Leadership Competencies for Global Education Leaders: A Delphi Study of UNESCO Delegates and Administrators

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The rise of globalization has increased the need for globally prepared leaders in all sectors, including education. Despite clear calls within the literature for empirical research to support the development of globally prepared education leaders, little research has occurred and no prior peer-reviewed study regarding essential global leadership competencies in education was located. Due to this absence, a Delphi study, conducted in English, French, and Spanish, was conducted with an expert panel of official UNESCO delegates, national delegates of the UNESCO Associated Schools Project Network, and senior-level UNESCO Education Sector executives to identify essential leadership competencies for global education leaders. After completing three successive survey rounds, the panel reached consensus on 70 essential competencies required for future global education leaders including an ordinal ranking of essentiality of global education leadership competencies. The findings of the expert panel conclude that when preparing leaders in global education, general leadership competencies still apply and that global leadership competencies overall were valued more highly than domestic leadership competencies or even managerial-focused education competencies. Additional analysis revealed alignment with broad twenty-first century skills and a balance between personality-based and situational leadership competencies.

Keywords: global education leadership, education leadership, leadership competencies, education leadership competencies

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Globalization is profoundly changing our world. Over the last century, advances in transportation, telecommunications, and trade have resulted in an unprecedented interconnecting of global economies and cultures. These forces have also been a major disruptor to many industries (Dean, 2005; Litz, 2011), including education (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2019; Christensen, Horn, Caldera, & Soares, 2011; Christensen, Johnson, Horn, 2008; Friedman, 2005; Litz, 2011). In fact, globalization is one of the most frequently documented challenges facing education leaders (Khan, 2018; Ong, 2012; Patrizio, & Stone-Johnson, 2016; Pierce & Pedersen, 1997; UNESCO, 1995).

Globalization also occurs in all aspects of education, including higher education. Over twenty years ago, Pierce and Pedersen (1997) identified globalization as one of the most significant disruptors college presidents face and expect it to continue to rise significantly in the future. Similarly, the United Nations Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organization's (UNESCO, 1995) *Policy Paper for Change and Development in Higher Education* placed globalization as one of five major trends facing higher education. More recently, scholars are still recommending globalization should be considered as an impact on leadership development as well as competition within higher education (Altbach, 2015; Altbach et al., 2019; Cumberland, Ann Herd, Meera Alagaraja, & Kerrick, 2016; Ghemawat & Bastian, 2017). The literature further documents numerous international efforts to respond to globalization in primary and secondary education with the nations of Pakistan (Saeed, Zulfiqar, Ata, & Rathore, 2015), Turkey (Ilgar, 2011), and Malaysia (Chang-Da & Sirat, 2018) as just three examples of many.

The need to identify global leadership competencies for education leaders is clearly documented (ACE, 1998; Litz, 2011; Mendenhall, Weber, Arna Arnardottir, & Oddou, 2017; Reimers, 2009; Sullivan, 2011; Tichnor-Wagner & Manise, 2019). Consequently, many authors speculated while current training programs for education leadership may be acceptable for domestic leadership, they are not or may not be adequate for preparing global education leaders (Mendenhall et al., 2017; Tichnor-Wagner & Manise, 2019; Walker, 2018; Zhang, Bohley, & Wheeler, 2017). This lack of formal preparation has resulted in what has been described as a chronic deficiency of globally focused leaders in all levels of education (Goodman, 2012; Marquardt & Berger, 2000; Mendenhall et al., 2008; Smith, Caver, Saslow, & Thomas, 2009; Tichnor-Wagner & Manise, 2019; Winter, 2003).

Literature Review Summary

The global leadership literature suggests past research on leadership development is not sufficient when placed in a global environment (Black & Gregersen, 2000; Hollenbeck, 2001; Jenkins, 2012; Lewis, Boston, & Peterson, 2017; Morrison, 2000). Even when examining the efficacy of domestic leadership in global contexts, scholars urged the leadership practices and paradigms of the last century must be updated (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 2008; Dugan, 2012). The literature also revealed competencies that are transferable between organizational cultures and international cultures should be prioritized in importance when creating global leadership competency models (Jokinen, 2005; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner 1998; Walker, 2018).

