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Language Diversity and Leadership

Abstract

Research indicates the value of language diversity for nations, organizations, and individuals. However, it is unclear whether language diversity is an untapped leadership resource. The purpose of this study was to examine language diversity and leadership effectiveness in the U.S. labor market. The conceptual framework of language-as-resource framed the topic of this study (Ruiz, 1984). This study employed mixed methods procedures. First, data from the 2010 General Social Survey was used to describe the relationship between languages other than English (LOTE) and occupational achievement by utilizing proxy variables. Descriptive statistics and hierarchical regressions results were reported. Second, data were gathered from a purposefully selected focus group to gain deeper insight about speaking a LOTE within the leadership function. Participants were alumni with a major or minor in a specific LOTE from a Research Institution in upstate New York. The data were examined for a relationship between language diversity and leadership effectiveness. Analysis of quantitative data found no evidence that speaking a LOTE predicts either occupational prestige or income. However, qualitative data furthered understanding of the nuances of language diversity and leadership effectiveness. These understandings were captured in the themes of (a) cultural acumen, (b) relational insight, (c) communication savvy, (d) impetus for development, and (d) social civility. Combined results provide a broader perspective of language diversity and leadership effectiveness to encourage LOTE skills among leaders, and to encourage organizations to hire leaders with LOTE skills and promote LOTE study.

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Supervised by

Dr. Marie Cianca

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Ralph C. Wilson, Jr. School of Education
St. John Fisher College

August 2014

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Dedication

This research is dedicated in memory of John (Giovanni) Olivieri, Sr., exemplary Italian immigrant, husband, father, servant-leader, and philanthropist, who with one suitcase crossed the Atlantic and embraced the America of opportunity, who through hard work and humility raised a family and built a business that has afforded, through the years and to this day, the well-being of many families in the Rochester community. To *Nino*, my father-in-law, and father, mentor, and friend to my husband Leonardo who carries on his legacy in the family and community today.

Biographical Sketch

Deborah Oliverio-Olivieri is currently an instructor of Italian. Ms. Oliverio-Olivieri holds a Bachelor of Arts degree in International Business and Economics (1992) from the State University of New York College at Brockport. She earned a Master's of Business Administration with a concentration in Marketing from the University of Rochester William E. Simon Graduate School of Business Administration (1996). She began doctoral studies at St. John Fisher College in the summer of 2012 in the Ed.D. Program in Executive Leadership. Ms. Oliverio-Olivieri pursued her research in Language Diversity and Leadership under the direction of Dr. Marie Cianca and Dr. Bruce Blaine and received the Ed.D. degree in 2014.

Abstract

Research indicates the value of language diversity for nations, organizations, and individuals. However, it is unclear whether language diversity is an untapped leadership resource. The purpose of this study was to examine language diversity and leadership effectiveness in the U.S. labor market. The conceptual framework of language-as-resource framed the topic of this study (Ruiz, 1984). This study employed mixed methods procedures. First, data from the 2010 General Social Survey were used to describe the relationship between languages other than English (LOTE) and occupational achievement by utilizing proxy variables. Descriptive statistics and hierarchical regressions results were reported. Second, data were gathered from a purposefully selected focus group to gain deeper insight about speaking a LOTE within the leadership function. Participants were alumni with a major or minor in a specific LOTE from a Research Institution in upstate New York. The data were examined for a relationship between language diversity and leadership effectiveness. Analysis of quantitative data found no evidence that speaking a LOTE predicts either occupational prestige or income. However, qualitative data furthered understanding of the nuances of language diversity and leadership effectiveness. These understandings were captured in the themes of (a) cultural acumen, (b) relational insight, (c) communication savvy, (d) impetus for development, and (d) social civility. Combined results provide a broader perspective of language diversity and leadership effectiveness to encourage LOTE skills among leaders, and to encourage organizations to hire leaders with LOTE skills and promote LOTE study.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

To help the United States citizenry better understand and respect other cultures in a post 9/11 reality, former President George W. Bush introduced the National Security Language Initiative (NSLI) in January 2006 (Bureau of Public Affairs, 2006). Bush's initiative to expand foreign language capacity in the United States was pivotal in revisiting issues related to language diversity in the nation. In addressing university presidents, former President George W. Bush proposed increasing cultural understanding by learning a language. As he expressed, "It's a gesture of interest. It really is a fundamental way to reach out to somebody and say, I care about you. I want you to know that I'm interested in not only how you talk but how you live" (Bush, 2006). The need for cultural understanding in a post 9/11 world has generated demand for dialogue related to language diversity in a presently ambivalent environment.

Coupled with cultural understanding, a distinction for the 21st century is the shifting U.S. population landscape in the past four decades. The shifting landscape is not only demographic, but linguistic as well. In 1980, 11% of the population over five years of age spoke a language other than English (LOTE), whereas in 2010, twenty percent reported doing so (U.S. Census, 1980; U.S. Census, 2010). Indeed, changing demographics in the United States have increased language groups such as Vietnamese, Russian, Korean, Chinese, Persian, and Tagalog (Shin & Kominski, 2010), further contributing to the importance of language diversity. These demographic variations necessitate dealing with changes in the domestic marketplace, while at the same time

adapting to the diverse global marketplace which has flourished (Waldman & Soma, 2007). While the late 19th century and early 20th century hosted the *big six* European languages—German, Italian, French, Spanish, Polish, and Yiddish (Fishman, 2004)—their current presence, with the exception of Spanish, has declined due to diminished migration and aging generations (Shin & Kominski, 2010). Despite no large waves of European immigration as once experienced, these European languages are still present in the United States (Potowski, 2010).

In the case of Spanish, history reveals its integral role in the United States. Having reached Florida in the 1500s with Juan Ponce de León (Garcia, 2005), the presence of Spanish continued in Colonial times alongside other languages (Dicker, 2003). The middle of the 20th century saw increased immigration from Latin American and Caribbean Islands with an influx of Spanish speakers (Potowski & Carreira, 2010). According to the 2010 U.S. Census, 12.8% of the population today speaks Spanish at home (U.S. Census, 2010). The importance of Spanish is longstanding as highlighted in a 1946 article outlining necessary foreign languages for various employment positions, with Spanish having highest demand relative to other languages at the time (Burke, 1946). With respect to Spanish-speaking ability today, not much has changed as recruiting research reveals it is still in top demand (Kordsmeier, Arn, & Rogers, 2000, Korn/Ferry International, 2005; Waldman & Soma, 2007). In a study conducted among international businesses in Wisconsin, approximately half indicated Spanish was the most valuable language for their industry, followed by Chinese (Waldman & Soma, 2007). Likewise among business executives, research reveals Spanish is the most utilized among foreign languages (Grosse, 2004). In fact, employers in areas of the United States with

large Spanish-speaking enclaves regard Spanish not just as a skill, but as an “innate talent” (Alarcón & Heyman, 2013, p. 19). Figure 1.1 reports decennial U.S. Census data on language use showing a comparison of percentages from a selection of languages spoken in the home. The data is based on the U.S. population of five years of age or older.

	1980	Pop % 1980	1990	Pop % 1990	2000	Pop % 2000	2010	Pop % 2010	% change 1980-2010
Population 5 years and over	210,247,455		230,445,777		262,375,152		289,215,746		37.6
Spoke only English at home	187,187,415		198,600,798		215,423,557		229,673,150		22.7
Spoke a language other than English at home ¹	23,060,040		31,844,979		46,951,595		59,542,596		158.2
Spoke a language other than English at home	23,060,040	11.0	31,844,979	13.8	46,951,595	17.9	59,542,596	20.6	158.2
Spanish	11,116,194	5.3	17,345,064	7.5	28,101,052	10.7	36,995,602	12.8	232.8
French	1,550,751	0.7	1,930,404	0.8	2,097,206	0.8	2,069,352	0.7	33.4
Italian	1,618,344	0.8	1,308,648	0.6	1,008,370	0.4	725,223	0.3	-55.2
Portuguese	351,875	0.2	430,610	0.2	564,630	0.2	688,326	0.2	95.6
German	1,586,593	0.8	1,547,987	0.7	1,383,442	0.5	1,067,651	0.4	-32.7
Yiddish	315,953	0.2	213,064	0.1	178,945	0.1	154,763	0.1	-51.0
Greek	401,443	0.2	388,260	0.2	365,436	0.1	307,178	0.1	-23.5
Russian	173,226	0.1	241,798	0.1	706,242	0.3	854,955	0.3	393.5
Polish	820,647	0.4	723,483	0.3	667,414	0.3	608,333	0.2	-25.9
Serbo-Croatian	150,255	0.1	70,964	0.0	233,865	0.1	284,077	0.1	89.1
Armenian	100,634	0.0	149,694	0.1	202,708	0.1	240,402	0.1	138.9
Persian	106,992	0.1	201,865	0.1	312,085	0.1	381,408	0.1	256.5
Chinese	630,806	0.3	1,319,462	0.6	2,022,143	0.8	2,808,692	1.0	345.3
Japanese	336,318	0.2	427,657	0.2	477,997	0.2	443,497	0.2	31.9
Korean	266,280	0.1	626,478	0.3	894,063	0.3	1,137,325	0.4	327.1
Vietnamese	197,588	0.1	507,069	0.2	1,009,627	0.4	1,381,488	0.5	599.2
Tagalog	474,150	0.2	843,251	0.4	1,224,241	0.5	1,573,720	0.5	231.9
Other languages	2,861,991	1.4	3,569,221	1.5	5,502,129	2.1	7,820,604	2.7	173.3

Figure 1.1. Languages spoken at home for which data were available for the time periods including: 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010. Data in table adapted from U.S. Census Bureau, 1980 and 1990, Census 2000, and the 2010 American Community Survey.

Current language discourses in the United States include concerns with the available collection of existing languages other than English (LOTE) and expansion of their future assortment (Potowski, 2010). Discourses on language take into account the presence of a sustainable environment for language prosperity as well (Robinson, Rivers, & Brecht, 2006). In describing challenges of sustaining languages, Romaine (2008) observes the “notion of sustainability in relation to linguistic diversity is really to ask how communities around the world can sustain continued use of their languages in the future in the face of the spread of global languages such as English” (p. 8). The global relevance of English creates imbalances in certain local language ecologies, thereby threatening local linguistic diversity (Phillipson, 2009a). The challenge is to ensure a balanced cohabitation of English and languages other than English (Phillipson, 2009a) by creating receptive social environments that shape citizenry perspectives toward LOTE (Shenk, 2011). The fact that languages other than English exist in the United States, but the citizenry views these as trivial, is worthy of research (Shenk, 2011).

An exploration of language in 21st century globalism provides context for focusing on language diversity. Although globalization is not a new wonder, its profundity today is unique (Phillipson, 1999). The dynamics of globalization are evident in economic, political, and cultural processes. Among these processes, economic activity is a key in globalization. Within global economic activity, the English language is deemed the *lingua franca* of the marketplace, or more accurately described by some researchers as the *lingua economica* (Phillipson, 2008). The effective global promotion of English linguistic imperialism is manifest in many areas especially global economic activities (Phillipson, 1992). Economic forces have created a standardized marketplace

with a standardized language, English, to manage its trade activity (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000). Despite English language dominance, globalization shrinks national barriers and increases the need to understand other languages and cultures (Brecht, 2007).

Availability of the global marketplace has caused business expansion outside the United States. Combined with this expansion, a weakened U.S. dollar has made American-made exports attractive in foreign markets thereby increasing their demand, thus increasing business dealings abroad (Feldstein, 2011). In connection with export activity, some research points to competency in foreign languages as a factor in entering and conducting business in foreign markets (Obben & Magagula, 2003). When conducting business affairs abroad, LOTE skills provide a competitive advantage for firms and individuals (Grosse, 2004). Hence, competency in LOTE becomes an important resource to facilitate business communication, planning, and operations (Williams D. A., 2010). This is evidenced in research conducted among human resources managers who deem LOTE fluency in U.S. businesses as a necessary skill (Kordsmeier et al., 2000). Research in a study conducted among international businesses indicated need in foreign language proficiency in (a) high-level positions such as engineering, accounting, and consulting; (b) mid-level positions including coordinators and sales; and (c) low-level positions relating to customer service representatives (Waldman & Soma, 2007). However, global marketplace participants are not always equipped with foreign language capacity. In order to overcome such barriers, a recent study found some organizations use *bridge* individuals who are individuals familiar with specific foreign languages (Harzing, Koester, & Magner, 2011).

Even with the promise of language diversity as an instrument in achieving understanding, it has met confrontation. According to Ruiz (1984), this confrontation is due in part because of perceptions that multilingualism does not promote harmony since individuals speak their own language. In a recent language politics study assessing attitudes toward a proposed statewide language in the Ukraine—which in the 1930s experienced Soviet integration and promotion of Russian—the overall sentiment was for a unifying language (Kulyk, 2011). However, when respondents were asked about the language domain, 48.5% preferred the spread of Ukrainian, 39.3% preferred that of Russian, and 7% opted for implementation of minority language rights (Kulyk, 2011). By and large, the view on which language the nation-state should promote differed among survey respondents (Kulyk, 2011). Respondents did not agree to the same unifying language, thereby revealing a certain degree of disharmony. In his discussion of language as a unifying tool for a nation, Kelman (1972), describes the advantages of a common language “When there is a single national language, opportunities for integration of individuals are likely to be more evenly distributed within the population” (p. 196).

Inefficiencies in the marketplace compound the political discussion of language diversity challenges. In analyzing language diversity and economic outcomes for India and China—two of the most populated countries in the world—Desmet, Ortuño-Ortín, and Wacziarg (2012) found that of the two growing economies, India trailed behind China. The researchers attributed these findings to a wider language range found in India rather than in China (Desmet, Ortuño-Ortín, & Wacziarg, 2012). Indian language diversity hinders efficiency of business activity, even with its two similar languages of

Hindi and Gujarati (Desmet et al., 2012). In the same manner that language is a “powerful unifying force in nation-states” (Kelman, 1972, p. 197), a common language in business can provide integration and foster economic growth (Lauring & Selmer, 2011).

