated that the influences of: the state controlled socialist business environment; importance of relations; paternalism; Yuarn, which is a combination of a sense of fatalism, yet doctrine of harmony with nature; and continuity of operations and type of ownership were important factors. Many of these behaviours have emerged from the beliefs embedded in Confucianism, which has been part of the Chinese social fabric and way of life for centuries. They will be reflected in the activities, institutions, systems and business, and approaches to leadership (Dodd, 1998; Berling, 1996; Siu, 2001; Suttard, 2000; Riegel 2002; Hui & Graen, 1997).

Based on Hofstede's (1980) work, Canada and China differ in relation to all these cultural dimensions except for a similar ranking of the masculinity scale. These cultures are quite far apart with respect to the dimension of individualism, power-distance and long-term orientation. It is also interesting to note that Canada and the United States rankings, while not identical, are very similar in the various cultural dimensions in this research (The International Business Center, 2004). Therefore, for the purposes of this discussion, our assumption will be to describe Canada and the United States as Western cultures, similar in cultural dimensions, as compared to the Chinese culture.

<u>Values and their Relationship to Cultural Dimensions</u>

The differing orientations in cultural dimensions point to differences in values. Values are long lasting judgements on the merit of an idea, object, person, place or practice. They affect how we deal with family, interpersonal relationships, society and our natural resources. Values associated with the family are often evident in a culture in the areas of respect for elders, parents and ancestors. The family also serves as a compass for identification and self-worth, obligation and shame. Interpersonally, values describe our perspectives on equality, humanitarianism, honesty, harmony, mentoring, inclusion and exclusion. Among the values associated with the broader society are morality and ethics, personal freedom, emotions, orientation to work and play, time, tradition, success, individualism and material well being. Certain cultures also place a great deal of importance on land and animals. (Dodd, 1998). As Canada and China differ in their cultural dimensions, it therefore follows that their value orientations are somewhat different. Using Hofstede's (1980) work as the basis, the following information outlines the differences and similarities of values between Canada and China in each of the cultural dimensions.

More specifically and from the power-distance dimension, China values a hierarchical structure, where everyone has a place in society. There are clear differences between in-groups and out-groups, with an obligation to help the disadvantaged. Leaders should be all knowing, make decisions, provide answers and exercise authority (Buckingham *et al.*, 2001). The value of ethical compliance has connotations in various dimensions but has some of its roots with power and its legitimacy is irreverent in this society (Sower, Abshire, & Shankman, 1998). An

example of the importance of this is demonstrated in the exchange of business cards in China. A ritual of presentation with both hands and with a slight bow is performed when giving a business card. One should never write on the card or put it immediately in their pocket. It should be left on the table throughout the course of the meeting. In contrast, Canada values flatter organizations, multiculturalism and diversity. It is egalitarian in family and workplace and in its generous welfare provisions (Nevitte & Merelman, 1999).

On the individualism scale, China rates low because it values collectivism. Once again rooted in Confucianism, the values of harmony, loyalty, co-operation, compromise and group activities are important. They dislike attention seeking and criticisms of past performance. Saving face is very important to avoid bringing shame to the group. The Chinese value a conflict-free environment where confrontation is avoided. Transactions are resolved in a manner that suits the group. Fulfilling social obligations, commitment to the organization, repaying favours, and the concept of guanxi, which means reputation and trust, are values associated with credibility and a righteous and moral person (Buckingham *et al.*, 2001). Family is looked upon as a group that serves a common purpose and shared objectives and this is expressed in references to obligation, duties and responsibilities. Obligation and responsibility from the family perspective involve education and raising of children (Szalay, Strohl, Fu, & Lao, 1994). Establishing interpersonal relationships is very important (Hu, 2002). In contrast, Canada values diversity and being different. Success is linked to personal achievement. Self-confidence and directness are important and lead to high ethnocentrism which, for Canada, manifests itself as multi-culturalism (Buckingham *et al.*, 2001).

Morality is valued but is a personal choice. Often references to family show it as a source for satisfying personal needs (Szalay *et al.*, 1994).

In the area of uncertainty avoidance, China values fewer rules, moral laws and self-control. There is disdain for institutional law and they do not respect those who use it to solve disputes. Correct behaviour is a matter ruled by morals. Governance is by ethics and threat of shame (Buckingham *et al.*, 2001). Canada, on the other hand values governance by law and is considered a tolerant society due to its multiculturalism (Gordon, 1994).

In the dimension of long-term orientation, Confucianism is an important influence, as it emphasizes guanxi, which is the Chinese expression for reputation and trust. There is great respect for local customs, and ancestors represent the pride of their great civilization (Buckingham *et al.*, 2001). The Chinese value long-term personal relationships of continual interplay between favours repayment and reciprocal obligations (Dahles & Wels, 2002). There is a value on land, as it can be passed on through generations (Dodd, 1998). In contrast, Canada does put some value in hard work and has a feeling for landscape, yet is far lower in terms respecting tradition and resistance to change (Gordon, 1994).

Hofstede's (1980) concept of the masculine-feminine dimension focuses on the degree the society reinforces or does not reinforce the traditional masculine work role model of male achievement, control and power. Masculine cultures emphasize material success, strength, assertiveness, competitiveness, and gender role differentiation. Feminine cultures embrace traits of affection, nurturing and interpersonal relationships (Dodd, 1990). House *et al.* (2004) notes that within this

dimension, two distinct sub-dimensions occur. One is the extent to which societies foster and reward stereotypical masculine and feminine behaviour among members in general. The other is the extent to which societies advocate differentiated and egalitarian roles for men and women more specifically. While this can cause some difficulty in interpretation, it is widely recognized that a high masculinity ranking indicates the culture experiences a high degree of gender differentiation. In these societies, males dominate a significant portion of the power structure, with females being controlled by male domination. A low masculinity ranking shows there is a low level of differentiation and discrimination between genders. On the masculine-feminine scale, Canada's and China's scores are similar. They both value strength, achievement and gender role difference (The international Business Center, 2004). From the China perspective, the importance of interpersonal relationships may be the influencing factor for this rating (Hu, 2002). Nevette & Merelman (1999) note that the Canadian trend towards the importance of nurturing and quality of life are examples seen within this dimension.

Bass's (1990) findings indicate that even though the unifying effects of globalization are taking place, cultural and national differences continue to affect the leader-follower relationship. He points out that the elements of: traditionalism (the importance of family, status, and reverence for the past); particularism (obligations to friends & family relations); collectivism (concern with relationships, group achievement and co-operation); and idealism (moralism & idealistic values linked to social, aesthetic and religious elements) are identified as the dimensions of values that are of particular importance to leadership. Linked to these are attitudes to competitiveness, preference for risk-taking, sense of duty, interpersonal

abilities, communication skills, effectiveness, intelligence, need for achievement, and affiliation and power. Smillie & Hailey (2001) identify a success of leadership in South Asian NGO's as the willingness to encourage collective management.

Siu (2001) looks specifically at the influence of Chinese values in the business environment through the practices of small firms in mainland China. This research uses Yau's (1988) Chinese cultural value model, which involves a framework of five types of value orientation. These include:

- Man-to-Nature Orientation, which involves harmony with nature and Yuarn (fatalism);

- Man-to-Himself Orientation, which describes the self-concept of the Chinese, and includes abasement and situational orientation (modesty, self-effacement and belief that circumstances are inevitable);

- Relational Orientation, which comprises respect for authority, interdependence, group orientation and face;

- Time Orientation, which involves continuity and past-time orientation (maintenance and restoration of past traditions); and

- Personal-Activity Orientation, which includes the doctrine of the mean (implying proper, sincere attitudes to explore commonalties, rather than extremes) and harmony with others (as an extension of harmony with nature, it relates to wholesomeness).

The author reflects that the influences of man-to-nature orientation affect their need to set specific marketing objectives. The relational orientation indicates that there would be a reliance on personal contacts as a marketing tactic. The values of time orientation may affect their interest in innovation and the personal-activity orientation may affect the desire to control marketing activities. Similar to the

conclusions of Hofstede (1980), it is clear that the Chinese value system includes concepts that are complicated and quite different from Western concepts. Tabak *et al.* (1998), in their study of managerial success, also conclude that while Chinese enterprises will be shifting in the future towards Western methods, more in-depth change at the value and culture level is needed for this to take place.

<u>Intercultural Effectiveness & Leadership Competency Assumptions</u>

In looking at the relationship between the values of Canadian and Chinese cultures, based on Hofstede's (1980) work and the competencies and behaviours required to be interculturally effective, there are some implications. While all of the competencies and behaviours are important, the greater difference in the values embedded in the power-distance, individualism and long-term orientation dimensions indicate that the intercultural areas that may be more important in this cultural context include: an attitude and behaviour of modesty and respect; knowledge of the host country and culture; relationship building skills; intercultural communication; and personal and professional commitment (Vulpe *et al.*, 2001; Dahles & Wels, 2002; Wu & Pretty, 2004; Wong *et al.*, 2001; Harris & Kumra, 2000). Table 1 shows these as shaded areas which indicate the competencies and behaviours of possible focus in the Canada-China context.

One of the assumptions that seem pervasive in the literature is the expectation that China must mirror Western management and leadership characteristics. This is a concern as it only serves to heighten the Western bias that already exists in leadership research. While it is important to look for differences in order to explain phenomena, perhaps cross-cultural research should move from documenting

47

contrasts between different cultures toward investigating ways in which individuals

and groups from different cultures relate to and understand each other. This could

help avoid the pitfall of this assumption. As several researchers point out, with the

emphasis on globalization of business, there is a growing need to understand the

cultural framework, attitudes and values within which management theories and

concepts are used. However, it is dangerous to then leap to the assumption that

the world will and/or should adopt western philosophies of management. Perhaps

a new type of business or leadership theory will emerge, which combines attributes

from various cultures. House *et al.*, (2004) have done much to advance this

approach by identifying 22 leadership attributes that are universally desirable.

Being cognisant of assumptions surrounding this issue, as well as understanding

the work from such Chinese perspectives as Chai (2003), Siu (2001), Tian & Lau

(2001), Wong, Hui, Wong, & Law (2001) and Wu & Pretty (2004) in the area of

management and leadership, will be important (Bond & Smith, 1996; Tabak,

Solomon, & Nielsen, 1998).

Focusing on common elements as suggested by Bond & Smith (1996) and using a

more integrative method of looking at cultural dimensions, values and leadership,

House *et al.*, (2004) showed that members of cultures share mutual observations

and values concerning what constitute effective and ineffective leadership.

Performance orientation, in-group collectivism, and gender egalitarianism were the

cultural drivers of the Charismatic Value-Based Leadership. When looking at this

across cultural clusters, their findings indicated that both the Anglo cluster, which

Canada is a part of and the Confucian Asia cluster, which China is part of, gave

this leadership theory the highest score of all of the leadership theories tested

(House *et al.*, 2004). Albeit, there was a .42 difference between the mean societal

48

scores. This may suggest that, while Canada and China differ in their cultural dimensions and value orientation, the gap is not insurmountable, depending on the subject area. Although much is unique about China, strategic issues are not all that different from those encountered in other developing markets. It is the way it is dealt with or the way it is interpreted and implemented that is different (Stuttard, 2000). In Siu's (2001) study of marketing practices in small firms in China, this is illustrated by the following prevailing influences: the state controlled socialist business environment (political/economic environment); importance of relations; paternalism; Yuarn (a combination of a sense of fatalism, yet doctrine of harmony with nature); and continuity of operations and type of ownership.

Therefore, while there may be some similarities in the desired leadership style, the way it is interpreted in the business or organizational environment may be very different between Canada and China. Although from a slightly different angle, Tian & Lau (2001) support this in their research of board composition, leadership structure and performance in Chinese shareholding companies. They conclude the following about stewardship governance theory:

- Managers are trustworthy stewards of corporation;

- Managerial behaviours are pro-organizational;

- Interpersonal trust is established with top managers;

- Informal power is exercised through expertise;

- Outside directors are perceived as not possessing sufficient expertise and close ties with top managers;

- High value is placed on co-operation;

- Managers concentrate on positive performance based on co-operation and mutual trust between the board and management;

- Close ties and a trust-based relationship are maintained with the CEO;

- Board decisions are delegated to the CEO with unambiguous decision-making power;

- CEO duality is positively related to performance because of unity of command; and

- Management decision-making is driven by needs for achievement, responsibility, recognition, altruism, respect for authority, and intrinsic motivation of an inherently satisfying task.

Therefore the authors conclude that these approaches may be appropriate for the Chinese context today. This is because of recent reforms carried out within a transition economy and the collectivist cultural context. These stewardship concepts closely parallel the competencies and behaviours of transformational leadership model. Tian & Lau (2001) note that a limitation of their work is the underdevelopment of the market institutions in China at this time and that further longitudinal research is needed to fully examine these changing patterns of governance and leadership. Certainly, it does indicate that the charismatic/transformational leadership style is a relevant one to use as a basis for understanding leadership competencies and behaviours within the Canada-China cultural context.

Therefore, having previously established that the intercultural areas of focus in this context include an attitude and behaviour of modesty and respect, knowledge of the host country and culture, relationship building skills, intercultural communication, and personal and professional commitment, a number of transformational leadership competencies should also be of particular interest. Based on the research of Bass (1990), Northouse (2004), Avolio & Gardner (2005), Evers *et al.* (1998 & 2003), these areas include:

- Environmental and situational analysis and positive moral perceptions, such as values, cognitive, emotion, ethics, integrity, sensitivity to diversity, accountable, initiate change;

- Building and sustaining human social and psychological capital, which includes creating trust, charisma, developing people, building teams, coaching, advising, managing conflict, listening, oral and written communication, and developing others' potential;

- Articulation, managing attention and meaning, inspiration, positive social exchanges involving a variety of interpersonal communication skills and diplomatic conflict resolution; and

- Analysis, systematic and technical skills, and performance beyond expectations, time management and organization and personal strengths, such as high energy level, optimal level of performance, positive attitude, functioning in stressful situations, taking constructive criticism, and working independently.

Stuttard (2000) finds in a number of case studies that adaptation is key in the China environment. This is due to the fact that so much is distinctive about China i.e. size, scale, history, varied customs and behaviours of its people. Therefore it follows that if intercultural adaptation skills are critical, then creativity, innovation and change are also important leadership competencies and behaviours to include.

Gender Equity Profile and Leadership

Gender equality in China is at a crossroads. Certainly the status of Chinese women has improved in many ways over the last 50 years. Today, China is rated 71 out of 144 countries on the Gender-Related Development (GDI) Index

(Canadian International Development Agency, 2005). There is, however, evidence to suggest that the progress toward gender equity is threatened by the social and economic reforms taking place in China. While different factors affect rural and urban women, in general the combination of deeply rooted beliefs and attitudes has given rise to new barriers to their ability to participate as equal partners in society, politics and the economy. Hershkovitz & McNeill (2001) report that the changes and traditions having an impact on women in China include: decentralization of central government powers and responsibilities; marketization of economic development, health care and education; rapid urbanization; continuing effects of the family planning policy; belief that men take care of important things outside the home and women take care of smaller, less important inside things around the home and community; obedience that women owe their fathers, husbands and eventually their sons; and women's responsibility for household duties, child and elder care. At the same time there is a high level of commitment to gender equality, which is reflected in the Chinese Constitution and in many of the policies and legislation adopted by the Chinese government, especially in the last decade. However, as with most areas of Chinese law, there are gaps and contradictions at various levels between legislation affecting women's rights and enforcement. In the political area, there are relatively high rates of participation for women, as compared to other developing countries, in government, public administration and the Communist Party because of rules stipulating that the proportion of women cannot decline. However, this is not true in the more powerful governing bodies such as the Central Committee. At the village level the numbers have been reduced since the introduction of direct elections. The Fourth United Nations World Conference on Women held in 1995 proved to be a catalyst for Chinese women's rights activists, as this led to the

creation of many women's non-government organizations (NGO). Other positive

trends include the great pride in the relatively high participation of women in the

labour force and in administration. The opportunity globalization will provide for

rural women includes an increase in their decision-making power and authority in

the absence of their husbands and expanded non-agricultural job opportunities.

(Hershkovitz, & McNeill, 2001).

While women in Canada won the right to vote in 1918, it wasn't until the

introduction of the Universal Right to Vote in 1963 and the equality clause in the

Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms in 1985 that the right to vote could not

be denied on the basis of gender (Status of Women Canada, 2004). In the 1990s,

gender persecution was added to the Canadian Immigration Act as a reason that

women from other countries could claim refugee status in Canada. Despite

progress, women have not achieved full equality with men nor gained equal access

to all levels of decision making in Canadian society. While women represent

slightly more than 50% of the Canadian population, only 21% of the current

Members of Parliament are female, and while women make up approximately 37%

of all managers nationally, the proportion of women on Canadian boards of

directors is between six and 9.4% (Hughes, 2000; Parliament of Canada

Information Service, 2006). Canadian women still have battles to fight, as they still,

on average, make less than men in the same relative positions, are

overrepresented in part-time, poorly paid jobs with little or no benefits, have

decreasing access to childcare or maternity leave, and are discriminated against in

the courts (Status of Women Canada, 2003; Thompson-Nelson, 2005). From the

perspective of Canadian women in the global trade environment, the main

challenge cited is that the business community does not take them seriously, yet

there is agreement that personal contacts and the importance of networking are keys to success (Raymon, 1999).

Although Canada ranks 4th in the world on the Gender-Related Development (GDI) Index rating, structural inequities are still considered commonplace, especially for Canadian farm women (Canadian International Development Agency, 2005; Krug, 2000; Roppel, Desmarais & Martz, 2006). Krug (2000) argues that this is seen in the unequal participation of women in farm organizations and therefore limited impact on farm policy, restrictions on women's ownership and control of resources, lower socio-economic status, and increased vulnerability to poverty and economic security. Proposed changes and trends address strategies that contribute to a more sustainable food system. These include such tactics as growing as much food as possible on one's own, fostering alliances between labour, church, food and agriculture groups to build a national constituency that improves rural-urban relations, and requesting government support to help rebuild programs and infrastructure that re-creates strong rural communities. A number of problems regarding women's engagement in policy development is identified by Roppel et al. (2006) and indicates the need for general farm organizations and commodity groups to establish processes that increase women's participation and leadership, and to bring women's input into Canadian agricultural policy. Nieman (1993) found that, even among women linked to participation in agricultural organizations, family responsibilities, lack of child care services, low-incomes, and lack of time hinder their involvement in agricultural decision making groups. A lack of confidence and perceived lack of knowledge about issues affecting the agriculture industry also discourage participation. Experience and non-formal training were seen as more influential in promoting participation in agriculture policy-making groups. In the

farm business itself, farm women are being increasingly recognized as having contributed to financial management expertise and sharing in the decision making regarding the specific areas of capital sales and purchases (Nieman, 1993; Krug, 2000).

From a gender and leadership theoretical perspective in the Canada-China context, the findings of House *et al.* (2004) and Hofstede (1980), indicate that Canada and China may be similar in orientation, even though the GLOBE project measures of gender egalitarianism found some differences with Hofstede's (1980) masculine-feminine dimensions. While, House *et al.* (2004) found all the societies to be male-oriented, there was a significant difference between the reported value of gender egalitarianism and the practice in both the Anglo cluster, in which Canada is found and the Confucian cluster, where China is found. This indicates that while there may be a desire or belief, as shown by a higher value score, to rely less on biology to determine women's and men's roles, the practice in both China and Canada is not congruent with that stated value. Overall Canada and China score very similarly on the gender egalitarianism scale. This is consistent with the overall finding that societies currently rely to some extent on biological sex to allocate appropriate roles to members, despite the fact that most managers reported this practice was not ideal. In the area of leadership, both men and women believe that Charismatic/Value-based, Participative, and Team Oriented Leadership equate to outstanding leadership. And both China and Canada rated Charismatic/Value-based the highest of all leadership theories tested in this research (House *et al.*, 2004).

Summary

Based on the similarities between Charismatic and Transformational Leadership

theories and its accepted use in leadership research across cultures,

transformational leadership is a suitable construct in which to do research in the

Canada-China context. It is similarly rated by men and women and is appropriate

to use when considering questions of gender and leadership. As well, using this

leadership theory is in keeping with the need for investigating ways in which

individuals and groups from different countries relate to one another, which was

identified by Bond & Smith (1996) and Tabak *et al.* (1998). It then follows that the

competencies and behaviours identified by Evers *et al.* (2003 & 1998), which

correspond to a number of intercultural competencies and behaviours, form a

strong research base for this study involving leadership in Canada-China agri-food

business and development ventures. Although it will be important to specifically

identify the values which underpin transformational leadership in this context, it will

be equally as critical to keep in mind the differing values in the cultures, how they

possibly manifest themselves and are interpreted in the business and

organizational environment. While recent research indicates that transformational

leadership is a recognized and highly rated form of leadership across cultures, it

must also be kept in mind that this is a western theoretical construct and so

understanding the perspectives of the Chinese is very important in this research.

CHAPTER THREE - RESEARCH METHODS

Conceptual Framework

To identify the leadership competencies and behaviours needed by Canadian agri-food leaders to ensure effective intercultural trade and development ventures in China, a constructionist theoretical approach and descriptive objectives form the platform for this study.

Figure 3: Conceptual Framework
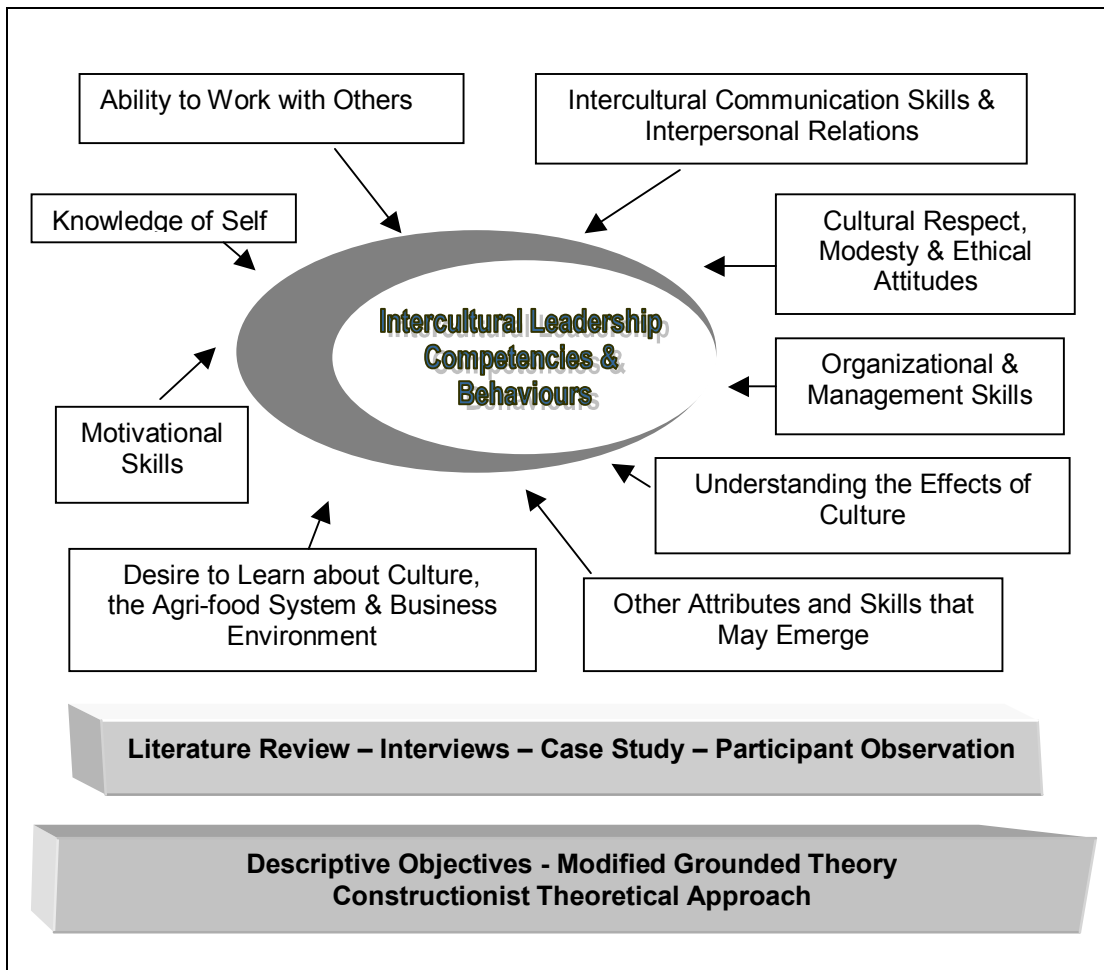
Through a combination of literature review, semi-structured interviews, case study analysis and participant observation, a number of behaviours and competencies were conceptualized for investigation. These include:

- Understanding the effects of culture;

- Organizational and management skills;

- Cultural respect, modesty and ethical attitudes;

- Intercultural communication skills and interpersonal relations;

- Ability to work with others;

- Knowledge of self;

- Motivational skills; and

- Desire to learn about culture, the agri-food system and business environment.

Also, as other attributes and skills may be identified, this research accommodates for these possible additions in the design outline. Figure 3 graphically depicts this conceptual framework, which was built on the original thoughts expressed in Figure 1.

Methodology

This study has its roots in the constructionist theoretical approach, thereby focusing on a human-centred, direct, qualitative methodology with an emphasis on processes. Leadership and intercultural effectiveness are considered social processes and therefore, a modified grounded theory has been chosen based on the scientific epistemology of Strauss (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Parry, 1998; Wheatley, 1999). By looking at the various theories of leadership and intercultural effectiveness instead of simply going out to the field with minimal preconceived

ideas, this approach customizes the traditional grounded theory method, which has been criticized for its time consuming nature and its tendency to rely on experience or observation often without enough emphasis on theory. Also, a triangulation of methods is used to address both the validity and the reliability of the research. In other words, it is important that the research measures obtain consistent answers or have reliability, in addition to being accurate and valid. Each research method has certain strengths and weaknesses in the approach, which attribute to the validity and reliability. By using three different methods, this triangulation means that the weaknesses or limitations of each of the methods are offset by the strengths of the other methods. The limitation section of this research outlines this in more detail (Palys, 2003).

One can only understand the necessary leadership behaviours by considering the context in which they occur and obtaining people's perceptions of them within the context (Wheatley, 1999). Based on the literature, the fundamental premise is that leadership is a system of social processes and, as leadership is related to change, the case study focuses on the incidents of change in the project (Wheatley, 1999; Parry, 1998). In addition, the work of Evers *et al.*, (1998 & 2003) and core competencies for intercultural effectiveness established by Vulpe *et al.*, (2001) are considered the social processes of leadership for the purposes of this research. With a constructionist paradigm at the core of the research, experience within these social processes and context will be central in the collection of data (Palys, 2003).

This design involves descriptive objectives, which Palys (2003) describes as research that depicts the characteristics of a population. Therefore, this expresses the intent of this research, which is to authentically portray the various leadership competencies and behaviours necessary for effective intercultural agri-food ventures in China. A summary of the research approaches and methods is outlined in Table 2.

Table 2: Summary of Research Approaches and Methods

<u>**Summary of the Approaches and Methods**</u>

<u>**Semi-Structured Interviews**</u>
<u>Purpose:</u>
▪ Verify intercultural leadership information from the literature and gain distinctive views on the competencies and behaviours necessary in this cultural context;
▪ Conduct gender audit; and
▪ Further identify key people for inclusion in this research.
<u>Method:</u>
▪ Semi-structured questionnaire.

<u>**Case Study**</u>
<u>Purpose:</u>
▪ Identify intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours in their real-life context that affect a venture during a specific social process (change incident), when the intercultural leadership skills would be of critical importance; and
▪ Review gender equity initiative to compare to initial data collected through gender audit.
<u>Methods:</u>
▪ Historical informant interviews using semi-structured questionnaire to identify change incident;
▪ Semi-structured questionnaire; and
▪ Review and analysis of final report document.

<u>**Participant Observation**</u>
<u>Purpose:</u>
▪ Observe and interact with leaders engaging in an intercultural environment and identify first-hand application of leadership competencies and behaviours both in the Canada-China context and from the perspective of other jurisdictional application to the China context;
▪ Verify the list of specific leadership competencies and behaviours generated with the earlier methods in this study; and
▪ Provide complementary gender audit data for comparison to data previously collected on gender equity.
<u>Methods:</u>
▪ Field notes;
▪ Oral recordings of sessions and Informal interviews.

Building on the results of the literature review in the areas of leadership and intercultural effectiveness, the methods of this research included semi-structured interviews, case study analysis and participant observation. A gender component was incorporated to assess gender equity in the agri-food sector and thereby increase the body of knowledge in this area. While caution should be taken about any broad assumptions made regarding the gender audit because of the small sample size and the limited perspective of the organizations, it focused attention on the gender balance situation within the industry.

The intercultural literature by Hofstede (1980), Etzioni (1964), Yukl (1981), and Yau (1988) affirm that Chinese values are likely to affect leadership competencies and behaviours. With this in mind, I expect that, while all intercultural leadership areas are important, the following areas will be emphasized more in the Canada-China context:

- Adaptation;
- Attitude and behavior of modesty and respect;
- Knowledge of host country and culture;
- Relationship building;
- Intercultural communication; and
- Personal and professional commitment.

Values, which are part of the above mentioned areas, will also play a role. These are highlighted in Table 1 on pages 35 and 36.

Data Collection, Analysis and Interpretation of Methods

<u>Population</u>

The population for the study is comprised of Canadian and Chinese counterparts
working with recent agri-food business ventures and development projects in the
Shanghai and Beijing regions of China. Further perspectives from jurisdictions in
the UK and EU about the intercultural leadership skills needed for effective
ventures in China were also incorporated. Figure 4 shows the locations of the
study areas in China.

**Figure 4: Geographic Perspective of Areas Represented by the Population of
this Research**

Map of The People's Republic of China

(Perry-Castaneda Library Map Collection, University of Texas, 2005)

This area of China was chosen because of the tremendous economic growth and international trade. As well, Beijing is the centre of government and Shanghai is considered a business and financial hub. Both areas have experienced considerable Canadian and other international investment and development in recent years (Zakaria, 2005). In addition, a smaller sample of individuals in the United Kingdom working with Chinese agri-food ventures added an additional broader jurisdictional perspective. Sampling procedures focused on nonprobabilistic methods. Both the interview and case study methods used a snowball sampling technique, while the participant observation portion used convenience sampling (Palys, 2003). The research was conducted from January to September 2005.

<u>Semi-Structured Interviews</u>

a) Overview

The intent of the interviews was to verify the information from the literature and to gain distinctive views, rich qualitative stories and a breadth and depth of information on the subject of leadership competencies necessary in this intercultural environment. The interviews were also used to obtain guidance about the research and to further identify key people for this research (Gillham, 2000). The gender component took the form of a basic gender audit, that is, number of women and men involved, level of decision-making attained by men and women, and ideas about women's roles in the organization, to understand the extent of involvement.