Many authors cite a lack of global leadership preparation programs (Goodman, 2012; Kim & McLean, 2015; Marquardt & Berger, 2000; Mendenhall et al., 2008; Smith et al., 2009; Terrell, 2011; Walker, 2018; Winter, 2003). In fact, Gillis (2011) asserted a need "to address the gap between global leadership needs and the capacity shortage" (p. 117). Yet, due to the lack of empirical research, there is no common agreement on how to address the shortage of global leaders, the format development programs should take (Cseh et al., 2013), or what content these programs should include (Konyu-Fogel, 2011). In addition, the literature is clear on the need to develop leaders who possess strong competencies in global leadership (Davis, 2015; Jeong, Lim, & Park, 2017; Kim & McLean, 2015; Morrison, 2000; Park, Jeong, Jang, Yoon, & Lim, 2018; Patrizio, & Stone-Johnson, 2016; Suutari, 2002). Unfortunately, formal training programs are not keeping pace with that demand (Walker, 2018).

Because of the time it takes to obtain the competencies required to become a proficient as a global leader (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000), researchers have turned to identifying the essential competencies in the hopes that they can be delivered quickly and effectively (Terrell, 2011). Global leadership competencies for industries outside of education are numerous and domestic educational leadership competencies are well established (Cumberland et al., 2016). However, specific global leadership competencies for educational leadership have yet to be identified through empirical analysis.

Methodology

The purpose of this Delphi study was to gain consensus from a panel of experts in the global education community regarding the most essential competencies required for future global education leaders. This study sought to further evaluate the essentiality of those global education leadership competencies by providing an ordinal ranking. Specifically, the study explored the following research questions:

- 1. What are the essential competencies for global education leaders?
- 2. What is the ordinal ranking of essentiality of competencies for global education leaders?

The Delphi Method, developed by the RAND Corporation in the early 1950s (Dalkey & Helmer, 1963), employs a diverse panel of experts to gather and refine knowledge through a series of structured group interactions (Linstone & Turoff, 2002). In addition, Powell (2003) recommended the use of Delphi Method when judgments of individuals are needed to "address a lack of agreement or incomplete state of knowledge . . . [thus] the Delphi is particularly valued for its ability to structure and organize group communication" (p. 377). For this study, the literature review identified an incomplete state of knowledge regarding global education leadership competencies and establishing those competencies requires the input of a group of experts; therefore, the Delphi Method was determined to be an appropriate methodology.

This Delphi study, conducted with simultaneous translations available in English, French, and Spanish, surveyed three communities of experts in global education that consisted of: national delegates of UNESCO permanent and associate member states (typically holding the title of ambassador), national delegates from The UNESCO Associated Schools Project Network (appointed individuals working for a national commission to UNESCO), and senior-level UNESCO Education Sector executives.

The Delphi Method develops consensus through iterative rounds that is considered to be a relevant and valid measure of accumulated opinions of experts (Baker, Lovell, & Harris, 2006;

Hasson, Keeney, & McKenna, 2000; Winzenried, 1997). The expert panelists in this study participated in three consensus-seeking rounds, an established norm for Delphi studies (Sizer et al., 2007; Skulmoski, Hartman, & Krahn, 2007; Turoff, 2002). The strength of the Delphi Method comes from the collective experience and expertise of panel (Adler & Ziglio, 1996; Linstone & Turoff, 2002; Rossman & Eldredge, 1982). For this study, each panelist had at least 10 years professional experience in education with the highest being 37 years; for the total panel, there was an average (arithmetic mean) of 16.7 years of professional experience in education. Furthermore, the participating panelists in this study were highly diverse and evenly distributed throughout the five United Nations Geopolitical Regional Groups (Table 1).

