Abstract

Globalisation and diverse populations have created the need for international business and multicultural management education. This paper reviews the changes required in management theory as it incorporates this ethnic market and the search for a paradigm relevant to the satisfaction of these students who have profoundly different cultural beliefs and traditions. Specifically, it considers the competencies required for multicultural management and methods for developing these competencies.

This paper is a work in progress. Material in the paper cannot be used without permission of the author.
MULTICULTURAL TOURISM: THE NEED TO DEFINE AND DEVELOP THE GLOBALLY COMPETENT MANAGER

INTRODUCTION

Globalisation and diverse populations have created the need for international business and multicultural management education. This paper reviews the changes required in management theory as it incorporates this ethnic market and the search for a paradigm relevant to the satisfaction of these students who have profoundly different cultural beliefs and traditions.

A significant challenge for the future of international business is the need to define the globally competent managers required by their transnational organisation. Present management theory and research is often based upon historically and geographically limited observational theories with narrow sample populations generalised to represent larger populations. These theories utilised conceptually isolated paradigms with academics utilising selective perspectives to expand and link the theory to practice.

The previously relevant scientific methods now frequently used to analyse social science problems in a significantly more complex world are inadequate. For the industry practitioner (Berrell and MacPherson, 1995) to apply theories successfully, an approach is required facilitating incorporation of previous research assumptions into a holistic paradigm.

Objective

The primary objective of this research is to establish the comparative effectiveness of flexible learning in achieving the outcome of global management capability.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Dependent Variable

Global Management Competencies

The term management refers to the art of getting things done through people (Follett, 1949). It has been further expanded to ‘the process of coordinating and integrating work activities so that they are completed efficiently and effectively with and through other people’ (Robbins, Bergman, Stagg and Coulter, 2000, p. 8). This includes the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling whether this is domestically or internationally. Because management involves all these activities, it also incorporates the marketing, manufacturing, finance and service departments in its responsibilities. Hence, when conducting international business, managers need to be aware of the different knowledge, skills and abilities required in the process.

International business is the study of transactions taking place across national borders for the purpose of satisfying the needs of individual and organisations (Rugman and Hodgetts, 1995). It involves commercial activities that cross national frontiers.

As discussed above, all the basic tools and concepts of domestic management (planning, organising, leading and controlling) are relevant to international business. However, special problems, such as languages barriers, different rules and regulations, foreign currency transaction, different control and communication systems, risk levels in terms of political, financial or commercial risks and numerous cultural differences, may arise in international business (Bennett, 1996). Hence, rare skills in special demand include: the ability to negotiate; technological skills; knowledge of franchising; marketing and an understanding of money market around the world (Brooke, 1996).

Here, this paper is more focused on the departmental functions of human resource management and marketing, with their dependence upon the human and cultural interaction.
Transnational Management and Ethnoconsumer Perspective

Transnational corporations take an essentially polycentric attitude and the marketing strategies for each country are determined by the host country’s culture. These markets are not always traditional and non-religious ones relevant to rational western theories based on scientific research with apparent rational business decisions (Mintzberg, 1973) to being more influenced by to eastern wisdom founded in spiritually driven guidance. For many people, their religious beliefs are always with them. These non-negotiable principles directly influence the cultural ethics of their decision making. Specifically, whether the ethics of people’s actions will be judged by society or by a higher religious belief is a key concept and difference between many people’s approach to business, tourism and life.

The management competences required to fulfil the management task and functions are an extension of Mintzberg’s managerial skills (Robbins et al., 2000). Competence is the core knowledge and skills developed through an outcome based curriculum which is an efficient and effective method of developing skills which can be assessed against set standards. It is based on behaviourist psychology and is a narrow focus approach (Cairns, 1992). Boyatzis (1982) defined competency as an underlying characteristic of a manager which can lead to effective performance. His nineteen competences are grouped into five clusters of: goal and action, leadership, human resource management, directing subordinates and focus on others.

These are in a complex model related the demand of the job and its environment. They do, however, resemble the original descriptions of management and the process of management. These new management key competences have been an area of concern for the future of Australia. Researches, including Karpin (1995), have identified global competencies and an international training policy (DEET, 1995).