A questionnaire for the semi-structured interviews was developed based on the work of Evers *et al.*, (1998) and Vulpe *et al.*, (2001). It was reviewed and tested by four individuals and some minor changes were made to the way questions were asked in the final version of the questionnaire. The interview process took approximately one hour and was conducted face-to-face, with the aid of an interpreter when necessary. The questionnaire and human subject protocol were available in both English and Mandarin. This personal approach has produced good response rates, enabled a direct reply to questions, clarified ambiguities and allowed for a thorough understanding of the leadership components. The respondents answered in privacy, which addresses any sensitive issues that were encountered. This was particularly important when using an interpreter for the Chinese counterparts. The data emerging from this part of the process provides a rich groundwork for the case study and participant observation components.

b) Sample Selection

The semi-structured interviews included both government and non-government respondents, such as trade commissioners in the Canadian Embassy & Consulate, project officers/managers at CIDA, and corporate agri-food business leaders. The interview method obtained data from 26 interviews from a broad representation of the agriculture and rural sectors, which is shown in Table 3. These included both Canadian and Chinese counterparts, with 16 Chinese interviews and ten Canadian interviews taking place. Most interview respondents held senior leadership positions, with a fairly equal representation between private and public ventures.

Table 3: Overview of Semi-Structured Interview Respondent Representation

---

Total Number of Semi-Structured Interviews: 26 (N = 26)

Nationality & Experience: 16 Chinese; 10 Canadian.

No. of Men: 18   **No. of Women:** 8

Overall Representation:
- Private (Business) – 13
- Public (Government – Fed & Prov; Academic Institutions) – 11
- Private/Public (State Owned Enterprises) – 1
- Non-Profit (Farm Organization) – 1

Leadership Positions:
- General Manager/CEO/Owner/President – 11
- Vice-President/Deputy – 5
- Director – 4
- Manager – 6

Specific Agriculture & Rural Sectors Represented:
- Economics & Trade – 5
- Rural Development – 3
- Food Processing (seafood & meat) – 3
- Breeding & Genetics – 3
- Extension – 2
- Grain/Feed – 2
- Crop Science/Protection – 2
- Seed Trade – 1
- Consulting – 2
- Farm Equipment – 1
- Organic – 1
- Animal Health – 1

Case Study

a) Overview

The case study is descriptive and involves an embedded, single-case design

approach. The main unit of analysis is the Canada-China Integrated Dairy Cattle

Breeding Project (CCIDCBP), with a focus on the embedded unit or subunit and

the Shanghai Bright Dairy and Food Company (SBD&FCo), which was one of the

three original project sites. It was selected for this research for a number of reasons which included:

- The Canada-China agri-food, bilateral nature of the project;

- Eleven year duration with significant project inputs, outcomes and changes over time;

- The opportunity to identify intercultural leadership competencies within a social process (change incident) of a tangible project; and

- Shanghai, one of the regions identified in the problem statement, which was one of the initial project site locations and provided an opportunity for the subunit approach.

Ultimately, it combines a critical real-life context in a longitudinal time frame, where conditions have changed overtime and affected both units of analysis (Yin, 2003).

Historical informant interviews, semi-structured interviews with internal and external project leaders, and review and analysis of the final report provided multiple sources of evidence.

The purpose of the case study is to identify the intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours, in a real-life context, that affected the venture during a specific change incident. Therefore the study propositions, as described by Yin (2003), are the intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours identified in the literature (Vulpe *et al.*, 2001; Dahles & Weis, 2002; Harris & Kumra, 2000; Bass, 1990; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Evers *et al.* 1996 & 2003). A review of the gender equity initiative within the project was also done to obtain information to compare the data collected in the gender audit from the semi-structured interviews. Again, applying Parry's (1998) method of leadership as a

system of social processes in this instance means identifying the change incidents in the case study through interviews and looking at the intercultural leadership competencies important during those events. Using these theoretical backdrops, in combination with the data from the other methods, led to the development of the list of specific leadership competencies and behaviours necessary for effective intercultural agri-food ventures in the region of study, as well as a possible generalization to other Canada-China agri-food projects (Yin, 2003). The fact that the Canada-China Integrated Dairy Cattle Breeding Project (Canadian International Development Agency, 2003) is an eleven-year project which has just come to a close enhanced this method, as interview respondents were more willing to critically evaluate events.

b) Case Study Protocol

A case study protocol, which includes an overview of the case study project, field procedures/data collection, case study questions and a guide for the case study report, was developed and included to ensure reliability (Yin, 2003). This can be found in Appendix C. To address validity, the field procedures and data collection included the use of multiple sources of evidence and key informant reviews of draft report. A sample frame consisting of nine separate interviews was used. Three key informant interviews were used to identify the change incident, followed by six semi-structured interviews which involved inside and outside project leaders reflecting both Chinese and Canadian perspectives on the overall project and the sub-study (Parry, 1998; Yin 2003). Table 4 illustrates this sample frame.

Table 4: Sample Frame for Case Study Semi-Structured Interviews

Main Unit of Analysis Canada-China Integrated Dairy Cattle Breeding Project (IDCBP)	Embedded Unit Analysis/Subunit Shanghai Bright Dairy & Food Company (SBD&FCo)
Establishing A Change Incident – Between '96 & '97 when an expansion of demonstration sites led to a critical meeting with SBD&FCo. regarding program philosophy ・Canadian and China Key Historical Informants – 3	
Total No. of Semi-Structured Interviews: 6 (N = 6)	
・Canadian Project Leaders – 2	・China Project Leaders - 2
・China Project Leaders – 1	
・Outside/External Perspective - 1	

The data was gathered by first interviewing key historical informants to identify the specific change incident. Then the replication of the semi-structured interview questions, with case study project leaders within both the overall case unit and the embedded subunit, was conducted. The interview process took approximately one hour for each respondent and was done face-to-face, with the aid of an interpreter when necessary. Again the questionnaire and human subject protocol were available in both English and Mandarin. A review and analysis of the project final report was done and also includes a focus on the subunit. As reports and documents seldom focus or specifically identify skills or competencies of the project leaders, the analysis of the final report document was first broken apart and coded based on themes and lessons learned that emerged from the report. Then the intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours were identified within each theme. The gender equity information came from data collected in both the semi-structured interviews and the review and analysis of the final report. The

strengths of these techniques in case study research include the ability to review the document repeatedly following a specific protocol, enabling a focus on the topic of leadership, ensuring insightfulness and a high degree of reality and context (Yin, 2003; Marsick, 1990).

Participant Observation

a) Overview

The intent in the participant observation portion of this research was to observe and interact with leaders engaging in an intercultural trade environment to see their actions and hear their comments, thereby getting a more direct sense of what leadership competencies and behaviours are used in this context (Loftland, 1971). It also assists in verifying the list of specific leadership competencies and behaviours identified with the earlier methods in this study. A less structured approach was taken, however. Some initial attributes were anticipated and identified around participants, acts and activities, words and meanings, and relationships and environmental setting (Palys, 2003). Two events were selected for this research method. The first was the participation in a half-day event as part of a Canadian Trade Mission to China in January 2005, a mechanism facilitated by Canadian government staff to highlight Canadian agri-food businesses to the Chinese agri-food community in hopes of generating business opportunities. The second consisted of participation in the Nuffield Farming Scholarship Trust Study Tour, which involved a series of meetings and discussions with Australian, New Zealand, Irish, Canadian, UK and EU agricultural leaders in March/April and

August/September 2005. Nuffield Canada, one of a network of international

Nuffield programs, strives to sponsor and facilitate a world calibre leadership

program to train future leaders in Canadian agriculture. Scholars study specific

topics around the world focusing on agricultural and rural issues in relation to their

county and in a global context.

For both of these events, field notes and session oral recordings were taken, as

well as a review of documents and reports provided during these sessions. Some

informal interviews were also conducted. A simple gender audit was also

conducted for each of these events and an additional comparative piece on

women's involvement in senior management of Canadian agri-food organizations

was prepared. Data was collected using a framework of questions to guide the

observations. These are further outlined in the next section. Coding and analysis

were done manually using a qualitative approach, with a focus on observations,

reflections, and interpretations by participants and the researcher regarding the

use of leadership competencies and behaviours. By using this method and

supplementing it with the other techniques, it offered an opportunity to see the

competencies and behaviours in the areas of adaptation, attitude and behavior of

modesty and respect, knowledge of host country and culture, relationship building,

intercultural communication and personal and professional commitment, in a real-

world context.

b) Participant Observation Framework

For the participant observation portion, the approach was by convenience sampling

and therefore information was obtained through personal observation, using field

notes, oral recordings of some of the sessions and informal interviews, from whoever was available during the two events. While a more informal approach was taken for this method, a framework for observation, which can be found in Appendix D, was established. Observation questions regarding participant demographics, environment or setting, actions, and verbal and non-verbal communication were developed and used as a guide for the researcher throughout the participation in both events.

The first event was a half-day agri-food session which was part of a trade mission hosted in Beijing by the Canadian Minister of International Trade. Of the approximately 300 attendees at the trade mission, 80 to 100 of these were involved in the agri-food event which included both Canadian and Chinese representatives. The researcher initiated individual discussions with six trade mission participants, which included two women and four men. These agri-food business leaders represented three different commodity organizations and two businesses.

For the other event, the Nuffield Agricultural Study Tour, the characteristics of this group of participants included a wide representation of countries and agricultural and rural sectors. Table 5 outlines this representation. A total of 11 informal interviews were conducted during the 23 days of the study tour and focused on doing business with China and the skills of intercultural leadership necessary in that context. Many more general conversations and dialogues between the researcher and participants about leadership in general, agri-food issues and specific event topics also took place.

Table 5: Demographic Overview of International Nuffield Study Tour Participants
(N = 43)

Total Number of Participants: 43	**No. of Men:** 36	**No. of Women:** 7

Nationality:
- United Kingdom – 29
  - England – 23
  - Northern Ireland - 1
  - Scotland - 4
  - Wales - 1
- Australia - 8
- Canada – 2
- New Zealand - 2
- France – 1
- Ireland -1

Overall Representation:
- Private (Business) - 35
- Public (Government – Federal/Provincial/EU; Academic Institutions) - 4
- Non-Profit (Farm Organization) - 4

Specific Agriculture & Rural Sectors Represented:
- Grain/Feed – 10
- Dairy – 9
- Sheep – 5
- Food Industry & Processing – 3
- Fruit – 3
- Breeding & Genetics – 2
- Economics & Trade – 2
- Extension – 2
- Potatoes – 2
- Rural Development – 2
- Ducks – 1
- Horticulture – 1
- Swine - 1

Analysis and Interpretation

The analysis of the data in this research consisted of manual open coding, as this information has a cultural context and requires careful interpretation of all the nuances. All analysis was done until data saturation was reached and no new ideas emerged. While the specifics of the data coding and analysis process can be found in Appendices I, J, K and L, a brief outline of the analysis and interpretation procedures for each of the methods is described below.

For the semi-structured case study, participant observation interviews and conversations, the open coding was based on categorization resulting from theory in the literature review. These categories were further refined for final analysis, as shown in Appendix I. After transcribing each interview on paper, the responses were organized according to semi-structured interview questions, which were directly linked to the coding categories. Then individual words and phrases were highlighted and clustered into areas of similar intent. These were then titled and quantified.

In the case study final report document, the process of open coding required another level, based on general themes which emerged from the report. This was done by listing ideas or words and phases of similar intent and grouping and naming the categories of ideas. These categories were then linked to the various intercultural leadership categories by identifying common key words and descriptive phrases, as identified in Appendix K & L. From the perspective of the general document text, the subunit references and the problems and issue areas, the thematic categories were tallied.

Limitations of the Research and Methods

Sample Size

The topic under study is focused on a small targeted population and based on individual-level data. Subjective bias with such a small sample size is a constant threat to this type of data gathering and analysis. Caution was taken regarding the wholehearted assumption that the individual competencies and behaviours are

widespread across both the Canadian and Chinese cultures (Bond & Smith, 1996). Overall, the small sample size is the biggest threat to reliability, which is partially compensated for by triangulation. Therefore this study cannot be generalized across society, but is specific to the Canada-China agri-food context. This limitation is articulated clearly along with the findings in my research. However, because of specific tactics and procedures used in the case study portion, Yin (2003) indicates that it may be generalized to other Canada-China agri-food ventures by its ability to be replicated.

Western Assumptions and Theoretical Gaps

In both leadership theory and cross-cultural/intercultural studies, there are often underlying Western assumptions. Also, as Chai (2003) points out, there has been an inability of analysts in the West to interpret Communist ideology, which has lead to some misunderstandings. This is likely true for anyone attempting to understand another culture because they are interpreting through values and worldviews of their own. Also, in this case many of the Chinese in this study have been working with Canadians and other Western cultures for some time and, therefore, Western thinking could have been already absorbed by them. In fact, this limitation cannot be escaped, yet it can be minimized through conscious knowledge and declaration. Therefore, a number of Chinese authors are included in the literature review and a Chinese national provided translation during the Chinese interviews. Also, obtaining a greater number of Chinese semi-structured interviews alleviated some of the limitations and biases that come with the predominance of Western viewpoints and theories. Finally, the interpretations were reviewed by an outside

Chinese expert who is knowledgeable about agriculture and customs in both countries.

From an intercultural perspective, gaps exist in leadership theory (Bass, 1990). These gaps include the specific acknowledgement of an understanding of the concept of culture and knowledge of the host country and culture. In the Chinese context this has particular importance, as it may refer to trust and power or status acquisition. Although the literature review address the differences in values between the cultures, a focus on findings that show the common characteristics between Canadian and Chinese leadership behaviours and competencies will be important to minimize this limitation (Bond & Smith, 1996).

Language

Language and interpretation were limitations in the data collection from the Chinese counterparts. This was mitigated to some extent by the use of an excellent translator who spoke Mandarin, functioned in the role of both translator and interpreter and had a background in agriculture. Even during the English speaking interviews with Chinese, the translator was helpful in interpreting their use of phrases and mannerisms from the Chinese perspective. However, this posed another limitation, as some Chinese respondents might not have been at total ease with the translator in attendance. As much as possible in these English-speaking interviews with the Chinese, it was emphasized that the translator was also assisting with debriefing after all interviews to ensure accuracy, consistency and as great an understanding as possible of the nuances.

Terminology posed another problem. Alternative terms and good translation were helpful in overcoming these issues. For example, the terms *capacity building* or *decision-making and influence* were used instead of the word *leadership* in the Chinese interviews, due to its cultural meaning and political sensitivities. It is difficult to eliminate interpreter/translator bias and misinterpretation, but efforts were made to minimize this through continual clarification.

Methods

The methodology and epistemological orientation outlined in Chapter Three will mitigate the inherit weaknesses of the data collection methods. As well, the criticisms and limitations of the use of the grounded theory method as having a high degree of interpretation, a risk of fracturing of the data, and not being sufficiently theoretical has been dealt with by constant comparison and review of the various theories of leadership and intercultural effectiveness prior to the field work. However, this modification may have resulted in some preconceived ideas that were obtained from the literature. The other general limitation to the modified grounded theory is that analysis was not taken to the axial and selective coding stages. From a data collection point of view, the triangulation of methods, along with continual cross-checking, maximize the complementary nature of the approach and thereby minimize the limitations of these methods as much as possible (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Denzin & Lincoln 2000; Palys, 2003).

One of the major drawbacks to the semi-structured interviews is its leaning to cumbersome responses. While two of the three methods used this approach, this limitation was lessened by keeping the number of questions to no more than ten.

Because of the danger that snowball and convenience sampling influences similar results, several different sources of the snowball samples were used to obtain respondents in this study (Palys, 2003). Using the study questions from Evers *et al.*, (1998) as a basis for the semi-structured interview questions also helped mitigate the limitations of the methods and enhanced the overall validity and reliability.

A limitation in the case study is that the document review was restricted to the final report, due to the lack of access to quarterly and annual reports. Also, it should be noted that direct references to leadership competencies and behaviours were limited in this report. Therefore, including interviews in this component was critical. Additionally, incorporating specific data analysis on the subunit within the final report document assisted in balancing the focus, which can be an issue in single-case design. Further, the draft case study report in this thesis was reviewed by a key informant, which is a tactic that assists in increasing the validity of the research. The reliability of case study analysis was addressed through specific design tactics, the use of the protocol, and focusing on the investigation of the change incidents (Yin, 2003; Parry 1998).

The limitations of participant observation, which include the process of data gathering, reactivity and the relationships between observer and observed, are mitigated by a reliable and valid coding scheme, which is found in Appendix H, and the use of the participant observation framework, Appendix C (Palys, 2003; Hume & Mulcock, 2004). Also, being involved as both a participant-as-observer and observer-as-participant, helped to lessen the reactivity to issues. Ideally, participant observation takes place over a lengthy period of time to completely

understand the social processes under study. This was not possible in this situation and is a limitation. Also, some uncomfortable moments in this process, which are described in greater detail in Appendix D and E, may have inhibited the researcher and thus created a limitation. While the researcher requested evaluation feedback from the Canadian government organizers about the impact of the agri-food session event, this was not forthcoming and limits the ability to analyze this method to the fullest degree possible. Therefore, caution was taken when new interpretive information surfaced through this method alone (Palys, 2003; Hume & Mulcock, 2004).

Resources and Other Factors

Other limitations include time, financial resources, monetary support, political issues and intercultural factors. Certainly China is a great physical distance from Canada and resources of time and money were critical. Due to cultural sensitivities, specific political issues have been avoided as much as possible in this study. However, status and power, which are components of leadership (Green, 1999; Yukl, 2002), are intertwined with China's political ideology and structure and was difficult, if not impossible, to avoid in a study of leadership (Chai, 2003; Hershkovitz & McNeill, 2001).

CHAPTER FOUR - FINDINGS

Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours

In previous chapters, it has been established that leadership competencies and behaviours that are of particular interest in the Canada-China context include those found in the intercultural competency and behaviour areas of: an attitude and behaviour of modesty and respect; knowledge of host country and culture; relationship building skills; intercultural communication; and personal and professional commitment. Therefore, the findings of this research focus on these specific areas, while remaining open to other attributes and skills mentioned by respondents. In addition, a section on adaptation skills has been included, due to the influence values have in this area and, as my personal intercultural and leadership experience indicates, this is an area of skills that is important. The role that values play in leadership and intercultural competencies and behaviours is significant and influences many of the competency areas. Therefore, a section on values and their influence on intercultural leadership is included and discussed separately.

Semi-Structured Interviews

a) Values and Their Influence on Intercultural Leadership
A number of values were identified in the semi-structured interviews with these Canada-China agri-food leaders. Respondents talked specifically about values as being important for leadership and decision-making skills. They also identified

strategies to ensure that their values were at the foundation of their leadership

competencies and behaviours.

Figure 5: Values and Frequency as Identified in Semi-Structured Interviews
(N = 26; Multiple Responses)
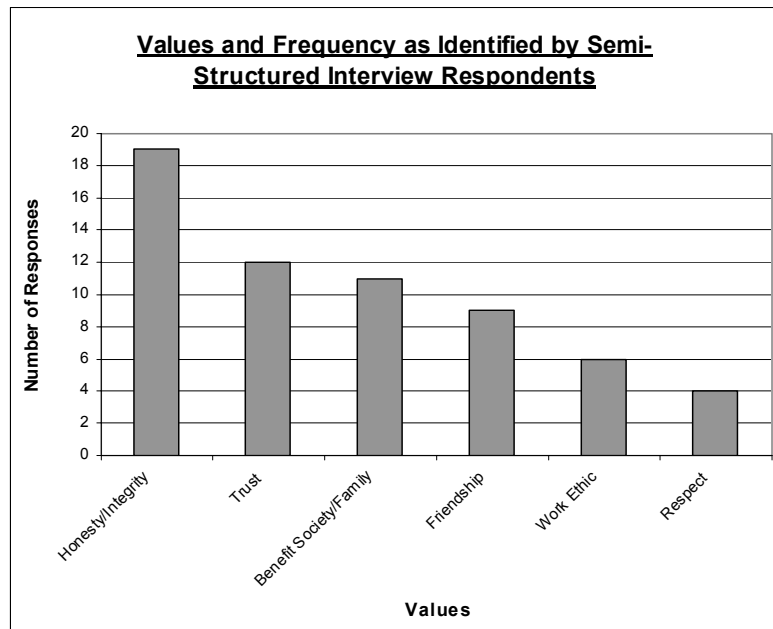
Honesty/integrity, trust, benefit for society and family, friendship, good work ethic

and respect were the top six values identified through multiple responses as

playing an important role in leadership and decision-making. Honesty and integrity

were mentioned with the most frequency, being identified 19 times. Trust and

benefit for society and family were mentioned 12 and 11 times respectively.

Friendship was the next most frequently mentioned value, with work ethic and

respect following close behind. Figure 5 shows these values and the frequency

with which they were mentioned.

Other values that were identified include: benefit to the customer; good judgement

to save face; spiritual and material (which the respondent indicated was from the

teachings of Marx); coach and model for others; patience, tolerance and open-mindedness; kindness, neutrality and acceptance of change from the teaching of Buddhism and Confucianism; quality; fairness; and persistence.

In association with these values, the complex concept of guanxi was also discussed. As mentioned previously, guanxi is a Chinese expression, which weaves together the behaviours, views and values of reputation, trust, friendship and relationship building (Stuttard, 2000; Buckingham *et al.*, 2001). When respondents spoke about the practice, it ranged from the idea of friendship and accepting hospitality, which may show itself in the giving of small gifts upon greeting one another or participating in banquets, to more elaborate gift giving. The elaborate gifts may include money or other favours, which is at the extreme end of the range in behaviour. Respondents identified this extreme form of guanxi as bribes or enticements. Although 8% of respondents felt that bribery was different and separate from guanxi, not all agreed. One respondent stated that the art of doing business in China was "knowing when a gift becomes a bribe". There seems to be a very fine line between guanxi and bribery depending on ones values, as mentioned by several respondents. While the use of bribery is a type of business practice considered as wrong and unethical by some, others considered it an accepted way to do business in China i.e.) to make guanxi with associates. It was suggested by one respondent that the use of this extreme form of guanxi or enticements was, to some extent, dependent on the sector and was especially prevalent in the countryside and in lower levels of government. So, it is not surprising to find that the reactions of respondents varied and paralleled the extent to which they participated in guanxi or justified it as an accepted business practice in China. While some, which included both Chinese and Western respondents,

refused to participate, others felt that it was a cost of doing business and people needed to do it to survive. Some considered it helpful to initiate business and access possibilities. Several mentioned that while they did not participate directly by using enticements, although their staff or partners did and that was acceptable.

To some degree, respondents reported that everyone participates in minimal forms of guanxi when working with a business or project in China. However, the

Table 6: Percentage of Respondents Indicating their Participation in Extreme Forms of Guanxi (N = 26)

Participation in the Extreme Forms of Guanxi i.e.) Incentives or Enticements		
YES	**NO**	**DID NOT ANSWER**
19%	35%	46%

practice of extreme guanxi, which involves incentives or enticements, is still an area of discussion that is uncomfortable for most. Table 6 shows the reactions when respondents were asked whether they participated in this extreme form of guanxi. While 19% indicated that they participated in it because it was the way to get business done in China, 35% said they did not participate. Still, 46% avoided or did not answer the question. This could point towards the importance of saving face regarding the answer to this question i.e.) the respondents did not want to admit to participating in these extreme forms of guanxi when asked by a Western researcher.

In a number of interviews, time was spent probing the idea of trust. In addition to being rated one of the top values, it is so intertwined with honesty, integrity and guanxi, that it seemed important to understand more about this concept. In general, it appears that the Chinese approach the concept of trust very cautiously. In fact, some respondents said that the Chinese do not naturally trust one another at all. They approach trust from a zero perspective and it is only earned and developed over time and through gaining respect. "To trust first is not the Chinese way", stated one respondent. In contrast, respondents felt that, generally, Canadians often give the benefit of the doubt when it came to approaching trust. While certainly not a naïve or blind trust, Canadians often start from the other end of the continuum and trust others until there is an indication that the trust is misplaced. Another respondent expressed it like this: "Canadians want to be open and assume we operate from that perspective, but it is difficult in China because of historical reasons." Further to that, a Chinese respondent talked about this historical issue of lack of trust and explained that "if you know too much about someone, then this information can be used against them", which may indicate caution and even distrust. Trust is clearly important in both cultures, but how trust is approached, acquired or woven into the cultural framework appears to be quite different.

Strategies emerged in the discussions by 58% of the respondents. They indicated that these strategies ensured that their personal values were maintained and were the underpinning of their leadership competencies and behaviours. These

strategies can be summarised as follows:

- Remind yourself that you are the image of the company or stakeholders;

- Work or partner with those who have similar values, that is, consistent values across personal, business and society. An international education helps foster this;

- Focus on actions and deliverables;

- Don't play the Chinese game of guanxi. Be straight and upfront about it and find other ways to get the business done; and

- Establish a code of ethics for your company/organisation.

Therefore, from the perspectives of those interviewed in this Canada-China agri-food environment, the values of honesty and integrity, trust, and benefit for society and family underpin leadership abilities.

b) Adaptation Skills

Respondents were asked about the importance of the ability to change or adapt to change. All of those in the semi-structured interviews agreed it was important, especially as change was very complex and out of one's control. To quantify this further, 35% indicated that the ability to adapt was very important and 8% suggested it was a critical and essential skill. Figure 6 shows how the respondents rated the importance of adaptation skills. The reasons cited for this importance were to keep ahead of the competition, to survive, and to keep the top position or move to a better position. Adaptation was often mentioned and experiences

**Importance of Competencies and Behaviours
in Adaptation to Change**

Critical

Important

Very Important

- Important (57%)
- Very Important (35%)
- Critical (8%)
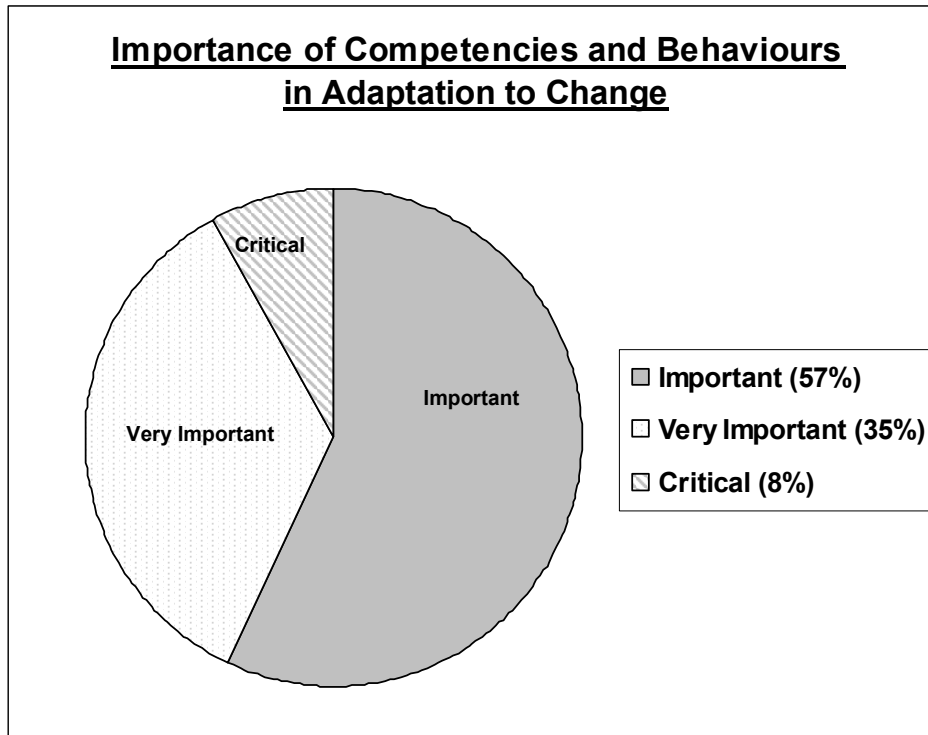
were shared about how significant change has been in China in recent years,

especially in the agri-food and resource dependent sectors. Transition to the

market economy, entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) and the increase

in productivity to become a net exporter were the reasons given by respondents for

these changes.

A number of other competencies and behaviours were mentioned in association

with adaptation skills. Teamwork and cooperation, flexibility, positive attitude,

understanding the cultural context and being open-minded were the skills most

often mentioned as assisting with adaptation. Other skills mentioned included

curiosity, embracing challenges, listening, long-term thinking, asking good

questions, research, continuous learning and motivation.

Respondents often explored how the opportunity for innovation or taking initiative

evolves in the Canada-China context in relation to this topic of adaptation skills.

Table 7 outlines the major themes that emerged from the discussions with

respondents.

Table 7: Perceptions About How Innovation and Initiative Behaviours Take Place in the Canada-China Context
(N = 26; Multiple Responses)

Themes on Innovation and Initiative in the Canada-China Context (No. of Responses)	Key Points/Description of Perspectives
Cooperation, Connections and Knowledge (12)	- Begins with theory and reading; - Knowledge, obtaining information and checking this with experience; - Learning from others, putting thoughts together, combining technologies, predicting change, being well connected, attracting new ideas, networking and getting feedback; and - Linking theory to practice/application, critical thinking, adapting regulations to make things better.
Limitations and Issues (8)	- Nature of government does not encourage creative/free thinking and is slow to change i.e.) highly regulated and politically controlled; - Different regions (rural/urban; geographic areas/provinces) in China adapt and innovate more easily than others i.e. Shanghai area is quicker to innovate because of business/historical nature; - Marketing gap i.e., Chinese ability and experience to position product properly and understand margins is immature or low; - Poor adaptation ability can lead to unethical behaviours; and - Decisions on innovations are made behind the scenes.

Structural Measures (6)	▪ Organizational objectives include innovation; ▪ Incentives are set up, e.g., promotion, money, responsibility, and success; ▪ Different and more incentives for private sector than government sector; ▪ More opportunity for youth; and ▪ Establishment of a code of ethics.
Natural for Chinese Culture (6)	▪ The value of benefit to family and society; ▪ Beliefs and values of neutrality, kindness and acceptance of change in Buddhism and Confucianism assist adaptation and therefore Chinese quick to adapt; and ▪ Part of their history.

Twelve of the responses indicated applying theory, knowledge and practice, cooperation and connections as a key to enabling innovation and initiative. In contrast to those who felt innovation and initiative came easily in the Canada-China context, eight of responses mentioned there were a number of issues and limitations which got in the way of innovation and initiative in this environment. Structural measures, such as incentives or organizational objectives, were identified in six of the responses as helping to create the right climate for innovation and initiative to take place. Still six responses mentioned that innovation and initiative were a natural part of their history in China. The highly regulated and controlled government, general resistance to change in rural China and regional differences were a few of the issues cited.

c) An Attitude and Behaviour of Modesty and Respect

Values once again figured prominently in this area of competencies and behaviours. Respect and trust were mentioned as being critical in this context and are related to honesty, building relationships and friendships. Having respect for others, parents and public values was expressed by 27% of the respondents. In

one case it was mentioned that while you don't always have to agree with your partners in this Canada-China context, it is important to respect them. Another interesting comment on respect came regarding the difference between business and government. It was suggested that the business sector was not as respected as the government sector.

While the quality of humility was only mentioned by one respondent, the values in Confucianism were mentioned by 15% as being the underpinning of many of the leadership competencies and behaviours that were discussed. As cited in an earlier chapter, modesty and respect are key values in Confucius' philosophy. It would therefore follow that this area of competencies and behaviours would be important for those following the teachings of Confucianism.