Table 1
List of United Nations Geopolitical Regional Groups with Participating Panelists

United Nations Geopolitical Regional Groups	Country Name
African Group (9 of 54 possible= 17% participation)	Burundi Ghana Lesotho Liberia Mali Nigeria Tunisia Zambia Zimbabwe
Asia-Pacific Group (12 of 53 possible= 23% participation)	Bangladesh India Indonesia Iraq Kuwait Mongolia Palau Papua New Guinea Philippines Thailand Uzbekistan Yemen
Latin American and Caribbean Group (GRULAC) (4 of 33 possible = 12% participation)	Dominican Republic Paraguay Suriname Trinidad and Tobago
Eastern European Group (EEG) (3 of 23 possible = 13% participation)	Bulgaria Lithuania Montenegro
Western European and Others Group (WEOG) (9 of 29 possible = 31% participation)	France Germany Greece Malta

Netherlands New Zealand Sweden United Kingdom United States of America

To prepare for the study, a meta-analysis examining 70 individual studies on global leadership was completed and revealed a total of 522 previously validated competences. Additionally, 239 validated competences were identified from an extensive meta-analysis on education leadership competences. Combining the meta-analyses of global leadership competencies and education leadership competencies resulted in 761 total competencies. Using a rigorous coding process, a fourth meta-analysis was conducted to remove duplicates and sort the 761 combined competencies into in 61 unique competency clusters.

Following their response to the literature-derived competencies, panelists were encouraged to suggest potential global leadership competencies not previously identified within the literature meta-analysis. The open-ended questions resulted in 51 additional competencies, of which 35 were determined to be unique after the coding process was employed. Between literature-derived and panelist–provided competencies, the expert panel examined a combined total of 96 potential global education competencies during this study. Using an online survey tool, these 61 literature-identified competency clusters and 35 panelist–provided competencies were presented to the panel using a bi-polar Likert scale instrument to gauge essentiality.

Summary of Findings

Through three rounds of consensus finding, the expert panelists reached consensus on 70 essential competencies for global educational leadership out of the combined pool of 96 presented competencies. Table 2 presents the competencies that reached consensus. Competencies that failed to reach consensus are presented in Table 3. Following the three consensus finding rounds, panel members then provided an ordinal ranking of the 10 most important validated competencies. Individual panelists responses were combined and tabulated with 10 points assigned for a first place ranking, 9 points assigned for a second place ranking and continuing to 1 point being assigned for a tenth place ranking. The ordinal ranking by frequency of selection is presented in Table 2 and includes the origin (literature-provided or panelist-provided) for each competency.

Table 2
Ordinal Ranking Ordinal Ranking of Consensus Competencies by Points Awarded

Competencies

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Ranking	Competency	Source	Points
1 (Tie)	Vision	Lit	35
1 (Tie)	Leadership (capacity to lead others, empowering others)	Lit	35

3	Integrity (honest, trustworthy, responsible, ethical) Lit		29
4	Global mindset (understanding of other cultures, world perspective, the capacity to think globally)		24
5	Ability to cope with stress (balance tensions, life balance)	Lit	21
6 (Tie)	Creative thinking	Lit	20
6 (Tie)	Leadership by example	Panel	20
8	Open-mindedness	Lit	19
9	Motivation	Lit	18
10 (Tie)	Problem solving (assessment, analysis, analytical thinking)	Lit	17
10 (Tie)	Sincere/Honest/Truthful	Panel	17
10 (Tie)	(Tie) Maturity		17
10 (Tie)	Social Adaptability (Able to feel the situation and people)	Panel	17
14 (Tie)	Personal style (the way one presents oneself)	Lit	16
14 (Tie)	4 (Tie) Proactive		16
16	Decision making (judgment, decisiveness)	Lit	15
17 (Tie)	Patience	Lit	13
17 (Tie)	Confidence	Lit	13
19	Listening skills	Lit	12
20 (Tie)	Ethos	Panel	11
20 (Tie)	High standards (quality)	Lit	11
20 (Tie)	Empathy (concern for others, sensitivity)	Lit	11
20 (Tie)	Relationship building (building partnerships and alliances - external focus)	Lit	11