The Mayer (1992) committee (DEET, 1995) defined and advocated seven key competencies for Australians, including: analysing information, communicating ideas, working with others, problem solving among others and mentioned a possible eighth one as “cultural understanding”.

The commonly identified necessary skills of the transnational manager include: global perspective, local responsiveness, synergistic learning and cross-cultural interaction (McNally and Parry, 2000). These are similar to those of Adler and Bartholomew (1992) which include: broad based sociability, cultural flexibility, cosmopolitan orientation and collaborative approach. Taking this managerial technical competence into new domains is the essence of capability.

Capability, in its simplest form, is a construct which applies to individuals and has been defined by Stephenson (1993) as having justified confidence in your ability to take appropriate and effective action, to communicate effectively, to collaborate with others and learn from experiences in changing and unfamiliar circumstances.

In the case of global capability, this means that managers educated within the bases of western paradigms and theories would be able to transfer the outcomes of this education in the form of management competences to the unfamiliar eastern culture. This can also include Asian managers, educated in the east by western universities but operating within an eastern market. The development of aspects of globally competent managers (DeSimone and Harris, 1998; Spreitzer, McCall and Mahoney, 1997) is different from the past definitions of successful managerial competencies. This is because global competencies “requires being able to learn from experience” (p. 407).

By definition, this is therefore global capability as it involves cognitive social learning (Bandura, 1977; 1997), values, self-awareness and an active, not passive learning style. Spreitzer et al. (1997) have identified fourteen dimensions to predict international executive potential. These include eight end-state competencies with sensitivity to cultural differences and six learning-orientated dimensions including: uses feedback, is culturally adventurous, seeks opportunities to learn, is open to criticism, seeks feedback and is flexible.

These future competencies (DeSimone and Harris, 1998) include: knowledge, international experience, self management skills, integrity and flexibility. This is similar to the five ‘meta-abilities’ of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998) which are self awareness, self regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills.
Global Management Competencies

Karpin/Boyatzis (1995; 1982)
- Goal and action management (planning and knowledge)
- Leadership (styles/context/motivation)
- Human resource management (structure)
- Communication (interpersonal)
- Social responsibility (values)
- Problem solving (rational/creative)
- Cultural understanding

Adler and Bartholomew (1992)
- Global perspective (east/west philosophies, ethnoconsumerism)
- Cross-cultural interaction (self-awareness, non verbal communication, mindfulness)
- Synergistic learning (behavioural changes simultaneously from different cultures)

Spreitzer (1997)
- Sensitive to cultural differences (ambiguity of religion and values)
- Manage diverse teams (consensus to achieve objectives)
- Seeks feedback (open and aware of impacts)
- Flexible (change orientated)

Bandura (1971)
- Self-efficacy
- Belief in capabilities to produce given attainments

Banks (1994)
- Global competency (progression from ethnic psychological captivity to multi-ethnicity and reflective nationalism)

Cairns and Stephenson (2000; 1998)
- Capability
- Ability (competences, skills and knowledge)
- Self-efficacy (belief in oneself)
- Shared values (integrity)
- Effective utilisation of capability (learner managed learning, method of problem solving and mindful openness to change)
- Solving unfamiliar problems in unfamiliar situations (global management)

Transnational Management and Ethnoconsumer Perspective
The description of much global or international facets of behaviour as “competencies” is a definitional stretch of the concept. Competence, as it is more regularly defined and theorised is basically a term which covers observable current skills based on current knowledge (Harris et al., 1995; Cairns, 1992). ‘Key’, ‘generic’ or ‘global’ terms modify or extend the competence concept to somehow move the idea beyond its basic roots. This is unfortunate in that they are not consistent with the theory base (behaviourism) and the clear, specific, narrow conceptualisation inherent in competence as a concept (Cairns, 1997a).

This paper is suggesting that the concept of capability is broader and more flexibility orientated and thus appears to be applicable to this case. Capability is defined as a holistic concept that describes how an individual or organisation applies their ability in a confident manner to problems in new and unfamiliar circumstances as well as in familiar situations (Cairns, 2000). The detail of this concept includes three attributes: ability (current competence), self-efficacy (belief in the capability to perform satisfactorily) and shared appropriate values (trust and valuing diversity).