History of Languages in the United States

For well over 200 hundred years, the English language has been “to a certain extent, a component of American nationhood” (Brandes, 2009, p. 33). While English was used by the colonists as the language of public communication, the Constitution of the United States did not declare English as the official language of the newly created country (Pac, 2012). According to Dicker (2003), colonizers from Europe used English, but did not neglect their own languages. “What emerges from a study of the history of immigrant languages in America is a kind of multilayered time line: English is a constant presence throughout, existing with other languages” (p. 47). United States history shows that languages were valued by founding fathers such as Thomas Jefferson who learned several languages other than English (Schmid, 2001).

History reveals that before 1870, the American identity assumed that irrelevant to native background or language, one could become American by adopting democratic principles—with the exception of African Americans, Native Americans, and Asians who were restricted at the time (Pavlenko, 2002). The restrictions of these minorities caused serious damage to foreign language capacity. The noninclusion of African Americans, Native Americans, and Asians diminished the linguistic repertoire of the nation. With the French settling Louisiana in 1682, and the bringing of slaves from Africa and from the Caribbean colonies of France, different variations of French existed in Louisiana (Dicker, 2003). In the case of Native Americans, efforts forced the civilizing of their many Native

American tongues in special bilingual boarding schools, while Chinese children were sent to segregated schools (Pavlenko, 2002). Language eventually became part of the naturalization process in 1906 as English fluency was tested in naturalization procedures (Brandes, 2009). Despite the English requirement in the naturalization process, immigrant groups at the time, lived language freedom such as French instruction in Louisiana, German instruction in Pennsylvania public schools, and publication and country-wide distribution of Chinese daily news (Pavlenko, 2002).

However, a shift occurred with the Great Migration between 1880 and 1924 which increased anti-immigrant sentiments (Dicker, 2003; Pavlenko, 2002). Fear mounted from this influx of newcomers (Portes, 2011). The shift further swayed to American nationalism because of the European conflict of World War I (Dicker, 2003). The war period caused great suspicion and distrust of individuals speaking a LOTE (Del Valle, 2003). In fact, in 1919, nineteen states ratified laws restricting the teaching of languages other than English (Del Valle, 2003). Immigrant connections to their land of origin, such as immigrant language, were no longer tolerated in United States society giving rise to English as the language for *Americanization* (Pavlenko, 2002). Over 30 years ago, the late democratic senator Paul Simon, appointed at the time by President Carter to examine the United States foreign language crisis, described immigrant language abandonment by immigrants once in the United States, as the Americanization process (Simon, 1980). This amalgamation of different backgrounds into an adopted attitude of being American is Americanization. According to Simon (1980), “That word speaks to this nation’s strength and to its weakness.” (p. 12). Vacillating perspectives on

language diversity throughout the history of the United States provide insight for the current ambivalence toward LOTE.

Emotional and Cultural Intelligence, Language Diversity, and Leadership

Research reveals the impact of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2004; Kreitz, 2009), as well as the role of cultural intelligence (Ang et al., 2007; Offermann & Phan, 2013) for effective leadership. Furthermore, research shows how emotional and cultural intelligence are connected to each other (Alon & Higgins, 2005). Emotional and cultural intelligence may be fostered by means of language diversity. Exploring how emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence relate to effective leadership then offers a platform to how language diversity relates to effective leadership.

Emotional intelligence. In his assessment of qualities possessed by effective leaders, Goleman (2004) focused on emotional intelligence, a soft skill able to connect leadership to organizational performance. As a skill which Goleman (2004) explained can be learned, it involves (a) self-awareness, (b) self-regulation, (c) motivation, (d) empathy, and (e) social skill. As a soft skill, emotional intelligence affords leaders to look inward to internally build cognizance in an effort to externally display understanding. In analyzing a number of organizational competency models, Goleman (2004) sorted the competencies, and the data afforded insight on emotional intelligence as a distinguishing feature of effective leadership. An American Management Association Enterprise study examined development of successful global leadership, and emotional intelligence was one of the top ten competencies included in global leadership training programs (American Management Association, 2012). With regard to emotional intelligence, a study of library directors and senior management, examined traits of

emotional intelligence deemed important tools for leadership effectiveness (Kreitz, 2009). In further describing emotional intelligence relative to leaders, Earley and Ang (2003) expressed “An effective leader inspires through the careful regulation of emotion” (p. 7).

Cultural intelligence. In view of the connection relating emotional intelligence to effective leadership, cultural intelligence can serve as a transfer tool which “bridges the gap in the transference of meaning” (Alon & Higgins, 2005, p. 505). When describing cultural intelligence, Earley and Ang (2003) highlight that it differs from emotional intelligence which assumes cultural familiarity without cross-cultural context. Instead, cultural intelligence affords effective adaptive behaviors (Offermann & Phan, 2013), hence cross-cultural context (Earley & Ang, 2003). The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program (GLOBE) was conducted to study the relationship between culture and leadership (House, 2004). The 10-year study involved 62 societies, 17,000 managers, and 951 organizations. Findings indicated that “leadership is culturally contingent” (House, 2004, p. 5). Studies on the relationship between culture and leadership reveal that culture influences style and behavior of leaders (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). Particularly, cultural intelligence, described as the capability to function in culturally diverse settings, enables effective interaction with others of foreign backgrounds (Ang et al., 2007; Offermann & Phan, 2013). Also, cultural intelligence allows for understanding subcultures already present in organizations and establishing better matches between individuals and functions (Van Dyne, Ang, & Koh, 2008). This cultural understanding is vital in globalized environments to create trust and

manage diversity in both private and public settings. Cultural awareness improves trust and enhances people skills which are key leadership elements (Ayman & Korabik, 2010).

Researchers point to a number of applications for cultural intelligence. In the management of organizations, cultural intelligence contributes to leadership effectiveness. Culturally intelligent leaders are more effective in that they can “create a grassroots integration of subgroups within an organization by drawing on their common goals and interests as well as providing for an enhanced sense of role identity” (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 308). Such integration in organizations is facilitated by “leadership that is culturally astute” (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 308). Leaders can be effective, and gain follower satisfaction, by modeling cross-cultural behavior, as well as mediating cross-cultural tension (Offermann & Phan, 2013). Hence, effective leaders are culturally intelligent leaders. The availability of culturally sensitive leaders is critical in the initiative to competitively guide organizations in today’s pluralistic society. Superior leadership skills combined with cultural awareness may enable individuals to manage effectively in current globalization (Ayman & Korabik, 2010).

Language diversity. In his assessment of global literacy based on research of companies operating in the global marketplace, Rosen (2000) expressed “language is the expression of culture . . . we rely on words to express ourselves, solve problems, and forge links with others” (p. 57). De rigueur cultural awareness may be acquired with language diversity because when one learns a foreign language, one learns a foreign culture and acquires a different perspective as well (Crystal, 1997). Past research identifies contributions of language diversity in nations, in firms, and in individuals (Tse, 2001). First, in the case of the linguistically diverse European Union (EU), language is

not only a tool for communication, but a tool for communal understanding of diversity in the pursuit of social cohesion (Glaser, 2005). Individuals within the EU retain their cultural identity and mother tongue, yet they may speak another language contributing to mutual understanding across national borders. Next, in the case of certain firms, globalization has increased their foreign customer and supplier base (Piekkari & Zander, 2005). As a result, meaningful communication may be achieved between multilingual employees of firms and their foreign customers, suppliers, partners, as well as internal staff. The contribution of a linguistically diverse workforce may reduce misunderstanding and improve communication within the firm given that people are agents of communication (Piekkari & Zander, 2005). Studies also show that some wage premiums exist for certain foreign language skills, such as German, at particular levels as in management, and in certain positions (Saiz & Zoido, 2005). Therefore, linguistically diverse employees may benefit from the challenges a firm tackles by employing a linguistically diverse workforce. Finally, for individuals, research studies indicate the effects of bilingualism on cognitive skills (Bialystok & Martin, 2004) and social skills (Chen & Bond, 2010). The seminal research conducted by Peal and Lambert (1962), measured the cognitive performance of bilingual and monolingual groups. Study results revealed significantly better performance for the bilingual group, with the claim that a foreign language provides greater mental flexibility (Peal & Lambert, 1962). This mental flexibility is explained by Bialystok, Craik, and Luk (2012) as an “ability to adapt to ongoing changes and process information efficiently and adaptively” (p. 247).

In the case of individuals, particularly for leaders, language diversity serves as a path to cultural understanding (Grosse, 2004) given that learning a foreign language also

fosters understanding of a foreign culture (Crystal, 1997). Cultural understanding is enhanced by cultural intelligence (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). Research suggests cultural intelligence prepares leaders to function within multicultural groups and to interact with individuals of different cultures or outside of the United States (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). Mannor (2008) observes cultural intelligence influences a leader's information processing by way of the (a) information noted, (b) information counted on for decisions, and (c) quality of collected information, with this competence likely effecting decision making. Furthermore, in his review of cultural intelligence and leadership, Mannor (2008) proposes cultural intelligence is "positively related to overall ratings of managerial performance in global firms" (p. 102). Given today's diverse workforce, cultural intelligence is a bridge to cultural understanding and language diversity can help achieve both. The integration of cultural intelligence and leadership can be achieved with language diversity. However, the lack of formal mobilization of existing language capacity (Robinson et al., 2006) adds to cultural intelligence deficiencies which hinder success in the current globalized environment (Mannor, 2008). Mobilization of U.S. foreign language capacity can employ language diversity as a way to enhance cultural understanding within our culturally changing society (Robinson et al., 2006). As a nation of immigrants, the United States retains language capacity with immigrants and children of immigrants who are raised and educated in the United States with bilingual and bicultural traditions (Chadraba & O'Keefe, 2010). To this end, heritage language skills add to language capacity. The role of language competencies is especially important for leaders of organizations with existing cultural interdependencies, as in the case of multinational corporations (MNCs) with subsidiaries abroad (Harzing et al., 2011).

Effective leadership. Within our culturally changing yet interconnected society, leadership is a process that influences individuals toward a common goal (Northouse, 2013). Examination of what effective leadership should resemble is worth considering. To this end, an effective leader has a mosaic of competencies. First, because of the changing cultural landscape of organizations, an effective leader demonstrates cultural intelligence. Ang and Van Dyne (2008) define cultural intelligence as “an individual’s capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings” (p. 3). Research indicates that cultural intelligence is a valuable criterion for selecting individuals of leadership potential (Kim & Van Dyne, 2012). Furthermore, research shows the influence of cultural intelligence on effective decision making (Ang et al., 2007). Cultural knowledge resulting from cultural intelligence provides leaders competitive advantage in both their professional and personal lives (Grosse, 2004). Second, effective leaders display the emotional intelligence explained by Goleman (2004) as a soft skill connecting to measureable results. Northouse (2013) describes emotional intelligence as “the ability to understand emotions and apply this understanding to life’s tasks” (p. 27). In turn, this understanding of emotions enables perception and effective expression of emotions with others (Northouse, 2013). In a study analyzing the impact of emotional intelligent leadership, findings showed feelings of employee empowerment which consequently affect quality of work (Lucas, Spence Laschinger, & Wong, 2008). Third, effective leaders are empathetic. Empathy is a key attribute of servant leadership coined by Robert K. Greenleaf where in an altruistic manner, leaders focus on the needs of followers (Northouse, 2013). According to Greenleaf (2008), a leader is empathetic with a keen sense of awareness. Language

diversity and cultural understanding lend themselves well in terms of servant leadership because when one learns another language, one enters another world as a guest. Fourth, a leader is an effective communicator. In describing aspects of leadership, Tubbs and Schulz (2005) identified seven metacompetencies among which communication. A recent study identified communication as a top 10 soft skill perceived important by executives—ranking second (Robles, 2012). Among leaders in business and academia, similar perceptions also exist for communication skills value as shown in empirical research on overall importance of communication ability (Conrad & Newberry, 2011).

In the competencies mosaic of an effective leader, communication skills have an integral part. Knowing another language can be one of these mosaic pieces. In response to globalization, and as environments of organizations evolve with culturally diverse members, knowing another language is valuable because it creates organizational capital in terms of employee knowledge (Dhir, 2005). For leaders specifically, globalization necessitates learning culturally different perspectives, as well as ability to collaborate with individuals of different cultures (Northouse, 2013). The GLOBE studies illustrated the connection of culture and leadership with nine major attributes of cultures and six major behaviors of global leaders (House, 2004). Because of globalization, there is a need for leaders in the United States to acquire cultural insight for effective organizational leadership. Language diversity serves as a channel to this cultural insight.

Existing National Policy

Measures have been taken in the United States to deal with language related issues in education and national security. In education, Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, known as the first federal Bilingual Education Act (BEA), was

legislated in 1968 (Brandes, 2009). The BEA involved the provision of education for economically disadvantaged children who spoke a LOTE (Edwards, 2004). Although the initial purpose was to direct students to academic achievement, under the BEA, programs materialized to accommodate, for example, Spanish-speaking school children (Ruiz, 1995). The BEA was reauthorized in 1974, and yet another four times until the No Child Left Behind Act of 2002 (NCLB) replaced it (Brandes, 2009). Specifically in 1994, the BEA acknowledged education equality with the development of English language skills, alongside foreign language skills, with English acquisition as the eventual goal. Unlike the BEA of 1994, NCLB does not specifically refer to bilingual education, so this measure to promote bilingualism no longer exists (Brandes, 2009). NCLB promotes English proficiency (U.S. Department of Education, 2004), by basically excluding bilingual education and supporting English acquisition (Edwards, 2004). It is evident that conflicts exist in the national policy agenda pertaining to language diversity as public calls for the citizenry to learn a LOTE, are offset by efforts to erase bilingual measures once existent in BEA (Lo Bianco, 2004).