20 (Tie)	Advocacy for education (commitment to values of education)	Lit	11
25	Team building (building work teams and empowering teams - internal focus)	Lit	10
26 (Tie)	Curiosity	Lit	10
26 (Tie)	Content knowledge	Panel	10
28 (Tie)	Conflict management (diplomacy, negotiation)	Lit	9
28 (Tie)	Optimism	Lit	9
28 (Tie)	Tolerance for ambiguity (ability to manage uncertainty)	Lit	9
28 (Tie)	Flexibility	Lit	9
32	Collaboration (team member, sharing leadership)	Lit	8
33 (Tie)	Cross-cultural management (working across cultures, balancing of tension, intercultural competence)	Lit	8
33 (Tie)	Social awareness (emotional intelligence, sensitivity to others' needs)	Lit	8
33 (Tie)	General communication skills (written, oral, non-verbal)	Lit	8
36	Strategic thinking	Lit	8
37 (Tie)	Knowledge (intelligence)	Lit	7
37 (Tie)	Change agent (leads and facilitates the change process)	Lit	7
37 (Tie)	Appreciates proactive subordinates	Panel	7
40	Meaningfully derolling and engaging in professional discussions with subordinates	Panel	6
41	Personal energy (dynamic, energizing)	Lit	5
42 (Tie)	Self-control (to think before acting, control personal conduct)	Lit	5

42 (Tie)	Advocacy for students (commitment to student- centered learning and student satisfaction)	Lit	5
42 (Tie)	Work Ethic	Panel	5
42 (Tie)	Ability to understand research and data from a multi-disciplinary approach	Panel	5
46 (Tie)	Courage	Lit	4
46 (Tie)	Persuasion (influencing, inspiring, motivational)	Lit	4
46 (Tie)	Cross-cultural communication skills	Lit	4
46 (Tie)	Gumption (shrewd or spirited initiative and resourcefulness)	Panel	4
50 (Tie)	Result-oriented	Panel	3
50 (Tie)	Manage time effectively	Panel	3
50 (Tie)	Respect	Lit	3
53 (Tie)	Operational management (coordination, organization, administration, delegating)	Lit	2
53 (Tie)	Commitment/Perseverance	Panel	2
53 (Tie)	Professionalism	Panel	2
53 (Tie)	Holistic view of well-being	Panel	2
57	Cultural awareness (cultural intelligence, appreciation for diversity)	Lit	1
58 (Tie)	Hardiness (overcomes adversity, persistence, tenacity)	Lit	0
58 (Tie)	Self awareness (understanding one's self and role)	Lit	0
58 (Tie)	Commitment to personal professional development and learning	Lit	0
58 (Tie)	Personnel building (hiring, developing and empowering individuals - internal focus)	Lit	0
58 (Tie)	Commitment to safe work environments (balancing organizational tensions, global vs. local tensions)	Lit	0

58 (Tie)	Understanding of educational systems (college structure, student affairs, trends in education)	Lit	0
58 (Tie)	Understanding of organizational systems (global work structures)	Lit	0
58 (Tie)	Language Skills	Lit	0
58 (Tie)	Timely (punctual)	Lit	0
58 (Tie)	Fairness	Panel	0
58 (Tie)	Conceptual Thinking	Panel	0
58 (Tie)	Wisdom	Panel	0
58 (Tie)	Knowledge of the local context	Panel	0