There are three processes which support the effective utilisation of capability. These are: learner managed learning, problem formulation solving approach and being mindful with openness to change (Cairns, 2000). This involves the progress of solving familiar problems in familiar situations to solving complex problems in
unfamiliar situations (position Z). The capable global manager therefore requires the characteristics of: flexibility, adaptability, an awareness of their potential as well as current competence, operating within appropriate shared societal values, ability to manage their own learning effectively, ability to formulate and solve problems and high levels of self efficacy (belief in their own capabilities) (Cairns, 2000).

Ethnocapability is, therefore, offered here as an appropriate descriptor for the concept being presented. Ethnocapability is the ability to transfer competence within one culture and perform effectively in a multicultural situation (Cairns, 1997a). This capability requires global knowledge, cross-cultural communication skills, flexibility, mindfulness, self-efficacy, appreciation of values and self managed learning.

**Tourism, International Marketing and Consumer Behaviour**

Consumer behaviour – ‘the behaviour that consumers display on searching for; purchasing, using, evaluating and disposing of products, services and ideas which they expect will satisfy their needs.’

Analysis of consumer behaviour is based on internal and external values and decision making (Schiffman et al., 1997). These values are bases on western, e.g., Freudian theories of analysis. Are these relevant to the eastern consumer? Is this possible, with the present consumer behaviour models based on western theories, for eastern ethnoconsumerist market?

Attempts made using subcultures. A significant management challenge for the future international tourism is satisfying visitors who have profoundly different cultural beliefs and traditions. With the emerging growth of one global market, limited vigorous research exists concerning the diverse easter and western perspectives of quality and satisfaction.

Present theories are from western paradigms and based on rational scientific approaches to truth. These models are not directly relevant to the eastern method of interpretation and meaning due to different consciousness expressing itself in the realism of consumer value and buying patterns.

**Theory Building Models and Paradigms**

The evolution of present academic theory has a bias for the western theories and the use of paradigms. In the case of tourism, the search for a paradigm for a customer focus has also utilised traditional western psychological theory and also using western tourists in America (Berrell and Mc Pherson, 1995; Loker and Perdue, 1992)

Tourism consumer behaviour is not a definitively researched area. Those models which do exist are basic in nature – similar to those of Maslow’s. These models do not examine how to service a multicultural consumer population.

**Ethnoconsumerism**

Ethnoconsumerism studies consumption within a given social group or culture and its theoretical framework. The term ethnic has previously referred to cultural groups outside their nation of origin but these are now part of our national culture and global, borderless world.

Cross-cultural marketing research emerged as an extension of logical positivism. They are ‘methodologically flawed with a parochial or ethnocentric view.’ Ethnoconsumerism is thus a ‘new paradigm to study cultural and cross-cultural behaviour.’
Independent Variables

Trainee Characteristics
Learning concerns the individual changing their behaviour as a consequence of the interaction between the characteristics of the learner and the factors of the environment. Trainability is a combination of the trainees’ level of ability, motivation and their perception of the work environment (Noe, 1986). All three factors are required to achieve a learning outcome.

The perception of training and the way in which the individuals view their ability affects anxiety level, efficacy perception and motivation to learn (Martocchio, 1994). The need for achievement and Broom’s expectancy model are most relevant to outcomes. University entry scores are not identified as reliable predictors of future performance.

Research concerning characteristics affecting transfer of education demonstrates that personality is of limited relevance in comparison to those of motivation. Two personality dimensions, those of extraversion and openness to experience are valid predictors of success in training (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Matching the model of instruction with the aptitudes of the trainee maximises the probability of learning transfer (Cronbach and Snow, 1977).

Kelly (1969) described learning is the constant alteration of one’s construct system with the goal of increasing its predictive efficiency and any change to one’s construct system exemplifies learning. For Kelly, constructs could be described in terms of cognitive awareness and create a framework for viewing oneself and the environment. Each individual has a different view of the world and their interaction with it. It is assumed for the purposes of this research that these individual characteristics are neutral in their relation to the dependant variable.