Another measure dealing with language issues was in the area of national security with the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) in 1958, which was reauthorized as Title VI of the Higher Education Act of 1965, along with its legislation the Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act, Section 102(b)(6), also known as the Fulbright-Hays (F-H) (Brecht & Rivers, 2000). The time period reflected Soviet Union threats of space exploration with Sputnik (Lo Bianco, 2004), and the spread of the Soviet political ideology of communism. Hence, Title VI was a tool to tackle national security issues (Brecht & Rivers, 2000). The current objective of Title VI/F-H is the provision of funds

for research to educational entities and individuals in subjects of language, international areas, and international business studies (Brecht & Rivers, 2000). However, the original mission of Title VI/F-H focused on language and had an original label of “Title VI-Language Development” (Brecht & Rivers, 2000, p. 2), with area studies included only to gain a better understanding of specific fields which used the language of interest. Of particular relevance, though, was the original Title VI/F-H focus of LOTE acquisition, which morphed into a general mission of international education.

Today, the United States values the dominant national language of English, despite no comprehensive language policy appointing English as the official language (Pac, 2012; Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996). Public arguments have stemmed from the political viewpoints pushing for official English (Hayakawa, 1992), as well as from the social arena with action groups promoting English (U.S. English, Inc., 2013). English-only legislation is currently under House subcommittee review, specifically, the English Language Unity Act (2013) was first introduced by the 112th Congress to formally declare English as the official national language. Although not yet enacted, this bill demonstrates the existing English-only sentiment, much different than the view of the founding fathers in the early years of the nation (Del Valle, 2003). Even as legislative measures encourage English proficiency and heritage languages maintenance as discussed by Fishman (2001), the English Language Unity Act of 2013 introduced again by the House of Representatives (2013), as well as by the Senate (2013), is still under review. Relevant to U.S. language policy are efforts of native Hawaiians, who with a grass-roots movement, contributed to establishing Hawaiian and English as co-official languages in the state of Hawaii to conserve the language and create an inclusive

environment for native Hawaiians (McCarty, 2013). To date, Hawaii is the only state in the United States with two official languages (Dicker, 2003).

Problem Statement

Described in numerous ways, leadership essentially is a process where one inspires others toward a communal goal (Northouse, 2013). In a leadership scenario, communication often originates with leaders. At times, impediments related to ethnocentrism and misunderstandings occur in the communication process (Ward, 2010). Still, leaders assume the responsibility of establishing meaningful communication and understanding with followers. The lack of language diversity and cultural awareness in the leadership function causes misunderstandings and limited communal bonds. Consequently, according to Ayman and Korabik (2010), and Ward (2010), cultural understanding and trust among followers needs to be present for effective leadership decision-making and choices. Among today's leaders, it is not clear whether cultural understanding exists and whether language diversity is a resource. The literature lacks meaningful research on the relationship between language diversity and leadership. Yet, language diversity could be a tool for effective leadership. Knowing another language means knowing another culture, as Crystal (1997) expressed, "Each language presents a view of the world that is shared by no other. Each has its own figures of speech, its own narrative style, its own proverbs, its own oral or written literatures" (p. 44), hence, what is not known is whether language diversity is an untapped leadership resource.

Language diversity in the United States faces challenges of social tolerance that require widespread, sustainable changes in attitudes. Within these challenges, contradictions emerge. For example, official calls for increased foreign language

capacity (Bush, 2006) are in tandem with NCLB legislation, which encourages English proficiency sacrificing LOTE maintenance and erasure of bilingual education (Lo Bianco, 2004). Because in the United States English is a unifying instrument for individuals of different cultures, ambivalence occurs toward learning other languages and cultures (Pac, 2012). Ambivalence coupled with lack of citizen awareness about learning LOTE and acculturation (Edwards, 2004) creates intolerance for language diversity, and the promotion of English-only initiatives (Pac, 2012). As an already linguistically diverse nation, the United States could develop its existing language assets (Lo Bianco, 2004). According to the 1980 U.S. Census, 11% of the population spoke a LOTE at home (U.S. Census, 1980), and further increased in 2010 to 20% of the population (U.S. Census, 2010). Hence, language diversity is implicitly present, but needs to be made explicit. The challenge is to bring to the forefront a valid appeal for the consideration of language diversity in the leadership function.

Globalization shrinks national borders launching discourses on how to prepare the global citizenry for the 21st century (Robinson et al., 2006). Creating cultural understanding among the citizenry is a worthy leadership challenge. The lack of a culturally tolerant atmosphere presents difficulty in shaping and equipping future generations to embrace cultural understanding. Wavering perspectives about language diversity feed into societal misunderstanding as well. Further adding to this misunderstanding is indifference to LOTE and neglect in the study of LOTE, despite a growing presence of LOTE in households across the United States. What is not yet known in the literature is whether language diversity is relevant specifically in leadership effectiveness.

Theoretical Rationale

In constructing a conceptual perspective for this study, orientations in language planning provide a practical framework. Richard Ruiz (1984) proposed three basic orientations to frame language issues (a) languages-as-problem, (b) language-as-right, and (c) language-as-resource. The examination of language through these orientations offers understanding about the power of language in society. While a critical review of all three orientations is needed to fully understand the conceptual model proposed by Ruiz (1984), the focus will be on the *language-as-resource* orientation to explore the topic of language diversity.

When Ruiz (1984) proposed the orientations in language, few concepts existed to frame language planning. The concepts of *language planning* by Haugen (1966) and that of the *treatment of language problems* by Neustupný (1974) were adapted classifications at the time. However, no systematic classification was readily available with which language planning could focus on broader fundamental concepts. There was no metamodel, although some categorizations were available. For example, Tollefson (1981) proposed two language planning processes—centralized and decentralized—which categorized these processes according to specific criteria. Yet, this categorization lacked necessary conceptual integration to evaluate the value of language planning models or processes. The orientations in language planning filled this metamodel gap and provided language planning a place for broader fundamental concepts. Ruiz (1984) described the orientations as “a complex of dispositions toward language and its role, and toward languages and their role in society” (p. 16). As dispositions, orientations provided a systematic means for further investigation of issues confronting language planners.

Interestingly, some orientations already existed within literature, policies, and proposals. Yet, they were implicit. The orientations offered by Ruiz (1984) provided the necessary emphasis to make existing implicit orientations in literature explicit. For instance, Ruiz (1984) discussed the concept of *language as a means*, an argument proposed by Tauli (1974) who contended that, as a means, language could be evaluated, measured, improved, and developed. In like manner, Ruiz (1984) highlighted the orientation of *language as sentimental attachment* inherent in the work by Kelman (1972), who observed the close ties of language with group identity. Ruiz (1984) underscored existing orientations by providing concept integration with the meta-models making evident what the public reckons about languages and language issues because “orientations determine what is thinkable about language in society” (p. 10).

The distinguishing feature in the first orientation, *languages-as-problem*, is the solution of issues in society concerning language diversity problems. Namely, subordinate, or minority, languages are problems that need solutions (Ruiz, 1984). In this case, the objective is to solve the problem of language deficit. This issue is mainly observed in English-dominant countries where lack of English is a disadvantage for individuals, and programs are positioned to alleviate such disadvantages. The United States is a working example where bilingual education programs are transitional methods to confront the language problem (Ruiz, 1995). According to Ruiz (1984), the emphasis of the first BEA evolved through the years and public administrations from general academic achievement to English proficiency. He further described the BEA as “a monolingual policy with the goal of anglicization (Ruiz, 1995, p. 78). Essentially,

minority languages are viewed as problems in need of resolution, and the BEA is an example of a scheme used for their resolve (Ruiz, 1995).

The language-as-problem orientation resonates in other parts of the world as well. For instance, in discussing the influence of English in present-day Europe, Phillipson (2008), highlight threats to current language diversity in Europe. The issue is seen again in English-dominant areas like the British Isles, where the Welsh language experiences severe pressure (Phillipson, 2008). The same issue is observed in Scandinavian countries, where increased English use is perceived as a threat to national languages (Phillipson, 2008).

The second orientation of *language-as-right* confronts issues of individual rights within a society. Language should not hinder enjoyment of other rights, such as voting, civil service exams, legal proceedings, and public employment, which require knowledge of the majority societal language (Ruiz, 1984). The right of language, not only affects formal activities, but also fundamental human rights “to personal freedom and enjoyment” (Ruiz, 1984, p. 22). The rights orientation supports individuals using minority languages in a society that uses a majority language as a medium of communication.

In the language planning field, the language-as-problem and language-as-right orientations in literature have contributed to the formulation of policies, despite their competing nature. This competing nature occurs because speaking only in a minority language is a disadvantage. By the same token, speaking in a minority language is also an individual right. To this end, Ruiz (1984) commented “while one orientation may be more desirable than another in any particular context, it is probably best to have a

repertoire of orientations from which to draw” (p. 18). Because the communicative role of language is valuable to society, examining it with the use of an orientation provides insight for future planning and policy.

The third orientation of *language-as-resource* resolves controversies generated by language-as-problem and language-as-right orientations. This orientation targets the gap currently present in the United States. According to Ruiz (1984), greater importance should be placed on this orientation because fostering language diversity is beneficial for all groups in a given society. The topic of language diversity will be viewed within this context because language is valuable, not only as a means of communication and interaction, but also as an element of cultural identity. Cultural identity is often expressed with culture-specific languages (Fishman, 2001). Expression in culture-specific languages authentically interprets social meanings of that culture (Fishman, 2001; Chen & Bond, 2010). In so doing, cultural knowledge is exchanged among individuals of different languages and cultures. This exchange contributes to Ruiz’s (1984) idea that language is a resource which benefits society overall.

Ruiz proposed language-as-resource as another perspective for language planning (Ruiz, 1984). At the time, language planning approaches focused on handling language problems, not on capturing language value. Language planners like Fishman (1974) regarded language value as difficult to quantify. Yet, even Fishman (1974) linked language to a resource by suggesting “there is certainly ample reason to seek analogies as well as differences, between language and other-than-language resources” (p. 83). Understanding the untapped leadership resource of language diversity improves from using orientations to view language issues.

Recently, Ruiz (2010) reoriented language-as-resource (LAR), with a detailed classification of the original orientations in two categories: descriptive and normative. The descriptive category, which focuses on language itself, houses language as a tool, language as culture mediator, and language as a means of expression (Ruiz, 2010). Contrasting these descriptive features, Ruiz (2010) outlines a normative category containing the evaluative orientations of language-as-problem, language-as-right, and LAR. This normative category identifies language ideologies including LAR, which is a tool in the study of language discourses.

Evidence of the success of language as a resource is observed in the value it provides in social areas. In the education field, a given country that invests in foreign language instruction reaps benefits. A case in point is Switzerland, where the state invests in foreign language instruction through education (Grin et al., 2010). Benefits are realized in social participation as well, since Swiss federal law requires complete equality of German, French, and Italian, with the exception of Romansch, which is an official language but only in communication with individuals of the Romansch mother tongue. For example, Swiss parliament members can speak their own language, even Italian, spoken by merely 4% of the population (Schmid, 2001). Swiss society profits by its multilingualism because it provides a sense of inclusion. In the case of East Timor, social viewpoints were positive about legislation establishing the heritage language Tetum alongside the majority language Portuguese (Taylor-Leech, 2008). Qualitative research examining Timorese discourses on language policies reported 47% loyalty to Tetum (Taylor-Leech, 2008). In the East Timorese Tetum case, recognizing the intrinsic value of this heritage tongue contributed to feelings of loyalty and unity among citizens.

Social value exists for nations that invest in language diversity because it is an instrument to confront negative social issues (Robinson et al., 2006). Considering language diversity as a possible benefit instrument presents solutions for misunderstandings.

The LAR orientation offers an appropriate conceptual framework for the study of language diversity. While it was originally proposed as an approach for language planning issues, the lens fits well in viewing language diversity. LAR resolves the conflict generated by the other two orientations of the three-prong model which are language-as-right and language-as-problem. Although criticisms point to weakened language rights when treating language as a resource, one cannot have a right to something that is not first established as a resource. As a resource, research indicates language value in economics, politics, social and individual well-being (Robinson et al., 2006; Tse, 2001). In economics, research shows economic value for firms, individuals, and nations (Grin et al., 2010). In politics, language diversity in some countries contributes to politically inclusive environments (Schmid, 2001). In societal well-being, language resources in some countries provide social inclusion (Schmid, 2001; Taylor-Leech, 2008). Finally, studies reveal value for individual well-being (Bialystok & Martin, 2004; Grandin, 2011; Harrison, 2007; Kassis Henderson, 2005; Madera, Dawson, & Neil, 2012; Salvatierra & Rosselli, 2010). Given the advantages of language evident in research, the LAR framework is ideal for examining language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this investigation was to determine to what extent and in what ways competence in a LOTE and leadership are connected. In view of this decade's

world changing events, improving societal understanding has become critical. Language diversity is a means to create cultural understanding. However, evidence regarding the value of language diversity is mixed. Linguists such as Kelman (1972) and Kloss (1998) debated that language diversity does not necessarily contribute to unity or assimilation. Some studies indicate citizen personal preferences for official national language (Kulyk, 2011; Taylor-Leech, 2008). Yet, research by Grosse (2004), Harrison (2007), Madera et al. (2012), as well as Bialystok and Martin (2004) and Salvatierra and Rosselli (2010), reveal value in language diversity.