Twenty-three percent of respondents mentioned the importance of understanding. The ability to grasp the meaning of a particular situation or set of circumstances in this Canada-China environment was identified as a significant skill. Particularly, understanding the context or position the Chinese people are working in and how the system works are important. Listening and observing were identified as competencies and behaviours that assisted in being adept in this area.

A positive attitude was identified by 15% of respondents as a noteworthy behaviour in this area, as it develops human capital. Being a team player and having team spirit were identified as behaviours that expressed a positive attitude.

d) Knowledge of Host Country and Culture

In discussions with respondents about cognitive skills and conceptualization abilities, it became obvious that a great deal of importance is placed on knowledge and information in general, as 50% of those interviewed indicated that being knowledgeable and getting relevant information was important. One of these individuals expressed this importance by exclaiming "knowledge is power". When

Table 8: Themes Outlining Knowledge and Information Needed by Leaders/Decision-Makers
(N = 26: Multiple Responses)

Major Themes (No. of Responses)	**Key Points/Description of Themes About Knowledge and Information**
Types of Knowledge (25)	▪ Specific industry or sector knowledge; ▪ Cultural, system, and country i.e.) China; ▪ Big picture, trends, strategic areas, international perspective; and ▪ Negotiation.
Competencies and Behaviours to Acquire Knowledge (9)	▪ Values – trust, respect, serving society ▪ Curiosity and learning; ▪ Enthusiasm/positive attitude; ▪ Analysis; ▪ Providing incentives; ▪ Confidence; and ▪ Training.
Sources of Knowledge (8)	▪ Internet and email; ▪ Conferences; ▪ Different disciplines; ▪ Publications; and ▪ Talking to key people.
Results of Knowledge Acquisition (4)	▪ Innovation; ▪ Align your interests with government priorities; ▪ Adapting to change; and ▪ Access to support and resources.

probed about what was specifically important in this area, 46% of respondents mentioned three factors that were especially significant. These include:

- Examining and analysing information for relevance (23%);

- Ability to acquire information/knowledge and the management of it (15%); and

- Being a broker or dealer in knowledge and information (8%).

Semi-structured interview respondents elaborated about the types of knowledge that were important for leaders/decision-makers, the sources, and the results or outcomes of having knowledge. There was also some discussion about the competencies and behaviours necessary to obtaining knowledge and information. Table 8 summarizes and describes these multiple responses in several thematic areas.

Of the 25 responses about the types of knowledge needed, nine of those responses indicated that both sector and cultural information were necessary. Six of the 25 responses indicated that strategic and big picture trends were the types of knowledge required by decision-makers. Competencies and behaviours needed to acquire knowledge were reported in nine of the responses and these were identified as curiosity, positive attitude, values, confidence, analysis, training and providing incentives. A range of sources of knowledge was identified by eight of the responses, which included internet, email, conferences, different disciplines, publications and talking to key people. Four of the responses mentioned that access to support and resources, innovation and adapting to change were the results of acquiring knowledge.

Looking more closely at the types of knowledge mentioned in the responses, Figure 7 shows the importance of the various types of knowledge, as identified by multiple responses. Specific industry-related information was mentioned in 36% of responses as a type of knowledge that was important. For example, a leader in

**Figure 7: Specific Kinds of Knowledge Perceived as Important for
Leaders/Decision Makers in the Canada-China Context**
(N = 26; Multiple Responses)

Types of Knowledge Important for Leaders/Decision-Makers

A horizontal bar chart showing Percentage of Responses (x-axis, 0% to 40%) for Types of Knowledge (y-axis):
- Negotiation: ~4%
- Big Picture Trends: ~24%
- Cultural: ~36%
- Industry/Sector: ~36%
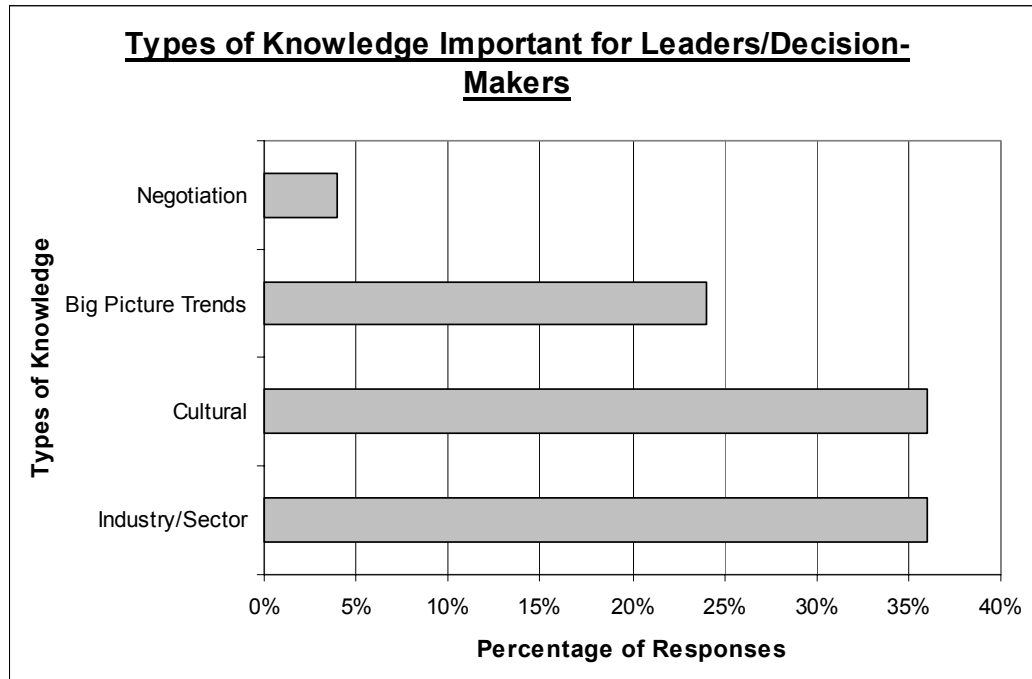
the dairy industry should know all about dairy science and the business of the dairy

industry, not just have management and leadership abilities. This is somewhat of a

departure from the Western view of leadership, where knowledge of the discipline

is often seen as secondary to the abilities of management and leadership.

However, knowledge about the culture was equally important for these leaders in

this Canada-China context.

When discussing the importance of cultural knowledge or knowledge of the

country, respondents were referring specifically to the China context. Those

interviewed who expressed the importance of this area felt that it was because of

its close association to relationship building. Other specific responses that

stressed the importance of knowing China's country and cultural approach included:

- Always avoid the loss of face. That is, no is not an acceptable answer in the Chinese culture;

- Understand the subtext of what is going on and where the power really lies; and

- Constantly work behind the scenes. That is, never hold a meeting until you know the outcome.

Several Canadian respondents expressed the opinion that companies or organizations coming into China from Western cultures do not spend enough time gaining knowledge of the country and culture beforehand and are therefore not well prepared for this cultural context. Culture shock and reverse culture shock, which is going back to your country of origin after being in another culture for a period of time, were also noted by one individual.

In exploring more about examining, acquiring and managing knowledge and information, respondents talked about the relevance and reliability of information in China. This was a challenge reported by all of those interviewed. Information in China, especially government statistics, are not accurate, reliable or just not available. While it was mentioned that China is trying to improve this and their transparency, 12% of respondents felt it will be difficult because the cultural tendency throughout history has been to guard information and/or misreport to avoid perceived penalties or please those in higher positions of leadership. Those working in the Canada-China environment have a number of approaches in place to cope with this issue and these strategies were shared by 58% of respondents, as summarized below:

- Review government data but also collect your own information and rely on your experience;

- Continually validate information by asking questions, double and triple check answers, review USDA data (USDA has the best data on China in the world), and examine statistics from other parts of the world;

- Establish a system, create indicators, develop a network to working with the right people (build trust and relationships) and monitor;

- Triangulate data, establish relevant sources and identify underlying agenda; and

- Having done all the background work possible, gather everyone in a room to sign off on the information together.

e) Relationship Building Skills

Intercultural communication, motivation, teamwork, broad and sector specific knowledge, building trust, respect for authority, coaching, and formulating ideas and decision making are the skills involved in working with others and building relationships that were recognised by those respondents in the semi-structured interviews. To summarise these skill areas as described by respondents, Table 9 lists the relationship building skills and key perspectives regarding these skills in the Canada-China context. Intercultural communication skills emerged as most important, achieving 21 responses. Motivation, teamwork, broad and sector specific knowledge, and building trust were the next most common behaviours mentioned in half of the responses. Respect for authority and coaching skills received nine responses each, while formulating ideas and decision making was cited in eight responses.

Table 9: Perceptions Regarding Relationship Building Skills
(N = 26; Multiple Responses)

Relationship Building Skills (No. of Responses)	Key Points/Description of Perspectives
Intercultural Communication (21)	▪ Talk to people, ask what they think, how you can help and listen; ▪ Pay attention to body language; ▪ Read between the lines, not so much what they say but what they don't say; ▪ Interpreters play key role; and ▪ Knowledge of culture & some language skills.
Motivation (16)	▪ Treat everyone fairly & manage expectations; ▪ Don't mislead, be frank and open; ▪ Passion, charisma, spirit and inspire others ▪ Set example and follow up on promises; and ▪ Structural measures (evaluations, align values).
Teamwork (14)	▪ Bring people together as a team; ▪ Cooperation, collaboration, collective work; ▪ Build mutual understanding; ▪ Know what each other is thinking; and ▪ Somewhat different style because of importance of hierarchy.
Knowledge (Broad and Sector Specific) (13)	Broad Perspectives: ▪ Focus on mission, goal, business plan; ▪ Set objectives, deadlines and delegate; and ▪ Continuous learning. Sector Specific: ▪ Show your sector expertise; ▪ Knowledgeable about whole job; and ▪ Gain respect by knowing all aspects of business.
Build Trust (12)	▪ Develop friendships, trust, relationships; and ▪ Need people to believe in you.
Respect for Authority (9)	▪ Leadership positions, power and influence; ▪ Hierarchy, levels & protocol important; and ▪ Rules and regulations clear.
Coaching (9)	▪ Develop and recognize potential; ▪ Supportive and patient; and ▪ Delegate responsibility and show appreciation.
Formulating Ideas and Decision Making (8)	▪ Need thinkers; and ▪ Encourage and challenge people to give ideas and make decisions i.e.) Chinese not as open to do this because of hierarchical culture.

Other skills were identified by respondents as playing a role in this area of

relationship building skills and while they were not mentioned in great frequency in

this area, they should be noted. These include being creative, embracing change and saving face. Saving face was mentioned specifically in association with solving problems and conflicts.

f) Intercultural Communication

Being able to communicate well as a leader was identified by 85% of those questioned in the semi-structured interviews, with 50% indicating that it was an important skill. The reasons for this included the need:

- To achieve understanding to work more effectively;
- For contacts and personal relationships to make things happen; and
- To resolve conflicts.

Respondents talked about the specific cultural nuances in the Canada-China environment that affected communication. One of these, the importance of relationships, making friends and developing trust, was mentioned by 73% of those interviewed. Social mechanisms such as dinners and banquets are all part of the cultural approach to build relationships and verbal communication is a large part of these activities. Language ability or the need for good translation/interpretation skills was identified by close to half of those interviewed as specific to the Canada-China context. Difficulties in communication such as the lack of clarity and vague expressions, the practice of extreme forms of guanxi and difficulty in planning meetings ahead of time were referred to by 23% of respondents. This was mentioned in contrast to the Western approach to communication which was perceived as being more direct and to the point. Nineteen percent indicated there was a connection between good communication and knowledge in this

environment. Once again we see linkages between this area of intercultural leadership competency and relationship building skills, knowledge of the host country and culture, and values.

Discussions about intercultural communication skills focused on different approaches and practices used by respondents. A face-to-face approach was favoured by 58% (15) of those interviewed, with 27% preferring written communication. While this personal, face-to-face approach was identified by more respondents in this intercultural environment, written communication was recognized as playing an increasing role because of email correspondence and was identified as a good way to articulate decisions. Multiple responses were given by respondents about the various methods or skills used in communication in the Canada-China context. While most respondents highlighted two or three skills that they felt were significant, 23% indicated that a variety of different methods and communication skills were needed because different tactics worked with different people. Understanding, tolerance and patience were the skill area that was most often identified for intercultural communication. Demonstrating social courtesy and values was the next most important area of skills mentioned in the responses. As an example of the demonstration of social courtesy, several respondents cited the practice of the exchange of business cards. This ritual of presentation with both hands and with a slight bow is performed when giving a business card. One should never write on the card or put it immediately in their pocket. It should be left on the table throughout the course of the meeting.

Table: 10: Perceptions of Intercultural Communication Skills and Approaches

(N = 26; Multiple Responses)

Intercultural Communication Skills and Approaches (No. of Responses)	Key Points/Description of Perspectives
Understanding, Tolerance & Patience (12)	• Use empathy; • Be open-minded and tolerate different views; • Show compassion; • Wait for readiness; and • Be warm-hearted and work for understanding with each other;
Demonstrate Social Courtesy & Values (7)	• Be polite; • Show friendliness and approachability; • Be respectful and modest; • Respect for business card important; • Quite a lot of formality; and • Take positive approach
Continually Clarify (6)	• Constantly verify; • Read between the lines and test assumptions; • Ask questions; • Be specific; and • Focus on one idea at a time.
Active Listening (5)	• Listen attentively; • Let silence take place; and • Listen more than talk

The most frequently mentioned skills and a description of them as offered by those interviewed are outlined in Table 10. Continually clarifying your understanding and actively listening were also skills and approaches identified by several respondents. An interesting comment from one of the female respondents about gender and communication indicated that her perception was that women who are in decision making positions in China tend to be listened to more readily, as they are the minority in the usually male dominated leadership community. Other skills that were referenced include adaptability and the need to be quick with your responses, as decisions can be made very quickly in China if all parties are ready and able.

g) Personal and Professional Commitment

Within this area of competencies and behaviours, time management skills were the focus of the semi-structured interviews. As the management of time in our fast-paced lives is especially a concern for busy leaders, there was interest in knowing about the practices or skills that these leaders/decision-makers felt were important to manage in the business environment. Eighty-one percent (21) of respondents indicated that setting priorities was important. When asked how they set priorities for their responsibilities and tasks, multiple answers were given. Urgent items or responsibilities that linked directly to business/organizational results and bottom line were the guiding forces for most respondents. Sorting out problems with staff, production or project issues were the next most frequently mentioned items that were of concern. Email also played a role for some. In two cases, group decision making was a method of setting priorities. Also, the relationship or position of the person asking, that is, 'who's asking', made a difference in priority setting for a few. Continuous learning and staying on top of issues and current situations in the industry were also mentioned. Figure 8 shows the frequency of usage of these methods of setting priorities, as described in the semi-structured interviews. Using budget allotments and career objectives were other ways mentioned by respondents that helped in setting priorities. One respondent indicated that government meetings took priority over other items.

Figure 8: Types and Frequency of Methods Used to Set Priorities
(N = 26; Multiple Responses)

Types and Frequency of Methods Used to Set Priorities
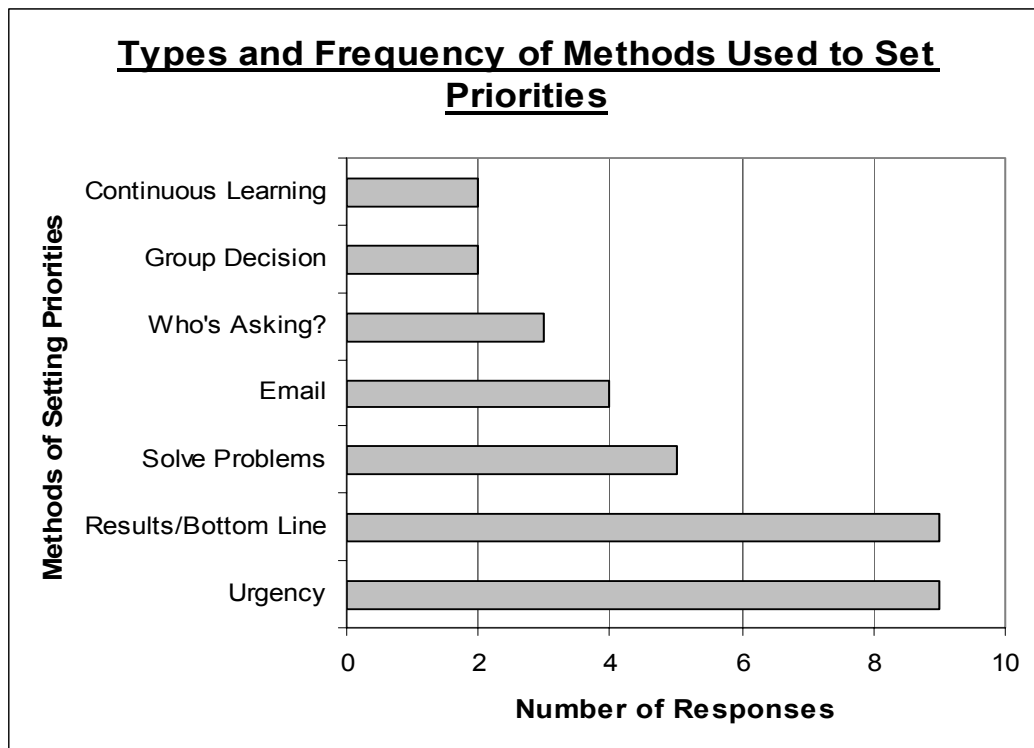
Still, 50% of respondents said that keeping on top of priorities was a challenge and a number of issues were identified. These included:

- Difficulties in planning ahead here in China, as things change or are not ready to happen;

- Only a certain amount of advanced planning can be done;

- Working a lot of overtime and extended hours;

- Struggling to meet deadlines;

- Mostly a paper-based environment and therefore difficult to organise for international focus;

- Having all the responsibility, but no authority; Often doing business on two differently levels, that is, the Western way in Canada: and then

- adapting this to an acceptable form in China.

To manage priorities, all respondents indicated additional practices or skills they employed to manage themselves in their busy Canada-China environment. Table 11 outlines these responses, while Figure 9 graphically compares the frequency.

Table 11: Practices and Skills Used to Manage Time Effectively
(N = 26; Multiple Responses)

Practices/Skills Used to Manage Time Effectively (No. of Responses)	Key Points/Description of Perspectives
Good Communication Methods (12)	- Regular management & staff meetings; - Know each others schedules and keep everyone informed on all levels; and - Cell phones helpful.
Delegation and Teamwork (7)	- Put responsibility on others shoulders and take responsibility as necessary; - Team work plan; - Lots of assistants helps; and - Everyone has a role.
Understanding the Corporate, Civil & Cultural Context (6)	- Protocol and behind the scenes work necessary; - Business done around dinners; - Be prepared; - Use a series of processes to get things happening; and - Know what you want and the result you will get from the meeting before it happens.
Flexibility (5)	- Be responsive to the moment; - Juggle tasks; and - Adjust appointments.

Among these multiple responses, the most frequent practice used was a set of good communication methods, which was indicated by 12 responses. This included everything from regular management and staff meetings to keeping everyone at all levels informed. Delegation and teamwork, as well as understanding the corporate, civil and cultural context, were also identified in a number of responses. Flexibility was mentioned by a few as an important skill to have when managing priorities.

Figure 9: Type and Frequency of Skills Used to Manage Time Effectively
(N = 26; Multiple Responses)

Frequency and Type of Skills Used to Manage Time Effectively
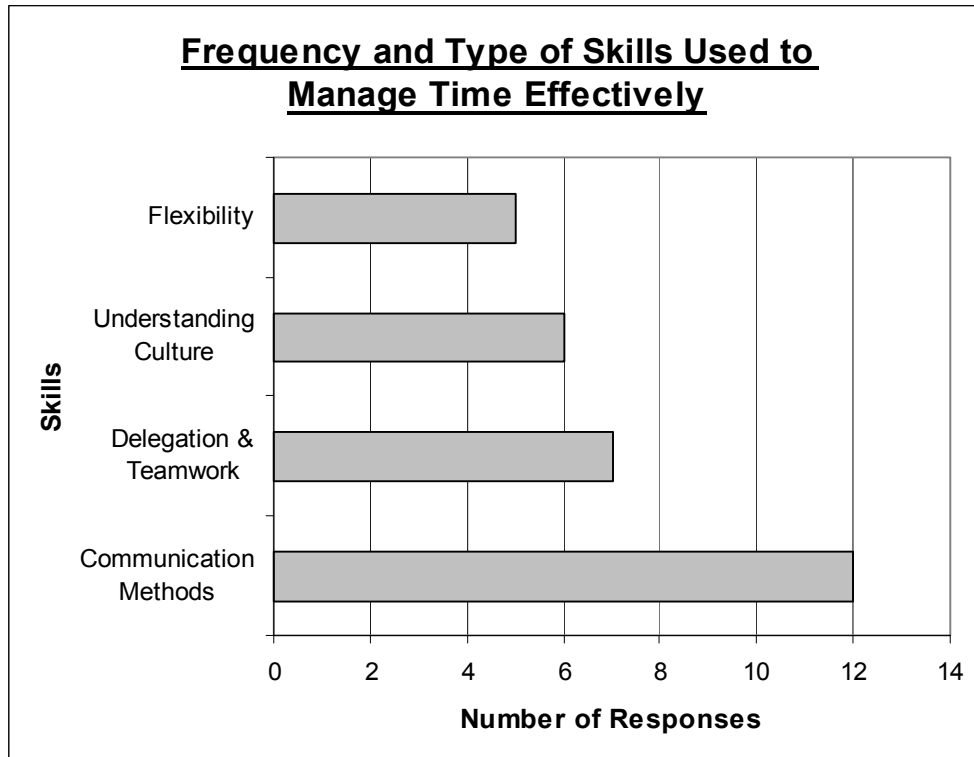
h) Other Attributes and Skills

Several other attributes and skills were mentioned by respondents in the semi-structured interviews. These additional skills, which were identified by almost half of those interviewed, included the following competencies and behaviours:

- Self motivated
- Self managing
- Ability to balance personal and work life
- Work efficiently
- Confidence

- Being healthy
- Visionary
- Strategy
- Fairness
- Coordination
- Style or method of leadership

- Dress well, project professional image, yet be able to hold large amounts of alcohol

- Ability to make judgements and decisions

- Show a steady progression and approach

With these skills in mind, and in reviewing the comparison between intercultural and leadership competencies and behaviour which can be found in Table 1 on page 35, the additional areas of self-knowledge and organizational skills have emerged, as outlined in Table 12.

Table 12: Other Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours
(N = 26)

Other Areas (No. of Responses)	Key Points/Description of Skills
Self-Knowledge (6)	• Self managing; • Self motivated; • Ability to balance personal and work life; • Work efficiently; • Confidence; and • Being healthy.
Organizational Skills (5)	• Show steady progression and approach; • Strategy; • Coordination; • Ability to make judgements and decisions; and • Visionary.
Personal & Professional Commitment (3)	• Dress well; • Project professional image, and • Ability to drink large amounts of alcohol in social situations, yet remain professional.

It is interesting to note that, in addition to the area of time management which was explored earlier as a skill in the area of personal and professional commitment, two other attributes were identified in this area; dress well and project a professional image. Two respondents mentioned that the style of a leader or the use of all of

the skills mentioned was important, which is a reflection on leadership theory

overall. One individual interviewed mentioned the value of fairness, which had not

been articulated previously in this method.

i) Most Important Intercultural Leadership Competencies & Behaviours

**Table 13: Frequency of Intercultural Leadership Competencies and
Behaviours as Identified in the Semi-Structured Interviews**
(N = 26; Multiple Responses)

Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours	**Number of Responses**	**Percentage of Responses**
Relationship Building Skills	15	21.7
Adaptation Skills	12	17.4
Intercultural Communication	11	15.9
Knowledge of Host Country & Culture	8	11.6
Organizational Skills	8	11.6
Values	6	8.7
Self-Knowledge	4	5.8
Attitude of Modesty & Respect	3	4.3
Personal & Professional Commitment	2	2.9
TOTALS	**69**	**100**

Multiple responses were received when respondents in the semi-structured

interviews were asked about the most important leadership skill in the Canada-

China context. These responses were then aligned within the appropriate

intercultural leadership competency and behaviour area as found in Table 1 on

page 35. Table 13 shows the number and frequency of intercultural leadership

competencies and behaviours as identified by respondents in the Canada-China

context. The most important competency and behaviour area identified was relationship building skills, although it garnered only 21.7% of the total responses. Specifically, respondents mentioned building trust and relationships, being passionate, encouraging teamwork and solving problems as components of this category. The second most identified area of intercultural leadership attributes were those found in the area of adaptation skills, which was stated in 17.4% of the responses. Intercultural communication received 15.9%, with knowledge of host country and culture and organisational skills coming next and receiving equal acknowledgement.

The remaining areas of values, self-knowledge, attitude of modesty and respect, and personal and professional commitment followed in descending order. While values specifically brought about only 8.7% of the responses, it should be noted that values are embedded into the areas of adaptation skills, an attitude of modesty and respect, relationship building, knowledge of host country and culture and self-knowledge, as seen in the earlier analysis. Also, two respondents prefaced their selections by indicating that all the skills that have been mentioned were important.

<u>The Case Study</u>

a) Project Synopsis

The goal of the Canada-China Integrated Dairy Cattle Breeding Project (CCIDCBP) was to strengthen the genetic and managerial base for increasing the quantity, quality and efficiency of milk production in China. The overall expected outcome was to have sustainable production systems in place, where change and

104

improvements are seen in both product volume and increased revenue for the dairy industry, including individual households, villages and communities. To achieve this goal, a logical framework analysis was put in place and articulated the project purpose, expected results (impact, outcomes, and outputs), performance indicators, critical conditions and assumptions in order to measure project success. The information below is a summary of the main areas of the log frame:

i)   Purpose and Outcomes: To establish four Centres of Dairy Technology to extend efficient and environmentally sustainable systems for quality milk production through modern dairy cattle improvement programs. These include sites in Beijing, Hangzhou, Shanghai, Xi'an and a number of National Dairy Improvement Programs.

ii)   Activity Areas: genetic and management improvement programs; training/outreach programs (both In-Canada and In-China training); and National Dairy Improvement protocols and systems. Also initiated were cross-cutting activities in gender equity, School Milk Program, environment and Western Development Strategy, which involved specific projects taking place in the western provinces of China.

iii)   Expected Results: Improve milk production per cow; increase annual semen production per bull; improve profitability of milk production enterprises including breeding farms, commercial farms and dairy villages; increase use of superior genetics in breeding farms; reduce environmental impact of dairy operations at project sites; and establish national dairy improvement programs.

iv)   Critical Conditions and Assumptions: national economic conditions remain favourable to milk production; per capita consumption of milk is increasing; national feed supplies remain constant; Canadian dairy genetics generally accepted at all levels; no major outbreaks of disease; economic conditions

suitable for profitable milk production; market conditions allow sale of superior

Canadian semen; nucleus breeding herds remain healthy and milk production

economical; general acceptance of Canadian style cattle; willingness of Chinese

government officials to work with Canadian project personnel; and acceptance by

dairy farmers of environmental farm planning (The Semex Alliance, 2004).

CCIDCBP began in 1987, with proposals from the Government of China to the

Canadian Government and a follow-up feasibility mission conducted by Canadian

International Development Agency (CIDA). The project was formulated and

approved over the next few years, initiated in May 1993 and concluded in June

2004. It was implemented by the Ministry of Agriculture in China (MOA) with

funding from CIDA and support from the Semex Alliance, a Canadian for-profit

company, as the Canadian Executing Agency. Semex is made up of four

established Canadian artificial insemination companies and provides integrated

genetics, and marketing products and services to benefit livestock producers

worldwide while creating value for its owners. CIDA's total contribution to the

project over its 11 years was $17.7 million. Chinese investment from the MOA

matched this, but was mostly in-kind. This included building infrastructure,

operating supplies, meeting rooms for training and hosting meals. As the

executing agency, Semex's role was to deliver the project, in cooperation with

MOA in China. In return, Semex received an administrative fee and also provided

in-kind support, which included office space, travel support, meeting rooms, human

resources, and procurement advice (The Semex Alliance 2004 and 2006).

Shanghai Bright Dairy and Food Company (SBD&FCo), the subunit for this study,

was an important player throughout the CCIDCBP. As one of the initial three sites

proposed by the Chinese, it was a recipient of the development of a nucleus breeding herd, milk analysis laboratories, enriched artificial insemination centres and extensive dairy production technology training programs. Throughout the final report there is evidence that they were key partners, often exceeding goals and expectations and they took part in a number of the project activities over the eleven year period of the CCIDCBP. The introduction of the dairy village milking centre concept, participation in a mastitis control protocol pilot study, third party laboratory testing, and training other trainers in the milk industry are some examples of these initiatives, which will be elaborated upon in further sections of this case study analysis (The Semex Alliance, 2004).

Using established performance indicators, the CCIDCBP identifies that it was overall a successful project, as the measurements of success indicate that it achieved the goal and exceeded the purpose and outcome expectations. The final report shows that among the 15 performance indicators and measures of success, seven indicator areas exceeded expectations and four of the areas met or achieved the desired results. This shows that 73% of the impacts, outcomes and outputs were realized. Four of the 15 indicators did not reach their full potential. Of these, two were only partially achieved due to inferior feed and/or management issues. The other two indicators did not meet desired results, one due to the SARS outbreak in 2003 and the other due to design and cultural barriers. It should be noted that while the National Dairy Improvement Programs were established, Chinese leadership and responsibility for these occurred very near the end of the project and China's ability to improve the quality, quantity and efficiency of milk production for their own population and to compete in the world market hinges on

the capacity to continue to grow and improve these national programs and standards (The Semex Alliance, 2004).

The CCIDCBP Final Report indicates that this is considered a successful Canada-China development project. Based on the growth and buoyancy of the dairy industry in China over the 11 year period of CCIDCBP and the achievement of a majority of the performance indicators, the project strengthened the genetic and managerial base and increased the quantity, quality and efficiency of milk production in China. It therefore provides a positive environment to identify intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours and review the gender equity component of the project.

b) Identification of the Change Incident

This eleven year project saw considerable modifications over its lifetime, as multiple change incidents, which were times of considerable adjustment and/or turmoil in the project, were identified by respondents. Phase One of the project (1993 to 1995), Project Expansion (1996/1997), Western Development Strategy (2000) and the outbreak of SARS (2003) were identified as times of change during the project. All of those interviewed mentioned the time of project expansion as a period of great change. However, two-thirds of the key historical informants indicated that Project Expansion, which took place between 96 and '97, was the most critical change incident. There was much turmoil during that period. The expansion directly affected the overall goal of the project and SBD&FCo played an important role in the change process. It was, in effect, a program redesign due to the realization that, in addition to the original project sites reaching a plateau, the

goal would not be achieved if activities and outputs were not refocused. As one key historical informant stated: "The goal was too lofty and couldn't be reached with the three initial sites. The original thinking around activities and outputs was in error." Another key historical informant felt that during this time, that is,1996/1997 there was a shift taking place at CIDA, in that development seemed much more directly related to how it would help Canadian business and trade. However, this opinion was not shared by all those interviewed. Others expressed this as a political request and not a fundamental policy change.