Table 3

Competencies Not Achieving Consensus

Competency		
Academic administration (instructional	ICT (computer and technology) skills	
leadership, academic success)	Legal awareness	
Accomplished (cultivated, adept)	Life skills	
Belief in God (religious)	Long-term orientation (as opposed to	
Budgeting and fiscal management	temporary position abroad)	
Business savvy (understanding of business	Low neuroticism (not sensitive, obsessive,	
systems)	tense or anxious)	
Capacity in evidence-based management	Political philosophy	
Comprehensive	Protective	
Deep knowledge of global educational agenda	Rigorous	
Entrepreneurial (risk-taking)	Straightforward	
Extroversion (outgoing personality)	Studious	
Global capitalism (economic integration and	Ubuntu (A Nguni Bantu term for human	
profitability)	kindness, humanity towards others)	
Good Humor	Understanding of comparative education	
Humility	Understanding and experience in ethics	

Discussion

Overall, competencies from the literature connected to general leadership (e.g. vision, leadership, and integrity) were validated and ranked highest in the ordinal ranking procedure. As might be expected, competencies that were more specific to specialized areas of for-profit business leadership (e.g. global capitalism, business savvy, and entrepreneurial) did not reach consensus. Interestingly, the panel also showed less interest in managerial-focused competencies, even if they

were education specific (e.g. deep knowledge of global educational agenda, academic administration, and understanding of comparative education).

When examining the 62 competency clusters distilled from the meta-analysis of global leadership and education leadership literature, significant overlap is observed with the findings from this study. With domain specific competencies (global capitalism, business savvy, and ICT skills) and managerial-focused (budgeting and fiscal management, and legal awareness) excluded, only three global leadership competency clusters (humility, entrepreneurial, and low neuroticism) did not reach consensus by the panel. Furthermore, overlap with education leadership competencies was also observed with humility being the only literature-derived education leadership competency not validated once domain specific competencies (academic administration, and budgeting and fiscal management) were excluded. There were, however, 20 panelist-provided competencies not previously identified in the global leadership or educational leadership literature that were validated by this study. However, even though validated by panel consensus, only five competencies made it into the top 20 ranked competencies: Leadership by example, Sincere/Honest/Truthful, Social Adaptability, Proactive, and Ethos.

The global education leadership competencies that reached consensus were, however, significantly different from commonly listed domestic leadership competencies cited in the literature. Within this study, leadership skills related to the intercultural experience are far more apparent (e.g. global mindset, social adaptability, tolerance for ambiguity, and social awareness) and stand out as unique when compared to domestic leadership competencies. There is also an observed alignment of skills often referred to as twenty-first century skills (e.g. creative thinking, problem solving, and adaptability) that ranked higher than content-centric competencies (e.g. content knowledge, knowledge, and commitment to personal professional development and learning).

Lokkesmoe (2009) previously suggested the application of Fielder's contingency theory of 1967 would demonstrate a balance between a leader's personality traits and idiosyncratic competencies when performing a leadership competency analysis. Examining the competencies validated by the panel in this study, Lokkesmoe's assumption regarding Fielder's contingency theory appears to be supported. Analysis of the competencies that reached consensus demonstrates those that are personality-based (e.g. optimism, maturity, patience, confidence, and courage) in contrast to those that are more situational (decision making, understanding of organizational systems, operational management, advocacy for students, and advocacy for education).

In comparing literature-suggested and panelist-suggested competencies, competencies located from the literature had a higher percentage make it into the consensus stage. The panel approved 50 of the 61 (82%) of the literature-suggested competencies while only approving 20 of the 35 (57%) of the panelist-suggested competencies. Furthermore, of the panelists-suggested competencies, only *leadership by example* and *social adaptability* were in the top 20 ordinal ranked competencies. This study appears to provide an additional level of credence to the effectiveness of previous global leadership and educational leadership studies in identifying applicable competencies.

Of all the competencies presented, both from the literature and from panelists themselves, only the panelist-provided competency of *Belief in God* was negatively scored. All other competencies were positively scored, even if there was not enough agreement to pass the threshold level set for consensus in this study. Moreover, *Belief in God* was also the only competency that failed to receive a majority of panelists rank it with some level of essentiality.

This work provides a foundation for which the emerging field of global education leadership research can advance. For researchers and scholars, this work provides a foundational set of empirical findings that can be tested and further empirically validated (or invalidated). In addition to the competencies located from the global leadership literature and education leadership literature, the panel added specific global education leadership competencies not found previously in either body of work.