At this time, the literature lacks research about the influence of LOTE on leadership effectiveness. We do not know if leaders with LOTE skills are more effective leaders than leaders without LOTE skills. However, the availability of leaders with LOTE skills is critical in meeting 21st century global challenges and in expanding mutual understanding. This study explored whether LOTE can be a resource to leaders. Because research points to value of language diversity in the areas of (a) economics, (b) politics, and (c) social well-being (Tse, 2001), the purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of language diversity as a human resource in the effectiveness of leaders.

Research Questions

Advantages emerge for individuals who possess LOTE skills and cultural knowledge as revealed in research by Grosse (2004). In terms of leadership, language diversity, along with cultural knowledge, can provide real and perceived benefits for advancement in occupational achievement. Although leadership is not measurable, it is plausible to use occupational achievement as a lens in the study of language diversity and

leadership. Inferences can be made from occupational achievement and its connection to leadership effectiveness.

To examine whether language diversity contributes to leadership effectiveness, this researcher engaged in mixed research methodology. The first phase of the study examined the connection of competence in a LOTE and leadership by addressing the questions: (a) Does knowing a LOTE predict occupational achievement? (b) Does the ability for LOTE to predict occupational achievement change depending on the second language? The second phase of the study explored the topic of language diversity and leadership by examining the detailed views of how individuals personally experienced LOTE in their professional or leadership career. Data analysis of these perspectives yielded deeper understanding of language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

Potential Significance of the Study

Understanding the influence of language diversity has the potential to inform leaders in economic, political, and social areas. Leaders in the 21st century can utilize language diversity as a resource for effective leadership practice. The consideration of LOTE in the leadership function brings forth the case for LOTE as a human resource for effective leaders. Insight on the human resource value of LOTE can influence the decision of a leader to study or maintain an already acquired LOTE skill, as well as inform employers of the human resource value prospective LOTE-speaking leaders can bring to organizations. There currently lacks a bridge to connect culturally diverse communities and leaders in economic, political, and social areas. Without this connection, current cultural misunderstanding will prevail. In view of globalization, cultural understanding is necessary to melt prejudices and create harmony. Language

diversity serves as this link, hence it is worthy of scholarly research. The study of language diversity can foster discourses to utilize LOTE capacity in the United States among leaders and employers.

Definitions of Terms

American – The use of *American* will be as an adjective, since it would be odd to use *United States* (Dicker, 2003). However, *Americans* will not be used in referring to U.S. citizens; these will be termed *citizens of the United States* or the *citizenry*.

Bilingualism – According to Butler and Hakuta (2006), bilingualism is the psychological and social state of individuals using two or more linguistic codes in language interaction. The description of two or more linguistic codes covers *multilingualism*. Pertaining to multilingualism, Kramsch (2012) describes a multilingual as one “who uses more than one language in everyday life” (p. 17). Romaine (2006) uses the term *multilingualism* interchangeably with *bilingualism*. For this study, *bilingual* and *bilingualism* will be used for individuals that regularly speak two or more languages.

Colonial languages – Nonindigenous languages established by colonizers prior to formation of the United States, for example, 17th century Dutch along the Hudson River (Fishman, 2001).

Globalization – The process of globalization brings outsiders in competition with insiders (Heller, 2003), into social processes of increasing interdependence (Steger, 2005). The general globalization dimensions include the development of economic, political, and cultural processes (Steger, 2005) Within these dimensions Steger (2005) asserts “economic activity is identified as both the primary aspect of globalization and the engine behind its rapid development” (p. 27).

Heritage languages – The encompassing term for immigrant, indigenous, and colonial languages (Wiley, 2001).

Immigrant languages – These are languages which appeared in the late 19th and early 20th centuries during the Great Migration, particularly the *big six* French, German, Spanish, Italian, Polish, and Yiddish (Fishman, 2001).

Indigenous languages – In depicting an indigenous language, Fishman (2001) described the language of Native American Indians—Amerindians—as a noninstitutional intergenerational method of mother tongue transmission.

Language death – This is the extinction of a language such as Etruscan, once spoken in present-day Italy, or Arawakan, originally spoken in the Caribbean islands (Crystal, 2000).

Language diversity – This is the presence of more than one language within a community (Shenk, 2011).

Languages other than English (LOTE) – This term describes non-English languages (Potowski, 2010). The term LOTE is used for Australian speakers of languages other than English (Kontra et al., 1999). For the purposes of this research study, LOTE will refer to “non-English languages in the United States” (Potowski, 2010, p. 20).

Language planning – The term language planning was introduced by Haugen (1966) in his scholarly work for the case of modern Norwegian. It involves the form or function of language. Language planning tries to solve problems with language form or language use within a community (Karam, 1974).

Language policy – The term language policy embodies general linguistic objectives such as social and political goals (Wiley, 2010). Language policy involves strategic level and state issues (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996). Language policy contends with top-down pressures in maintaining national unifying languages, as well as bottom-up pressures for language rights recognition (Phillipson, 2009b).

Linguistic diversity – Linguistic diversity is the range of variation in human languages which can be measured on structural, language, and lineage levels (Harmon, 1996). Linguistic diversity is also likened to biological diversity existing in ecosystems and species (Romaine, 2008; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000), in that biodiversity displays ranges of variation in life forms, and linguistic diversity displays variation in ranges of human languages (Harmon, 1996).

Lingua economica – The more accurate description of the English language, in that English is utilized in business and advertising as the language of corporate neoliberalism (Phillipson, 2009b).

Lingua franca – A neutral language used for communication between individuals who do not share the same language (Phillipson, 2009b). Currently, lingua franca generally implies English, a misleading notion since English is used for many purposes (Phillipson, 2008).

Majority language – This term refers to the dominant language in a nation (Kontra et al., 1999). For example, French in France (Ginsburgh & Weber, 2011).

Minority language – This term refers to a subordinate language (Ruiz, 1984), for instance, Afrikaans in South Africa (Ginsburgh & Weber, 2011).

Chapter Summary

Globalization brings to the forefront the need of LOTE competency in the United States. Although the United States has a rich language history, dating from the indigenous Native American languages, to colonial languages, and to immigrant languages, the pursuit of nationhood has folded language resources under the blanket of English. Despite this blanket of English, Spanish has maintained a place in the United States from its initial arrival in the 1500s. With English as the language of public communication during colonial times and the language of Americanization today, a lack of LOTE usage has transpired (Pavlenko, 2002; Simon, 1980). In addition, the emerging role of English as lingua franca of the global marketplace has contributed to the lethargic promotion and sluggish use of languages other than English, not only in the United States, but also abroad (Phillipson, 2008; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000).

Neglect of languages other than English among the U.S. citizenry affects global competitiveness, global community membership, national security, and cohesiveness (Robinson et al., 2006). In viewing language as an asset, heritage languages should be cherished, current LOTE capacity mobilized, and future LOTE capacity expanded because the more individuals communicate in different languages, the more society benefits. Yet, indifferent sentiments for languages other than English exist in the United States, and this is troubling as the country prepares 21st century leaders. Because language is a valuable communication tool and effective means for cultural identity, expression in culture-specific languages creates understanding.

The history of languages in the United States has often wavered from LOTE acceptance during colonial times (Dicker, 2003), to anti-LOTE views during the Great

Migration period and the World War I and II period (Del Valle, 2003). The so called Americanization process speaks to the current sentiment of LOTE in the United States (Simon, 1980). Even so, today's globalized environment requires culturally intelligent leadership for effective interaction with individuals of foreign backgrounds (Ang et al., 2007). Because cultural intelligence is groundwork for an individual's own development, not only does it enhance personal capabilities, but it also enables efficient management of culturally diverse situations (Van Dyne et al., 2008; Offermann & Phan, 2013). In the changing social landscape, cultural intelligence improves understanding in interaction with individuals of different cultures (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). Cultural understanding resulting from cultural intelligence enhances a leader's ability to dissolve ethnocentric notions of culturally diverse groups (e.g., Latino, Asian, Middle Eastern) and improves multicultural perspectives (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). Leadership skills, coupled with cultural understanding, permit effective performance in multicultural organizational environments. To this end, language diversity is a conduit to cultural intelligence and understanding given that learning a foreign language promotes understanding a foreign culture as well (Grosse, 2004).

Effective leaders possess competencies of cultural and emotional intelligence, empathy, and communication skills. Cultural intelligence allows effective decisions (Ang et al., 2007), permits adaptive behaviors (Offermann & Phan, 2013), and affords competitive advantage (Grosse, 2004). Emotional intelligence offers self-awareness, with social skills (Goleman, 2004) and gives employees empowerment (Lucas et al., 2008). Empathy projects understanding described by Greenleaf (2008) "the imaginative projection of one's own consciousness into another being" (p. 21). Communication skills

are key in leaders (Conrad & Newberry, 2011; Robles, 2012; Tubbs & Schulz, 2005).

This mosaic of leadership competencies may be created by way of a LOTE as shown in a summary of the relationship between bilingual skills and leadership competencies in Appendix A.

Throughout history, the United States has confronted language related issues. Despite government provisions such as BEA, NCLB, NDEA, and Title VI/F-H, the viewpoints toward languages other than English continue to vacillate from tolerance, to ambivalence, to sentiments of English-only. Yet, globalization requires a citizenry trained in LOTE, to be part of the greater global community. In knowing a LOTE, meaningful communication is increased and misunderstandings diminished. For leaders, language diversity is a way to build trust among followers. However, the literature is unclear whether language diversity is a leadership resource. Language diversity is present in the United States as the 2010 U.S. Census reports over 20% of the population speak a LOTE at home. Yet, the presence of English hinders learning other languages (Pac, 2012). If research identifies a relationship between language diversity and effective leadership, then leaders may decide to study a LOTE or maintain an already acquired LOTE as part of their skills set. In addition, employers will be informed about the human resource value that prospective LOTE-speaking leaders bring to the leadership function.

By viewing LOTE within the conceptual framework of language-as-resource, societal attitudes can be reformed about the value of language diversity as a means for communication and increased understanding. Research studies highlight the value of languages in economics (Grin et al., 2010), politics (Schmid, 2001), society (Taylor-Leech, 2008), and individual well-being (Bialystok & Martin, 2004; Salvatierra &

Rosselli, 2010). Because the literature does not indicate whether language diversity is a leadership resource, the aim of this research study was to examine if leaders with competency in a LOTE are more effective than leaders without competency in a LOTE. The investigation employed mixed research methodology to address the relationship between LOTE competency and leadership effectiveness.

In the review of the literature contained in Chapter 2, the focus is on summarizing what is known about the value of LOTE, and determining the importance of LOTE for leadership. The literature review is the platform for the methodological plans outlined in Chapter 3, which describe the study design, including the rationale for the methodology. Chapter 4 presents findings obtained from the methodological plan examining how language diversity relates to leadership effectiveness. Subsequently, Chapter 5 discusses the study findings, implications, limitations, and future recommendations.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

Introduction and Purpose

This literature review first provides an introduction to issues and paradoxes related to language diversity in nations and the workplace. Second, the literature review examines studies and criticisms within the language-as-resource (LAR) conceptual framework (Ruiz, 1984) to provide an appropriate context for the study of language diversity and leadership. Third, the literature review considers language diversity and the marketplace, followed by language diversity as a skill, and language diversity as a trait. Fourth, the chapter reviews studies on language diversity abroad and in the United States, followed with a presentation of research studies specifically focused on the U.S. labor market.

Guiding this literature review were research questions examining whether language diversity contributes to leadership effectiveness for this mixed research methodology study. The first phase of the study examined the connection of competence in LOTE and leadership by addressing the questions: (a) Does knowing a LOTE predict occupational achievement? (b) Does the ability for LOTE to predict occupational achievement change depending on the second language? The second phase of the study further explored the topic of language diversity and leadership by examining the detailed views of how individuals personally experienced LOTE in their professional or leadership career. Data analysis of these two perspectives yielded deeper understanding of language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

Issues and Paradoxes

The pivotal events of 9/11 rekindled awareness for language diversity as a means of improving societal understanding. Awareness relating to needs of LOTE skills is not a new discourse (Ward, 2010). In the 1940s, during the period of World War II, lack of LOTE skills caught the spotlight in the words of a soldier and student of language who wrote “With so many of our boys over there realizing their language handicaps, the lack of earlier training in some foreign language has been made evident to many of them” (Rowe, 1945, p. 136). Subsequently in the late 1950s, with the launch of the Soviet satellite Sputnik, LOTE was of interest again (Brecht & Rivers, 2000; Lo Bianco, 2004). The reactive attention to language diversity in response to national security efforts appears greater than proactive action for the study of LOTE to create societal understanding. While it seems language diversity comes into play as a reactionary measure, language diversity embraces a greater scope. As an untapped leadership resource, it can create awareness and cultural understanding in various capacities.

Language diversity is a means to create cultural understanding because knowing another language means knowing another culture as well (Glaser, 2005). However, several views emerge on the value of language diversity. According to the linguist Kloss (1998), the need for purposeful assimilation stipulates for many non-English groups in the United States to “insist on the sole use of English” (p. 367) as a measure for national unity. In like manner, the linguist Kelman (1972) explained language diversity does not necessarily contribute to unity as a common language would by stating “common language is a potentially powerful unifying force for a national population because it strengthens both sentimental and instrumental attachments” (p. 194). Still, regarding

national languages, studies relate citizen differing preferences for official state languages in countries where multiple languages exist (Taylor-Leech, 2008; Kulyk, 2011).