Respondents explained that the project redesign meant it was necessary to move from simple technology transfer at the original sites, that is, breeding herds, management practices, health and nutrition to an approach that broadened its reach to farmers and the dairy industry in other parts of China. But this required a change in mindset and philosophy about how to increase the development of the dairy industry in China and what constituted success. To this point, the Chinese mindset of success for this project was an increase in the number of cows and better breeds of cows. From an activity and financial perspective, the impact of an expansion meant that the original project sites would receive less focus and funds from CIDA. There would be more cost-sharing necessary. Project leadership needed buy-in from the original sites for this project redesign and focused on the leadership at SBD&FCo. Key historical informants identified a specific meeting with SBD&FCo, where CCIDCBP leaders worked to change their mindset about the expansion of the project and the interpretation of success of the project. Respondents indicated that gaining approval from SBD&FCo was critical to the project moving ahead, as their leadership had much political and positional influence in China and SBD&FCo was seen as a leader (that is Number One) in

the dairy industry. This involved intense discussions and negotiation about how to achieve increased dairy development in China and the concept of achieving more milk per cow versus increasing the number of cows. In the end, the mindset was changed from equating increased dairy development and project success with more cows to that of increasing the milk production from the same cows and therefore measuring the amount and quality of milk produced as a sign of success. Buy-in was achieved and the project was expanded. Due to the effect this change had on the project goal of the main unit of analysis (CCIDCBP), the influence of the subunit (i.e. SBD&FCo) in the change process, and the fact that two-thirds of the key historical informants indicated it was the biggest period of change in the project, the Project Expansion (1996/1997) is the change incident of focus for the semi-structured interviews in this research method.

c) Values and Their Influence on Intercultural Leadership

Trust received four responses and was the value mentioned most often in the multiple responses received from the case study respondents. However, honesty/Integrity, fairness, teamwork and sharing of common values among staff and management followed closely behind and received three responses for each. Relationships, openness, empathy, demonstrating the worth/value, and passion for your discipline were also identified as playing a role in leadership. Respect surfaced as a result of integrity and honesty. Several respondents cited respect and integrity as the values which were among the characteristics of one of the CCIDCBP leaders. These specific values were related as important for the success of the project.

The concept of guanxi and building relationships was discussed by some respondents. One individual equated the word guanxi directly with having a relationship with someone, that is, "my guanxi with someone". However, this respondent felt that trust was not a component of guanxi. Trust was a value that developed over time in a Canada-China project by working together side by side at the project site, being fair and demonstrating good results. And so, in this case, trust is considered a value that evolves as a result of the accumulation of other values. This idea was not shared by all respondents.

In addition to the values directly related to this Canada-China project, an interesting perspective about the values embedded in development work emerged in the interviews. On one hand there was the view that commercial objectives were important in a development project and that CIDA's work was a long-term investment in research and development that would pay off in future trade. The other perspective indicated that an organization involved in development work should have a mission that incorporated an international development component, where the improvement of people and their capacity was valued above trade and the creation of business.

d) Adaptation Skills

All those interviewed in the case study felt adaptation and the skills necessary to adapt were important. One respondent indicated that it was a continuous process in an intercultural environment. In describing how to adapt in the Canada-China context, a number of competencies and behaviours were identified. Half of the respondents mentioned that loyalty and trust played a critical role in adaptation.

The integration of Chinese ideas into the overall vision and project approach was indicated by 33% of the respondents. One description of this indicated that while Canadians have their western style approach and influence, this would be integrated with the hierarchical leadership approach and Confucian environment found in China. Other specific adaptation skills that were identified by those interviewed include:

- Knowledge about the industry;

- Looking at the situation;

- Providing clear direction and goals;

- Patience and tolerance;

- Sense of humour;

- Interpersonal communication abilities, that is, listening, consistent messages; and

- Having a tough/thick skin.

An extensive dialogue took place with one respondent around the concept of Canadians adjusting to work in this environment. This individual considered that keeping attrition below 50% was good and a tribute to the leadership in a project. It was mentioned that it takes time to get Canadians to adjust and that flexibility and the need for good mentors is important for adaptation.

In exploring the areas of innovation and initiation of change as competencies and behaviours of adaptation, two themes emerged. Multiple responses indicated equal importance to these themes. Table 14 shows these as they emerged from the discussions with those involved in the case study. Once again, one of the

CCIDCBP leaders was identified as having the ability to adapt and the skills of

tolerance, encouraging staff to try new things, and innovation were highlighted as

examples of this individual's specific competencies in this area.

Table 14: Perceptions of Case Study Respondents Regarding Innovation and Initiative
(N = 6; Multiple Responses)

Themes Regarding How Innovation and Initiative Take Place In the Canada-China Context (No. of Responses)	**Key points/Description of Perspectives**
Demonstrate and Engage in New Approaches (7)	• Use demonstration/pilots to show evidence (includes experience of others, application to China situation, and produce good results); • Bring new ideas to people and the market; • Be curious; • Try new things; • Be iterative (repetitive/replication of procedures); and • Approach development as a business.
Create Change (7)	• Create a culture of change; • Develop synergy by working with other partners; • Take risks; • Actively look for answers; • Find the "winners" and work with them; • Get rid of those who don't want to change; and • Adjust to the environment

Specific examples about the conditions for creating change were identified in

relation to the case study change incident and the subunit, SBD&FCo.   These

included:

• A shift occurred in CIDA's orientation from providing full funding to shared

funding and capacity to develop trade;

• The overall CCIDCBP project had fewer funds at its disposal and less focus on

original project sites, such as, SBD&FCo, the case study subunit.

- SBD&FCo leadership had a passionate desire to be the #1 dairy and food company in China and saw change as a positive force for constant improvement; and

- Leaders for CCIDCBP and SBD&FCo were ready to make things happen.

While 67% of respondents felt that the shift in CIDA was the most important condition for this change, the passionate desire to be Number One and the readiness to make decisions were the next most identified area at 33%. Therefore, with respect to intercultural leadership skills, the organizational skills such as vision or the passionate desire to be number one and decision making ability are important.

e) An Attitude and Behaviour of Modesty and Respect

Linkages between values and this area of competencies and behaviours were prominent and mentioned by 67% of those interviewed in the case study. Respondents identified that respect or the idea of being respected seems to emerge by displaying the values of trust and integrity in your work with people. One respondent elaborated on the idea that common core values existed between Canadians and Chinese but that the difference came on their implementation in societal structures and customs, while another talked about the importance of having respect for cultural differences. Understanding was identified by half of the respondents as another prerequisite to obtaining respect. Therefore linkages to the area of knowledge of the host country can be made here. Having a good relationship was also linked to respect by one individual. On the topic of an

attitude of modesty, one respondent commented that it was "important to be modest and not be critical of the Chinese system".

Again, the concept of change and promoting change when needed was identified by all respondents, with similar perspectives as were identified earlier in the competencies and behaviours of adaptation skills. The difference in this context is the influence that an attitude of modesty and respect would have on creating change. One respondent described this influence as it pertains to the Canada-China context by stating "…analyse the situation and then get them to change without having to admit they were wrong in their approach". This comment links to the idea of saving face.

f) Knowledge of Host Country and Culture

Thirty-three percent of those interviewed felt that information was important, but all respondents offered additional parameters around this area. These included:

- Depends on the ability to learn;

- Combine information with seeing, learning, hearing and practice;

- Look at the broader picture;

- Continuous learning; and

- Goes hand in hand with the right people.

Equally important, identified by 33% of respondents was the idea that belief in success was critical in this area.

In relation to the idea of having the right people, the concept of team emerged here and was identified by 83% of respondents. Keeping leaders informed, having a

high level of government support, continually moving forward and knowing the whole picture were recognised as features of having the right people working as a team in this context. This shows some linkages to the intercultural leadership area of relationship building.

Informants also discussed information relevancy and reliability issues. Thirty-three percent of those interviewed indicated that using the combined strategies of collecting own data, analyzing Chinese data sources, gathering international sources and seeing for one's self were the best course of action with this issue. One respondent indicated that Chinese information was becoming better and better and that the USDA has some of the best Chinese information.

Decision making emerged in the dialogue, as well. Perceptions in this area include the idea that delegation of responsibility was important and that you can't micro-manage. Also, whether or not decisions are right or wrong was not as important as the implementation aspect. One respondent indicated that you could tell if you were right in your decision very quickly upon implementation and that the wrong decision could be critical to your future. This skill identified here in the area of knowledge and information may also then have some linkages to the competencies and behaviours in the area of organizational skills.

g) Relationship Building Skills

Management style skills emerged as the main competency and behaviour necessary in building relationships. Further discussion revealed a number of skill

areas and perceptions, as outlined in Table 15, which made up a good

management style for relationship building in the Canada-China context.

Table 15: Perceptions about Skill Sets Leading to Building Relationships
(N = 6; Multiple Responses)

Management Style Skill Sets Leading to Building Relationships (No. of Responses)	Key Points/Description of Perceptions
Surround Yourself With The Right People (6)	• Begins with recruiting the right people • Include good local staff; • Friendship important; • People can be a star in Canada, but may not be in this environment; • Chinese-Canadians can be ideal candidates; • Be cautious about references – can't always trust them; and • Important for the success of the project
Motivation (5)	• Important to get people moving; • Set expectations that meet local expectations; • For Canadians – travel, influence & challenge to produce better product & greater return; • For Chinese – for the good of China; and • Provide guidance.
Feedback & Recognition (3)	• Provide positive feedback and • For specific sections/areas, announce lowest and rank
Communication (3)	• Consistent messaging with staff and government officials; and • Work towards agreement with staff.
Teamwork (3)	• Need people who can be team players; • A long-term perspective; and • Good attitude.

Taking responsibility/ownership emerged as another competency and behaviour in

this area. Demonstrating actions, that is, walking your talk, was the behaviour

identified most often as a means to accomplish responsibility and ownership. It

was identified that being on site or "on the ground" was an aspect of this, so that

small things do not blossom out of control. One respondent indicated that respect

was gained by taking responsibility and ownership. Another identified knowledge

as being important in this area. Other views about this skill set included being a good mentor and that ownership was needed on both the Canadian and Chinese sides.

h) Intercultural Communication

In discussing the area of communication in the Canada China context, a number of ideas and multiple responses were identified. Table 16 outlines the intercultural leadership skills that respondents articulated and the description of these perceptions. In addition to these skill areas, several approaches or techniques were identified by respondents as ways to ensure good intercultural communication. These included saying positive things first, then identifying improvements, setting objectives, planning and priority setting.

Table 16: Intercultural Communication Skills as Identified in Case Study Interviews
(N = 6; Multiple Responses)

Intercultural Communication Skills (No. of Responses)	Key Points/Description of Perspectives
Face-to-Face Dialogue (8)	- Being present is important; - Not as effective if done at long distance; - Best to be on site; - Spend more time with staff; and - Telephone and email – not as effective; telephone better than email; more cell phone use
Understanding (5)	- Local connections important; - Can enhance implementation; - Enables working with others more effectively; and - Requires the capacity to learn.
Diplomatic Conflict Resolution (5)	- Includes ability to analyse situation and get them to change without having to admit they are wrong; - Saving face important; - Focus on individual hot buttons, numbers and

	money;
	• Never convene a meeting unless you know what the outcome will be; and
	• Never get angry or adamant.
Values (4)	• Honesty;
	• Openness; and
	• Trust.
Position/Title (4)	• Empowerment;
	• Gains political effort;
	• Involve government; and
	• Chinese training in Canada assisted this

Translation was also identified as an important aspect of intercultural communication. It was identified that having a good relationship with dependable interpreters was important. This meant that the interpreter should know your moods and inflections to translate in the appropriate context.

i) Personal and Professional Commitment

Time management skills were the focus of this area of competencies and behaviours and, while one respondent mentioned that it was especially important during a time of change, finding good people emerged as a key theme in multiple responses. Within this theme, which received six responses in total, the following ideas were expressed:

- Need a champion on the Chinese side;

- Create a team;

- Identify with the local people;

- Be able to live and work with the local people; and

- Get to the inner-circle of decision makers.

Setting priorities was also identified as an important component, having been mentioned by five respondents. They indicated that setting priorities and objectives focused the project sites to be quicker and more aggressive and therefore encouraged potential for growth. Another indicated that sometimes this meant sacrificing personal time. One respondent pointed out that dairy was a priority in the People's Republic of China's five year plan and this was an example of the power of setting priorities as it set the tone that milk was good and encouraged an upbeat environment. Again, communication was mentioned in this context. The importance of face-to-face meetings and communication with a Chinese partner were identified.

j) Other Attributes and Skills

Table 17: Other Attributes and Skills Linked to Intercultural Competencies and Behaviours as Identified in Case Study Interviews
(N = 6; Multiple Responses)

<u>Intercultural Competencies and Behaviour Areas</u> (No. of Responses)	<u>Other Leadership Attributes and Skills</u>
Relationship Building Skills (10)	• Consistent treatment of people; • Build confidence; • Negotiation; and • Synergy.
Knowledge of Host Country (6)	• Keep bureaucratic/political aspects out of the way of the site work; • Family and small groups work in China; and • Authority, power & wisdom.
Organizational Skills (2)	• Make decisions faster; and • Know when to cut and run, rather than trying to make the situation work.
Personal and Professional Commitment (1)	• Dedication.

All respondents identified a number of other skills and attributes that were

considered important in order for leaders to be successful during the critical time of

change in this project. Three areas among the multiple responses emerged having

the highest frequency. Table 17 identifies these attributes, descriptions and

frequency. It is interesting to note that no other attributes were identified outside of

these competency and behaviour areas.

k) Most important Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours

As Table 18 shows, the most important competency and behaviour area identified

was knowledge of host country and culture, which received 24% of the total

**Table 18: Number and Frequency of the Most Important Intercultural
Leadership Competencies and Behaviours as Identified in Case Study
Interviews**
(N = 6; Multiple Responses)

Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours	Number of Responses	Percentage of Responses
Knowledge of Host Country & Culture	6	24
Relationship Building Skills	5	20
Values	5	20
Personal & Professional Commitment	3	12
Intercultural Communication	2	8
Adaptation Skills	2	8
Attitude of Modesty & Respect	1	4
Organizational Skills	1	4
Self-Knowledge	0	0
Totals	**25**	**100**

121

responses. Specifically, those categorized in this area include knowledge of the system and sector, position, authority, key people, and local contacts. The next most identified areas, relationship building skills and values, were equal with 20% each. Building confident partnerships, being mentors, offering motivation and guidance, and creating trust are the skills which can be classified in this area. In the values section, honesty, trust, and fairness were identified by respondents and often in combination with skills in the areas of intercultural communication, attitude of modesty and respect and relationship building skills.

l) Final Report Document

To analyse the final report, thematic categories were established based on a number of ideas that emerged throughout the document. The coding procedure used for this portion of the research can be found in Appendix F and G. This document was viewed from three different perspectives. First was the perspective of looking at all the themes and their frequency of reference in the text of the final report. A second view of the themes looks from the perspective of the subunit for this case study, SBD&FCo. Finally, a number of issues or problem areas were identified and analysed in the thematic categories. The compilation of these is then looked at in relation to the key intercultural leadership skills.

In looking at the text of the final report document, the theme of partnerships and collaborations dominated, with creating conditions for change and pilots/trials/demonstrations following closely behind. From the perspective of the case study subunit, pilots/trial/demonstrations emerged clearly as the leading theme. Among the problems, issues or outstanding items that were mentioned

throughout the report, the themes of human resources and other factors (beyond

the project's control) were the top ranked areas. Table 19 shows the frequency of

themes as they emerged from the three perspectives.

The top three themes that have emerged in the final report include

pilots/trials/demonstrations, partnerships and collaborations, and creating

conditions for change. Relationship building skills are the intercultural leadership

Table 19: Frequency of References to Thematic Categories in the Case Study Final Report Document

Perspectives	Number of Thematic Categories Identified										
	U&S	I/T	HR	Appro	Obj	A&F	P/T/D	Part	CCFC	T&C	O
1. Document Text	18	11	14	21	20	9	27	34	29	21	7
2. Subunit References	0	0	2	0	3	0	13	0	0	3	0
3. Problems & Issue Areas	5	0	8	2	1	3	5	1	5	2	8
Total	23	11	24	23	24	12	45	35	34	26	15

Note: U&S = Understanding & Support; U/T = Interpretation/Translation; HR = Human Resources; Appro = Approach; Obj = Reference Objectives; A&F = Assessment & Feasibility; P/T/D = Pilots/Trials/Demonstrations; Part = Partnerships & Collaborations; CCFC = Creating Conditions for Change; T&C = Training and Communication; O = Other (factors out of project control).

area that consistently occurs in all three top themes. Adaptation skills, knowledge

of host country and culture, an attitude of modesty and respect, and intercultural

communication occur in two out of the three themes. Therefore it can be suggested

that relationship building skills were a key component in the case study, as

identified in the final report document.

Participant Observation

A Half-Day with the Canadian Trade Mission to China

a) Overview

This Canadian Trade Mission to China in 2005 took place in mid-January. Approximately 375 Canadian delegates from 279 companies and various government departments and agencies attended. The agri-food sector seminar was described as a mechanism facilitated by the Canadian government to highlight Canadian agri-food businesses, the types, quality and safety of products and other capabilities to the China audience in hopes of generating business opportunities. It focused on seafood, of which the Canadian government officials actively recruited companies to participate, although other sectors were present. While exact numbers are not available, the agri-food session had an estimated 100 to 150 in attendance.

b) Intercultural Leadership Skills

To obtain a perspective on intercultural leadership skills, the actions displayed by participants during both the agri-food session and the networking luncheon were observed and the communication which took place was documented. These actions and dialogues that emerged from the event were then categorized accordingly. Table 20 outlines this analysis.

Table 20: Key Observations and Findings about Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours at the Canadian Trade Mission Event
(N = 36; Multiple Observations)

Intercultural Leadership Competencies & Behaviours	Key Observations from Actions and Communication (✷ Indicates areas where values may be reflected; ⊘ Indicates behaviour of concern)	Total Number Observed	% of Total Observed	Behaviours of Concern No. and (%)
Intercultural Communication	• Simultaneous translation in agri-food session, but not available at luncheon ⊘; • Chinese/Mandarin greetings used ✷; • Chef spoke some Mandarin; • Some PowerPoint in Mandarin; • Use of good AV materials & information kit; • Room set-up in agri-food session difficult to see from back of room ⊘; • Networking luncheon (more Chinese talking to Chinese and Canadians talking to Canadians than intermixing) ⊘; and • Chinese media presence.	9	25%	3 (8%)
Relationship Building Skills	• Connections with Senior Chinese and Canadian trade and government officials ✷; • Food safety and quality information emphasized✷; • Individual one-on-one sessions organized after plenary session between agri-food companies and potential Chinese buyers; • Chinese participants given Canadian information kit, which included some samples of Canadian products (guanxi) ✷; • Networking luncheon environment (although not sure how much	7	19.4%	1 (3%)

	relationship building was accomplished) ⊘; and • Overall purpose of obtaining business leads.			
Knowledge of Host Country & Culture	• Networking luncheon catered to both Canadian and Chinese food tastes; • Senior officials involved showing importance of the event ✶; • Provided statistics on Canadian seafood industry • Demonstrated knowledge by incorporating chef, cooking demo & seafood display; • Company business profiles; • Participant description of how business is done in China and that trade missions are an important part of cycle • Sector specific focus of agri-food session – some perceived as exclusionary ⊘; and • Parliamentary Assistant establishes credibility as farmer and knowledge of sector ✶.	7	19.4%	1 (3%)
Attitude of Modesty & Respect	• General hum of individual conversations, cell-phone conversations and reading newspaper during agri-food session ⊘; • Formal presentation at luncheon acknowledge Canadian and Chinese leadership ✶; • Priority seating given to Chinese participants at agri-food session; • Brush-off by Canadian official when more important business contact came by ⊘; and • Canadian delegate vocalized concern about event organization.	5	13.9%	2 (5%)
Adaptation Skills	• Fast-paced agenda; • Lack of flexibility from Canadian staff to researchers involvement in	3	8.3%	2 (5%)

126

	event, but Beijing staff more adaptable ⊘; and • Concern about the cultural adaptation to the described "sell-fest" approach of this event ⊘ .			
Organizational Skills	• Large event required background organization and resources; • Government staff actively recruited Canadian seafood companies; and • Overall style of the trade mission was business-like and Western approach.	3	8.3%	0
Personal & Professional Commitment	• Upscale, Western style setting ⊘, excellent quality food and business-like nature; • Professional, sophisticated tools and techniques used (i.e. PowerPoint, microphones, simultaneous translation, display graphics, & media scrums).	2	5.6%	1 (3%)
Totals		36	99.9%	10 (27%)

Of the 36 observations that emerged, 72% can be perceived as positive

behaviours that would enhance intercultural effectiveness. Twenty-seven percent

are identified as being a concern in this context. Areas of concern would be any

action or behaviour that did not enhance the event, was contradictory to the list of

intercultural leadership competencies or could be perceived as insensitive for the

Canada-China cultural context. These are identified in Table 20 by the symbol

"⊘". The other actions listed are considered positive behaviours, as they are

identified in the list of intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours and

generally enhanced the event.

The area that had the most concerns, 8%, was intercultural communication. For

instance, while simultaneous translation was available in the formal sessions,

translation services did not seem readily available during the networking luncheon. This and the language issue may have led to the observations that little intermingling between Canadians and Chinese actually took place at the luncheon and therefore the question is raised as to how much relationship building was able to be accomplished in that format. Five percent of the concerns were in each of the areas of attitude of modesty and respect and adaptation skills. This included the high level of participant activity during formal sessions, when listening would be expected. This behaviour could be interpreted by Canadians as a lack of modesty and respect for those speaking in the formal presentations. Also, a question around whether this "sell fest" environment, as described by one of the Embassy staff, is the most appropriate for this cultural context which values modesty and respect, developing trust, friendships and relationships. From an adaptability skill standpoint, federal government staff in Canada appeared to be somewhat inflexible in incorporating the researcher's attendance, while the Beijing Embassy staff worked quite quickly and effectively to resolve this issue. Only a couple of concerns existed in the areas of knowledge of the host country and culture, organizational skills, and personal & professional commitment. The sector specific focus on seafood worked well for the Chinese environment and from an organizational point of view. However, Canadian participants perceived this to be exclusionary of other agri-food sectors, which were also in the market development phase. Overall, the event could be described as having a clearly professional, business-like, western style of approach, which is more comfortable for the Canadian participants but perhaps not so for the Chinese participants, depending on their level of international and intercultural experience. Working towards improvements in these areas could improve the overall event impact.

While the area of values, in and of itself, was not observed, these were reflected in the areas of intercultural communication, relationship building, knowledge of host country and culture, and attitude of modesty and respect. They are indicated in Table 20, by the symbol "✶ ".

In summary, Figure 10 visually illustrates the frequency of observations of intercultural leadership skills, taking into consideration those behaviours that may negatively influence the effectiveness of leadership interactions. The most

Figure 10: Frequency of Observed Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours at Canadian Trade Mission Event
(N = 36; Multiple Observations)
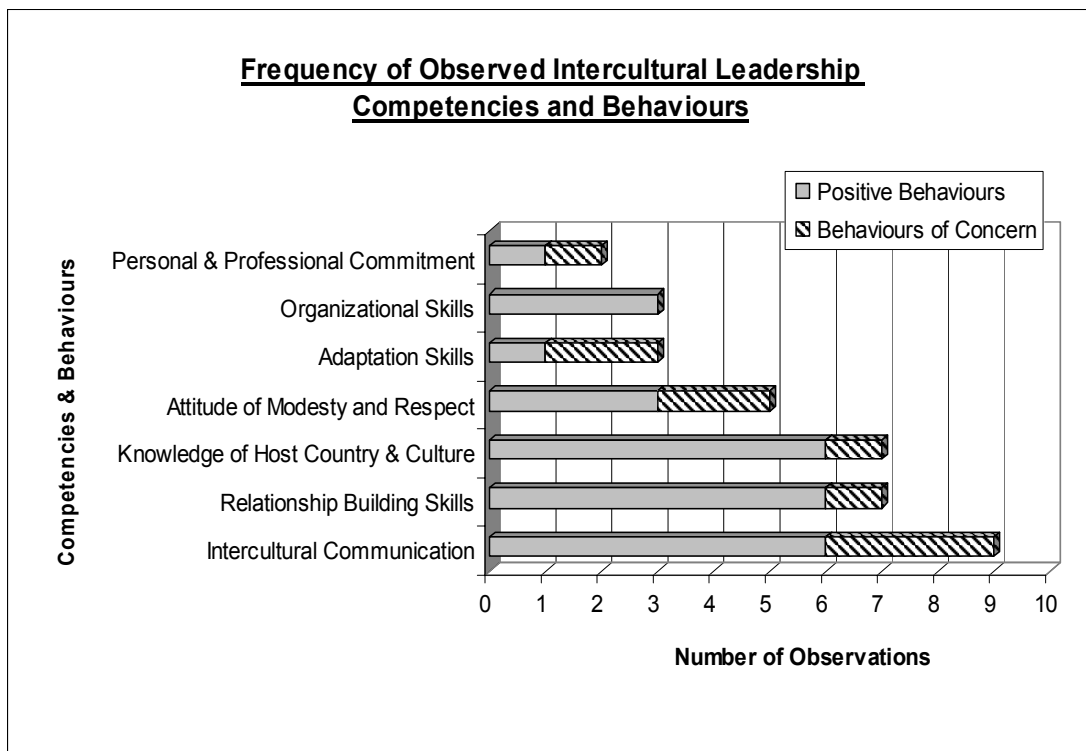
Note: Positive Behaviours are those which enhance the event; Behaviours of Concern are those which are contrary to the intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours, do not enhance the event or may be perceived as culturally insensitive in the Canada-China context.

frequently observed areas of intercultural leadership behaviours and competencies were intercultural communication, followed by relationship building skills and knowledge of the host country and culture. Skills in attitude of modesty and respect, adaptation, organization, and personal and professional commitment were also cited. Further information and details about the event as collected through the participant observation framework can be found in Appendix E. While outside the scope of the intercultural leadership focus of this research, it does provide a detailed narrative of what was observed and can be expected at trade mission events.

International Study Tours - Nuffield Canada

a) Overview

As part of this researcher's participant observation method, the focus was to gain further perspectives from these other jurisdictions about the intercultural leadership skills needed for effective ventures in China. This involved participation in a series of study tours and engaging in conversations with the leaders, who were Nuffield Scholars from Australia, New Zealand, Ireland, Britain, France and Canada, as well as agriculture industry officials from the United Kingdom (UK) and European Union (EU). Detailed information about these events, as collected through the participant observation framework but outside the scope of intercultural leadership skills, can be found in Appendix F. This includes some specific data on perspectives about doing business with China. Appendix G and H provide more facts and insights into the nature, content and logistical specifics of the International Nuffield Study Tours

130

b) Intercultural Leadership Skills

**Table 21: Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours Necessary
for Doing Business In China from Participant Discussions on the
International Nuffield Study Tours**
(N = 11: Multiple Responses)

<u>Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours</u>	<u>Key Points/Description of Perspectives</u>	<u>No. of Responses</u>	<u>Percentage of Responses</u>
Relationship Building Skills	• Use of positional power; • Cultivate government to government relations and relations with Senior officials; • Important for multi-national or multi-organizational/industry approaches; • Know your customer; and • Closely aligned with trust	7	30.4
Intercultural Communication	• Be direct; • Consistent; and • Persistent.	4	17.4
Values	• Trust; Chinese approach with no trust and it is developed over time, while Western approach is more from the standpoint that you are trusted until proven otherwise; and • Cautious people	4	17.4
Knowledge of Host Country & Culture	• Understand the country and provinces; • Understand the marketplace and who you are dealing with; and • Seek reliable information, check and double check; OECD may have some of the best agriculture trade and development data about China.	4	17.4
Adaptation Skills	• Enthusiasm; • Fast-paced; and • Patience.	3	13
Organization Skills	• Vision is important	1	4.3
Totals		**23**	**99.9**

During communication and discussion, six intercultural leadership competencies and behaviour areas emerged from the China-UK perspective. This additional jurisdictional piece provides a possible way of looking at the competencies and behaviours that overlap or transcend between China and both the UK and Canada. Table 21 summarizes these and includes the frequency of responses. Relationship building skills received the most responses with 30.4%. This was followed by intercultural communication, values and knowledge of the host country and culture, obtaining 17.4% of the responses each. It should be noted that the intercultural leadership skills in the areas of modesty and respect, understanding of the concept of culture, self-knowledge, and personal and professional commitment were not identified.

Gender Audit

Semi-Structured Interviews with Canada-China Agri-Food Organizations

To examine the extent to which women were involved in leadership, each respondent in the semi-structured interviews was asked about the number of women involved in senior management in their company or organization. Further discussion then occurred around the ideas about the level of involvement in these decision making roles and the extent of involvement.

Sixteen of the 26 companies/organizations interviewed identified the number of women involved in senior management in their organizations. These ranged from 0% to 67%, with a mean of 29.3%. Figure 11 graphically depicts this information.

132

This slightly skewed bell-curve, characterised by a piling up of scores in the centre

of the distribution, shows the preference to use the median (midpoint) of 34.5 as an

indicator. Therefore, this data shows that among this group of agri-food companies

and organizations, approximately 30% had women who were in senior

management positions and therefore participated in the leadership of their

company/organization.