Culture and Environment

Work environment characteristics
‘Learning to teaching across cultures is becoming increasingly common and is a process which may be conceptualised developmentally’ (Biggs, 1997, p. 1). These develop from level one where student differences are seen as deviations from an ethnocentric ideal to level two where the focus is on techniques relevant to particular cultures and level three where the focus is on principles of teaching and learning that apply across systems.
The evidence suggest that previous stereotyping of some cultures as rote learners is not correct and that these universal principles can apply across cultures. This is because certain aspects of culture lose their uniqueness when good teaching focuses on the similarities of the cognitive processes (Biggs, 1997).

Literature reviews emphasised that work environment is relevant to educational outcomes, especially if they are reinforced on the job by cultural and supervisory support (Baldwin and Ford, 1988).

The issue of culture and learning is a major topic on its own and highly relevant to international providers of education, specifically, universities.

The concept of education is relevant in the strategy for social reengineering and the creation of human capital (Coleman, 1990) and the significance in our knowledge based society.

There is however limited research into the relevance of culture and educational outcomes and therefore a differentiated view which is sensitive, a dynamic view, rather than static or stereotype, is needed to develop a situational view in terms of the relevance of education and educational outcomes to specific learning groups.

The relevance of culture to educational outcomes and the relationship of educational outcomes to the social and societal environment in which they are learnt or transported to, are relevant factors in the dependent variables for this research. This present explanation is used solely to lay a framework for the subsequent chapters relating to educational methodologies; specifically, the creation of credibility in terms of meaning to the student consumer.

Some support for the above concept can be found in the original theories of motivation, such as those of Maslow’s (1954) and Herzberg’s (1959), where self actualisation is identified as a motivator in term of self achievement. Hygiene factors, such as work supervision, environment, temperature, lighting, conditions of work and salary, are seen purely as possible demotivators from this research. As such, it is logical that educational aspirations relate to the motivation of the individual and are not directly correlated to the environment in which they are studied.

The environment in which they are studied, however, may create the motivation due to the use of education to achieving personal objectives and therefore be part of a goal setting motivation relevant to the individual (Locke, 1968).

For the additional purpose of this research, the attainment of educational outcomes, graduate attributes needs to be examined in terms of whether these graduate outcomes are compatible with the relatively new strategies employed by universities in terms of flexible learning and distance education.

The subsequent chapters within this research and literature review examine the relevance of teacher or educational philosophies and principles, research and date conducted so far on the relevance of distance education to student outcomes and specifically the possible relevance of that to graduate outcomes in the future. This then is a form of ethnoconsumerism and all the factors that this involves concern the analysis of the consumption of graduate outcomes.

**Family social backgrounds and educational outcomes**

The present view has indicated a significant relationship that is present between family social background, ethnicity, race, family and school proximal settings in the educational outcomes of the students. The outcomes, such as academic performance, aspirations, school retention and transition at entry level job market, increasingly ask the relationship between social context and educational outcomes or need to broaden the definition of outcomes and examines in more details the links among social context, elaborates school outcomes and the labour market demand. This concept of employability in a recent survey (NBEET, 1995, p. 35) concluded that the employers indicated that graduates tent to lack well developed oral or written communication skills, interpersonal skills, team skills, initiatives and attitudes to work. Specifically, employability was a combination of academic and personal qualifications.
There is from a Weberian perspective stated that, in a given society, one of the outcomes of education is the power; the dominant status group universalises a particular cultural ideal (Collins, 1997a). This Weberian perspective suggest that power can determined what is value within the educational system and that whilst the full understanding and relevance of family background, social context to educational outcomes may not be understood, there is an underlying implication that is relevant to educational outcomes. This is relevant to evaluating capability outcomes in different national environments and cultures for this research.