Similarly in the workplace, research indicates language diversity is a tool for creating understanding, but not without paradoxes. Studies show linguistically diverse employees convey empathy (Madera et al., 2012) and create trust (Kassis Henderson, 2005). In organizations, research establishes language diversity as a means to create competitive advantage, understanding, and opportunities (Grosse, 2004; Obben & Magagula, 2003; Thitthongkam, Walsh, & Bunchapattanasakda, 2011). Despite positive features of language diversity, ironies emerge. Research by Luring and Tange (2010), revealed language diversity in multinational organizations caused fragmentation. This fragmentation resulted from *contained* and *dilute* communication, which prevents organizational cohesion. Contained communication is an inclination of individuals to congregate with others of their own language, whereas dilute communication is withdrawal from group interaction due to feelings of language inadequacy (Luring & Tange, 2010). Hence, the rationale in organizations for a common corporate language to create cohesion (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Luring & Tange, 2010), is similar to the notion of a national language in a country to create social unity.

Despite paradoxes on fragmentation, language and culture are related and empowering tools (Glaser, 2005). Therefore, when one learns another language one learns another culture, thus shaping thinking. Multicultural thinking is particularly critical in global communication to build effective relationships and cultural understanding (Chin, Gu, & Tubbs, 2001). A leader with foreign language competency fosters cultural understanding. Because a multicultural mind influences thinking,

flexibility develops for foreign cultural concepts (Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martinez, 2000) and allows for cultural frame switching (Ramírez-Esparza, Gosling, Benet-Martínez, Potter, & Pennebaker, 2006). For example, *guanxi* means relationship in Chinese (Chin et al., 2001). However, it is more than just a literal translation into the English word relationship. Guanxi relates to a deeper meaning, that of establishing a long-term investment in personal life and business (Chin et al., 2001). Unawareness of the underlining characteristic of this word—long term—could cause misunderstanding, which in some business situations “results in insult and mistrust” (Chin et al., 2001, p. 28). In describing a leader, Goleman (2004) proposed the idea of emotional intelligence of which a component is social skill. Such social skills can be influenced by cultural understanding resulting from a multicultural mind shaped by competency in LOTE.

In connection with multicultural minds, fused in these are multiple cultures which result in cultural constructs guiding individual behavior (Hong et al., 2000; Ramirez-Esparza et al., 2006). The influence on cultural constructs is cultural knowledge which is “conceptualized to be like a contact lens that affects the individual’s perceptions” (Hong et al., 2000, p. 709). Combined with cultural perceptions are language differences which exhibit “different expression of personality associated with the social roles attached to a given language” (Chen & Bond, 2010, p. 1515). These perceptions and personality expressions are basic in creating understanding especially as leaders interact with followers of different cultures. When individuals are bilingual, and thus bicultural (Chen & Bond, 2010), they can switch between cultural lenses—frame switching—which contributes to necessary cultural understanding in today’s globalized world (Hong et al., 2000; Ramírez-Esparza et al., 2006). For practical application to leadership,

globalization involves individuals from different cultures working together. Therefore, “culture matters because it can affect a leader’s ability to be successful” (Ayman & Korabik, 2010, p. 160). Consequently, investing in or capitalizing on LOTE competencies, not only affords foreign language skills, but results in cultural understanding.

The growing importance of language diversity is evident as described in the literature. Although ironies exist with respect to societal divisions and workplace fragmentation created by language diversity, the literature also features social cohesion and workplace understanding that by the same token result from language diversity. In addition, the effects of culture-related concepts on individuals influence personalities and perceptions thus enabling understanding between leaders and followers.

Highlighting Studies within Language-as-Resource

Within the language-as-resource orientation, language diversity is a societal resource that should be cherished and cultivated to benefit all groups in a given society. However, this is not always the case. In the education arena of the United States, immigrant language-skills are often suppressed by English-only practices, with a subsequent patch-over wasteful provision of LOTE learning geared toward mainstream Americans (McKay & Wong, 2000). Coupled with this scholastic practice, is the adoption of English by immigrant groups within two or three generations, as observed in research on language shifts (Veltman, 2000). Yet, a citizenry equipped with immigrant heritage language skills, alongside acquired English skills (Tran, 2010), is valuable for the country both on a macro and individual level (McKay, 2000). As a resource for individuals and nations, this orientation (a) enhances minority languages status, (b) eases

tensions between majority and minority communities, (c) allows appreciation of non-English languages in the United States, and (d) emphasizes language planning cooperation (Ruiz, 1984). The resource-orientation influences deeply rooted attitudes about minority languages and groups (Ruiz, 1984), thereby fostering societal understanding. In addition to effecting societal notions, Ruiz (1984) outlines benefits of language capabilities including national security, diplomacy, commerce, international communication, and individual cognitive skills. However, language capabilities must be first identified, managed, and expanded. With this orientation, Ruiz (1984) implies that present minority languages need attention, along with minority language acquisition by majority language speakers. Thus, language-as-resource not only fosters minority language protection, but also promotes foreign language skills expansion.

As to practical application of language orientations, a study conducted among social workers revealed that ability to navigate among language orientations prepared practitioners to effectively meet linguistically diverse contexts (Harrison, 2007). In viewing language as a resource, a critical language awareness subtheme surfaced in the study, to which participants attributed their bilingual skills (Harrison, 2007). This awareness helped social work practitioners better understand clients as expressed by one study participant “Language is not only a medium of communication; it is a way of thinking. When you got [sic] two languages, you have two ways of thinking” (Harrison, 2007, p. 84).

Since its emergence, the conceptual model of LAR experienced critique. Ricento (2005) argues that a resource-orientation in language hinders language rights. For instance, review of language roles in the national development of the United States,

reveals languages other than English at one point were liberally used without adversity (Ricento, 2005). However, the great 1880s immigration, along with the World War I and II European conflicts (Del Valle, 2003; Dicker, 2003), shifted language sentiments to English-only with a decline in LOTE study (Ricento, 2005). The restoration of LOTE rose with the Voting Rights Act of 1965 (Ovando, 2003). Yet, this special attention did not protect LOTE, but simply granted rights for past injustices (Ricento, 2005). Thus, the handling of languages as a resource undermines the treatment of languages as a right.

In his evaluation of LAR, Petrovic (2005) indicates the influence of sociopolitical and economic events on societal views of languages. Using the United States as the working example, Petrovic (2005) suggests a resource orientation contributes to neoliberal agendas because of its pull to neoliberal economic forces ultimately benefitting capitalistic needs. In his arguments as to possible outcomes of such agendas, Petrovic (2005) alludes to misdirection of eventual language policy to promote capital market needs and not necessarily language rights of individuals.

In terms of language diversity as a resource concept in the United States, Urciuoli (2001) argues more is involved than language because of present debates of ethnicity, race, and nationality. Ideally, LAR works if language was manipulable. However, language cannot be controlled, and the notion that “people tend to imagine linguistic diversity as a mosaic” (Urciuoli, 2001, p. 190) is short-sighted. Languages are not maneuverable mosaic pieces. In reality, guiding the language mosaic through “diversity-as-a-wonderful-garden” (Urciuoli, 2001, p. 190) is an actual collection of people. Hence, the relationship between language and its societal value has profound implications because it involves real people not the manipulation of a language.

Concerning the approach of LAR, Kontra, Phillipson, Skutnabb-Kangas, and Várady (1999) argue that by focusing on the resource side of languages, the rights aspect is ignored. Moreover, by focusing on LAR some practitioners set aside language rights altogether because they deem rights inconsistent with resources (Kontra, Phillipson, Skutnabb-Kangas, & Várady, 1999). This viewpoint harmfully undermines altogether using the human rights system to confront linguistic minority related struggles (Kontra et al., 1999). In the end, an individual that speaks a minority language is first a human with rights.

The criticisms pointed at Ruiz's (1984) concept of LAR, focus on the use of language resources for capitalistic gain to the peril of language rights. Interestingly, critics append LAR with their own views (Ricento, 2005; Petrovic, 2005; Kontra et al., 1999). In so doing, LAR has become a reference point in language discourses. First, Ruiz (2010) clarifies LAR is "one of the three prongs of the model" (p. 167). Thus, rights and problems are respected in the other two orientations. Second, Ruiz (2010) highlights "rights are only rights if they are resources" (p. 166). One cannot have a right to something that is not first established as a source of value. Overall, LAR is a compelling framework for the study of language diversity and leadership because its intent is "promotion of cultural democracy and social justice" (Ruiz, 2010, p. 167).

Language Diversity and the Marketplace

Viewing language diversity in terms of Ruiz's (1984) language-as-resource orientation, addresses how language skills contribute to the marketplace. In a study illustrating analogies between the value of language and that of currency, three functions were described (a) currency as a unit of exchange and language for exchanging

information, (b) currency as a unit of account and language for accounting through narratives, and (c) currency as a store of value and language for storing knowledge (Dhir, 2005). In the field of language economics, research relates economic and language variables as evidence of the value of foreign language skills (Grin et al., 2010). Firstly, for individual economic value, findings in research conducted in Switzerland on the net impact of foreign languages on earnings showed foreign language skills are rewarded well (Grin et al., 2010). Nonetheless, a paradox exists. A working example is bilingualism in the United States within certain occupations. Despite existing research indicating the value and competitive advantage of bilingualism in the global economy, employers in the United States do not necessarily value foreign language skills with wage premiums (Fry & Lowell, 2003). Secondly, for the economic value to a firm, data from Québec, where extensive investigations have been conducted, show foreign language skills are valuable when employed in certain functions (Grin et al., 2010). Finally, from the macroeconomic perspective, the value added to the economy across firms contributes to national gross domestic product (GDP) in given countries. In the case of Switzerland, research found multilingualism generated a value totaling 10% of GDP (Grin et al., 2010). Similarly, using 2001 Québec Census data, Grin et al. (2010) determined three categories of bilingualism where value added amounted to (a) 1.9% with low bilingualism, (b) 3.3% with medium bilingualism, and (c) 8.6% with high bilingualism. Results of economic value for individuals, firms, and nations are relevant evidence for the value of language diversity.

While the marketplace defines demand for certain language skills, mainly demand for majority language skills, it does not safeguard minority or heritage languages skills.

For in comparison to a majority language, a minority language has no market value (Grin, 1999). In spite of this, and as shown in some cases, “One should not forget that, ultimately, economics is not about financial or material performance, but about utility, or satisfaction, and that money is merely, in sound economic theory, a means to an end” (Grin, 1999, p. 180). A study conducted in East Timor indicated this utility or satisfaction for heritage or minority languages (Taylor-Leech, 2008). Part of the social rebuilding of East Timor involved legislation declaring Tetum a co-official language alongside the majority language of Portuguese (Taylor-Leech, 2008).

The global marketplace, in which some firms operate, eventually results in an organization’s dealings with individuals abroad. In the case of MNCs involved in international management, language diversity reaches many organizational activities such as business communication, negotiations, and headquarters-subsidary relations (Welch, Welch, & Piekkari, 2005). Thus, foreign language competency becomes important in assisting leaders in internal communication with colleagues and external communication with customers and suppliers (Thitthongkam et al., 2011). Still, for MNCs facing language barriers when doing business abroad, a solution involves using “bilingual employees as linking-pins” (Harzing et al., 2011, p. 284). Arguments suggest a common language enables unified communication (Lauring & Selmer, 2011). In the case of organizations dealing in global markets “inevitably, given that language skills are people skills, language consequences are tied up with the management of people” (Welch et al., 2005, p. 12).

For bilingual practitioners in social work, language awareness from their bilingualism allows development of critical perspectives in dealing with client situations

(Harrison, 2007). Unlike monolingual practitioners with access to only one language, bilingual practitioners tap into other perspectives allowing for critical views as expressed by one practitioner “One of the things that indirectly helps me being a bilingual speaker is that I’m less likely to assume meaning” (Harrison, 2007, p. 86). From critical perspectives emerges enhanced understanding. Similarly, Rathod (2013) introduced his research on bilingual practicing attorneys by stating “In contemporary U.S. law practice attorney bilingualism has emerged as a valued and, at times, indispensable attribute” (p. 865). His research positioned bilingualism as a competency able to expand professional opportunities, as well as allow efficient dealings with members in a specific language group. Languages other than English provide advantages in client-service professions and create understanding and empathy in leaders (Ward, 2010). Globalization has made empathy important for leaders as multicultural communication exchanges can lead to misunderstanding to which Goleman (2004) describes “empathy is an antidote” (p. 8).

Language Diversity as a Skill

Implications of language diversity are particularly relevant for leaders in view of today’s culturally integrated environment. Because foreign language skills can be learned, leaders can focus on developing these competencies, or refining them if already present, in order to improve both leadership and organizational effectiveness (Ward, 2010). For practical application, a recognized benefit of bilingualism is selective attention (Bialystok, 1992), which permits attention on important information, that for instance, contributes to enhanced leadership problem-solving. However, monolingual contentment encountered among the citizenry presents obstacles to increasing linguistic awareness and competencies (Ward, 2010). Contributing to this is existence of

ethnocentrism which often results in misunderstanding of cultural differences (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). Skills in foreign languages provide multicultural understanding and linguistic expressions as a means to soften both monolingual contentment and ethnocentrism ultimately impacting leadership effectiveness. As a skill, language diversity also creates competitive advantage for individuals in their work (Grosse, 2004).

When considering leadership competency and communication, skillful language use is noted (Tubbs & Schulz, 2005). A language contains knowledge, viewpoints, and is a means of “connecting individuals to each other” (Dicker, 2003, p. 1). Reflecting on communication, Greenleaf (2008) stated of individuals who isolate themselves “By staying within their own closed verbal world they forfeit the opportunity to lead others. One of the great tragedies is when a proven able leader becomes trapped in one of these closed verbal worlds” (p. 20). Knowing a LOTE frees leaders from obtuse thinking and melts ethnocentrism often attributed to “monolingual contentment of indigenous Americans” (Ward, 2010, p. 14). In a lesser known study, which examined the role of *motivating* language in leadership, parallels exist for use of a LOTE and leadership (Sharbrough, Simmons, & Cantrill, 2006). Positive and significant relationships existed between language use and communication competence, as well as between language use and a leader’s perceived effectiveness, thus forming a link between leadership and communication (Sharbrough et al., 2006). A statistically significant correlation showed for empathetic language use and perceived leadership effectiveness (Sharbrough et al., 2006).