**Figure 11: Frequency Distribution of Women in Senior Management
Positions in Sampled Canada-China Agri-food
Organizations from Semi-Structured Interviews
(N = 16)**

**Frequency Distribution of Percentage of
Women in Senior Management Positions in
Canada-China Agri-Food
Organisations/Companies**
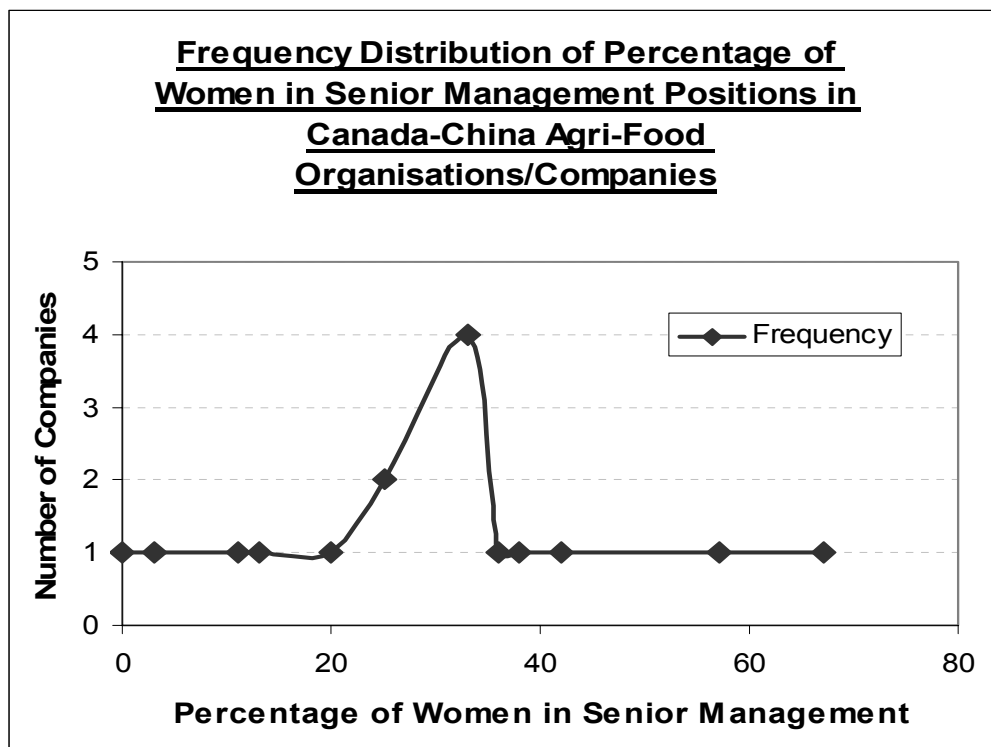
When the respondents were probed about their opinions regarding the

appropriateness of this level of involvement by women in decision making roles

and in general, the views ranged from a belief that the status quo was fine to those

Table 22: Themes and Viewpoints about Women and Leadership as identified in Semi-Structured Interviews in the Canada-China Context
(N = 26; Multiple Responses)

Themes Regarding Women and Leadership (No. of Responses)	Key Points/Description of Viewpoints
Unconscious Societal Barriers (15)	• Women have child bearing responsibility; • Macho culture; • Historical values (males carry family name, male children are security for elderly, family trees only list men, men don't transfer info readily to women); and • Behavioural views (inappropriateness for women to travel to provinces alone or drink in the business culture).
Capabilities of Women in Leadership Roles (12)	• Very strong, tough & hardened; • Must be a key person politically and in hierarchy • Experienced and use power effectively; • More aggressive and work hard; • Easy to be loyal to women; and • More thoughtful, care for details and are tender-hearted.
Changing But Slow and Difficult (11)	• Increasing number of women in universities; • Deliberate attempts to train women and involve in micro-credit programs and encouraging them to help and speak for others; • One Child Policy helped women in the workforce; • Fairer distribution of labour in household in young generation; • "I teach my employees to respect women, but this takes time to change these attitudes"; • Current trends of feminization of agriculture, HIV Aids, and prostitution are rampant and difficult to change; • Male dominated society with huge gender gaps (women are for having babies and fun; perceptions of certain jobs only for men or only for women; women expected to drop everything for careers); • Many words about gender equality but few actions; • Regional and Rural/Urban differences exist i.e.) Shanghai more male dominated; Rural slower to change attitudes; and • Real resistance to women in high positions.
Status Quo Appropriate (3)	• Communism & Cultural Revolution levelled this; • Appropriate for the culture; and • Adopt a gender-neutral attitude and no problems.
False Reality Created (2)	• Ratio's of women kept high to look better; and • Often prompted because of rarity (female/PhD/non-party).

expounding of the capabilities of women in leadership roles. The vast majority of

discussion, however, centred on barriers for women and why the number of

women involved in leadership positions was changing so slowly. Table 22 outlines

these main themes that emerged and the key points that contribute to these views.

The Case Study

Described as a cross-cutting initiative, gender equity was a priority from the

beginning of the project, with its early data collection revealing that women were

not well represented in middle management within large organizational structures

of farms and other institutions in China. It was also identified that some women

were in senior positions in corporations and government departments,

demonstrating that opportunities did exist in these areas. This early project

research also showed that it was customary in the dairy sector for women to be

employed in milking and feeding calves, while men were traditionally employed as

artificial insemination technicians (The Semex Alliance, 2004).

Table 23 shows the summary totals and percentages of women as reported in the

training and outreach section of the final report. For the training programs in the

project, a target of between 30 and 33% women trainees was established but not

achieved. Program design was cited as the main reason for not achieving the

target. Women experienced barriers to participating in centrally located training,

which included family responsibilities in addition to other work at home or in their

Table: 23: Percentage of Women and Men Trainees as Indicated in Case Study Final Report
(N = 66,303)

Percentage of Women Trainees in Canada-China Integrated Dairy Cattle Breeding Project (CCIDCBP)

Training Initiatives (1993 to 2004)	Total No. of Participants	No. of Men	No. of Women	% of Women
In-Canada Training	233	193	40	17%
In-China Training	66,070	51,247	14,823	22%
Totals	**66,303**	**51,440**	**14,863**	**22%**

(The Semex Alliance, 2004)

work unit. Also, while the program tried to improve the traditional gender profile in the sector by training women in the areas of farm management and study tours, milk lab and quality control, genetics and breeding, dairy nutrition, type classification, and dairy industry policy/programs, it did not succeed in having female participants in the areas of herd health, artificial insemination and embryo transfer, or animal health program. It was noted, however, that the focus on food safety and quality, which took place in 2001, brought more women into the training component, as they were found to be very competent in the management of laboratory quality control (The Semex Alliance, 2004).

The CCIDCBP final report states on page 14 that an average of 24% was attained for the overall training programs, which were both In-Canada and In-China. To reach this percentage, training had to be more locally coordinated. That is, location was closer to where the trainees lived and/or the work unit or company took a lead

136

role in the planning. However, this number may actually be slightly lower at 22%, as a discrepancy in the percentages was noted between the measurements of success on page 14 of the final report and those in the training and outreach section on pages 38 and 41 of the final report. Historical informant interviews confirmed that the number was likely closer to 22%.

Other notable statistics in this area include:

- The In-Canada training program had:

    o The highest participation rate for women, which was 53%, occurred in 2001 at the Milk Laboratory Quality Control Management and Operation program;

    o 64% of the programs from 1993 to 2004, include female participants; and

    o No women involved in the initial study tour in 1993 and in 1995/1996 no women were involved in training in Canada.

- The In-China training program had:

    o The highest participation rate for women, which was 36%, took place in 1999 and the lowest participation rate of 15% occurred in 1997 and 1998;

    o Significant success, with 55% women trainees, in training associated with the Canada Fund Village, which was initiated by CCIDCBP to help with the development of Western China; and

    o 330 women involved in training by the end of 2001, as part of the Youth program, which was inspired by the Canadian 4-H model. Albeit, the age range of 15 to 35 years was broader than the traditional Canadian definition of youth.

From a staffing point of view, the types of people involved in the project included those involved in project coordination and management, long term technical

advisors and specialists, and short term experts. Technical assistants and

translators were also involved from 1998 to 2003. From time to time, part-time

staff were hired on an as-needed basis. Figure 12 shows the percentage of

women staff and trainees for the duration of the project. The staff numbers include

management, long-term and short-term experts, and technical and translation

assistants.

**Figure 12: Comparison of Percentage of Women on Staff and Trainees from
the Case Study Final Report Document**
(N = 14,901)
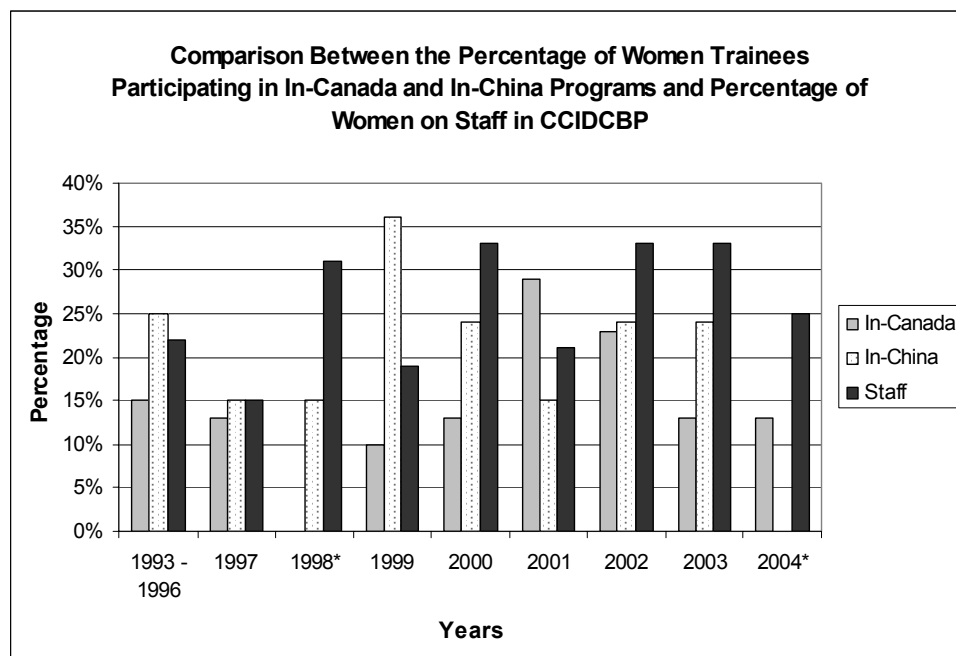
Notes: 1) ✳ **Indicates that no In-Canada training took place in 1998 & no In-China training took
place in 2004;   2) Does not include part-time staff data, as it is not available.**

From the CCIDCBP final report and historical informant interviews, the project

began with 22% women involved on staff. In 2004, 25% of the staff were women.

The top two senior management positions were held by men throughout the entire

project. Of the long term technical advisors and specialists over the 11 years, 20% were women. Among the short term experts for the duration of the project, 16% were women. The average overall percentage of women on staff throughout the project was 26%. This was below the target set for the project to involve women, 30% - 33%, but higher than the actual percentage of 22%, which was obtained. Except for the initial years and 1999, the percentage of women on staff was consistently higher than in-China training. 2001 was the only year that the percentage of women involved with in-Canada training exceeded the number of women on staff.

As for the Shanghai Bright Dairy and Food Company, the subunit for this study, only one woman was involved in the company's senior management ranks. However, as the historical informants pointed out, this individual played a very significant and powerful role in that organization.

Participant Observation

In both the half-day session with the Canadian Trade Mission to China and the Nuffield international study tours, the observed demographics indicated the audience/participants were predominantly men. This was also true for the presenters at the agri-food session of the trade mission, of which only 18% were women.

In the Nuffield Study Tours, 16% of the participants were women. However, within each of the specific Nuffield study tours, there were some differences. During the March/April study tour, 12% were women, while in the August/September study

tour, 33% were women. The researcher observed and felt that the different level of

participation of women was one of the factors which affected the environment and

setting of the tours. The behaviours of the group during the March/April tour were

described as somewhat more immature, chauvinistic and inappropriate, as

compared to the August/September tour which was described as congenial and

professional in approach. This may be because of the younger, inexperienced age

group, a larger group size and/or the under-representation of women. Making a

concerted effort to recruit more women participants may improve this situation.

A Snapshot of Canadian Agri-Food Organizations

Figure 13: Frequency Distribution of the Percentage of Women in Leadership Positions Among a Sampling of Canadian Agri-Food Organizations/Companies
(N = 16)
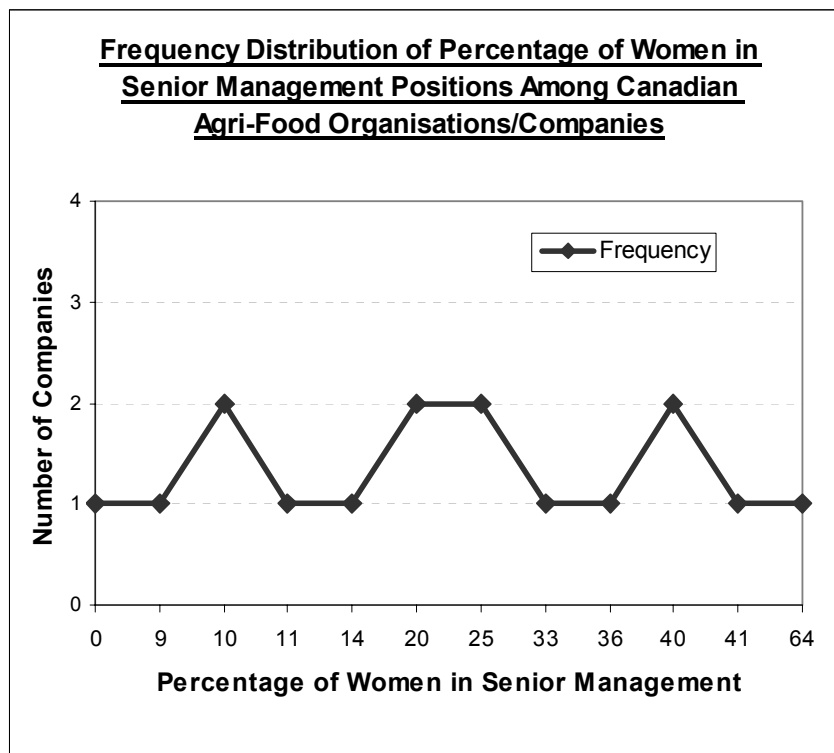
To obtain a comparative view, a random sampling of 16 agri-food organisations or companies in Ontario and Canada were reviewed to identify the number of women involved in senior management. Figure 13 shows the frequency distribution obtained through this snapshot.

This was a web based survey which included looking at the executive positions on Boards of Directors and senior management, such as president, vice-president, general manager, and/or executive director. The involvement of women in leadership positions in these organizations and companies ranged from 0% to 64%, with a mean of 24.8%. The tri-modal nature of the distribution indicates a high concentration of frequencies around three values, that is, 10%, 25% and 40%. The data shows that while the average number of women in leadership positions in these organizations is approximately 25%, there is a real variation across the industry. This approximation indicates that Canadian agri-food organizations and companies would likely have women in either 10%, 25%, or 40% of the leadership positions.

CHAPTER FIVE - DISCUSSION

Introduction

The goal of this research is to identify the skills, knowledge, attitudes and relationships that form a set of core leadership competencies and behaviours needed in a Canada-China agricultural or agri-food related intercultural trade and development environment. Two objectives were identified. The first objective determined the general list of intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours needed by leaders. Secondly, a specific list of leadership competencies and behaviours, including perspectives on gender, was identified as necessary for effective intercultural agri-food ventures in the Shanghai and Beijing regions of China.

Research Objective One - A Set of General Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours

A Findings and Literature Based Framework

Based on a modified grounded theory approach which was outlined in Chapter 3, the literature was used as a basis to draft an initial set of leadership competencies and behaviours and inform the data collection methods. This list was then applied in the Canada-China environment. Transformational leadership was the leadership theoretical foundation used because of its suitability in the intercultural context and when considering questions of gender and leadership (Bond & Smith, 1996; Tabak *et al.*; 1998; House *et al.*, 2004; Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004; Avolio &

Gardner, 2005; Evers *et al.*, 1998 & 2003). For the intercultural competencies and behaviours theory, the works of Vulpe *et al*, (2001), Dahles & Wels, (2002) and Harris & Kumra, (2000) were used. As the intercultural and leadership competencies and behaviours were compared with transformational leadership components, a number of overlaps emerged. As a result, a framework was developed, Table 1 on page 35, and it offered an initial set of intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours. It should be noted that the Evers *et al.* (1998 & 2003) studies provided a strong research base, as both the semi-structured interviews and the case study interviews were modelled on this approach. However, a section on values was added, due to the weakness in this area that was evident in the Evers *et al.* (1998) study.

Confirming General Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours

A set of general intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours, which have emerged out of the literature and findings of this research, is outlined in Table 24. While the literature provided the base, the findings confirm this framework, as the data collected achieved saturation and fell into the categories as listed. The sections that follow further explain and discuss this by looking at each of the categories of intercultural leadership skills. It should be noted that these are listed in no particular order. Ranking should be undertaken only within specific cultural contexts, as values are at the core of cultural dimensions and their influence is well documented in leadership and business literature (Dodd, 1998; Bond & Smith, 1996; Stuttard, 2000; House *et al.*, 2004) and through respondents in this study.

Table 24: A Set of General Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours as Emerged from the Literature and Research Findings

Intercultural Leadership Skills Framework
Adaptation & Innovation Cope, enjoy ongoing challenges, creativity, innovation, initiate change when needed, risk-taking, critical thinking, personal strength (positive attitude, function in stressful situations, work independently/self-reliant), positive moral perceptions, flexibility, tolerance.
Understanding Cultural Dimensions, Values & Ethics Positive moral perceptions (values, cognitive, emotion, ethics, integrity), ability to conceptualize, relationship of values & culture to people & societies, an attitude of modesty and respect, sensitivity to diversity, integrity, can take role of follower when necessary, accountable, humility.
Knowledge of Host Country & Culture Environmental and situational analysis, ability to conceptualize, cognitive skills, non-judgmental, positive moral perceptions specific to the culture and country (values, cognitive, emotion, ethics integrity), sensitive to diversity.
Relationship Building Skills Inspires and motivates others, supportive, mentor & coach, team builder, managing conflict, listening, oral & written communication, positive moral perceptions, problem solving, coordinating, socialization skills, local language skills, trust, negotiation skills, gain respect, empower collective action.
Self-Knowledge Personal strengths (high energy level, optimal level of performance, positive attitude, function in stressful situations, take constructive criticism, work independently), self-confidence, manage ambiguity, know own values & beliefs, self-regulation, strong sense of moral values (positive moral perceptions).
Intercultural Communication Interpersonal communication, listening, sensitivity to diversity and positive moral perceptions, diplomatic conflict resolution, risk-taking, verbal & non-verbal communication (including some local language skills), display empathy, openness, communicate high expectations.
Strategic & Organization Skills Visioning, decision-making, planning & organizing, coordinating, supportive, information management, multi-tasker, balance between adaptation and maintaining own cultural identity, political astuteness, resourceful.
Personal & Professional Commitment Learning, personal organization & time management, contribute to the local community, personal strengths, realistic awareness of own motivations and expectations of life abroad, analysis, technical and analytical &/or sector competence, fulfill potential.

Therefore each cultural context is different and will have a different emphasis on the various components of this list. A priority for the Canada-China agri-food context has been outlined as part of this research and can be found under section, Research Objective Two.

a) Adaptation and Innovation

In the area of adaptation skills, innovation and having the ability to initiate seemed to emerge over and over in the findings, indicating their importance in the intercultural leadership area. This was shown by respondents often exploring how the opportunity for innovation or taking initiative evolves in relation to this topic of adaptation skills. Adaptation skills and the importance of adapting the leadership style to fit the prevailing pattern in the host country are also cited in the literature (Chemers, 2000; Bass, 1990; Stuttard, 2000). Innovation is identified both in leadership literature and intercultural literature as a critical skill (Northouse, 2004; Vulpe *et al.*,2001; Harris & Kumra, 2000; Evers *et al.*, 1998). As a result, in addition to ensuring these skills are part of the adaptation skills base, innovation has been added to the title in the adaptation skills area to give prominence to this skill.

b) Understanding Cultural Dimensions, Values & Ethics

As a construct of the coding and analysis framework in Appendix I, it was put forward that values play a role in all of the intercultural leadership areas. In the findings, values figured prominently both as a topic on its own and it was shown to

be related to all of the other intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours, except for organizational skills and personal and professional commitment. However, this exception may be more a factor of the specific topics that emerged rather than an indication of exclusion. For example, the topic of priority setting in the personal and professional commitment area was a focus by respondents. Similarly, the topic of decision making, which is part of the organizational skills area, was featured in many discussions. Also, the findings did uncover the values of modesty and respect, but were not cited as the most important. They were often intertwined with trust, honesty and integrity. The literature indicates that values are integral to the competencies and behaviours in both intercultural and leadership theory (Vulpe *et al.*, 2001; Blondin-Andrew, 2003; Chemers, 2000; Yukl, 2002; Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004; Avolio & Gardiner, 2005; Dodd 1998; House *et al.*, 2004).

Therefore, values appear to be a fundamental underpinning of all or many of the intercultural leadership competency areas and should be given more importance and profile in leadership skill development for an international environment. Within this research objective, this has been accomplished in three ways. Firstly, the area of understanding the concept of culture has been titled Understanding Cultural Dimensions, Values & Ethics to give this area more prominence. Secondly, skills related to creating an attitude of modesty and respect have been incorporated into this category to again bring focus to the whole area of values. Lastly, positive moral perceptions and/or values and beliefs have been woven into the other skill areas in adaptation and innovation, knowledge of host country, relationship building skills, self-knowledge, and intercultural communication. While it is likely

that values are a component of strategic and organization skills, and personal and professional commitment, as indicated by the attributes listed in these categories from the literature, it was not specifically identified in this study (Vulpe *et al.*,2001; Dahles & Wels, 2002; Harris & Kumra, 2000). Additional research will be needed to identify this further. The term dimensions has been used, instead of concept, to highlight the depth and breadth of the relationship between societal culture and leadership. This complexity is also documented in the literature and theorists continue to note that culture and national differences continue to affect the influence process between leader and follower (Chemers, 2000; Bass 1990; Yukl 2002; House *et al.*, 2004).

c) Knowledge of Host Country & Culture

Knowledge of host country and culture figured highly in the findings. It often emerged as one of the top three intercultural leadership areas from the data. The literature notes that the phenomenon of leadership is rooted in a number of aspects, one being the historical context or prevailing pattern of the country and culture (Chemers, 2000; Bass, 1990; Parry 1998; Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Vulpe *et al.*, identifies knowledge of the host country and culture as a major competency in the profile of an interculturally effective person.

The importance of sector knowledge and competence or technical skills was identified by many respondents. This was surprising, as it is somewhat of a departure from the Western view of leadership, where knowledge of the discipline is often seen as secondary to the abilities of creating a supportive environment, synergy between leaders, followers and outcomes, coaching and empowerment,

147

particularly in transformational leadership (Bennis, 2001; Bass, 1990; Avolio & Gardiner; Northouse, 2004). Therefore for the international and intercultural environment, this should be given more prominence. In addition to having the separate category indicating it is a major competency area, it has been incorporated under the area of Personal and Professional Commitment. Even though the significance of sector knowledge emerged in the data, it was part of a balanced perspective, as seen by the rather evenly distributed number of responses about the most important competencies and behaviours. With this in mind, it was a concern to identify that most of the topics in the participant observation events were almost solely focused on sector knowledge. Several respondents also mentioned that companies and organizations do not spend enough time exposing or training their leaders about host country and cultural knowledge so that leaders are properly prepared. Therefore, a combination of intercultural leadership skill development, sector and cultural knowledge would be more ideal and prepare leaders better for the international environment. The proposed list, Table 24, does accommodate this by including sector and specific cultural knowledge within the context of the area of knowledge of host country and culture and personal and professional commitment.

d) Relationship Building Skills

The skills needed for building relationships dominated the responses and discussion throughout the findings. Relationship building was often listed as one of the top two areas of importance. Both the leadership and intercultural literature

support the need for relationship building skills as noted in the works of Chemers (2000), Bass (1990), Avolio & Gardner (2005), Northouse (2004), Dodd (1990), Vulpe et al (2001), Korten (1980) and Kealey (1990). The transformational leadership model pays particular attention to this area of skills, as it focuses on building and sustaining human, social and psychological capital (Evers *et al.*, 1998 & 2003; Bass 1990; Northouse, 2004; Yukl, 2002; Chemers, 2000; Daft, 2005; Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

e) Self-Knowledge

Among the findings, the area of self-knowledge skills often emerged when discussing other attributes. The transformational leadership literature identifies self-confidence, leader and follower self-awareness, and managing self as important skills in this area (Bass, 1990; Avolio & Gardiner, 2005; Evers *et al.*, 1998 & 2003). Vulpe et al, (2001) and Harris & Kumra (2000) indicate self-knowledge and one's own knowledge and perceptions as skills of intercultural effectiveness.

f) Intercultural Communication

The skills involved in communication in the intercultural environment were often identified as one of the top three intercultural leadership areas in the findings. Both leadership and intercultural literature cites the need for communication skills, as identified by Bass (1990), Avolio & Gardner (2005), Northouse (2004), Evers *et al.*, (1998 & 2003), Kealey (1990), Dodd (1998), Vulpe *et al.* (2001), Dahles & Wels (2002), and Harris & Kumra (2000).

149

g) Strategic & Organization Skills

Organizational skills often emerged from the data when discussing other intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours. The findings also noted that strategy, big picture/broad knowledge, vision and political savvy skills were a factor in effective intercultural leadership. The transformational leadership literature clearly cites vision and/or future strategy as an important component of this theory (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004; Yukl, 2002; Chemers, 2000; Daft, 2005; Evers et al, 1998 & 2003; House *et al.*, 2004). Vulpe *et al.* (2000) identifies the separate category of organizational skills that are needed in the intercultural context. Taking all this into account, the area of organizational skills has been modified to include strategy in the title, giving it more prominence and focus in the intercultural leadership environment.

h) Personal & Professional Commitment

The findings in this area focused on managing time and priorities. While many respondents indicated that setting priorities was important, the area did not emerge as one of the top group of skills. However, sector knowledge and professional competence seemed to surface more often in this intercultural environment. While personal commitment is identified by Kealey (1990) as a factor in intercultural effectiveness, Vulpe *et al.* (2001) identifies the linkage between personal and professional commitment as a major competency for interculturally effective persons. Also, learning, personal organization skills and performance orientation are identified and linked in transformational leadership literature (Evers *et al.*, 1998 & 2003; Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004; House *et al.*, 2004). While more research

is needed to look more fully at all of the skills within this area, technical and sector

skills have been incorporated into this category to acknowledge the additional

focus received in this research.

Summary

Therefore, these research findings, which were based on a framework created

from the literature, support the set of general intercultural leadership competencies

and behaviours, as proposed in Table 24. While certainly more testing in a variety

of cultural environments will be necessary to be able to suggest this list would be

the definitive set of skills for intercultural leadership, this research and its

constructionist, descriptive context provides a good start and basis for future work.

It should also be noted that, for this research objective, these skills are in no

particular order, as ranking may be very culturally specific (House et al, 2004;

Hofstede, 1980; Dodd, 1998).

Research Objective Two - Canada-China Agri-Food Perspectives

Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours & Gender Audit

<u>Canada-China Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours</u>

a) Introduction

Applying the general intercultural leadership framework, Table 24, in the Canada-

China agri-food environment, this study uncovered that relationship building skills

are the intercultural leadership competency and behaviour area that was identified most prominently and consistently throughout the findings. Two key Chinese cultural concepts and practices, guanxi and saving face, were also closely related to this area of skill development. Knowledge of host country and culture, intercultural communication, values (including an attitude of modesty and respect) and adaptation skills were the other areas identified most regularly and were often interconnected with relationship building skills. Still, because of the complexity of cultural dimensions, a wealth of information about all the intercultural leadership skill areas and their inter-relationships in the Canada-China agri-food context emerged in this study. This information is detailed in the following sections. This was consistent with the literature review, which suggested that the areas of: an attitude & behaviour of modesty and respect; knowledge of the host country and culture; relationship building skills; and intercultural communication would be of more focus in this environment (Vulpe *et al.*, 2001; Dahles & Wels, 2002; Wu & Pretty, 2004; Wong *et al.*, 2001; Harris & Kumra, 2000).

b) Relationship Building Skills

Among the findings, this area generated the most number of responses, which speaks to its importance. It was identified as the most important area in the semi-structured interviews at 21% and had the most positively observed behaviours, seven, in action or through conversation in the participant observation findings. In the case study interviews, it was the competency area mentioned most often when discussing other attributes and skills and was among the top three skill areas identified as most important. The analysis of the case study report document

showed relationship building skills were the intercultural leadership area that

consistently occurs in all three top thematic categories. Also, two key cultural

concepts in the Chinese environment, guanxi and trust, were discussed with regard

to the skills of relationship building. Literature references in both the Canada-

China specific information and general intercultural information support the

importance of building long term relationships and their influence on leadership

(Dodd, 1998; Blondin-Andrew, 2003; Hofstede, 1980; Stuttard, 2000; Siu, 2001;

Buckingham *et al.*, 2001; Hu, 2002; Triandis, 1990; Bass, 1990; Avolio &

Gardner, 2005; Tian & Lau, 2001; Dahles & Wels, 2002; Vulpe *et al.*, 2001).

Figure 14 depicts the concept of guanxi and the range of intensity of examples or

behaviours, as described in the findings and the literature. This concept, which

weaves the areas of values and relationships together in a complex manner, stood

out as an example in the findings of the importance and inter-connectiveness of

relationship building skills and other competency and behaviour areas. At first

glance, this term appears fairly benign and innocent. Even in Canada you find

networking over lunch or dinner an acceptable context for the discussion of

business. However, there seems to be a scale of intensity of use and how this

behaviour manifests itself in everyday and business life in China that makes it

different and an accepted part of the culture. To some degree, respondents

reported that everyone participates in the minimal forms of guanxi when working

with a business or project in China. It was explained that this was needed to

ensure the continuation of the relationship with the individual. The

Figure 14: Diagram Depicting the Concept of Guanxi as Described by Semi-Structured Interview Respondents and Literature
(N =26; Multiple Responses)

The Concept of Guanxi

A Chinese value-laden practice/behaviour about creating friendships, relationships and trust with people. It is an integral part of regular life and ranges in intensity, as depicted in the diagram below.

Minimal   **Creating Friendships…**   **Extreme**

..…Trust……

……Good Relationships

Examples/Behaviours:

Small Gift Giving….Hospitality/Banquets….Larger Gifts….Enticements

findings indicated that the practice of the extreme approaches of guanxi, such as incentives or "enticements" as reported by some respondents, is still an area of discussion that is uncomfortable for most. This was noted by 46% of respondents in the semi-structured interviews who did not discuss their participation in guanxi. Yet, some were very forthright about the concept and how it did or did not fit into their business ethics. This is an example of how, when working in the intercultural environment, leaders need to understand the cultural dimensions and values that influence this type of custom, how it fits into the cultural patterns, structures and organizations of a host country, and then how it matches with the individual's self-knowledge of positive moral perspectives. It is also interesting to note that three-quarters of the case study respondents indicated that common values between

154

partners were important. The abilities of adaptation and innovation, as well as

relationship building skills, will be directly affected by this commonality of values

and the degree of participation in guanxi. As one respondent stated, the art of

doing business in China was "knowing when a gift becomes a bribe", which

crosses the business ethics line. As the literature showed, guanxi figures

prominently in cultural dimensions and Confucianism as described by Stuttard

(2000), Hofstede (1980), Siu (2001) and House *et al.*(2004). Hui & Graen (1997)

indicate that synthesizing work relationships with guanxi may well be an important

leadership component and key to building successful ventures in China. While the

concept of guanxi is a Chinese term, the receiving of enticements, large gifts and

favours, which is the extreme form of the practice may not necessarily be confined

to the China marketplace. As recently seen in Canada by the Gomery Inquiry, the

activities of individuals associated with the Sponsorship Program may be perceived

by some as being similar to the extreme forms of guanxi (Government of Canada,

2005).

Among the findings there was considerable discussion about the value of trust in

people, which is a component of relationship building skills. It was identified as the

top value in the case study interviews, in addition to being rated the second most

important value in the semi-structured interviews. In conversations about other

jurisdictional perspectives in the Nuffield study tour, trust was the most often

identified value important for doing business with China. The findings indicate that

trust is clearly important in the Canada-China context, but how trust is approached,

acquired or woven into the cultural framework may be quite different between

Canadians and Chinese. Respondents explained that the Chinese approach trust

from a cautious perspective and that trust is only earned and developed over time

and through gaining respect. It is also very intertwined with honesty, integrity and guanxi. In contrast, respondents felt that Canadians generally started with a certain degree of trust until there is an indication that the trust is misplaced. The literature shows trust is associated with both intercultural and leadership competencies and behaviours (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004; Evers *et al.*, 1998 & 2003; Avolio & Gardiner, 2005; Dodd, 1998; Vulpe *et al.*, 2001). Its importance in the Chinese culture and relationship to guanxi is also acknowledged by Stuttard (2000), Hofstede, 1980, Tian & Lau (2001), and Buckingham *et al.,* (2001).