Within the literature, it has been suggested there is little difference between leadership skills for domestic leadership versus global leadership (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). Vloeberghs and Macfarlane (2007) proposed that perhaps previous research has failed to adequately define global leadership competencies due to confusion between global and domestic leadership needs. Examining previous competencies derived from the literature on domestic leadership and the competencies generated in this study on global leadership competencies, distinct differences emerged. For example, social skills related to the intercultural experience are far more apparent (e.g. global mindset, social adaptability, tolerance for ambiguity, and social awareness) and stand out as unique.

Mintzberg (2004) observed the number of competencies in the literature and warned including too many competencies into a leadership development program could lead to a disorganized and incomplete preparation. Other scholars (Conger & Ready, 2004; Intagliata, Ulrich, & Smallwood, 2000; Munoz, 2007) agreed with Mintzberg, stressing the importance of selecting a small list of competencies that best fit the position, organization, or industry. This study successfully reduced the number of possible global leadership competencies by over 90% by starting with 761 competencies located in the existing literature and reducing to 70 competencies upon which the panel reached consensus.

Within the competency-based leadership literature, the complexity of the competencies is also a considering factor for the efficiency of implementation. Conger and Ready (2004) and Intagliata et al. (2000) urged the creation of competencies that are simple enough to be comprehendible and actionable. Munoz (2007) agreed, asserting leadership competencies must be kept simple for implementation. There is, however, also a risk that competencies become too minimalistic. Kuchinke and Han (2005) established the need to appreciate the depth and complexity of the leadership context within competency selection. They warned that many competency frameworks are not fully able to account for the variability and situational circumstances the real world will present. Conger and Benjamin (1999) also noted this by commenting on the rigidity of competencies and the inability to shape into the leadership context of the individuality of a leader's personality.

Implications for Practice

Because globalization has led to profound changes throughout the world, these initial findings of global education leadership competencies offer implications for both practitioners and scholars. The identification of specific global leadership competencies for education is a foundational component for formal training and development programs to prepare global education leaders. Universities and leadership development programs for education may utilize the findings to expand existing education leadership degrees to become more globally focused or to create new offerings focused exclusively on global education. Additionally, organizations focused on the advancement of education across the globe (e.g. World Bank, UNESCO, and numerous public and private foundations) now have metrics to develop and assess the effectiveness of their investments

in global education leadership, as well as their assessment of selecting their own internal global education staff. Beyond training programs, these competencies also provide insight into recruiting, succession planning, career development, talent management, coaching, assessment, and personal reflection of global education leaders.

Moreover, this study validates the appropriateness of the existing literature in the global leadership and education leadership domains as a basis for the study of global education leadership. These existing bodies of work could provide a foundation for building a global education leadership development program until a more robust collection of literature in global education leadership is established. However, the existing global education leadership literature does not overlap with domestic education leadership literature within this context.

As an apparent initial study in global education leadership competencies, this work provides a foundation for which the emerging field of global education leadership research can advance. For researchers and scholars, this work provides an initial set of empirical findings that can be tested and further empirically validated (or invalidated) though more direct research. Such foundational works are required for future research, and the field of global education leadership now has at least one study from which to build upon.

Recommendations for Future Research

As an initial study on global education leadership competencies, this work did not consider possible sub-categorizations of primary, secondary, and tertiary education. The literature clearly differentiates between leadership competencies for pre-tertiary and post-secondary, yet the methodology of this study made no attempt to subcategorize competencies by school classification. Furthermore, this study also used only the three most common of the six official UN languages. Future studies should replicate this study with homogeneous panels of experts in each of the UN Geopolitical and linguistic clusters. Expanding the study outside the UNESCO umbrella would add additional insight and perspective as well. Finally, these findings represent the opinions of experts in global education leadership and have not been validated in actual practice. Further research should be conducted to validate the competencies in actual application.

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