The skillful use of empathetic language, suggests the servant leadership approach (Northouse, 2013). In servant leadership, a leader expresses empathy toward followers

and along with empathetic feelings uses language as a means that “connects the verbal concept to the hearer’s own experience” (Greenleaf, 2008, p. 19). By relating to the experience of the hearer, trust is created between leaders and followers. A leader who connects to followers with the skill of a LOTE meaningfully creates trust and prevents misunderstandings.

Language Diversity and Leadership Traits

In terms of the value of language diversity for individuals and intelligence, a review of studies by Bialystok et al. (2012), revealed the enhancement of the brain’s executive control system for bilinguals. Similarly, an empirical study on inhibitory control, described as the ability to control inappropriate responses (Salvatierra & Rosselli, 2010), reported improvement of a bilingual’s executive control system as well. The executive control system includes cognitive functions such as memory, inhibition, and attention switching (Bialystok & Martin, 2004; Bialystok et al., 2012; Salvatierra & Rosselli, 2010). It is the network of the brain. Cognitive skills for bilinguals, compared to monolinguals, showed better mechanisms (Bialystok et al., 2012). These mechanisms translate into valuable leadership traits. The cognitive skills in this control system are similar to the dimensions of emotional intelligence of leaders proposed by Goleman (2004). One dimension of emotional intelligence is self-regulation, where individuals control impulses, much like the cognitive control skill for word retrieval in bilingualism (Bialystok et al., 2012). This alignment of self-regulation in emotional intelligence and cognitive control in bilingualism, illustrate a leadership trait by way of speaking a LOTE.

Within the domain of cognitive abilities, creativity also favorably contributes to the skills of a leader. A study analyzing nonverbal creative abilities, found significantly

higher scores for bilinguals compared to monolinguals (Kharkhurin, 2010). This is because bilinguals have more than one cultural and linguistic framework furnishing a variety of perceptions. As to these findings, Kharkhurin (2010) suggested “tolerance for ambiguity in turn may facilitate their ability to keep a pool of possible solutions open long enough to generate a creative idea” (p. 220). In a recent investigation on desired management skills among employers, creativity appeared as an important skills of prospective candidates in the findings (Shuayto, 2013). Another study found a positive relation between creativity and bilingualism level—the higher the ability to speak another language, the more creative were bilignuals (Lee & Kim, 2011).

As far as personal development, language diversity contributes in shaping self-confidence. Qualitative studies point to self-confidence resulting from experience and acquired language skills (Grandin, 2011; Mistretta, 2008). Such were the findings of a study of 15 engineers at the University of Rhode Island who studied German and attributed their acquired language skills to a self-confidence boost (Grandin, 2011). Self-confidence was also identified as a core attribute in the GLOBE research where it is referred to as assertiveness (House, 2004).

Another trait of leaders in the context of language diversity is determination which is described as “showing dominance at times and in situations where followers need to be directed” (Northouse, 2013, p. 25). A recent study revealed foreign language competent managers had positive effects in multicultural working environments creating efficiency and quality (Madera et al., 2012). In their research on global leadership competencies, Chin et al. (2001) identified persistence as a trait appearing across cultures. Because determination involves persistence in confronting obstacles, focus is

needed to accomplish the task. Maxwell (1999) identifies the quality of focus as the concentration on major items, not minor ones. The quality of focus equates to a bilingual's selective attention as described in bilingualism research (Bialystok, 1992).

According to Kouzes and Posner (2007), exemplary leaders model the way by clarifying personal values as they describe "to act with integrity, you must first know who you are" (p. 50). Synonymous to honesty, integrity builds trust. Leaders can build trust with language diversity because knowing the language of another individual builds reciprocal respect and understanding. As expressed by Glaser (2005), language diversity "shows us that the world can be viewed from different angles" (p. 207), which builds understanding necessary in effective leadership. In turn, understanding promotes empathy. Reflecting on individual job performance and empathy, a recent study revealed bilingual managers had significant effect on production time and quality in their teams because of their ability to show empathy to LOTE-speaking workers (Madera et al., 2012). Along with operations improvement, research on international team dynamics revealed creation of shared perceptions with language diversity (Kassis Henderson, 2005). Individuals also form mutual trust because language diversity builds reciprocity.

Another trait which contributes to the strength of a leader is sociability (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Sociability involves interacting and connecting with others by speaking—and listening. An example of language in social interaction is illustrated in a study of American Indian communications where *silence* was identified as a communicative expression (Covarrubias & Windchief, 2009). To this end, language diversity, along with cultural awareness, prevent misunderstanding of cultural mores such as American Indian silence, allowing formation of social sensitivity. Goleman's (2004) emotional

intelligence includes effective social skills for leaders to build relationships, and “with every language we learn, we add a different perspective” (Glaser, 2005, p. 207).

Effective relationships in turn foster trust.

These examined leadership traits are valuable to leaders as also indicated in the trait approach by Northouse (2013). With these traits, connections can be made from proficiency in a LOTE to leadership effectiveness. Northouse (2013) identified the major traits as: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. Presence of these traits should be fundamental in a leader’s profile to achieve leadership effectiveness (Northouse, 2013). A possible route linking these traits to leadership is language diversity. By examining studies connecting language diversity to these specific traits, a case is formed for language diversity as a way to build this trait portfolio for effective leadership. Hence, study of these traits in the leadership milieu provides rationalization for study of these traits in language diversity.

Language Diversity Abroad

The foreign language skills of the U.S. citizenry have often been negatively characterized. Time and again the United States has been subject of language related jokes referring to someone speaking one language as an *American* (Ward, 2010), or as aptly described by the late senator Paul Simon in what a sign would read upon entry into the country “Welcome to the United States—we cannot speak your language” (Simon, 1980, p. 1). This is the burden the United States bears as its national language is deemed the global lingua franca (Pac, 2012), or more precisely depicted by Phillipson (2008) as the lingua economica. Unlike the monolingual reputation the United States has built throughout its history, countries abroad have implemented and realized benefits from

language diversity. There are countries that support the “language-as-resource” (Ruiz, 1984, p. 25) approach to embody linguistic assets.

A mixed methods study conducted in post-apartheid South Africa revealed the contributions of multilingual policies adopted since the end of apartheid and establishment of a multiracial democracy in 1994 (Phaahla, 2010). The inclusive nature of the new South African democracy reflected the official constitutional establishment of 11 national languages, consisting of nine African languages, Afrikaans, and English. Language rights are considered human rights, and as such, these languages have nondiscriminatory equality. The study assessed use of Northern Sotho, one of the official 11 languages in the workplace. Research was based on the 2008 national two-year panel survey which tracked circa 28,000 individuals in 7,300 households. Survey results for the quantitative portion revealed that of the 11 official national languages, English was most used followed by Afrikaans, whereas Northern Sotho was used informally. In the qualitative portion of the study, focus group interviews revealed necessity for individuals to use English, as it was frequently used in the workplace. In addition, nonproficiency in English was a handicap in the workplace. Although indigenous African languages have equality, English is understood by many and serves as the language of practice. Despite the positive and comprehensive features of South Africa’s language policy, issues exist. Issues relate to the lack of development in modernizing indigenous languages such as Northern Sotho, as well as the practical problems and cost of concurrently managing 11 languages.

Aside from problems related to practicality and cost, Posel and Casale (2011) identified benefits in additive bilingualism (learning in mother tongue, while acquiring a

second language) in another study conducted in South Africa. Data from the National Income Dynamics Study (NIDS) survey was analyzed. Findings showed individuals proficient in a heritage language were significantly more likely to be proficient in English as well. Although English proficiency showed higher economic returns than African language proficiency, benefits of speaking a mother-language trickled into English skills. Analysis revealed that home language proficiency significantly determined ability to read and write English well, especially among Africans.

Along with acquired language skills resulting from national multilingual policy approaches, language diversity also furnishes practical skills for the workplace. In a qualitative study, Harrison (2007) found practical application of language diversity in the field of social work. Eighteen bilingual social workers in Australia were interviewed on their personal experiences in dealing with individuals unable to communicate in a majority language. Social work practitioners with foreign language skills effectively handled misunderstanding because of greater cultural awareness and perspectives as expressed by one practitioner “With two different languages, I always have more allowance for people’s expression. And that’s very important in social work” (Harrison, 2007, p. 86). By expanding language options, individuals are better served contributing to greater societal benefits. Language fluidity contributes in resolving potential misunderstanding.

In neighboring Canada, the Official Languages Act (OLA) established official bilingualism in 1969 which gave national status to French and English. In 1988, OLA modifications strengthened the provision for communication in French and English with any government office, along with promotion of English-speaking minorities in Quebec

and French-speaking minorities in the rest of Canada (Christofides & Swidinsky, 2006). This provision has offered economic returns as examined in a study by Christofides and Swidinsky (2010) using data from the 2001 Census Public Use Microdata. This study focused on the actual use of a second language, and not simply the knowledge of a second language. North American English language dominance explained higher earnings for bilinguals who used English in Quebec versus French monolinguals with a statistically significant premium difference between these two groups. However, no significant earnings advantage was observed for bilinguals who used French in the rest of Canada. Furthermore, French monolinguals not using English in the rest of Canada suffered an earnings disadvantage relative to English monolinguals.

Similar to the value of speaking English in French-speaking Quebec, is the value of English spoken in certain European countries. In particular countries, proficiency in a second language provides a monetary advantage in the workplace. In the case of Luxembourg—where the three official languages are French, German, and Luxembourgish—analysis showed highest labor market returns for *English*, despite a high proportion of individuals claiming French proficiency, and despite the fact that English is not one of the official national languages (Klein, 2003). This distinct observation is found in other research as well (Williams D. R., 2011).

In a study by Williams (2011), based on data from the European Community Household Panel (ECHP) conducted in 14 Western European countries, significant returns emerged from speaking English in Austria, Finland, Italy, Spain, and the Netherlands. Returns also existed for other languages specifically the use of (a) French in Denmark, (b) German in Belgium, (c) Spanish in France, and (d) Dutch in Belgium.

Overall, study findings showed returns in the range of 5% to 10% for using a second language in the workplace in almost half of the 14 Western European countries. No meaningful contribution to earnings emerged from using a LOTE in the United Kingdom where English is the majority language.

To determine returns of using a foreign language for individuals in the workplace, Ginsburgh and Prieto-Rodriguez (2011), analyzed data from the ECHP using only individuals who were natives. Data used was from Austria, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Portugal, and Spain. Findings revealed foreign language proficiency positively influenced earnings in all nine countries. Similar to the study by Williams (2011), English afforded highest returns, despite being the least utilized in the workplace. Of interest was the role of French as an alternative to using English in the workplace for the Southern European countries of France, Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain. Conversely, no substitutes for English existed in the Northern European countries of Austria, Denmark, Finland, and Germany.

At times, countries purposefully establish laws protecting linguistic heritage. Such is the case in the bilingual economy of Wales, where Welsh (minority language) is protected by government regulation. A study by Henley and Jones (2005) analyzed earnings of minority Welsh speakers in the majority English-speaking country of Wales. Comparable to the Canadian modified Official Languages Act which strengthened bilingual communication in public offices in French and English, the Welsh Language Act of 1993 required bilingualism in Welsh as an essential skill for public employment. Using the British Household Panel Survey, an earnings premium of 8.7% was observed for Welsh proficiency (understand, speak, read, and write). However, this premium was

observed in English monolingual workplaces. Findings suggested employers pay more for Welsh bilingual workers in order to abide by state language regulations.

In some instances, political movements impact languages. This was the case for Catalan, in Catalonia, Spain, which was abolished during the Franco dictatorship and subsequently revived after his death. A study conducted by Rendon (2007) examined value of Catalan proficiency stemming from establishment of government policies encouraging its use in Catalonia. Similar to the co-official national languages of Portuguese and Tetum in East Timor (Taylor-Leech, 2008), the Catalan language in Spain has co-official status alongside Castilian (Spanish), Basque, and Galician. The 1980s language policy shift of *normalització* (Normalization policy) in Catalonia contributed to an increase in Catalan value as observed in terms of employment rates and premium. Using data from the Catalan and Spanish National Statistical Institutes, a sample of self-assessed Catalan speaking individuals was selected from 1991 and 1996. Study findings revealed an approximate increased probability of 2% for men and 6% for women of employment with Catalan proficiency. In addition, a premium was associated with Catalan proficiency, although it was slightly greater for women than men.

Language Diversity in the United States

Since the 9/11 events created national security concerns, an emerging inclination of tolerance for foreign languages reappeared in the United States (Robinson et al., 2006). After those tragic events, it became evident that languages other than English are important in the United States because they promote respect, effective communication, and social understanding (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). Interestingly, as a nation of immigrants, the United States has language capacity, with the children of immigrants

experiencing *interculturalization*, which research by Chadraba and O'Keefe (Chadraba & O'Keefe, 2010) described as bilingualism and biculturalism. The need exists to strengthen capacity for languages such as Arabic, Chinese, and Korean. In the case of Chinese, more than 200 million children in China are required to study English, whereas only about 24,000 of the approximately 54 million school children in the United States currently study Chinese (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). Chinese arrived in the United States around 1840 with the California Gold Rush, and today, it is the second most spoken LOTE in the United States, as well as the most spoken language in the world (Xiao, 2010).