The findings around trust and guanxi also relate to the viewpoint expressed by several respondents that, while Canada and China differ in their cultural dimensions and value orientation, the gap is not so wide and is more a matter of approach. It is the way the value is interpreted and manifests itself in the societal and business practices. House *et al.* (2004) and Stuttard (2000) support this viewpoint.

c) Knowledge of Host Country and Culture

Almost half of all of the interview responses indicated that being knowledgeable was important. The types included sector, cultural and visionary/strategic knowledge. This area was ranked second highest, 15%, among the most important skill areas, in the semi-structured interviews. In the participant observation findings, it was the third most highly observed area in the Canadian Trade Mission and tied for second highest among other jurisdictional perspectives, as outlined in conversations during the Nuffield Study Tour. In the case study interviews, it was listed as the most important intercultural leadership skill and was

identified in two of the three top thematic categories in the case study report analysis. One of the fundamental underlying cultural dimensions or forces, called cognitive culture, is cited by the literature as the way we process knowledge, awareness, information, perceptions and judgements and is also a component of intercultural competencies and behaviours (Dodd, 1998; Vulpe *et al.*, 2001; Dahles & Wels, 2002; Harris & Kumra, 2000). This, along with the findings, makes it a notable focus for intercultural leadership in the Canada-China context.

Positional, hierarchical and authority structures identified with leadership were only mentioned in a few of the case study interviews. The respondents spoke of this as being important for influence in the project. The few references to power-orientation were unexpected because the literature identifies that power, position, wisdom, hierarchical structures and authority play a role in this cultural context (Hofstede, 1980; House *et al.*, 2004; Buckingham *et al.*, 2001; Siu, 2001; Triandis, 1990; Tian & Lau, 2001). This low result may be for a number of reasons. The demographics of the semi-structured interviews and the participant observations were more private or business oriented. Or it could be the Canadian influences of the case study or the perception that this type of power-oriented leadership is less favoured in Canada and so Chinese respondents were not as open to discuss this aspect of power-orientation leadership. Perhaps it is intertwined with relationship building and guanxi and so did not emerge as readily in the interviews. Or it may be simply that, while it is good to have, it is not as necessary as might be implied (Siu, 2001; Tian & Lau, 2001; Bass, 1990; Sower *et al.*, 1998; Buckingham *et al.*, 2001; Nevitte & Merelman, 1999).

157

Also there was considerable information in the findings about the reliability of information in the Chinese environment. While the Chinese data are becoming better, 46% of respondents indicated specific strategies that were used to obtain reliable information. While USDA and OECD have possibly some of the best data available, strategies such as reviewing current Chinese data, validating with your own information, triangulation with other jurisdictions, and having the right people on your team were cited in the responses. Stuttard (2000) identifies this as something of note when doing business with China. The rapid changes that are taking place in China today, which are outlined in recent literature, may also be a factor in reliability of information (Tabak et al, 1998; Spatafora *et al.*, 2004; Canadian Government in China, 2005; Canadian International Development Agency, 2005; Coates, 2003, Zakaria, 2005; The Canadian Press & CBC Business News, 2005; Tian & Lau, 2001; Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2006).

d) Intercultural Communication

Eighty-five percent of semi-structured interview respondents said it was important for leaders to communicate well. Intercultural communication skills received the third highest number of responses overall, as well as being third highest ranked, 14%, as the most important skill area in all of the interviews. In the case study final report analysis, intercultural communication occurs in two out of the three thematic categories. Among the participant observations, intercultural communication was the top observed area, 25% of observations, at the Trade Mission observations. Albeit, 8% of these were behaviours of concern. Intercultural communication was identified by 17% of those on the Nuffield Study Tours as being necessary for

doing business with China. Language ability or good translation was mentioned in

approximately 50% of the interview responses and identified in the case study final

report. The literature supports the importance of this area of skill development.

Hofstede (1980), Bass (1990), Avolio & Gardner (2005), Vulpe *et al.*(2001),

Dahles & Wels, (2002), Wu & Pretty (2004), Wong *et al.*, (2001), Triandis, 1990,

and Harris & Kumra, (2000) identify communication skills as attributes.

Saving face is another concept and example of a cultural custom or practice in this

area that was mentioned in the findings. It was specifically identified in relation to

diplomatic conflict resolution and negotiation. Respondents often discussed saving

face as to lose face, which would equal embarrassment. It seems to be more

about the way challenges or disagreements are communicated than the actual

negotiation process itself. It was observed on several occasions that direct,

demanding or aggressive verbal communication will often lead to radically different

or vague responses in order to save face or avoid embarrassment. One individual

indicated that saving face is used as a defense to keep harmony and avoid conflict

with people. The meaning of this term and its implication in practice were

described in the literature as an important concept that is closely linked to

relationship and consensus. This means that frequently a problem can only be

solved if one party backs down, so that face can be preserved (Stuttard, 2000).

Stuttard (2000) comments that "those who back down today may be those who see

others back down tomorrow". This practice emerges from the beliefs embedded in

Confucianism and is identified in the literature by Stuttard (2000), Hofstede (1980)

and Siu, (2001).

159

e) Understanding Cultural Dimensions, Values and Ethics

Values received much discussion with approximately 80 responses in the semi-structured and case study interviews. This indicates a high degree of interest and need for this area of skill development. Values were identified by 17% of responses, from the perspectives of other jurisdictions in the Nuffield Study Tours, as necessary for doing business in China. The values of honesty/integrity and benefit to society/family emerge as one of the top three values in this cultural context. Friendships, relationships and trust were also frequently mentioned. Again in this area of discussion, respondents indicated that, in their experience, the gaps between Canada and China are not all that wide, but that the way a value is dealt with or approached is what is different. It was explained that the difference lies in the tone, intensity and how the values are manifested in societal systems. For example, family is important in both cultures, yet several respondents remarked that "the Chinese value family way beyond what Canadians would demonstrate". Also, another respondent pointed out the value of collectivism in the Chinese culture. Collectivism, as described in earlier chapters, is a belief that is an important factor in the Chinese culture. This respondent suggested that, to a certain extent, collectivism is also valued in Canada, as it could be argued that the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms is a mechanism that addresses collective rights for Canadians. It should be noted that these viewpoints were articulated by those who had worked in China and/or with the Chinese for many years and so may be influenced by their legacy of experience. This perspective is supported in the literature by Stuttard (2000), Bond & Smith (1996) and House *et al.* (2004).

Having respect for others, parents and public values was expressed by 27% of the responses in the semi-structured interviews. Case study interview respondents identified that respect or the idea of being respected emerged after displaying the values of trust and integrity. In the case study final report document, the competency area of an attitude of modesty and respect occurs in two out of the three top thematic categories identified. However, overall an attitude of modesty and respect did not emerge as the top value, as might have been expected as a characteristic of collective cultures. Rather, it appears to be interwoven with the other values of Confucianism and the concept of developing trust. In fact, although it was cited as an important value, responses indicated that it was not as important as trust and friendship/relationships.

The literature supports the importance of values in this cultural context, given the impact of Confucianism and the values of collectivism as cited by Buckingham *et al.* (2001), Szalay *et al.* (1994), and Hofstede (1980). Dwivedi (2003) also expressed the idea of the importance of a moral approach involving integrity. And the literature verifies this within the dimension of the long-term orientation and masculine-feminine of Hofstede (1980), as well as in Stuttard (2000), Dahles & Wels (2002), Hu (2002), and Siu's (2001) studies.

f) Adaptation and Innovation

In the findings of this research, all of those interviewed agreed that adaptation and the ability to change were important. When asked about the most important leadership skill, they were identified as the leading competency and behaviour in 15% of responses. There were a number of skills mentioned in relation to

adaptation, which included relationship building skills, values, knowledge of the host country and intercultural communication. Also identified by respondents were self-knowledge skills such as" having a sense of humour" and "a tough skin", which was understood to mean that to work in this intercultural environment it is important to have a positive attitude, not take things too seriously and see the humour of certain situations. While adaptation skills occurred in the participant observation portion of this research, it did not rank highly in both events, although it was specifically mentioned by 15% of responses from other jurisdictions.

The role of innovation or taking initiative was discussed at length. Of the total responses in all interviews, 32% felt that this was closely related to the skills of cooperation, having connections and applying knowledge. Also of note was that 16% felt this was natural for the Chinese culture, which corresponds to Siu (2001) and Stuttard (2000), and 18% felt that it involved creating the conditions for change or involved the demonstration and engagement of new approaches. This was certainly evidenced in the case study's final report, with 34 items identified as a theme of partnerships and collaborations. Also, with reference to the subunit, SBD&FCo, 13 references were made to the company being part of a pilot, trial or demonstration site over the course of the 11 years of the project.

Areas of concern were observed and discussed in conjunction with adaptation and innovation. In the participant observations, 66% of the observations in this intercultural leadership area at the trade mission event were behaviours of concern. Examples from responses include the nature of government relations, different regions of China adapting at different paces, marketing gaps, unethical behaviour and decisions around innovations often being made behind the scenes.

In the interviews, these types of concerns were identified in eight percent of responses. In the case study final report document, one of the lessons learned was the importance of assessment and feasibility, so that new technology and innovations are applied appropriately.

Generally, the importance of adapting the leadership style to fit the prevailing patterns of a host country is identified in the literature (Chemers, 2000; Bass,1990). Bass (1990) and Smillie & Hailey (2001) recognize that the elements of traditionalism, particularism, collectivism and idealism are dimensions of values that are of particular importance to leadership and are linked to a number of characteristics such as competitiveness and the preference for risk-taking. Looking more specifically at cultural dimensions, Buckingham *et al.* (2001) and Hofstede (1990) indicate that, in the area of uncertainty avoidance, China values fewer rules, moral laws and self-control, which could affect the risk-taking ability that is part of adaptation. However, Stuttard (2000), in focusing specifically on China, notes that flexibility, which is shaped by the underlying theme of Confucianism, has been a long-time skill of the Chinese. Siu (2001) identifies that the values of time-orientation may affect the Chinese's interest in innovation.

g) Other Intercultural Leadership Skill Areas

In the Canada-China context, the competency and behaviour areas of self-knowledge, strategic and organization skills, and personal and professional commitment were identified, but did not emerge as prominently as the other intercultural leadership skill areas in Table 26. Of these three areas, strategic and organization skills received the most responses or observations, 11 in total, from

163

all methods. Vision, decision making and strategy were often identified as skills in this area. These are also identified in the literature as being important in the Canada-China context (Hofstede, 1980; House *et al.*, 2004; Siu, 2001; Tian & Lau, 2001).

h) Key Relationships Between Competency and Behaviour Areas

Overall, findings indicated that there were noteworthy inter-relationships between the various areas of intercultural leadership skills. Seventy-three percent of responses in the semi-structured interviews indicated a link here between relationship building skills and communication. Sixty-three percent of all interview responses indicated that values played a role in communication.

The data from the semi-structured interviews shows a number of close relationships between the intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours in the Canada-China agri-food context. In the areas of adaptation skills and knowledge of host country and culture, there was significant overlap between the competencies and behaviours identified by respondents. Also, overlaps exist between knowledge of host country and culture and relationship building skills. While the area of understanding the concept of culture was not always specifically addressed, it would seem to be quite embedded in the concept of knowledge of host country and culture.

Respondent information also showed some overlap between the competencies and behaviours in areas of relationship building skills and intercultural communication. Closely aligned to both knowledge of host country and culture and

relationship building skills is the area of attitude and behaviour of modesty and respect. The competency and behaviour area of personal and professional commitment seem closely aligned with those skills in the adaptation area and intercultural communication area. Both areas of self-knowledge and organizational skills surface in the Canada-China context, which was not originally anticipated. Underlying all of these intercultural leadership competency and behaviour areas are values. Values surface to some extent in all the competency and behavioural areas and so are significant factors in intercultural leadership. Figure 15 shows a cognitive map, based on Table 1, page 35, which depicts these key relationships in combination with the respondent's assessment of the most

Figure 15: Conceptual Map Showing Key Relationships Between Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours from Semi-Structured and Case Study Interviews
(N = 32)

Conceptual Map: Key Relationships Between Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours

165
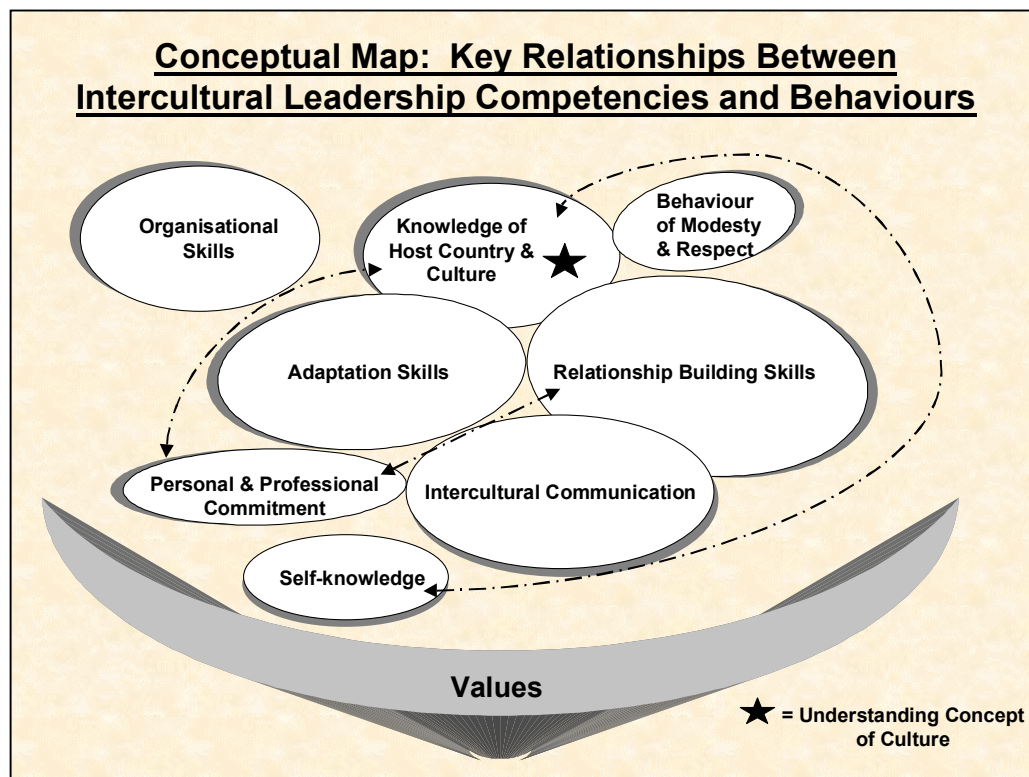
important skills as indicated by analysis of findings in the semi-structured and case study interviews. In addition to the direct relationships that are depicted by the overlap and proximity of the various competencies and behaviours to one another, the dotted lines indicate further relationships that were identified in the interview responses. These interrelationships can suggest a ranking of these intercultural leadership areas for the Canada-China agri-food environment. It could imply that relationship building, intercultural communication, adaptation skills and knowledge of host country, and culture/understanding concept of culture are most important.

While this gives us a look at the intercultural competencies and behaviours important in the Canada-China agri-food environment in the Beijing and Shanghai regions, some questions still remain. Due to the unique nature of the various regions in China, which was identified both in the findings and through the literature, it cannot be generalized to all Canada-China projects. Additional understanding about the similarities and differences in values is needed to differentiate this further. For example, while integrity was rated highly, does that mean the same thing to the Chinese as it does to a Canadian? Also, while Chinese ventures and projects may be shifting in the future towards Western management and leadership methods, they still embody concepts that are complicated and quite different from Western and/or Canadian concepts, and more in-depth research will be needed to understand this further (House *et al.*, 2004; Hofstede, 1980; Stuttard, 2000).

i) Reflections on Intercultural Leadership Differences Between Canada and China

Looking for differences is a natural tendency when trying to understand or explain phenomena. Hofstede (1980), Sui (2001) and Stuttard (2000) explain cultural dimensions and values in this way. Bass (1990) describes that the study of leadership theory and culture has focused on the differences of values or specific theories. However, the conceptualization and findings in this research and some alternative ideas in the research indicate a change in this approach.

Many of the respondents in this research, especially those who had been working in the Canada-China environment for some time, often pointed out that, in their experience, the differences in values between Canada and China were not that great. It was the way a value was dealt with in normal or business life that was different. They often followed with examples of similarities. There is also a shift in orientation in recent literature. This is due to the abundance of Western bias in leadership and cross-cultural studies and has led to research which focuses on those attributes that are universally desirable (House *et al*., 2004; Bond & Smith, 1996; Tabak, Soloman & Nielsen, 1998). Also, House *et al*., (2004) shows that there was only a small difference, .42, in the rating of the Charismatic Values-Based Leadership between Canada and China. Similarly, the cultural dimension scores between these cultures, while different, did not vary widely except for the degree to which individuals expressed cohesiveness in their organizations and families (House *et al*, 2004).

Most importantly, this research involves a small sample population, which is its

greatest limitation, and so more segregation of the data down cultural lines would dilute its reliability even further. Therefore, the conclusions focus more on the intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours that are important and desirable for effective Canada-China agri-food ventures. While this focus remains on the aggregate responses, the richness of this qualitative data does enable some general reflections about the differences in some of the specific skills involved in the intercultural leadership areas. These have been discussed in detail previously in this chapter but can be summarized as follows:

- Trust – Chinese approach trust from a cautious perspective, developing it over time and by gaining respect, while Canadians start with a certain degree of trust until there is evidence that the trust is misplaced;

- The concept of guanxi - Understanding and awareness of how this will manifest itself in the leader's relationship building skills;

- Sector knowledge – Leaders in the Canada-China environment may need to be equally knowledgeable about the sector, as well as the bigger strategic issues, which seems different from the Western trend that indicates leaders do not need to know everything about a sector if they surround themselves with sector experts; and

- Saving face – Understanding how to communicate in a negotiation or manage conflict so that the Chinese involved do not lose face, yet the truth or an acceptable outcome is attained for both parties.

These differences are also identified in the literature by Stuttard (2000), Siu (2001), House *et al*., (2004), and Hofstede (1980).

<u>Summary of Intercultural Leadership Interpretations</u>

Relationship building skills ranked at the top of the intercultural leadership skill framework in the Canada-China agri-food context. Specifically this refers to Intercultural leadership skills such as being: inspirational and motivational; supportive; a mentor and coach; and team builder. Being able to develop trust and gain respect (guanxi); manage conflict and problem solve; listen effectively; possess good oral and written skills, including some local language skills; empower collective action; and negotiation skills (saving face) are also considered important in this area. Having competencies in coordinating and socialization are also key. Possessing positive moral perceptions regarding values, cognitive and emotional abilities, ethics and integrity are also critical behaviours as part of relationship building skills.

After the skills involved in Relationship Building, the following other intercultural leadership competency areas emerged as significant. They are listed below, in no particular order.

- Knowledge of the Host County and Culture;
- Intercultural Communication;
- Understanding Cultural Dimensions, Values & Ethics; and
- Adaptation and Innovation

While not surfacing with great prominence, skills in the following intercultural leadership areas were also identified:

- Self-Knowledge

- Strategic and Organization Skills

- Personal and Professional Commitment

It was expected that while all of the intercultural leadership areas would be of importance due to the specific cultural dimensions of Canada and China, the following areas would be more important: Understanding Cultural Dimensions, Values and Ethics; Knowledge of Host Country and Culture; Relationship Building Skills; Intercultural Communication; and Personal and Professional Commitment. A slight difference emerged between those expected skill areas and the findings. The variation occurs in the high ranking of relationship building skills and the inclusion of adaptation and innovation as opposed to personal and professional commitment.

Gender Audit

The findings indicate that in the agri-food sector, there is still an under-representation of women in decision making positions in both the Canada and China agri-food context. In the Canada-China organizations sampled from the semi-structured interviews, a higher percentage of women, 30%, were involved in senior management positions, as compared with 25% from those sampled in Ontario and Canada. Also, the frequency distributions indicate a more consistent pattern for the Canada-China context than across the Canadian agri-food industry. The Canadian groups showed the likelihood of having women in either 10%, 25% or 40% of the leadership positions. In the case study, there were no women in senior management positions throughout the entire project. In the case study

subunit, one woman was involved in the senior management, yet played a significant and powerful role in that organization.

Among the participants in the case study training component and the participant observation events, the findings indicated lower participation rates for women. In the case study, 22% of trainees were women, which was lower than the project goal. In the agri-food seminar at the Canadian Trade Mission, there were fewer female participants as compared to men and only 18% of the presenters were women. In the Nuffield Study Tours, only 16% of the participants were women.

It is important to be cautious about any broad assumptions made regarding this information because of the small sample size and the very limited regional perspective of the Canada-China organizations. However, it is interesting to reflect that, comparatively, the Canada-China organizations seem to have more consistency and an overall higher average in the number of women in leadership positions than those surveyed in the Canadian and Ontario situation. Perhaps factors and viewpoints, such as those mentioned by semi-structured interview respondents in Table 24, have influenced the number of women in leadership positions, that is, One Child Policy, the impact of Communism and the Cultural Revolution levelling the gender gap and the increasing number of women in universities in China or the ratios of women kept high to look better. Also, the gender equity initiatives that have been part of Canada-China development projects could also influence the higher average and consistency pattern. If Canada-China agri-food organizations or projects want to continue to influence the gender balance in their ventures, then more women should be part of the senior

management team. They should be leading by example, in addition to setting gender equity goals as part of the project's goal or impact.

Most of viewpoints in the semi-structured interviews and the reasons put forth for the case study about this low involvement of women indicated that it was due to the unconscious societal barriers such as:

- Women have child bearing responsibilities;

- Macho culture with historical values favouring males; and

- Behavioural views such as women not being able to travel outside their local area.

Respondent perceptions indicated that, while there is some improvement, change in this dimension of the Chinese culture is slow.

Based on the literature, these results were not unexpected. Hershkovitz & McNeill (2001) outline the historically high level of commitment to gender equity in many of the policies and legislation of the Chinese government, which has resulted in relatively high participation of women in the labour force and administration. But they also indicate that progress toward gender equity is threatened by the social and economic reforms taking place in China. In Canada, inequities are still considered commonplace. Only 21% of the current Members of Parliament are female and, while women make up approximately 37% of all managers nationally, the proportion of women on Canadian boards of directors is between six and 9.4% (Hughes, 2000; Parliament of Canada Information Service, 2006). A recent study finds there is still a need to increase women's access to and participation in leadership and agricultural policy development (Roppel *et al.*, 2006). Among women linked to participation in agricultural organizations, family responsibilities,

lack of child care services, low-incomes, and lack of time hinder their involvement in agricultural organizations. Although, in the farm business itself, farm women are being increasingly recognized as having contributed to financial management expertise and sharing in the decision making regarding the specific areas of capital sales and purchases (Nieman, 1993; Krug, 2000). These Canadian perspectives seem quite similar to the societal barriers identified in the Canada-China context. The work of House *et al.* (2004) and Hofstede (1980) also supports similarity in gender role differences and/or gender egalitarianism.

CHAPTER SIX - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Leadership competencies and behaviours are an essential component of successful organizations, projects and ventures. Today more than ever, leaders are operating in an intercultural environment. Understanding the linkage between leadership skills and intercultural effectiveness will become increasingly important with the continued emphasis on the global marketplace and community diversity (House *et al.*, 2004; Boyer, 2003; McMichael, 2004; Tabak *et al*., 1998; Bass, 1990; Bond & Smith, 1996).

Business and diplomatic associations have been taking place between Canada and China for approximately 30 years. This trade and development relationship with China is anticipated to double by 2010 (People's Daily, 2004; Kitchener Waterloo Record, 2005; Canadian Government in China, 2005). Therefore, the purpose of this research is to identify the intercultural leadership skills needed by Canadian agri-food leaders in order to maximize the growing opportunities for trade and business with China. To achieve this goal, two research objectives were identified as follows:

1. Determine the general set of intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours needed by leaders; and
2. Establish a specific list of leadership competencies and behaviours, which include perspectives on gender, necessary for effective intercultural agri-food ventures in the Shanghai and Beijing regions of China.

The population under study included mainly Canadian and Chinese counterparts, with some additional perspectives from agriculture leaders in the EU, who had recent experience in agri-food business ventures and development projects in Shanghai and Beijing regions of China. A modified grounded research approach was used, with the literature review informing the three data collection methods and analysis taken to the open coding stage (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Parry, 1998; Palys, 2003). Twenty-six semi-structured interviews were conducted. A case study analysis of the Canada-China Integrated Dairy Cattle Breeding Project (CCIDCBP) was done and included three key informant interviews, six semi-structured interviews and the analysis of the final report document. Two events were used for the participant observation method, which included a session at a trade mission involving over 300 individuals and an international agriculture study tour for 43 participants. Seventeen informal interviews and many more conversations took place during the participant observations. Basic gender audits were included in all of these methods to understand women's participation and representation, as well as to assess the status of gender equity in leadership positions within this area of the agri-food sector.

A general set of intercultural leadership skills was identified. This framework contains eight sections with a number of attributes in each. These intercultural leadership skill areas include: Adaptation and Innovation; Understanding Cultural Dimensions, Values and Ethics; Knowledge of Host Country and Culture; Relationship Building Skills; Self-Knowledge; Intercultural Communication; Strategic and Organization Skills and Personal and Professional Commitment.

Relationship building skills ranked at the top of the intercultural leadership skill framework in the Canada-China agri-food context. This includes skills such as being: inspirational and motivational; supportive; a mentor and coach; and team builder. Being able to develop trust and gain respect (guanxi); manage conflict and problem solve; listen effectively; possess good oral and written skills, including some local language skills; empower collective action; and negotiation skills (saving face) are also considered important in this area. Having competencies in coordinating and socialization are also key. Possessing positive moral perceptions regarding values, cognitive and emotional abilities, ethics and integrity are also critical behaviours as part of relationship building skills.

The research reveals that an under-representation of women in leadership positions exists in the Canadian-Chinese agri-food sector. This was also seen in the small snapshot of Canadian and Ontario agricultural organizations. Similarly, the participation of women in the Nuffield Study Tours, an internationally recognized leadership program, was low. These results speak to the capacity of women to participate effectively in decision making processes in the agriculture and agri-food sector.

Conclusions for Research Objective One

General Competencies and Behaviours for Intercultural Leadership

A general list of intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours needed by leaders working in international or diversity environments was created. The eight general intercultural leadership competency and behaviour areas and the specific

skills are listed below. They are not ranked, as each specific cultural context will be more appropriate to dictate particular positions or order of importance.

- **Adaptation & Innovation**: This area includes the abilities to cope, enjoy ongoing challenges, creativity, innovation, initiate change when needed, risk-taking, critical thinking, personal strength (positive attitude, function in stressful situations, work independently/self-reliant), positive moral perceptions, flexibility, and tolerance.

- **Understanding Cultural Dimensions, Values & Ethics**: Included in this area are the abilities of positive moral perceptions (values, cognitive, emotion, ethics, integrity), conceptualization, understanding the relationship of values & culture to people & societies, showing modesty and respect, sensitivity to diversity, integrity, being a follower when necessary, accountable, and humility.

- **Knowledge of Host Country & Culture**: This area includes the skills involved in environmental and situational analysis, ability to conceptualize, cognitive skills, non-judgmental, positive moral perceptions specific to the culture and country (values, cognitive, emotion, ethics, integrity), and sensitive to diversity.

- **Relationship Building Skills**: This section includes the abilities to inspire and motivate others, supportive, mentor and coach, team builder, managing conflict, listening, oral & written communication, positive moral perceptions,

problem solving, coordinating, socialization skills, local language skills, trust, negotiation skills, gain respect, and empower collective action.

- **Self-Knowledge**: This skill area involves personal strengths (high energy level, optimal level of performance, positive attitude, function in stressful situations, take constructive criticism, work independently), self-confidence, manage ambiguity, know own values & beliefs, self-regulation, and a strong sense of moral values (positive moral perceptions).

- **Intercultural Communication**: This area includes the abilities of Interpersonal communication, listening, sensitivity to diversity and positive moral perceptions, diplomatic conflict resolution, risk-taking, verbal & non-verbal communication (including some local language skills), display empathy, openness, and communicate high expectations.

- **Strategic & Organization Skills**: The skills involved in this area include visioning, decision-making, planning & organizing, coordinating, supportive, information management, multi-tasker, balance between adaptation and maintaining own cultural identity, political astuteness, and being resourceful.

- **Personal & Professional Commitment**: Included in this section are the abilities of learning, personal organization & time management, contribute to the local community, personal strengths, realistic awareness of own motivations and expectations of life abroad, analysis, technical and analytical &/or sector competence, and fulfill potential.

Implications for Leadership and International Trade and Development

With the impact of our global marketplace and community diversity, it is imperative for leadership training programs to assess their curriculum and ensure the incorporation of intercultural leadership skills. This inventory provides the foundation for leadership development programs to assess the curriculum and incorporate or update training components to include the eight general competency and behaviour areas.

In particular, the curriculum for Nuffield Canada and Nuffield Farming Scholarship Trust should use this inventory to modify the study tour programs so that more intentional intercultural leadership skill development is incorporated into the curriculum. Also, agricultural, agri-food or rural leadership development programs, such as Ontario's Advanced Agricultural Leadership Program or the George Morris Executive Development Program, should assess their training to be sure that intercultural leadership skill development is deliberately incorporated into the planning and curriculum (The Centre for Rural Leadership, 2006; George Morris Centre, 2006).

International corporations, organizations and trade programs should also use this list of competencies and behaviours as an assessment tool in their orientation and business development programs. This would ensure business leaders are more prepared for their international assignment or trade mission involvement. This framework could also be used by the leadership within the organizations and corporations wishing to enter into international or intercultural business or

development ventures. Leaders currently in overseas projects or business opportunities could use this list to assess their own intercultural leadership competency and behaviour level in order to enhance their lifelong learning processes and ensure effective overseas projects or business ventures.