Flexible Learning

Results and factors in education research
The literature review concerns the research and the analysis of the factors relevant to these paradigms. The factors concerned are those of: dependant variables, learning outcomes and learning methodology and environments. This includes: outcomes, including knowledge, skills, attitudes and abilities, whether it would be deep or superficial learning, understood or reproduced, whether it would be concerned with developing basic life skills in the practical applications of theories learnt, the more sophisticated level of difficulty, the appropriate management of the learning and the other relevant factors involved in the processing of that communication.

The framework for examining the transfer of training (Baldwin and Ford, 1998) contains the factors of: training inputs (training characteristics, training design and work environments); training outputs (learning and retention); and conditions of transfer (generalisations and maintenance). Essentially this is the framework for this proposed research, where training characteristics includes the nationality of the student, design includes flexible learning and work environment includes the nation and culture the students receives the flexible delivery and the extent to which this is supported by practical on the job experience.

Learning can be defined as: “A process of reorganisation of sensory feedback patterning which shifts the learners level of control over his or her behaviour in relation to the objects and events of the environment” (Smith, 1998). This definition refers not only to the process but also to the psychological understanding and implication of control over one’s behaviour and to the environment which is relevant to the learning. Definitions can also include: “becoming capable in any situation’ and ‘any activities developing new knowledge and abilities’ (Ryle, 1983 and Galperin, 1965).

Theories of learning
The work of Bruner and Ausubel (1963) were concerned with cognitive processes which have developed into information processing theories. This has allowed better ways of teaching including those of Rogers and Knowles and the practice of teaching such as pedagogy and andragogy, to be examined.

Behaviourism concerns a passive approach to learning in comparison to cognitive theorists who are concern with active participation in the learning process. Passive learning involves: the work of Pavlov that of classical conditioning and Skinner that of operant conditioning.

Bandura’s (1969) research evolved from the behaviourist school towards the cognitive processes. Specifically that people learn by observing others and within cognitive social theory (Smith, 1998). This work evolves from passive to active theories developed into experiential learning and the work of Kolb (1984).

The concept of capability (Cairns, 1997) and problem solving in unknown situations has its origins in cognitive social learning.

Flexible learning and distance education is essentially a private form of learning based upon course materials providing access and two-way communication. This requires personal motivation, self-instruction using a cognitive/constructionist approach where the student assumes responsibility to construct meaning. This involves both a behaviourist and a cognitive social learning approach although distance educators still debate the choice of the relevant paradigms. This is because the balance of teacher/student control is constantly changing and subsequently also the level of two way communication as a component of the education transaction. In addition the technology of distance education has evolved from correspondence, teleconferencing and computer-based learning, requiring theorists to re examine their relevant theories and
paradigms. This is part of the objective of this research as it is hypothesised that flexible learning and distance education with the subsequent application in the work environment provide the opportunity for the achievement of a higher level of competence that the purely theoretical closed university environment.

Learning and the processes utilised to achieve learning also require outcomes and the assessment of these outcomes. Assessment is a complicated issue but essentially must be valid and reliable. Learning objectives and outcomes are equally a complicated issue but usually relates to either/and/or: 1. to understand the application of these techniques to varying situations, 2. to develop and apply technical and conceptual interpersonal skills, 3. to learn to be able to enquire, 4. to value the knowledge, skills and attitudes within specific situation and environment relevant to and considered within the learning process.

The issues with the assessment of these outcomes include: formative (i.e. used for the purpose of guiding and improving student learning); summative (used for the purpose of certifying student achievement); validity (to the extent to which the assessment procedures fulfil their intended purpose); reliability (the dependability of consistancy of the results of assessment); criterion reference assessment (criteria for passing or failing); and norm reference assessment (setting standards according to a statistical process).

For the purpose of this research we are concerned with university graduates’ attributes and this is based on the work of capability (Cairns, 1996). The core Monash graduates attributes as an example are those of: written and oral communication; enquiry; information literacy and numeracy; self direction; team work; global output; moral and social responsibility; curiosity; and creativity.

International Business: education and Training
Graduate outcomes, from traditional university courses, are assessed using the normal assignment and examination techniques.

Recently, graduate attribute tests (GATS) have been trial by the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) in ten universities to assess graduate attributes. These are based upon the managerial competences identified by Karpin (1995) but do not test cultural sensitivity as stated in these reports.