Unlike the recent arrival of Chinese in the early 1800s, the Arabic language has a long history in the United States with the arrival of enslaved African Muslims who read and wrote in Arabic during captivity (Shiri, 2010). In recent times, Arabic language needs were awakened, along with the awareness that limited Arabic speaking ability and teaching expertise exists in the United States (Allen, 2007). Unless language needs are placed in the framework of a resource, such as Arabic language proficiency, they may experience short-term growth from government funding today only to become less of a priority tomorrow (Allen, 2007). Few schools have developed and implemented foreign language programs for grade levels K-12 (Tucker & Donato, 2003). It is necessary to develop LOTE skills among English monolinguals, as well as mobilize skills already available in speakers of languages other than English (Robinson et al., 2006).

The United States has a rich linguistic history and efforts are needed to preserve language assets. Revival of indigenous languages such as Ojibwe is necessary to prevent disappearance of such Native American language resources (Hermes, 2012). Relative to

disappearance of languages, Crystal (2000) named this reality *language death*, where loss of languages is also loss of diversity. Native American ancestral languages risk endangerment as presently Native American children are not acquiring these at home (McCarty, 2010). As the number of elderly who speak ancestral languages diminishes (McCarty, 2010), the plight of Native American endangered languages is grim, “for languages have no existence without people” (Crystal, 2000, p. 1).

Language Diversity in the U.S. Labor Market

Language diversity can be an economic good for the country, as well as a personal asset for individuals. Yet, for the U.S. labor market, research on the value of LOTE seems mixed. Languages other than English are valued in that they are rewarded for certain positions and for specific languages, as well as in areas with limited linguistic supply. In addition, cultural understanding gained in speaking a LOTE seems to provide perceived competitive advantage for individuals in the workplace. However, empirical relationships on the value of LOTE and the U.S. labor market seem frail. The following categories emerged from current empirical studies on language diversity and the U.S. labor market: (a) current trends, (b) rewards in the labor market, (c) rewards for healthcare providers, (d) nonmonetary rewards, and (e) market needs.

Current trends. Robinson et al. (2006) analyzed proficiency in non-English languages by using the General Social Survey (GSS). Given the current climate in the United States for increased capacity in LOTE, existing proficiency capabilities were investigated. The GSS is a personal, in-home interview of United States residents deemed as “the premier social science instrument for monitoring social life and trends in the United States” (Robinson et al., 2006, p. 458). The 2000 GSS involved a national

probability sample of 2,817 respondents of which 1,398 respondents received LOTE related questions. Random interviews used GSS stratified random sampling procedures.

The GSS was conducted in-home by professional interviewers who placed return visits to households where no one was found at home. In all, 70% of interviews were completed. Robinson et al., (2006) presented data on (a) demographics, (b) language details, (c) acquisition context, (d) tolerance attitudes, and (e) social behavior. Twenty-six percent of the sample (n = 1,398) spoke a LOTE, however, only 10% of the sample reported speaking a LOTE very well. Of the LOTE speakers each spoke their language as follows: Spanish (49%), French (15%), German (9%), Tagalog (3%), Italian (3%), Russian (2%), Chinese (1%), Polish (1%), and Vietnamese (1%). Two-thirds of Spanish speakers reported speaking it very well or well. In grouping speakers of French, German, and Italian (for better data), 20% expressed speaking very well. Although scarce, 70% of speakers of Asian and Middle Eastern languages claimed to speak their respective language very well. These findings approximate availability and quality of language capacity in the United States. Gender difference in ability to speak a LOTE well was not statistically significant. Concerning LOTE acquisition, 26% of the sample (n = 1,398) grew-up in a home where parents spoke a LOTE and 42% had grandparents who spoke a LOTE. From the respondents capable of speaking a LOTE very well (n = 352), the majority (88%) acquired language ability in the home, 8% learned a language in school, and 4% elsewhere. Of interest, 76% of respondents who claimed to speak a LOTE very well, reported daily conversational use with the specific LOTE. These findings reveal prevalence and quality of the LOTE stock in the United States. Also, findings revealed that individuals with experience in learning a LOTE at home favor policies encouraging

LOTE. In terms of the U.S. labor market, the available LOTE capacity identified in the GSS provides businesses a skill to mobilize in the linguistically diverse population.

LOTE skills can help organizations meet challenges of a globalized economy.

In a report issued in April 2010, Shin and Kominski (2010) used data from the 2007 American Community Survey (ACS), to provide analysis of LOTE speakers in the United States. This data is meaningful because it provides a mise-en-scene of the U.S. language panorama. The ACS is conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau, and like the GSS, it is another instrument for monitoring social and life trends. It is an ongoing survey conducted throughout the United States and Puerto Rico using a series of monthly samples to produce revised annual data (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2010). The data set used was based on an initial sample of 2,886,453 selected addresses from housing units, from which a group quarter sample of 187,012 was selected (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007). Of interest on the ACS, was a question pertaining to LOTE speaking ability. Responses to this question were coded and classified into four major language groups: (a) Spanish, (b) Other Indo-European, (c) Asian and Pacific Island, and (d) all Other. Twenty percent of the population age 5 years and older spoke a LOTE at home, whereas the majority (80%) spoke only English. Of the 20% LOTE speaking population, 62% spoke Spanish, with 53% self-reporting speaking it very well. Nineteen percent spoke an Other Indo-European language, with 67% self-reporting speaking it very well. Fifteen percent spoke an Asian and Pacific Island language, with 51% self-reporting speaking it very well. Four percent spoke Other languages, with 70% reporting speaking these very well. Noteworthy, were the largest percentage increases of languages spoken at home since 1980 which included: Vietnamese (511%), Russian (391%), Chinese (291%),

Persian (227%), and Tagalog (212%). Equally notable were the largest declines in languages spoken at home since 1980 mainly Italian (-51%), Yiddish (-49%), and German (-30%). This research shows the prevalence of LOTE in the United States, and the citizenry's LOTE ability which could add to linguistic repertoires of organizations and communities across the nation.

In a smaller scale study than the GSS and ACS, Grosse (2004) investigated the value of foreign language skills in terms of competitive advantage and cultural knowledge in the workplace. Study participants included a target group of 2,500 randomly selected university alumni of graduating classes from 1970 through 2002, who completed a foreign language requirement as part of a master's degree in business administration. The instrument was an email survey which was piloted by the North American and European Alumni councils, with suggestions integrated into the final version. Survey questions allowed for some open-ended responses to capture relevant comments about foreign language use. The response rate was 24.8%, with representation from every graduating class. Eighty-nine percent of alumni (n = 581) responded that foreign language skills provided cultural knowledge and 82% responded that foreign language skills provided competitive advantage in the workplace. There was a relationship in that, the more proficient speakers, tended to have a higher competitive advantage. Participants reporting native fluency, and fluency in business along with social settings, said foreign language skills gave them competitive advantage. The three most spoken languages among these alumni were Spanish (50%), French (37%), and German (25%). The most useful foreign language in the workplace was Spanish (31%). The importance of Spanish in these results is similar to the importance of Spanish

reported in the 2000 GSS (Robinson et al., 2006). Along with the study of foreign languages, alumni indicated cultural understanding, with 57% reporting ability to understand Spanish or Latin American cultures. Of interest was a comment by one alumnus “my language skills have never been good enough to negotiate in, but they gave me an understanding of the people I was negotiating with” (Grosse, 2004, p. 357). A relationship emerged between income and competitive advantage gained from cultural knowledge in these study findings. Significant competitive advantage from cultural knowledge was conveyed by alumni in yearly income categories of over \$200,000 and \$150,000 to \$200,000. Employer rewards for foreign language skills were not only monetary, but also included travel opportunities, assignments overseas, and promotions. In the workplace, foreign language skills were used in conversations, meetings, email, presentations, negotiations, and reports. Overall, this study found that proficiency in a LOTE and degree of cultural familiarity, were related to perceived competitive advantage, with evidence that firms valued such skills. Yet, it is unclear whether competitive advantage is perceived among individuals within a leadership role.

Similar to the perceived cultural understanding gained with a LOTE in the U.S. workplace reported by Grosse (2004), perceptions of culture are a valuable tool for companies conducting business abroad. Cultural sensitivity is a market need because of the number of companies in the United States engaging in business abroad. A quantitative study on one of the United States trade partners, Mexico, examined necessary cultural dimensions for conducting business activity (Hise, Solano-Mendez, & Gresham, 2003). A survey was sent to international operations executives in 800 U.S. consumer goods manufacturers, as well as to 2,000 Mexican business magazine

subscribers (survey translated into Spanish). The questionnaire included questions regarding 15 cultural factors derived from an initial list of 63 factors. Some of the cultural dimensions were (a) willingness to engage in social talk before business, (b) willingness and ability to speak Spanish, (c) using correct forms of greetings and titles, and (d) knowledge of Mexico's history and culture. Response from U.S. executives (54.1%) on the importance of all 15 identified cultural factors was significantly greater than response from Mexican executives (28.7%). These were unexpected findings, and showed the importance of cultural sensitivity on the part of executives affiliated with U.S. companies. These findings are similar to the cultural knowledge and sensitivity gained in learning a LOTE as expressed by the survey participants in the research by Grosse (2004).

Rewards in the labor market. While Grosse (2004) concentrated on LOTE competitive advantage, and Hise et al. (2003) focused on cultural sensitivity, Fry and Lowell (2003) investigated the earnings premium of bilingualism in the U.S. labor market. Because of the time and effort involved with LOTE learning, it is imperative to determine if an earnings advantage exists for such skills. The research by Fry and Lowell (2003) was based on 1992 National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS) data, nationally representative of United States adult residents outside of prisons. The survey included questions on language background. The study based on NALS data, defined bilinguals as adults who knew English very well, and a foreign language well. The coded 45 foreign languages were summed up in the following language groups: Spanish, European, non-Spanish, Asian, and other. The sample of 7,921 was limited to, men who were English monolinguals and men who were bilingual, with positive weekly wages in the age group

18-24 years. The mean average of weekly wages for male bilinguals was slightly higher than that of English monolinguals (\$621.00 compared to \$578.00). A regression with average weekly wage as the dependent variable (adjusted for age and residence, excluding English monolinguals) did not show significant wage returns, but there was some evidence of wage returns for bilingualism. When further controlling for education credentials, less evidence appeared to suggest wage returns with bilingualism. Using a detailed set of variables—language categories of Spanish, European, Asian, and other—omitting English monolinguals and not controlling for educational attainment, regression showed Asian language bilinguals received significantly higher wage returns than monolinguals. Still, 33% higher wages for Asian language bilinguals simply reflected higher educational attainment because when controlling for education, no significant wage returns showed. This was also the case for other language categories.

Despite the lack of statistical significance in the U.S. labor market for bilingualism, place of residence and occupation may impact earnings. When considering residence, the concept of *language enclaves* presented by Chiswick and Miller (2007) discussed that bilingualism value depends on concentration of individuals with similar bilingual skills in specific enclaves. However, in Fry and Lowell (2003), when wage returns of bilingualism in language enclaves were measured, controlling for race, ethnicity, and education, results showed language enclaves were not significant in the model. Overall, study findings showed that bilingualism did not meaningfully contribute to earnings. In fact, in estimating wage equations for certain main occupational categories, LOTE skills had no impact on wages. These findings contribute to the

understanding of the current monetary value (in terms of earnings premium) of LOTE skills relative to the labor market in the United States.

Similar to research by Fry and Lowell (2003) which investigated wage earnings of bilinguals in the U.S. labor market, Shin and Alba (2009) analyzed economic value of bilingualism in immigrant minority groups. Analyses by Shin and Alba (2009) concentrated on two current and major immigrant minority groups in the United States: Hispanic and Asian. This minority-specific study determined the extent to which bilingualism and individual characteristics impacted earnings. A distinct contribution was examination of within and across group differences of bilingualism returns. Data used in this quantitative study was from the 5% Public Use of Microdata Sample (PUMS) of the 2000 U.S. Census. PUMS included specific immigrant groups within categories of Hispanic and Asian, along with details on individual characteristics and contexts of local labor markets.

The selection of specific immigrant groups was as follows: (a) Hispanic category that included Mexicans, Cubans, and Dominicans, and (b) Asian category that included Chinese, Filipino, and Korean. Selection of immigrant groups was based on patterns of geographic ethnic clustering, and the U.S. labor market. The sample was limited to workers in Hispanic and Asian categories that were (a) wage and salary workers, (b) part of the 1.5 generation (immigrants who moved to the United States in the age range 0-12 years) or U.S. born, (c) in the age group 25-64 years, as well as (d) worked at least 160 hours and reported a wage or salary income in previous year (seasonal workers excluded). Descriptive statistics revealed a large part of the 1.5 generation and U.S. born was bilingual. In the Hispanic category, Spanish was spoken by Mexicans (66.9%),

Cubans (81.3%), and Dominicans (91.8%). In the Asian category, languages other than English were spoken by Chinese (53.2%), Filipino (32.2%), and Korean (47.6%). OLS assessed effects of bilingualism on wages of the six groups in question. With the dependent variable as log of annual wage income, regression generated results that did not reveal a benefit in bilingualism for the average English monolingual-bilingual earning gaps. For the Hispanic category, coefficients were mostly negative, and in particular, Mexicans earned significantly less than English monolinguals. For the Asian category, coefficients were mostly negative as well, with a highly significant difference for the Chinese. The study also showed negative coefficients for both Hispanic and Asian categories, with strong evidence of highly significant differences for limited English proficiency. When controlling for individual level variables (nativity, sex, education, professional status, and work experience), gaps were reduced for both Hispanic and Asian categories. However, higher education (controlling for other individual level variables), had a significant effect on the anticipated direction of earnings for all six groups. Although education and professional employment status were significant predictors of earnings, bilingualism was not. On the whole, analysis in this study showed no meaningful economic returns to bilingualism, except in the case of higher education and professional employment. Findings in this study are notable in determining if language diversity is a resource of value for leaders.