Conclusions for Research Objective Two

<u>A Specific List of Leadership Competencies Necessary in the Canada-China Agri-food Context in the Beijing/Shanghai Regions of China.</u>

A specific list of leadership competencies and behaviours has been determined from this research to be necessary for effective intercultural agri-food ventures in the Shanghai and Beijing regions of China. Also, based on the gender audit, some gender perspectives are presented.

a) Intercultural Leadership Competencies and Behaviours

First and foremost, leaders will need to be competent in **relationship building skills** to be effective in Canada-China agri-food ventures, specifically in the geographic areas around Beijing and Shanghai. The abilities and behaviours are listed below and include the specific Canada-China cultural dimensions that will have an impact on these skill areas:

- Inspires, motivates others and empowers collective action
  - This will be important, as China embraces collectivism, and Canada has values embedded in its society that favour collective benefits, for example, The Charter of Rights and Freedoms;

- Supportive, mentor and coach

    o The importance of respect will play a role here, as well as positional leadership and the concept of guanxi;

- Team building

    o The values of collectivism that both societies hold will be an advantage for this skill, but building trust will also be important;

- Manage conflict, problem solve and negotiation skills

    o Understanding and applying communication abilities to ensure saving face for the Chinese, while ascertaining the reality of a situation so that an acceptable outcome is attained by both parties;

- Listening, speaking and writing skills in the local language

    o Being able to understand and speak some Mandarin, which is the language of business in China, would be an asset. As a number of Chinese in the business community have some knowledge of English, this ability to engage in some meaningful conversation is helpful in building trust and respect. In the absence of that, a trusted translator who knows the agri-food sector is very important;

- Positive moral perceptions

    o The values of honesty/integrity, modesty, trust and benefit for society/family will specifically influence this area. Understanding and awareness of the concept and practice of guanxi and its relationship to ethics will be important. From a cognitive viewpoint, sector knowledge for leaders will be equally as important as strategic thinking abilities;

- Develop trust and gain respect

  o Understanding the concept of guanxi, saving face and the importance of having sector knowledge will prove critical. Canadians and Chinese approach trust from different perspectives and so expect the development of these areas to take time; and

- Coordination and socialization

  o The concepts of guanxi and saving face will be important. Readiness and timing also play a role.

In addition to this set of relationship building skills, it is recommended that leaders working in this specific cultural context also have competencies and behaviours in the following intercultural leadership skill areas:

- **Intercultural Communication**, which includes: interpersonal communication (saving face, formality of business card presentation), listening, sensitivity to diversity and positive moral perceptions, diplomatic conflict resolution, risk-taking, oral & written communication (having some Mandarin is an asset and translation is important), display empathy, openness, and the ability to communicate high expectations;

- **Adaptation and Innovation**, which includes the abilities to: cope, enjoy ongoing challenges, creativity, innovation, initiate change when needed, risk-taking, critical thinking, personal strength (positive attitude, function in stressful situations, work independently/self-reliant), positive moral perceptions, tolerance (which also implies patience), and flexibility;

- **Understanding Cultural Dimensions, Values & Ethics**, which includes: positive moral perceptions (especially the values of honesty, integrity, trust,

respect, modesty), ability to conceptualize, relationship of values & culture to people & societies, sensitivity to diversity, can take role of follower when necessary, business ethics (guanxi), integrity, accountable, and humility; and

- **Knowledge of Host Country & Culture**, which includes: environmental and situational analysis (the intertwining of political and relationship work), ability to conceptualize, cognitive skills (both sector and visionary focus), non-judgmental, positive moral perceptions specific to China (honesty, integrity, trust, benefit for family and society, respect, modesty), and sensitive to diversity (especially for countries as large and regionally diverse as China and Canada).

The other intercultural leadership areas of self-knowledge, strategic and organizational skills, and personal and professional commitment are behaviours which should also be noted, but which may not play as prominent a role as the other areas in this specific cultural context.

b) Gender Perspectives

Canada-China agri-food organizations, projects or ventures must continue to feature gender equity initiatives. This should not only be a focus in the area of program goals and expected outcomes, but also reflected in the number of senior management positions held by women in the organization or project. Organizations should be leading by example. Targets for women's involvement in leadership should be set at 50%; for example at least 50% of the senior management positions should be filled by women. While this might not be achieved in the short term, perhaps it would increase the current levels.

Targets for women's involvement in training and/or leadership programs should also be set at 50%. In particular, leadership programs like Nuffield Canada and Nuffield programs in the UK and Australia should actively recruit women for these programs to increase the percentage of female trainees. Leadership development programs should be showing leadership in gender equity and, as the transformational leadership approach endorses, this would then raise the level of motivation in both leaders and followers to make changes in gender balance in other spheres of the agri-food sector.

Implications for Leadership and International Trade and Development Between Canada and China

Canadian agri-food leaders involved in development projects or business ventures between Canada and China should be competent at a number of relationship building skills. This includes the ability to inspire and motivate others. Be able to be supportive and act as a mentor and coach to others in the initiative. Build effective teams and empower collective action by developing trust and gaining respect. Understand the concepts and practices of guanxi, saving face and other values such as modesty, honesty, integrity and ethics both in the culture and as part of the individual's self-knowledge. Possess good listening, speaking (including some Mandarin) and writing skills. With an understanding of the concept of saving face, be able to manage conflict, problem solve and negotiate effectively. Having competencies in coordination and socialization will be valuable. Having good intercultural communication skills and access to good translation skills, adaptation and innovation skills, and understanding cultural dimensions values, ethics and knowledge of China and Chinese culture will also be an asset. Some strategic and

organizational skill, as well as personal and professional commitment will also be required. This set of skills will help to ensure effective Canada-China ventures, especially in the Beijing and Shanghai areas of China.

Organizations involved in training leaders and others working or doing business in the Canada-China environment should focus their curriculum on the skills involved in relationship building. There should also be a balance of sector specific knowledge and technical information with intercultural leadership skills development.

The Canadian government and/or other institutions involved in international trade and development with China should make sure their leaders, staff, development personnel and entrepreneurs are equipped with a top notch set of relationship building skills. Their activities and events should also be designed to maximize the development of relationships. Achieving gender equity, especially in leadership positions, should continue to be the goal.

These skills outlined will become especially valuable if Canada's development and trade relationships with China double, as anticipated, by the year 2010 (People's Daily, 2004; Kitchener Waterloo Record, 2005). In the struggle to transform the farmers' role in the food chain, it will be even more critical for the Canadian agri-food industry to understand and navigate this Canada-China environment. Taking leadership in this milieu will be vital to the development of new, diversified markets and alliances interculturally in Canada and across continents (Canadian Farm

Business Management Council, 2006; Bonnett, 2004; Agricultural Odyssey

Group, 2002).

Recommendations For Future Research

With the emphasis today on the global marketplace and community diversity, this

study provides a solid foundation in intercultural leadership theory and practice,

and opens the door for additional research opportunities. Because of the small

sample size of this study, the possibilities for further research to achieve more

statistical significance and therefore greater reliability and validity include:

- Taking this data through the axial and selective coding procedures of the

  grounded theory method;

- Continued testing of the general intercultural leadership skills framework to

  provide more clarification between and within skill areas and its applicability

  cross-culturally; and

- Replication and/or expansion of this intercultural leadership research to more

  regional and larger Canada-China agri-food populations or other sectors.

From a gender perspective, more research is needed on the capacity and

opportunity for women to participate effectively in decision making positions and

leadership development in the agriculture and agri-food sector both in Canada and

China. Regular monitoring of the status of gender equity in Canada-China

development projects and ventures should be done to identify any changes over

time.

REFERENCES

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (1973). In Bosley Woolf H. (Ed.). Springfield, Mass.: C. & C. Merrian Company.

Agricultural Odyssey Group. (2002). *The Odyssey Report*. Guelph: The Agricultural Odyssey Group.

Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic Leadership Development: Getting to the Root of Positive Forms of Leadership. *Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 315-338.

Ayman, R., & Chemers, M. M. (1983). The Relationship of Supervisory Behavior Ratings to Work Group Effectiveness and Subordinate Satisfaction Among Iranian Managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68*, 338-341.

Babbie, E. (1998). *The Practice of Social Research* (8th ed.). Toronto: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Bass, B. M. (1995). Theory of Transformational Leadership Redux. *Leadership Quarterly, 6*(4), 463-478.

Bass, B. M. (1990). Leadership in Different Countries and Cultures. *Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research & Managerial Applications* (3rd ed.) (pp. 760-803). London: Collier Macmillan Publishers.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990c). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research & Managerial Applications* (3rd ed.). London: Collier Macmillan Publishers.

Bass, G. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational Leadership: A Response to Critiques. In M. M. Chemers, & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions* (pp. 49-80). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Bauer, T. N., & Green, S. G. (1996). The Development of Leader-Member Exchange: A longitudinal Test. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*, 1538-1567.

Bennis, W. G., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge*. New York: Harper & Row.

Bennis, W., Spreitzer, G. M., & Cummings, T. G. (Eds.). (2001). *The Future of Leadership: Today's Top Leadership Thinkers Speak to Tomorrow's Leaders*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Berling, J. A. (1996). Confucianism. *Focus on Asian Studies, II* (1), July 27, 2004. Retrieved July 27, 2004.

Best, J., & Kahn, J. (1989). *Research in Education* (6th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Blondin-Andrew, E. (2003). New Ways of Looking for Leadership. In J. P. Boyer (Ed.), *Leading In An Upside-Down World: New Canadian Perspectives on Leadership* (pp. 61-70). Toronto: Dundurn Press.

Bond, M., H., & Smith, P., B. (1996). Cross-cultural Social and Organizational Psychology. *Annual Review of Psychology, 47*, 205-35.

Bonnett, R. (2004). It's Time For Canada's Beef Industry To Get Out In The World. *Canadian Farm Manager,* (Aug/Sept) 8.

Boyer, J. P. (Ed.). (2003). *Leading In An Upside-Down World: New Canadian Perspectives on Leadership*. Toronto: The Dundurn Group.

Bragg, J., & Andrews, I. R. (1973). Participative Decision-Making: An Experimental Study in a Hospital. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 9*, 727-735.

Buckingham, S., Deng, S. L., Eaton, K., Henderson, L., & Kirilenko, K. (2001). Cultural Implications of Doing Business in China. *Far Horizons Conference: The Role of Technology,* 210-223.

Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.

Calder, B. J. (1977). An Attribution Theory of Leadership. In B. M. Staw, & G. R. Salancik (Eds.), *New Directions in Organizational Behavior*. Chicago: St. Clair Press.

Canadian Farm Business Management Council. (2006, The Struggle to Transform Farmers' role in the Food Chain. *Canadian Farm Manager,* (August/Sept) 1-6.

Canadian Government in China. (2005). *China Perspectives.* Retrieved October 27, 2005 from http://www.dfait-maeci.gc.ca/asia/china/factsheet-en.asp

Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). (2005). *China: Facts at a Glance.* Retrieved August 20, 2005 from http://www.acdi-cida.gc.ca/CIDAWEB/webcountry.nsf/VLUDocEn/China-Overview

Canadian Press. (2005, September 10). Canada, China Make A Deal. *Kitchener Waterloo Record.*

Cawthon, D. L. (1996). Leadership: The Great Man Theory Revisited. *Business Horizons,* (May-June), 1-4.

Chai, W. (2003). The Ideological Paradigm Shifts of China's World Views: From Marxism-Leninism-Maoism to the Pragmatism-Multilateralism of Deng-Jiang-Hu Era. *Asian Affairs, an American Review, 30*(3), 163-175.

Chaleff, I. (2003). *The Courageous Follower: Standing Up To & For Our Leaders* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Berret-Koehler Publishers Inc.

Chemers, M. M. (2000). Leadership Research and Theory: A Functional Integration. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 4*(1), 27-43.

China Daily. (2004). *China's Food Industry to Grow 20%.* Retrieved November 19, 2004 from http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/english/doc/2004-09/19/content_375723.htm

Christie, R., & Geis, F. L. (1970). *Studies in Machiavellianism*. New York: Academic Press.

Coates, A. (2003), Few People Know Much About China. *Kitchener Waterloo Record,* pp. F1-F3.

Coates, J. (1984). *Personality and Situational Variables as Determinants of the Distribution of Power in a Company Organization.* Unpublished Doctoral, University of Toronto.

Coe, D., Subramanian, A., Tamirisa, N., & Bhavnani, R. (2002). *The Missing Globalization Puzzle* (IMF Working Paper No. WP/02/171). Washington, D.C.: International Monetary Fund.

Conger, J. (1989). Leadership: The Art of Empowering Others. *Academy of Management Executive, 3*(1), 17-24.

Conger, J. A. (1999). Charismatic and Transformational Leadership in Organizations: An Insider's Perspective on these Developing Streams of Research. *Leadership Quarterly, 10*(2), 145-179.

Covey, S. R. (1992). *Principle-Centered Leadership*. New York: Fireside.

Daft, R. L. (2005). *The Leadership Experience* (3rd ed.). Canada: Thompson South-Western.

Dahles, H., & Wels, H. (Eds.). (2002). *Culture, Organization and Management in East Asia: Doing Business in China*. New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Dansereau, F. (1995). A Dyadic Approach to Leadership: Creating and Nurturing This Approach Under Fire. *Leadership Quarterly, 6*(4), 479-490.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. (Eds.). (2000). *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd ed.). California: Sage Publication Inc.

Dodd, C. H. (1998). *Dynamics of Intercultural Communication* (5th ed.). Boston: McGraw Hill.

Dorfman, P. W., Howell, J. P., Hibino, S., Lee, J. K., Tate, U., & Bautista, A. (1997). Leadership in Western and Asian Countries: Commonalities and Differences in Effective Leadership Processes Across Cultures. *Leadership Quarterly, 8*, 233-274.

Dwivedi, O. P. (2003). New Leadership in a Global Village. In J. P. Boyer (Ed.), *Leading In An Upside-Down World: New Canadian Perspectives on Leadership* (pp. 189-195). Toronto: Dundurn Press.

Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B. T. (1990). Gender and Leadership Style: A Meta-Analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 108*, 233-256.

Etzioni, A. (1964). *Modern Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Evans, M. G. (1970). The Effects of Supervisory Behavior on the Path-Goal Relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 5*, 277-298.

Evers, F., Power, B., & Mitchell, J. (2003). *Preparing for the Future: Identifying Advanced Essential Skills Needs in Canada* Canadian Alliance of Education and Training Organizations.

Evers, F. T., Rush, J. C., & Berdrow, I. (1998). *The Bases of Competence: Skills for Lifelong Learning and Employability*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Fiedler, F. E. (1967). *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Fleishmann, E. A., & Harris, E. R. (1962). Patterns of Leadership Behavior Related to Employee Grievances and Turnover. *Personnel Psychology, 15*, 43-54.

Flora, J., Flora, C., Bastian, S., & Manion, E. (2003). *Leadership and Community Capacity Building: An Inventory and Analysis of Curricula and Tools* Community-based Capacity Building. Iowa: North Central Regional Center for Rural Development.

French, R. P. Jr., & Raven, B. (1959). The Basis of Social Power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in Social Power*. Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research.

Galton, F. (1869). *Hereditary Genius*. New York: Appleton.

George Morris Centre. (2004). *Executive Development Program.* Retrieved August 31, 2006 from http://www.georgemorris.org/GMC/Education.aspx#

George, W. (2003). *Authentic Leadership: Rediscovering the Secrets to Creating Lasting Value*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1994). Cross-Cultural Comparisons of Leadership Prototypes. *Leadership Quarterly, 2*, 121-134.

Gillham, B. (2000). *The Research Interview*. London: Wellington House.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*. Chicago: Aldine.

Glauser, F. (2002). *Leadership and Community Development: A Grounded Theory Model of Symbolic Interactions in Nizhnetavdinski Raion, Russia.* Unpublished Masters, University of Guelph.

Gordon, C. (1994, In Search of Canadian Values. *MacLean's, 107*(43) 11.

Government of Canada. (2005). *Commission of Inquiry into the Sponsorship Program and Advertising Activities.* Retrieved July 12, 2006 from www.gomery.ca

Government of Canada Digital Collections. *Norman Bethune - 1890-1939.* Retrieved November 7, 2006 from http://collections.ic.gc.ca/heirloom_series/volume4/58-63.htm

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-Based Approach to Leadership: Development of Leader Member Exchange (LMX)Theory of Leadership Over 25 Years: Applying a Multi-Level Multi-Doman Approach. *Leadership Quarterly, 6*(2), 219-247.

Green, D. R. (1999). Leadership as a Function of Power. *Association of Proposal Management Professionals, Fall*, 54-56.

Greenleaf, R. K. (1977). *Servant Leadership: A Journey Into the Nature of Legitimate Power and Greatness*. New York: Paulist.

Halpin, A. W., & Winer, B. J. (1957). A Factorial Study of the Leader Behavior Descriptions. In R. M. Stogdill, & A. E. Coons (Eds.), *Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement*. Columbus, OH: Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research.

Hambly Odame, H. (2002). Men in Women's Groups: A Gender and Agency Analysis of Local Institutions. In F. Cleaver (Ed.), *Masculinities Matter! Men, Gender and Development* (pp. 138-163). Zed Press.

Harris, H., & Kumra, S. (2000). International Manager Development: Cross-cultural Training in Highly Diverse Environments. *The Journal of Management Development, 19*(7). Retrieved October 20, 2003.

Heifetz, R. A. (1994). *Leadership Without Easy Answers*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Hemphill, J. K., & Coons, A. E. (1957). Development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. In R. M. Stogdill, & A. E. Coons (Eds.), *Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement*. Columbus, OH: Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1993). *Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources* (6th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hershkovitz, L., & McNeill, L. (2001). *China Country Gender Equality Profile*. Ottawa: CIDA.

Hinkin, T. R., & Schriesheim, C. A. (1990). Relationships Between Subordinate Perceptions of Supervisor Influence Tactics and Attributed Bases of Supervisory Power. *Human Relations, 43*, 221-237.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*. California: Sage Publications.

Hollander, E. P. (1978). *Leadership Dynamics: A Practical Guide to Effective Leadership*. New York: The Free Press.

House, R. J. (1976). A 1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership. In J. G. Hunt, & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership: The Cutting Edge* (pp. 189-207). Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

House, R. J., & Mitchell, T. R. (1974). Path-Goal Theory of Leadership. *Contemporary Business, 3*, 81-98.

House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, Leadership & Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Hu, J. (2002). *Peoples Republic of China, Market Development Reports, Chinese Business Etiquette* (No. CH2828). Foreign Agricultural Service/USDA.

Hughes, K. (2000). *Women and Corporate Directorships in Canada: Trends and Issues*. Ottawa: Canadian Policy Research Networks. July 20, 2006.

Hui, C., & Graen, G. (1997). Guanxi and Professional Leadership in Contemporary Sino-American Joint Ventures in Mainland China. *Leadership Quarterly, 8*(4), 451-465.

Hume, L., & Mulcock, J. (c2004). *Anthropologists in the Field: Cases in Participant Observation*. New York: Columbia University Press.

International Trade Canada. (2005). *Canada Trade Mission to Shanghai, Beijing, Hong Kong.* Retrieved May 22, 2006 from www.tcm-mec.gc.ca/china2005/menu-en.asp

Jenkins, W. O. (1947). A Review of Leadership Studies with Particular Reference to Military Problems. *Psychological Bulletin, 44*, 54-79.

Kahn, R. L. (1951). An Analysis of Supervisory Practices and Components of Morale. In H. Guetzkow (Ed.), *Groups, Leadership, and Men*. Pittsburgh, PA: Carnegie Press.

Kapoor, A., & Ansari, M. A. (1988). Influence Tactics as a Function of Personal and Organizational Characteristics. *Management and Labour Studies, 13*, 229-239.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1966, 1978). *The Social Psychology of Organizations*. New York: Wiley.

Kealey, D. J. (1990). *Cross-Cultural Effectiveness: A Study of Canadian Technical Advisors Overseas*. Hull, Quebec: CIDA Publications.

Kerr, S., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitutes for Leadership: Their Meaning and Measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 22*, 375-403.

Kinlaw, D. C. (1998). *Superior Teams: What They Are and How to Develop Them.* Hampshire, UK: Grove.

Kipnis, D., Schmidt, S. M., & Wilkinson, I. (1980). Intraorganizational Influence Tactics: Explorations in Getting One's Way. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 65*, 440-452.

Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1991). Leadership: Do Traits Matter? *The Academy of Management Executive, 5*(2), 48-60.

Korabik, K., & Miller, D. (2003). Leadership Success in the Context of Diversity. In J. P. Boyer (Ed.), *Leading In An Upside-Down World: New Canadian Perspectives on Leadership* (pp. 83-88). Toronto: Dundurn Press.

Korman, A. K. (1966). Consideration, Initiating Structure and Organizational Criteria. *Personnel Psychology, 18*, 349-360.

Korten, D. C. (1980). Community Organization and Rural Development: A Learning Process Approach. *Public Administration Review, September/October*, 480-511.

Kotter, J. P. (1992). What Leaders Really Do. In M. Syrett, & C. Hogg (Eds.), *Frontiers of Leadership: An Essential Reader* (pp. 16-24). Cambridge: Blackwell.

Kotter, J. P. (1985). *Power and Influence: Beyond Formal Authority*. New York: Free Press.

Krug, L. K. (2000). Canadian Rural Women Reconstructing Agriculture. In K. Mustafa (Ed.), *For hunger proof Cities: Sustainable Urban Food Systems*. http://web.idrc.ca/en/ev-30620-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html: IDRC.

LaFasto, F. M. J., & Larson, C. E. (2001). *When Teams Work Best: 6000 Team Members and Leaders Tell What it Takes to Succeed*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Likert, R. (1961). *New Patterns of Management*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Loftland, J. (1971). *Analyzing Social Settings: A Guide to Qualitative Observation and Analysis*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. (1991). *Leadership and Information Processing: Linking Perceptions and Performance*. Boston: Unwin Hyman.

Machiavelli, N. (1513, 1962). *The Prince*. New York: Mentor Press.

Marsick, V. J. (1990). Case Study. In M. W. Galbraith (Ed.), *Adult Learning Methods: A Guide for Effective Instruction* (pp. 225-246). Malabar, Fla: R. E. Kriegar.

McMichael, P. (2004). *Development and Social Change* (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Mintzberg, H. (1983). *Power In and Around Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Misumi, J., & Peterson, M. F. (1985). The Performance-Maintenance Theory of leadership: Review of a Japanese Research Program. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 30*, 198-223.

Mitchell, T. R., Larson, J. R., & Green, S. G. (1980). Leader Behavior and Situational Moderators in Group Performance: An Attributional Analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 25*, 123-138.

Mumford, M. D., Zaccaro, S. J., Connelly, M. S., & Marks, M. A. (2000). Leadership Skills: Conclusions and Future Directions. *Leadership Quarterly, 11*, 155-170.

Nevitte, N., & Merelman, R. M. (1999). The Decline of Deference: Canadian Value Change in Cross-national Perspective. *The American Review of Canadian Studies, 29*(3), 531. Retrieved March 25, 2004.

Nicolaou-Smokoviti, L. (2004). Business Leaders' Work Environment and Leadership Styles. *Current Sociology, 52*(3), 407-427.

Nieman, L. (1993). *Participation By Canadian Farm Women in Agricultural Organizations.* Unpublished MSc, University of Guelph.

Northouse, P. G. (2004). *Leadership: Theory and Practice* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Nuffield Canada Farming Scholarship. *Nuffield Canada.* Retrieved May 10, 2006 from www.nuffield.ca

Nuffield Farming Scholarships Trust. (2003). *History of the Trust.* Retrieved May 10, 2006 from www.nuffieldscholar.org

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2006). *Building Partners For Progress.* Retrieved March 10, 2006 from http://www.oecd.org/home/0,2987,en_2649_201185_1_1_1_1_1,00.html

Palys, T. (2003). *Research Decisions: Quantitative and Qualitative Perspectives* (3rd ed.). Toronto: Nelson Thomson Learning.

Parliament of Canada Information Service. (2006). *Members of Parliament (Current).* Retrieved July 20, 2006 from http://webinfo.parl.gc.ca/MembersOfParliament/

Parry, K. W. (1998). Grounded Theory and Social Process: A New Direction For Leadership Research. *Leadership Quarterly, 9*(1), 85-105.

People's Daily. (2004). *Canada, China Vow to Double Trade Volume by 2010.* Retrieved April 27, 2004 from http://english.peopledaily.com.cn/200310/22/eng20031022_126638.shtml

Pigg, K. (1999). Community Leadership and Community Theory: A Practical Synthesis. *Journal of the Community Development Society, 30*, 196-212.

Podsakoff, P. M., Dorfman, P. W., Howell, J. P., & Todor, W. D. (1986). Leader Reward and Punishment Behaviors: A Preliminary Test of a Culture-Free Style of Leadership Effectiveness. In R. N. Farmer (Ed.), *Advances in International Comparative Management* (pp. 95-138). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Porter, G., & Beyerlein, M. (2000). Historic Roots of Team Theory and Practice. In M. M. Beyerlein (Ed.), *Work Teams: Past, Present and Future* (pp. 3-24). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer.

Price, T. L. (2003). The Ethics of Authentic Transformational Leadership. *Leadership Quarterly, 14*, 67-81.

Ramirez, R. (1988). *The Application of Adult Education Principles to Community Development: Implications for Non-Governmental Organizations.* Unpublished Master of Adult Education, St. Francis Xavier University.

Raymon, R. (1999). *Beyond Borders: Canadian Business Women in International Trade*. Ottawa: Government of Canada.

Riegel, J. (2002). *Confucius.* Retrieved January 19, 2006 from http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/confucius/

Roland-Holst, D., Tarp, F., Huong, P. L., & Thanh, V. T. (2003). *Dragon by the Tail, Dragon by the Head, Bilateralism and Globalism in East Asia*. Retrieved November 20, 2003.

Roppel, C., Desmarais, A., & Martz, D. (2006). *Farm Women and Canadian Agricultural Policy*. Ottawa: Status of Women Canada.

Rost, J. (1993). *Leadership for the Twenty-First Century*. Westport, CT: Praeger.

Schriesheim, C. A., Castro, S., & Cogliser, C. C. (1999). Leader-Member Exchange Research: A Comprehensive Review of Theory, Measurement and Data-Analytic Procedures. *Leadership Quarterly, 10*, 63-113.

Senge, P. M. (1990). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*. New York: Doubleday.

Shenkar, O., & Ronen, S. (1987). Structure and Importance of Work Goals Among Manager in the People's Republic of China. *Academy of Management Journal, 30*(3), 564-579.

Siu, W. (2001). Small Firm Marketing in China: A Comparative Study. *Small Business Economics, 16*, 279-292.

Smillie, I., & Hailey, J. (2001). *Managing for Change: Leadership, Strategy and Management in Asian NGO's*. London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.

Smith, H. L., & Krueger, L. M. (1933). A Brief Summary of Literature on Leadership. *School of Education Bulletin, Indiana: Indiana University.*

Spatafora, N., Yang, Y., & Feyzioglu, T. (2004). *China's Emergence and its Impact on the Global Economy* (April 2004 ed.). IMF, World Economic Outlook.

Spears, L. C., Lawrence, M., & Blanchard, K. (2001). *Focus on Leadership: Servant Leadership for the 21 Century* (3rd ed.). New York: Wiley.

Spears, L., C. (1998). *Insights on Leadership: Service, Stewardship, Spirit and Servant Leadership*. New York: Wiley.

Status of Women Canada. (2004). *Youth Fact Sheet for Women's History Month.* Retrieved August 26, 2006 from www.swc-cfc.gc.ca

Status of Women Canada. (2003). *Setting the Stage for the Next Century: The Federal Plan for Gender Equity.* Retrieved May 30, 2005 from http://www.swc-cfc.gc.ca/pubs/066261951X/199508_066261951X_3_e.html

Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal Factors Associated With Leadership: A Survey of the Literature. *Journal of Psychology, 25*, 35-71.

Stuttard, J. B. (2000). *The New Silk Road: Secrets of Business Success in China Today*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Szalay, L. B., Strohl, J. B., Fu, L., & Lao, P. (1994). *American and Chinese Perceptions and Belief Systems: A People's Republic of China-Taiwanese Comparison*. New York: Plenum Press.

Tabak, F., Solomon, J. S., & Nielsen, C. (1998). Managerial Success: A Profile of Future Managers in China. *S. A. M. Advanced Management Journal, 63*(4), 18-26.

The Canadian Press, & CBC Business News. (2005). *Little Relief In Sight for Canadian Exporters: Export Development Canada.* Retrieved November 2, 2005 from http/www.cbc.ca/cp/business/051102/b1102102.html

The Centre for Rural Leadership. (2006). *Advanced Agricultural Leadership Program.* Retrieved August 31, 2006 from http://www.aalp.on.ca/

The International Business Center. (2004). *Dr. Geert Hofstede Cultural Dimensions.* Retrieved March 28, 2004 from http://geert-hofstede.international-business-center.com/index.shtml

The Semex Alliance. (2004). *Canada-China Integrated Dairy Cattle Breeding Project* (Final No. CIDA AM-A-014990). Guelph, ON: The Semex Alliance.

The Semex Alliance. *Semex.* Retrieved May 4, 2006 from http://www.semex.com.cerberus.lib.uoguelph.ca

Thompson-Nelson. Retrieved May 28, 2005 from http://www.cultural2e.nelson.com.cerberus.lib.uoguelph.ca/chapter.html

Tian, J. J., & Lau, C. (2001). Board Composition, Leadership Structure and Performance in Chinese Shareholding Companies. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 18*(2), 245-263.

Tichy, N. M., & DeVanna, M. A. (1990). *The Transformational Leader* (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley.

Triandis, H. C. (1990). *Cross-cultural Studies of Individualism and Collectivism*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

U.S. Central Intelligence Agency. (2005). *China: Perry-Castaneda Library Collection.* Retrieved March 1, 2006 from http://www.lib.utexas.edu.cerberus.lib.uoguelph.ca/maps/cia05/china_sm05.gif

Vroom, V. H., & Jago, A. G. (1988). *The New Leadership: Managing Participation in Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Vroom, V. H., & Yetton, P. W. (1973). *Leadership and Decision Making*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Vulpe, T., Kealey, D., Protheroe, D., & MacDonald, D. (2001). *A Profile of the Interculturally Effective Person* (2nd ed.). Ottawa: Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade.

Wheatley, M. J. (1999). *Leadership and the New Science: Discovering Order in a Chaotic World* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Wikipedia. (2006). *Globalization.* Retrieved July 7, 2006 from http://en.wikipedia.org.cerberus.lib.uoguelph.ca/wiki

Wong, C., Hui, C., Wong, Y., & Law, K. S. (2001). The Significant Role of Chinese Employees' Organizational Commitment: Implications for Managing Employees in Chinese Societies. *Journal of World Business, 36*(3), 326-340.

Woods, R. A. (1913). *The Influence of Monarchs*. New York: Macmillan.

Wu, B., & Pretty, J. (2004). Social Connectedness in Marginal Rural China: The Case of Farmer Innovation Circles in Zhidan, North Shaanxi. *Agriculture and Human Values, 21*, 81-92.

Yammarino, F. J. (1990). Individual and Group Directed Leader Behavior Descriptions. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 50*, 739-759.

Yammarino, F. J., & Dansereau, F. (2002). Individualized Leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 9*(1), 90-99.

Yau, O. H. M. (1988). Chinese Cultural Values: Their Dimensions and Marketing Implications. *European Journal of Marketing, 22*(5), 44-57.

Yin, R. K. (c2003). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.

Yukl, G., Kim, H., & Falbe, C. M. (1996). Antecedents of Influence Outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*, 309-317.

Yukl, G., & Tracey, B. (1992). Consequences of Influence Tactics Used with Subordinates, Peers, and the Boss. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*, 525-535.

Yukl, G. A. (1981, 2002). *Leadership in Organizations*. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G., & Lepsinger, R. (2004). *Flexible Leadership: Creating Value by Balancing Multiple Challenges and Choices*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Zaccaro, S. J., Rittman, A. L., & Marks, M. A. (2001). Team Leadership. *Leadership Quarterly, 12*, 451-483.

Zakaria, F. (2005, May 9). Special Report: Is China the World's Next Superpower? *Newsweek, CXLV*(19) 28-47.