Different strategies and methods are considered to be appropriate to different educational outcomes including knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA) and various taxonomies.

Gagne and Briggs (1979) expand this concept into principles of instructional design and the achievement of different capabilities. These include: intellectual skill, cognitive strategy, information, attitude and motor skill. This framework is relevant to the different methods most appropriate to the requirements of achieving global competency.

In terms of international business knowledge, traditional passive university class room lectures are an appropriate method. In terms of the skills and capabilities, however, active experiential and reflective methods are more appropriate.

Cross-cultural education and training programs focus on: raising the awareness of cultural differences, attitudes, factual information and building skills in terms of language, non verbal communication and cultural adaptation (Callahan, 1989). The most effective method of achieving these outcomes is by living in other cultures and travelling abroad compared to simulation or other methods (Harris and Moran, 1991). Students learning in a variety of situations and different cultures, will achieve relatively higher management competences as compared to those studying in a mono culture.

Distance education students and international students studying overseas therefore comply more closely to the research training needs identified as: experience of living and working abroad, cultural awareness and interpersonal skills, knowledge and information (Laabs, 1996). This is the basis of the theoretical framework for ethnocapability.

The methods available to achieve an understanding of ethnoconsumerism and multicultural capability in the form of ethnocapability are:
• Formal education (theory based methodologies)
• Training and development course (knowledge and skills)
• Work experience and relationships (experiential / action learning)
(Karpin, 1995, p. 265).

This learning to learn about other cultures requires: knowledge, interaction, empathy, tolerance of ambiguity and the ability to analyse using a variety of paradigms including those from the east (Chen, 1994). This is the management metamorphosis of the future, progressing from the primal rational to the metaphysical, cultural and anthropological domains (Lessen, 1998).

Research Design

Objective
The primary objective of this research is to establish the comparative effectiveness of flexible learning in achieving the outcome of global management capability.

Theory building models and paradigms
This paper concerns the limitation of present research theory devising results to be applied in the practice of another culture. These problems include an understanding of relevant paradigms, appropriate epistemology and cross-cultural management (Berrell and MacPherson, 1995). These researchers state that: “the concept of paradigm has been used rather indiscriminately by theorists across the disciplines since the late 1970’s” (p. 9). The selection of the paradigm is often that of personal appeal rather than the rational and notion of good science.

This requires the use of selected paradigms to attempt to present a coherent justification of conflicting research findings in a comprehensible holistic format for the use of the industry practitioner (Berrell and MacPherson, 1995). The evolution of present academic theory has a bias for the western theories of learning, epistemology and the use of paradigms. McAllister and Irvine (2000) describe how Bank’s (1994) study of ethnic identity utilises a six stages model which can be used to help teacher educators in understanding the progression along the construct towards global competency.

The six stages are: ‘ethnic psychological captivity, ethnic encapsulation, ethnic identity clarification, bi-ethnicity, multi-ethnicity and reflective nationalism, and globalism and global competency’ (Banks, 1994, p. 228).

This is relevant, in that, stage one describes how members of the dominant culture stereotype and internalise their beliefs and perceptions of the world. This progresses through reflection of one’s own culture to the desire to function in more than one culture and eventually learning how to balance and utilise the required paradigm depending upon the context (Banks, 1994). This research is based upon a conceptual framework to study the achievement of global management competencies depending upon the independent variables of flexible learning and the environment of a given culture (i.e. from an emic perspective). This partially denies the use of positivist social science theories with modification to adapt from one culture to another.

This is the study from the point of view of a culture group which is the subject of study. From an eastern perspective, this includes religion. The study of multicultures and cultural sensitivity, therefore, progresses along a continuum from a totally western ethnocentric view through to the inclusion of eastern concepts by western scholars (Hofstede, 1994) to eastern scholars studying western concepts in the east (Zhu and Dowling, 2000). This is further represented in the diagram (insert New Paradigm of Ethnocapability diagram).