Zaleznik, A. (1992). Managers and Leaders: Are They Different? *Harvard Business Review, March-April*, 126-135.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Semi-Structured Interview Questions

1. What do you think are the important practices/routines/skills/behaviours needed to manage oneself when dealing with the uncertainty and the ever-changing environment in your project/business?

2. In your opinion, how significant is communication and the ability to interact effectively with individuals and groups in your project/business?

3. What specific skills or behaviours do you see as necessary for you and your senior management/decision-makers/leaders to have when managing people & tasks?

4. For your senior management/decision-makers/leaders in the project/business, how important is the ability to initiate and adapt to situations of change?

5. The ability to conceptualize current, relevant information from a number of sources to improve the future of a project/business is considered by some to be a significant skill for senior management/decision-makers/leaders. What is your opinion about this?

6. What role do values play in leadership/decision-making abilities of the senior staff in your project/business?

7. Tell me about who are involved in the senior management team in your project/business?

8. Do you feel this ratio of men to women is appropriate for the project/business? Why or Why not?

9. Are there any other important skills or abilities needed by your senior people to be successful in this project/business?

10. Of all of the skills that we have talked about today, which do you feel is the most important leadership skill in the Canada-China development/trade environment?

Appendix B: Case Study Key Informant and Participant Interview Questions

A) <u>Key Historical Informant Interview Questions</u>:

1. Can you identify four or five critical times or incidents of great change during the Semex Canada-China Integrated Dairy Cattle Breeding Project?

2. Looking at these critical change incidents that you have outlined, which ones would have had direct effects on the Shanghai Bright Dairy & Food Company?

B) <u>Semi-Structured Participant Interview Questions</u>:

1. What do you think were the important practices/routines/skills/behaviours needed to manage oneself during that time of change in the project?

2. Describe the amount and types of communication that took place between senior management and others involved in the project, during that period of change.

3. During that critical period, what specific skills or behaviours were important for your senior management/decision-makers/leaders to have when managing people & tasks?

4. What types of activities, and actions did you and other senior management engage in to adapt to this situation of change?

5. The ability to conceptualize current, relevant information from a number of sources to improve the future of a project is considered by some to be a significant skill for senior management/decision-makers/leaders. What is your opinion about this in relation to this critical part in the project?

6. What role did values play in leadership/decision-making abilities of the senior staff in your project during that time of change?

7. Tell me about who were involved in the senior management team in the project at that time.

8. Do you feel this ratio of men to women was appropriate for the project? Why or Why not?

9. Were there any other important skills or abilities needed by your senior people to be successful during this critical time of change in this project?

Appendix C: Case Study Protocol

The case study chosen for this research, the Canada-China Integrated Dairy Cattle Breeding Project (CCIDCBP), was a bilateral project between the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Trade and Economic Co-operation, now referred to as the Ministry of Commerce, which began in May 1993 and concluded in June 2004. Its goal was to strengthen the genetic and managerial base for increasing the quantity, quality and efficiency of milk production in China (The Semex Alliance, 2004).

Initiated by the People's Republic of China, because the per capita consumption of dairy products in China had traditionally been very low in comparison to most other countries, the aim through this project was to start the process of change and capacity development. The result of this change process would be the overall outcome of the project, which was to have sustainable milk production systems in place, where change and improvements were measurable in terms of both product volume and increased revenue. In doing so, better quality dairy products would be available at affordable prices through increased productivity and this, coupled with training, would stimulate demand.

The project was implemented by the Ministry of Agriculture in China with The Semex Alliance of Guelph, Ontario, as the Canadian Executing Agency. CIDA's contribution to the project was $17.7 million. Its purpose was to establish four Centres of Dairy Technology to extend efficient and environmentally sustainable systems for quality milk production through modern dairy cattle improvement programs. Using the activity areas of Genetic and Management Improvement Programs, Training/Outreach Programs, and National Dairy Improvement, dairy technology centres were established in Beijing, Hangzhou, Shanghai and Xi'an. In addition, a series of protocols and operational systems were initiated to establish the development of National Dairy Improvement Programs (The Semex Alliance, 2004).

The field procedures and data collection included a sample frame consisting of nine separate interviews. Three key informant interviews were used to identify the

change incident, followed by six semi-structured interviews which involved inside and outside project leaders reflecting both Chinese and Canadian perspectives on the overall project and the sub-study. Validity and reliability were addressed by the use of several case study tactics, as suggested by Yin (2003). These are outlined as follows:

- Validity - Use of multiple sources of evidence in data collection phase; Have key informants review draft case study report in composition phase; Use of theory in sing-case studies in research design phase
- Reliability – Use of this case study protocol in data collection phase, which includes an overview of the case, field procedures, questions, and guide for report.

Case study questions used for both the key historical informant interviews and the project leader interviews can be found in Appendix B. The project leader interview questions are replicas of the semi-structured interviews used earlier in this research. The interview process took approximately one hour for each respondent and was conducted face-to-face, with the aid of an interpreter when necessary. The questionnaire and human subject protocol were available in both English and Mandarin. For the review of the final report, a number of themes were allowed to openly emerge, through which the areas of intercultural leadership, as indicated in the conceptual framework of this research and identified in the literature by Evers *et al.* (1998 & 2003), Bass (1990), Avolio & Gardner (2005), Vulpe *et al.* (2001), Dahles & Wels (2002), and Harris & Kumra (2000) surfaced. This is further documented in the data coding and analysis for the Final Report Document found in Appendix J, K and L. Based on Yin's work (2003), a guide and structure for the presentation of the case study findings was also developed as part of this protocol and was used in Chapter Four of this report.

Appendix D: Participant Observation Framework

Areas of Observation	Observation Questions
1. Participant Demographics	▪ What is the gender mix and age? ▪ Describe who is present, their position and sector.
2. Environment/Setting	▪ What is the setting? ▪ How do participants utilize the setting? ▪ To whom is the setting open and closed? ▪ What are the objectives of the event/activity? ▪ What are the feelings of comfort level? ▪ Are there relationships that develop and how?
3. Actions & Non-Verbal Communication	▪ What are people doing? ▪ What are the ways groups and individuals are behaving? i.e.) Who is talking to whom? How is information shared? ▪ What are the informal social norms taking place i.e., non-verbal communication cues, body language, eye contact? ▪ Are any apparent intercultural leadership skills in action?
4. Verbal Communication	▪ What are people saying a) in general b) about intercultural leadership skills (including values, attitudes and beliefs) with China and/or Canada-China intercultural leadership competencies and behaviours? ▪ What are their expectations? ▪ What was their preparation ahead of time and what will they do after this event with the information on China?
5. Other Areas	▪ Any hunches, "Ah's" or BFO's (Blinding Flashes of the Obvious)? ▪ Any personal observations and/or critique of the researcher?

Appendix E: Detailed Participant Observations of Half-Day at Canadian Trade Mission

a) Background

This Canadian Trade Mission to China took place in mid-January, 2005. Close to 375 Canadian delegates from 279 companies and various government departments and agencies attended. Canadian delegates paid a fee of approximately $4,000 for the mission, which went to the cities of Guangzhou, Shanghai, Beijing and Hong Kong. The overall goal was to further develop commercial ties in China and establish new ones with Chinese partners, as well as to sign agreements between Canadian and Chinese companies. One hundred and one memoranda of understanding, contracts, letters of intent, joint ventures, and/or agreements were signed during the mission, with 80% of these being signed in Beijing. These ranged across a variety of sectors including agriculture, education, electronics, information technology, science and technology, finance and health (International Trade Canada, 2005).

The agri-food sector seminar was described as a mechanism facilitated by Canadian government to highlight Canadian agri-food businesses, the types, quality and safety of products and other capabilities, to the China audience in hopes of generating business opportunities. It focused on seafood, in which the Canadian government officials actively recruited companies to participate, although other sectors were present. The session agenda included an overview of the Canadian agriculture industry with a focus on seafood, five minute presentations by Canadian companies, a cooking demonstration by a Canadian chef, and the opportunity to sign up for a networking and business card exchange later in the afternoon. Expectations from Canadian government staff indicate that while some companies attending were at the preliminary fact finding stage, those who were past that would get four or five leads as a result of this session. Most of the Chinese who attended were food and beverage managers and/or buyers involved in the reprocessing of products. Following the sector seminars, a stand-up networking luncheon was planned. This format gave delegates the opportunity to move about and meet prospective partners. It also was to serve as a backdrop to displays of Canadian products, services and culture, with projected images of

Canada, static displays of art and interactive terminals dispersed around the room. This approach was described by one of the Embassy staff as a "sell-fest", but slightly different from previous sessions as there was a focus on specific sectors within agriculture.

b) Participant Demographics

It was observed that the overall audience was predominately male, of Chinese origin, young to mid-career professionals and dressed in Western business attire. While exact numbers are not available, the agri-food session had an estimated 100 to 150 in attendance. The day prior to the event, an embassy staff member indicated that 97 agri-food companies, which included 14 seafood and 48 other agri-food related businesses, had confirmed attendance. At the networking luncheon, which was attended by all Canadian delegates and Chinese participants from the various sectors at the trade mission, well over 400 individuals were present.

Among those presenting during both the agri-food session and the networking luncheon, the majority were male, with only a few appearing to be of Chinese or oriental origin. All were senior officials/leaders in their companies or the Canadian government. Also interesting to note was the absence of any women on stage at the formal presentation during the networking luncheon.

c) Environment/Setting

This event took place at an upscale Western style hotel in the heart of Beijing, relatively close to Tiananmen Square and the Forbidden City. It was a closed event, organized by the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade Canada, involving Canadian staff both in Canada and at the Canadian Embassy in Beijing. Various seminars were taking place on several levels of the hotel conference area and these were focused on different sectors such as finance, information technology, medical technology, agri-food, etc. Signage was well displayed and in English and the event overall seemed to be highly organized. It was a typical Western conference setting, with seminars taking place at different times and a large number of people milling around on the seminar levels

networking in small groups or one-on-one, and/or searching for a seminar of interest.

The agri-food session, with its focus on the seafood sector, took place in a long narrow, rectangular-shaped room set up in theatre style for about 180 to 200 people. Simultaneous translation was available in Mandarin, French and English. Participants entered the seminar from the back of the room, after picking up their registration kit from a table outside the room. A fairly elaborate seafood display, featuring fresh fish and various product samples including Canola Harvest oil products, was set up by the entrance. Chinese media were present. The room was at about 80% capacity, with people sitting dispersed throughout.

The stand up networking luncheon accommodated well over 400 participants. The room was full, but not overly crowded and set up with four long buffet tables where attendees lined both sides. The menu was a combination of Chinese and Canadian food. Various trade mission sponsor signs were displayed around the walls of the room. A short presentation lead by senior Canadian government officials took place about 45 minutes after the start of the luncheon. English and Chinese translation services were available through bilingual staff.

d) Actions and Communication (Verbal and Non-Verbal)

The agri-food sector session was opened by the Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Agriculture, who as also a vegetable and egg producer. This opening gave credibility and respect to the session, as the individual was male, held a leadership position in the government and, as a farmer, had knowledge of the sector. The agenda was fast-paced and gave broad views of each company. About 75% of the crowd seemed to be using the simultaneous translation technology available. The audience was somewhat noisy and restless, with cell phones and one-on-one conversations actively taking place. Also of note were a few participants at the back of the room reading newspapers. The session concluded with a cooking seafood demonstration. During that time, the Canadian government staff were setting up on-on-one meetings with companies and potential buyers.

The networking luncheon began with a rush to line up for the buffet. The crowd was predominantly Chinese. It was observed that Chinese were talking to Chinese and Canadians talking to Canadians and there did not seem to be a lot of networking going on between Chinese and Canadians. A short presentation took place near the end of the luncheon to introduce top leaders of the trade mission and congratulate everyone for a good job. The Canadian Minister of Industry and Trade took the lead and key organizers were brought on stage to be recognized. A media scrum took place following this formal presentation and the Canadian and Chinese leaders posed for a number of photographs. As people left and the crowed thinned, it seemed that more Canadians remained than Chinese and many of the Canadians were actively networking with other Canadian participants.

Topics and themes that were communicated by embassy staff, program speakers and one-on-one dialogues between participants focused on the overall nature of the trade mission, the Chinese market, the seafood sector and/or Canada-China relations. Participants' expectations ranged from learning about the China market, meeting potential buyers and profiling their commodity, to looking for future business or a partner.

Appendix F: Detailed Participant Observations of International Study Tours – Nuffield Canada

a) Background

The objective of Nuffield Canada is to develop leadership from within Canada's rural industries, communities and from the practices of agriculture. This is done by providing scholarship and mentoring support to selected individuals, Canadian Nuffield Scholars, who undertake to study an area of agriculture or the agri-food industry. The focus is to train leaders about global agricultural and rural issues to raise the standards of the sector by introducing new ideas and methods of working based on the studies undertaken during the scholar's tenure. While scholars study specific topics of their own interest, they are expected to interact and share their knowledge with agriculture industry peers.

Nuffield Canada was a project introduced and financed in 1950 by the Nuffield Foundation in England. This foundation was created by Lord Nuffield, the British manufacturer of Morris cars, to facilitate study overseas for farmers following on the major war effort in agriculture (Nuffield Farming Scholarships Trust, 2003). Today, Nuffield Farming Scholarships are worldwide in focus and the organization exists in Australia, New Zealand, Zimbabwe, France, England, Scotland and Ireland. The study process is largely self-directed, with some organized study tours. Scholars are encouraged to travel the world seeking new technology, ideas and approaches. Since 1976, Canadian Nuffield Scholars have been supported through a combination of some Nuffield Scholarship trust funds, their own sources through family and friends, local organization sponsorship or grants, and/or by undertaking fund-raising campaigns of their own (Nuffield Canada Farming Scholarship, 2006).

As part of this researcher's participant observation method, the focus was to gain further perspectives from these other jurisdictions about the intercultural leadership skills needed for effective ventures in China. This involved participation in a series of study tours and engaging in conversations with the leaders, who were Nuffield

Scholars from Australia, New Zealand, Ireland, Britain, France and Canada, as well as agriculture industry officials from the United Kingdom (UK) and European Union (EU).

b) Participant Demographics

Forty- three participants were involved, representing Canada, Republic of Ireland, Northern Ireland, Scotland, England, France, New Zealand, and Australia. A total of 36 men and seven women participated. While most, 35, were from private agri-business, public and non-profit organizations were included. The grain/feed sector, which had 10 representatives, was the largest sector represented in the group, with the dairy and sheep commodities following next in representation. The speakers and presenters that were part of this study tour were representatives from EU government and national governments, banking, international organizations such as the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and national farm organizations. While these leaders contributed to the environment and setting by impacting the knowledge base of the group, they were not the focus of this observation.

c) Environment/Setting

The events which are part of this research study include two separate study tours. The first took place in March/April 2005 in London, Paris and Brussels, and the second occurred in August/September 2005 in Dublin, Northern England and Scotland. They involved a combination of prearranged sessions with leaders in various UK and EU agriculture and international institutions, as well as conversations and unstructured interviews with a number of individuals participating in the study tour and/or associated with the formal presentations and meetings. For the most part, it was a closed setting where participants travelled to meet with these leaders at their headquarters, business or farm/rural enterprises, which enabled both a cultural and educational experience. Sessions were both structured and unstructured giving ample opportunity to listen and question speakers, engage in conversations and debate among the participants. They travelled by air, bus, car, and train to the various locations. Overnight

accommodation included hotels in the medium price range, bed and breakfasts, and some home-stays.

The participants ranged in age from their mid-20's to late 40's, with most being younger and less experienced. The March/April tour was larger in number. The percentage of women on the two tours was 12% and 33% respectively. The study tours were, for the most part, fast-paced, professional, kept to an agenda. At times it was stressful travelling to locations in unfamiliar areas. While the majority of time was scheduled, there was some free time to individually explore areas, including heritage/tourist sites, or rest and relax. Language was an issue in France and Belgium and the variety of English-speaking accents among the participants meant more attentive listening skills were needed throughout. The researcher observed and felt that the participants on the March/April study tour sometimes tended to be immature, chauvinistic and awkward, especially for the older and/or female leaders in the group. The August/September study tour was more gender balanced, congenial and professional in approach. A concerted effort to increase the numbers of female participants would likely improve this situation.

d) Actions

Participants and presenters were engaged in listening, speaking, asking questions and having dialogue and debate about agriculture and agri-food issues in their perspective countries and about how these are impacted by trade, policy, environmental and socio-economic factors. A range of topics were presented and discussed from a number of perspectives. Appendix H outlines an analysis of the themes, topics/issue areas and the various national, bilateral, multi-lateral and international perspectives that were offered.

Participants were actively involved in the sessions by taking turns introducing and thanking speakers and facilitating question periods. Speakers and site visits, listed in Appendix G, occurred with the organizational or business leaders. These leaders held a variety of positions such as senior manager, vice-president, head, managing director, research director, director, owner, senior counsellor, principal, and president. In addition, it was a very dynamic environment, as participants

physically travelled to the speaker's locations or a more central location for a number of the presentations.

e) Communication (Verbal and Non-Verbal)

As these study tours are experiential and educational in nature, there was a high amount of verbal and non-verbal communication taking place on a number of topics and issues. These ranged from national perspectives to international viewpoints. These study tours addressed a number of topics both formally and informally, as indicated by the 56 different topics and 77 different perspectives outlined in Appendix H. This is likely a minimum estimation, as presentations focusing on some key areas were followed by group discussions where there would be more information sharing. A heavy focus was on topics pertaining to national agronomy. However, topics did extend to bilateral, EU and international applications.

A specific look at the discussions and conversations with participants about doing business with China shows that a number of themes emerged. A summary of the analysis of these conversations is in Table 25. There were multiple responses in the area of overall business nature, market potential and perceptions of how other jurisdictions are developing business relations with China. Most of the dialogue, 80%, centred on the nature of doing business and the market in China. While this is not a specific Canada-China focus, as has been the case in other aspects of this research, it provides a fascinating perspective, as both similarities occur and innovative ideas emerge. It is interesting to note that, in general, the UK seemed very domestically focused and one participant explained that that is "because of the large EU population base, close at hand". There was some interest expressed in the area of grain, potatoes and the food processing, but China does not seem to be on their radar screen. If it is, it is seen as a threat rather than an opportunity. Another participant suggested that the UK has done some good groundwork, but few political efforts have taken place.

Table 25: Perspectives about Doing Business with China from Participant Conversations during International Nuffield Study Tours

(N = 11; Multiple Responses)

Discussion Themes About Doing Business with China (No. of Responses)	Key Points/Description of Perspectives
Overall Nature of Business Relations (16)	• Necessary to combine political and relationship work to develop bilateral markets with China • Be consistent, stick with it, persist, visit regularly • Only after 2 or 3 meetings do serious discussions/business begin • Face-to-face communication important • Be direct and clear • Explain how you will help them • Work towards more equal relationship i.e. China runs joint venture at their end • Get in, set-up with Chinese in charge working to your brand, take your short-term gains out because the Chinese will take over • Be cautious and they are a cautious people • Be prepared to spend lots of time and investment, which means losses • Have Chinese work for you in China • Multi-national, government & bilateral partners are important • China seems to know the direction they are headed in
Chinese Market Potential & Trade (12)	• Population of 1.3 billion (20% of world's population) with only about 7% of world's land • 4 people to feed per acre of arable land (more than 2x the world average of 1.7) • Plenty of opportunities there yet, enthusiasm about potential • Every province/region is like another country & poses unique opportunities & challenges too • Economy will continue to grow • Concern about social/rural unrest and modernization of farming • A complicated market and difficult to approach for individual farmers or small entrepreneurs but, with multi-national or large industry organization, this reduces the risk • Really about the level of risk you are willing and able to take • Chinese agriculture trade policy in general is not about throwing subsidies at agriculture, therefore making Chinese agriculture competitive on world market; dealing with adjustment problems through rural policy rather than agriculture policy • Biggest producer of potatoes in the world for domestic consumption, i.e. starch, noodles, animal feed and a growing fast food industry • Potato yield is low because of poor quality & variety of seed

Other Jurisdictions (3)	• Canadian government had actively cultivated Canada-China relations and therefore has better protocols and treaty agreements than the UK • Canada has a more direct approach to marketing with the Chinese, which is similar to the German approach • Denmark just signed huge agreement with China for pigs ears, entrails, etc.

Appendix G: Location, Timeframe and Site Visits on the International Nuffield Study Tours

Geographic Location (No. of Sites Visited/Days Spent – excluding travel time)	Organization and/or Site Visit
Brussels (4 sites /2 days)	• Bureau de L'Agriculture Britainnique (BAB – British Agriculture Bureau) • European Commission (EUROPA) - DG Agriculture, DG Environment, DG Sanco, & GD Trade • Australian Mission to the EU (European Union) • COPA/COGECA
Dublin (2 sites/3 days)	• Irish Farmers Union • Various historical and cultural institutions
England (including London) (11 sites/8 days)	• Food Standards Agency • HSBC Bank • National Farmers Union – representing England & Wales • Smithfield Wholesale Market • Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (DEFRA) • Canadian High Commission • Overseas Development Institute • The Farmers Club • Various historical and cultural institutions • China-Britain Business Council • Various farm and country-side businesses & entrepreneurs
France (including Paris) (5 sites /2 days)	• WW1 Australian and Commonwealth Memorials • Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) • Various historical and cultural institutions • Local farmers market and dairy farm • National Farmers Union.
Scotland (4 sites/3 days)	• National Farmers Union • Scottish Crop Research Institute • Various historical and cultural institutions • Various farm and country-side businesses & entrepreneurs

Appendix H: Topics and Perspectives from International Nuffield Study Tours

Topic/Issue Themes and Perspectives (Number of Observations/Discussions)		National (60)	Bilateral (13)	EU (22)	International (21)
Agriculture Economics & Policy (6)	• Common Agriculture Policy (CAP)	X X		X X	X
	• Agriculture Outlook				X
	• Trade Policies (WTO, Cairns, NAFT)	X	X	X	
		X(3)	X(3)		X
	• Business Relations with China			X	
			X	X	X
	• Farm Incomes & subsides	X	X	X	X
	• Marketplace, & supply chain issues				
Agronomy (20)	• Australia, Ireland, England, Scotland, France	X	X	X	X
	• Crops, beef, swine, dairy, horses, biofuel/ethanol, sugar beets, wheat, ducks, zootechnics, beans, seafood, potatoes, soft fruit/berries, sheep	X(15)	X	X	X
Environment (3)	• GM Crops	X		X	
	• Water Quality & Nitrates	X		X	
	• Standards	X		X	X
Farm/Rural Organizations (5)	• National Farmers Unions (France, England & Wales)	X(2)			
	• Co-operative Movement (COPA/COGECA)			X	
	• Irish Farmers Association				
	• Young Farmers	X X			
Food & Health (7)	• Animal Health & Welfare;	X X	X X	X X	X X

Category	Topic	Col1	Col2	Col3	Col4
	• BSE Impacts				
	• European Bureau of Consumers' Association			X	
	• EU Health & Consumer Protection (DG Sanco)	X	X	X X	X
	• Food Standards	X			X
	• Food miles	X			
	• Smithfield Market				
Government (7)	• Business Relations with China	X(3)			
	• European Commission	X		X	X
	• International Development	X			X
	• Food Standards Agency	X			
	• Canadian High Commission	X	X	X	X
	• DEFRA	X		X	
	• Scottish Parliament	X			
History/Culture (3)	• Impact of WW1 & 2	X		X	X
	• Variety of cultural & historical sites	X(10)	X		X
	• Chinese Culture				
Research (2)	• OECD	X			X
	• Crop Institute	X			X
Rural Development (4)	• Programs	X		X	X
	• Policies	X		X	
	• Overseas Development Institute				X
	• Entrepreneurs	X			

Note: These are from multiple responses and the numbers in the columns beside the 'X' indicate the approximate number only.

Appendix I: Data Coding and Analysis for Semi-Structured, Case Study and Participant Observation Interviews

Intercultural and Leadership Skills

Cope, enjoy ongoing challenges, creativity, innovation, change, risk-taking, critical thinking, integrity, personal strength (positive attitude, function in stressful situations, work independently/self-reliant), sensitive to diversity, business ethics, flexibility, tolerance

Positive moral perceptions (values, cognitive, emotion, ethics integrity)

Can take role of follower when necessary, business ethics, integrity, accountable, initiate change, humility, promote change when needed.

Ability to conceptualize, sensitivity to diversity, integrity, business ethics, relationship of values & culture to people & societies

Environmental and situational analysis, ability to conceptualize, cognitive skills, non-judgmental, sensitive to diversity, integrity

Inspires and motivates others, supportive, mentor & coach, team builder, managing conflict, listening, oral & written communication, problem solving & analytical, coordinating, socialization skills, local language skills, trust, negotiation skills, gain respect, empower collective action

Personal strengths (high energy level, optimal level of performance, positive attitude, function in stressful situations, take constructive criticism, work independently), self-confidence, manage ambiguity, know own values & beliefs, self-regulation

Interpersonal communication, listening, sensitivity to diversity, diplomatic conflict resolution, risk-taking, sensitivity to diversity, oral & written communication, resolve conflict, display empathy, openness

Visioning, decision-making, planning & organizing, coordinating, supportive, information management, multi-tasker, balance between adoption and maintaining own cultural identity, political astuteness, resourceful

Learning, personal organization & time management, personal strengths, realistic awareness of own motivations and expectations of life abroad, analysis, technical skills

Boxes:

- Adaptation skills
- Attitude of modesty & respect
- Understanding concept of culture
- Knowledge of host country & culture
- Relationship building skills
- Self-knowledge
- Intercultural communication
- Organizational skills
- Personal & professional

Final Structure For Analysis

Intercultural Leadership Categories

Adaptation skills
An attitude of modesty and respect
Understanding the concept of culture
Knowledge of host country and culture
Relationship building skills
Self-knowledge
Intercultural communication
Organizational skills
Personal and professional
Values
Other

(Vulpe et al., 2001; Dahles & Weis, 2002; Harris & Kumra, 2000; Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Evers et al. 1996 & 2003)

Appendix J: Data Coding and Analysis for Case Study Final Report Document - Main Unit of Analysis (CCIDCBP) and Subunit (SBD&FCo)

Thematic Categories	Codes
Understanding and support	U&S
Interpretation/Translation	I/T
Human resources	HR
Approach	Appro
Reference objectives	Obj
Assessment & Feasibility	A&F
Pilots/Trials/Demonstrations	P/T/D
Partnerships & collaborations	Part
Creating conditions for change	CCFC
Training & communication	T&C
Other (factors out of project control)	O

See next Appendix for details of open coding categories and relation to Intercultural Leadership Skills, as used in this analysis.

Intercultural and Leadership Skills

Cope, enjoy ongoing challenges, creativity, innovation, change, risk-taking, critical thinking, integrity, personal strength (positive attitude, function in stressful situations, work independently/self-reliant), sensitive to diversity, business ethics, flexibility, tolerance → **Adaptation skills**

Positive moral perceptions (values, cognitive, emotion, ethics integrity) → **Attitude of modesty & respect**

Can take role of follower when necessary, business ethics, integrity, accountable, initiate change, humility, promote change when needed. → **Understanding concept of culture**

Ability to conceptualize, sensitivity to diversity, integrity, business ethics, relationship of values & culture to people & societies → **Knowledge of host country & culture**

Environmental and situational analysis, ability to conceptualize, cognitive skills, non-judgmental, sensitive to diversity, integrity → **Relationship building skills**

Inspires and motivates others, supportive, mentor & coach, team builder, managing conflict, listening, oral & written communication, problem solving & analytical, coordinating, socialization skills, local language skills, trust, negotiation skills, gain respect, empower collective action → **Self-knowledge**

Personal strengths (high energy level, optimal level of performance, positive attitude, function in stressful situations, take constructive criticism, work independently), self-confidence, manage ambiguity, know own values & beliefs, self-regulation → **Intercultural communication**

Interpersonal communication, listening, sensitivity to diversity, diplomatic conflict resolution, risk-taking, sensitivity to diversity, oral & written communication, resolve conflict, display empathy, openness → **Organizational skills**

Visioning, decision-making, planning & organizing, coordinating, supportive, information management, multi-tasker, balance between adoption and maintaining own cultural identity, political astuteness, resourceful → **Personal & professional**

Learning, personal organization & time management, personal strengths, realistic awareness of own motivations and expectations of life abroad, analysis, technical skills

(Vulpe et al., 2001; Dahles & Weis, 2002; Harris & Kumra, 2000; Bass, 1990; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Evers et al. 1996 & 2003)

Final Structure For Analysis

Intercultural Leadership Categories
- Adaptation skills
- An attitude of modesty and respect
- Understanding the concept of culture
- Knowledge of host country and culture
- Relationship building skills
- Self-knowledge
- Intercultural communication
- Organizational skills
- Personal and professional
- Values
- Other

218

Appendix K: List of Open Coding Categories and their Relation to Key Intercultural Leadership Skills as Used in Analysis for Case Study Final Report Document

Major Thematic Categories	Key Intercultural Leadership Skills in Thematic Categories									
	Adapt	M&R	CC	Know	RB	SK	Comm	Org	P&P	V
Understanding & Support	X						X			
Interpretation/Translation						X	X			
Human Resources	X		X	X		X				
Approach	X			X	X					X
Reference Objectives				X	X			X		
Assessment & Feasibility	X			X			X			X
Pilots/Trials/Demonstrations	X	X		X	X			X	X	
Partnerships & Collaborations	X			X	X	X	X			X
Creating Conditions for Change		X			X		X			
Training & Communication				X	X		X			
Other (factors out of project control)				X		X	X			
Totals	6	2	1	8	6	4	7	2	1	3

Codes for key intercultural leadership skills are as follows: Adapt = Adaptation skills; M&R = Attitude of Modesty and Respect; CC = Understanding Concept of Culture; Know = Knowledge of Host County & Culture; RB = Relationship Building Skills; SK = Self-Knowledge; Comm = Intercultural Communication; Org = Organizational Skills; P&P = Personal & Professional Commitment

Note. Further Description of Thematic Categories can be found in Appendix L.

Appendix L: Description/Key Word Explanations in Thematic Categories used for Coding in Case Study Final Report Document

Understanding & Support – explanations of project, work plan, & expectations to all partners.

Interpretation/Translation – technical competence; accuracy; ask for clarification; eliminates own views so not to contaminate communication.

Human Resources – right person for task; technical abilities equally important as communication, tolerance and cultural understanding.

Approach – develop confidence, trust and relationships; practice patience, yet remain firm; authenticate accuracy of advice and information.

Reference Objectives – focus on objectives and work plans; build strong, local ownership.

Assessment & Feasibility – essential in introduction of new technology; determine pre-existing conditions; ensures understanding & sustainable expansion.

Pilots/Trials/Demonstrations – demonstrate the value; initiate innovation; promotes change as needed; develop knowledge (see, hear, learn, practice).

Partnerships & Collaborations – key people with power and authority; build trust, confidence and respect; local, national, and intercultural.

Creating Conditions for Change – show initiative, create innovation, attract attention, encourage betterment and change when needed, peer pressure, continually upgrading, investment.

Training & Communication – train-the-trainer, youth, mentors, knowledge of sector, listening, good written and oral ability.

Other (factors out of project control) – inadequate resources, regulations, disease outbreaks, technical delays