Limitations and Assumptions
This research involves using theories which originated in the west and which have subsequently been adapted for use in diverse and multicultural contexts. Research which is mainly qualitative have established that at the higher levels of teaching and learning, there are considerable similarities between the western and non western educational systems.
This is described as the development in cross cultural psychology from a pseudo-etic perspective examining differences through emic to etic levels. These higher level theories involving action and reflective learning are considered to be cross culturally transferable (Biggs, 1997). The instruments have been validated by previous use in multicultural situations but not specifically in the Asia pacific basin.

It is the intention within this research to compare findings from the different cultures of east and west to also test the cross cultural transferability of these theories of learning. This research utilises the transfer of trainability model of Baldwin and Ford (1988), incorporating variables of: trainee, training design, work environment, learning and retention, with generalisation and maintenance.

It is assumed that the individual trainees, students, are of similar ability, personality and motivation. Specifically this is reflected in similar enter scores. Research has shown that there is no correlation between higher enter scores and past rates. The research is essentially concerned with the training design and principles of learning within a particular environment.

**RESEARCH METHOD**

*Global management competencies*
This consist of management competencies (Karpin, 1995), global management competencies (Adler and Bartholemew, 1992) and ethnocapability (Cairns and Townsend, 2000) requiring independent active learning outcomes (Spreitzer et al,1997) combined with global self efficacy (Bandura, 1971).

*Flexible learning*
This consists of a continuum of:
- Australian internal student at Australian university (domestic culture)
- Australian students studying degree by DE or combination
- Overseas students studying in home country
- Overseas students studying in Australia
- Overseas national studying for a degree by DE in different countries (Singapore student studying Monash degree by DE and working for transnational corporation in different countries).

*Hypothesis*
1. That a greater level of global management competence (ethnocapability) will be achieved by flexible delivery to overseas students studying in different nations than traditional on campus study. Specifically, that there will be a correlation between the variables of global management capability and the degree of variation of cultural diversity in which students study similar course content.

2. That this hypothesis will also be true for international students who study on campus at the overseas (home) campus in comparison to domestic Australian students studying internally.

3. That Australian students studying on campuses with a significant proportion of international students will be more globally capable than those who do not.

4. That students who study international subjects on any campus will be more internationally capable than those who do not.
Measurements

**Dependant variable**
Global management competence can be measured utilising Banks’s (1994) typology of ethnic identity which consist of a 42 items questionnaires. The independent action learning can be measured utilising elements of Spreitzer’s et al (1997) scale for early identification of international executive potential.

Global self efficacy can be measured by the creation of a self efficacy scale based upon Bandura (1971) self efficacy scales

**Independent variables**
The continuum of flexible learning and exposure to cognitive social learning opportunities in different nationalities and cultures would be measured using a questionnaire to establish these factors.

The above instruments for the dependent variable have been validated by previous research. They essentially use Likert’s scales and as such the normal psychological statistical techniques of correlation, regression and ‘t’ test of significance are appropriate.

The questionnaires instruments will be utilised on a longitudinal manner beginning when students commence their study and sequentially on a yearly basis until the students graduate. It is assumed that those students who graduate in international business degrees or majors will have achieved some level of global management competency which can be calibrated and compared to the other questionnaires. For the independent variables, both Likert’s scales and nominal data will be used to correlate to the dependent variable. It is anticipated that the SPSS will be utilised for the analysis.

Sample
The sample population will consist of undergraduate students studying in the business degrees of a variety of universities. It will include: Australian students studying in Australia and overseas by internal and flexible delivery methods; overseas students studying on campus in Australia; international students studying in their home countries such as Singapore and Hong Kong; and international students studying by distance working in countries other than their own. In addition, it is intended to use samples from students studying in overseas cultures which are western in origin but different in cultural nature.
CONCLUSION

A new paradigm is required beyond the traditional management theory approach to include multicultural beliefs as part of management. These multicultural and different non-negotiable beliefs create a potential for conflict if analysed using western hierarchical models based on a place in time and geography. In isolation these are therefore no longer relevant. This borderless management and diversity is a metamorphosis of global transformation combining the western rational analysis and eastern harmony using values to transcend the ‘east-west’ divide (Lessem, 1998, p. 45).
REFERENCES