Similar to the research of Shin and Alba (2009) that analyzed immigrant minority groups, Oh and Min (2011) specifically focused on Asian 1.5 generation (children born in their home country who immigrated to the U.S. in the age range 0-12 years) minority groups and their earnings. Their research concentrated on men of Chinese, Filipino, and

Korean descent in an effort to compare differences in their economic achievements despite differences in language, occupation, and assimilation patterns. The data derived from the 5% PUMS of the 2000 U.S. Census. The sample included only male workers in the age group 25-64 years. Of particular interest were descriptive statistics relating to language fluency. Bilingual ability among the 1.5 generation was 57% for the Chinese, 48% for Filipino, and 61% for Korean. However, 1.5 generation Filipino (52%) usage of mother-tongue in the home was lower than Chinese and Koreans (81% and 72% respectively). This finding was noteworthy because 1.5 generation Filipino (14%) had lower educational performance (more than a BA degree) than Chinese (19%) and Korean (35%) 1.5 generation equivalents. Median yearly earnings among the 1.5 generation (year 1999) were similar; for both Chinese and Filipino earnings were \$42,000, and for Koreans earnings were \$45,000. Regression estimated bivariate associations for generation status and earnings for each group. When controlling for employment experience, language skills, education, and generation gap, earnings were significantly higher with Chinese bilingual ability. Bilingual ability was not a significant predictor of earnings for Filipino, and for Korean. Findings also demonstrated that inability to speak English for all three groups actually impacted earnings negatively. In general, these findings showed labor market earnings differed among 1.5 generation groups even within the same minority, and a wage penalty existed for inability to speak English. These results indicate differences in the value of language skills among U.S. minority groups requiring further understanding whether LOTE skills afford occupational advantages.

In another study on bilingualism and earnings in the United States, Saiz and Zoido (2005) used a representative sample of U.S. native college graduates in the United States

to analyze monetary rewards for speaking a second language. Unlike Fry and Lowell (2003) who examined bilingual skills in the U.S. labor market, and Shin and Alba (2009) who examined specific immigrant groups, Saiz and Zoido (2005) focused on English speakers who acquired foreign language skills, and the returns expected for these skills. To address these study questions, several steps were taken. First, online searches on employment websites determined extent of LOTE demand. The online searches were limited to positions requiring a BA degree, posted within a 24-hour period, and in two websites, Monster.com and Careerbuilder.com. From the 3,734 positions found online, 98 postings, or 2.62% of the positions, required a LOTE. Next, the Baccalaureate and Beyond Longitudinal Study (B&B) published by the National Center for Education Statistics, was used for source data. The B&B tracks experiences of a nationally representative group of college students who received a BA degree during the 1992 to 1993 academic year. From an initial sample of 11,192 students, a sample of 9,274 was obtained (some analyses subsample sizes were smaller). Of the observations on who spoke a LOTE, speakers each spoke their language as follows: Spanish (58%), French (23%), German (11%), Italian (3%), Russian (1%), and Chinese (2%). Of interest were higher percentages of women relative to men that chose French (27%) and Italian (4%) as a second language, versus men who chose German (15%). In order to measure returns to speaking a LOTE, OLS was used. Again, the sample was based on a cohort of individuals who earned a BA degree in the 1992 to 1993 academic year. Therefore, the 1997 hourly earnings were based on three to four years after graduation. The dependent variable was the log of hourly earnings for the 1997 year. A regression controlling for income per capita, college quality, graduate degrees, ability measures, as well as college

major, estimated a 2.8% wage premium associated with speaking a LOTE. Subsequent regressions analyzed specific languages other than English, and results showed somewhat significant returns in the labor market of 4% for German, but for French at 2.7%, and Spanish at 1.7%, returns were not significant. In addition, regressions analyzed if specific occupations had higher rewards for bilingual skills, and results revealed returns in the labor market of 9% for personal services, 11% for business services, and 11% for management positions. In general, estimated returns on bilingualism identified in this research were small, but higher returns could exist in speaking a specific LOTE and in specific occupations. Therefore, further consideration of language diversity in the United States is required to understand if occupational advantages exist in speaking a LOTE.

Rewards for healthcare providers. In a more specific manner, the next three empirical studies investigated bilingualism in the healthcare industry. Data used was derived from the 2000 and 2004 National Sample Survey of Registered Nurses (NSSRN). Of interest in these next studies was the RNs need to pass English language tests for the nursing national licensing exam, while at the same time having LOTE skills.

Kalist (2005) analyzed the value of bilingualism of RNs by using the NSSRN. The 2000 NSSRN sample was drawn from a population of 2,714,671 RNs which contained 35,579 records, but data was limited to a sample of 24,120 due to study specifications. The study first explored demand for Spanish-speaking RNs. Online searches on employment websites determined Spanish-speaking RNs demand. The online searches were limited to RN positions with preferably Spanish skills. Job postings on Monster.com were tallied for 60 days and on Careerbuilder.com for 30 days. From the 5,108 job postings tallied on Monster.com, 127 requested bilingual skills. From the

21,796 job postings found on Careerbuilder.com, 293 requested bilingual skills. A relationship was observed between available Spanish-speaking job postings and population percentages speaking Spanish at home. Demand for Spanish-speaking RNs was greater in states with larger Spanish-speaking populations shown by correlation coefficients for Careerbuilder.com and Monster.com. A *t*-test showed Spanish-speaking RNs had a mean wage of \$26.48 per hour, which was significantly different than non-Spanish-speaking whose mean wage was \$23.87 per hour. Because the objective was to determine *how* speaking a second language affected RN wages, several human capital earnings functions were estimated, with the main variable of interest for Spanish-speaking, and its interaction with the fraction of Spanish speaking population in the county of employment for the RN. Results on hourly wages from regression, showed an increase of approximately 5% by speaking Spanish. When the regression controlled for the fraction of Spanish speaking population in the specific county of employment for the RN, there was a 3.3% wage premium for speaking Spanish. In a further regression model of the fraction of Spanish-speaking population and Spanish-speaking RNs, the interaction coefficient was significantly negative. Thus, as the fraction of Spanish speaking population increased, wage premiums for speaking Spanish decreased. Generally, findings showed limited backing of increased wages occurring due to increased demand.

Similar to research by Kalist (2005) of rewards for RN bilingual skills, Coombs and Cebula (2010) assessed rewards of bilingual skills, but by controlling differences in RNs *occupational* characteristics (e.g., staff nurse, advanced practice RN, nurse anesthetist). The research attempted to replicate study findings by Kalist (2005), but used different parameter specifications for wages. Spanish-speaking RNs had a mean wage of

\$26.22 per hour, which was significantly different than non-Spanish-speaking RNs whose mean wage was \$24.26 per hour. Noteworthy, was the 59% of Spanish-speaking RNs that were non-Hispanic. Results on hourly wages from regression model, showed an increase of approximately 6% by speaking Spanish. Similar to findings of Kalist (2005), a wage premium existed for bilingualism. However, a greater supply in Spanish bilinguals in areas with Spanish bilingual residents, caused wage premium decline. As controls were added to offset RN occupational function, any positive bilingual-earnings effect was not statistically significant. Findings demonstrated though a positive bilingual-earnings premium existed, it disappeared when controlling for factors like RN position.

In a study by Coomer (2011), wage returns of bilingualism for RNs were analyzed while also accounting for English fluency using data from the 2000 and 2004 NSSRN. Although combined 2000 and 2004 NSSRN surveys included 71,303 records, only a sample of 49,958 was obtained due to study specifications. Basic statistics revealed 9% of nurses spoke a LOTE in addition to English, with 3.3% of the sample specifically speaking Spanish. The average yearly income of all nurses was \$43,123. However, the average yearly income of bilingual nurses was \$47,496, and that of monolingual nurses was \$42,715. Of interest was a high percentage (93%) of bilingual nurses residing in Metropolitan Statistical Areas (MSAs). Because objectives of this study were to determine the *source* of the premium in wages, as well as *fluency in languages other than Spanish*, wage equation models were estimated with fluency indicators, as well as regions and interactions, to determine if positive returns were due to increased demand for bilingual workers or for special skills. With a LOTE fluency indicator in the standard

wage equation, controlling for other factors, fluency in a language had a 4% yearly wage increase. Yet, fluency in Spanish had no significant effect on yearly wages. To further investigate if premium source was because of increased demand of bilingual nurses, analysis was done with added specifications, including population percentage (a) by state (b) that speaks another language at home, (c) that is Hispanic, and (d) that has interactions with indicators of bilingualism. Finally, a stratified sample by hospital employment revealed returns to bilingualism were lower for hospital versus nonhospital employees. Analysis showed limited backing for a hypothesis that premium is driven by demand, since region and fluency regressions were significant in language-dense areas, as well as outside hospital settings for Spanish bilingual nurses. Increased wages were not a response to demand, but a market indicator of higher ability. In analyzing impact of bilingual skills among nurses, questions emerge if impact of language diversity exists in other occupations as well.

Nonmonetary rewards. Research findings by Fry and Lowell (2003) revealed bilingualism does not meaningfully contribute to earnings, although bilingual skills could have significant premium in select occupations. Similar findings were reported by Coombs and Cebula (2010), who found certain positions rewarded wage premiums, and by Saiz and Zoido (2005), who found higher returns could exist in specific occupations of U.S. college graduates. Nevertheless, workplace circumstances do steer to advantageous situations and nonmonetary rewards in utilizing a LOTE.

A study examined the nonmonetary effects of LOTE knowledge, along with experience in working with non-English speakers on job performance, by testing multicultural competency skills (Madera et al., 2012). The study divided participants into

two groups (a) one with a manager possessing multicultural competency, and (b) one with a manager not possessing multicultural competency. Basically, participants were placed in a situation they normally would not have been in. Manipulation created a working environment with communication barriers. Specifically, participants were placed in perspective-taking roles of individuals not speaking the commonly used language. Communication barriers included recipes and instructions in Cyrillic letters for employee-participants, and recipes in English for the manager-participants. In addition, both employee- and manager-participants were directed to complete the recipe in silence, thus replicating silence experienced when an individual does not speak or understand the language at hand. The independent variable was the type of leader, along with dependent variables of food (a) completion time, (b) quality, and (c) accuracy. Empathy and nonverbal behavior effectiveness were measured as well

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) results revealed a significant effect of managerial multicultural competencies on temporal performance. Groups with multicultural competent managers were observed to be faster in preparing recipes versus groups with nonmulticultural competent managers. Results also revealed a significant effect of managerial multicultural competencies on food quality as groups with specifically multicultural competent managers completed higher quality dishes versus groups with nonmulticultural competent managers. However, results did not reveal a significant effect of managerial multicultural competencies on accurateness of food. Yet, groups with multicultural competent managers completed higher food accuracy dishes versus groups with nonmulticultural competent managers. Results of a *t*-test for multicultural managerial competencies and managerial nonverbal communication showed

significance supporting the hypothesis that multicultural competent managers engage in more effective nonverbal behavior with employees than nonmulticultural competent managers. Results of the questionnaire administered one month prior to the experiment and immediately after recipe completion, revealed participants expressed more empathy for non-English speakers after completing recipes in silence—the silence felt when one does not speak or understand the language in the workplace. By and large, findings showed individuals equipped with multicultural competence of knowledge in a LOTE, and experience in working with non-English speakers, performed more effectively.

Comparable to research on multicultural competencies effecting job performance identified by Madera et al. (2012), a study by Suh, West, and Shin (2012) identified desirable competencies for job performance as an attempt for firms to maintain competitive advantage. Data analysis was based on a self-administered survey to managers and hospitality school students which allowed rating and ranking, on a seven-point Likert scale the perceived importance of 44 competencies. The list of 44 competencies was ranked, with *knowledge in cultural differences* ranking tenth as a required top-ten competency for the hospitality industry. However, this tenth place ranking reflected selection by managers, as knowledge in cultural differences did not rank in the top ten perceived competencies by students. The top ranking competency among managers was *listening skills*, whereas among students it was *leadership*. To obtain a smaller number of competency items for examination, factor analysis was used which resulted in a six-factor solution explaining 64.7% of the variance. Only 26 items of the 44-item list were used, and these 26 correlated items were in one of the six-factor solution: interpersonal skills, supervisory skills, hospitality skills, leadership,

communications skills, and food and beverage management. Of particular interest was the *supervisory skills* core competency that explained 11.54% of the variance and that was made up of five subcompetencies among which knowledge in cultural differences. Among managers and students significant differences in perceived importance of competencies was revealed in the core competencies: (a) interpersonal skills, (b) leadership, and (c) food and beverage management. Both groups ranked listening skills higher than occupational related competencies, hence results demonstrated the importance of communication skills for organizational leadership.

Reflecting on the effects of speaking a LOTE and experience in working with non-English speakers found in Madera et al. (2012), as well as leadership competencies identified in Suh et al. (2012), suggests consideration of LOTE effects in other areas. In multilingual business settings, language diversity promotes team cohesion, which is a valuable leadership resource. Along with operations improvement in organizations, research on international management team dynamics revealed creation of trust with use of language diversity in business settings as analyzed in a study by Kassis Henderson (2005). Of interest in this study was the examination of linguistic diversity versus cultural diversity—the latter widely studied in GLOBE (House, 2004). Language is often counted as a prong in cultural diversity, however, language diversity in business settings, can alone impact socialization processes, as well as build teams with communication and perceptions. This small qualitative study focused on effects of language diversity in teams, and the ability of individuals to interpret language behavior and practices. Ten interviews were conducted between summer 2003 and spring 2004 with individuals working in an MNC who spoke French, English, and German. Five common beliefs

emerged from the interviews (a) linguistic-competence or lack-thereof, (b) interpretation of technical matters versus small-talk, (c) tendency to resort to silence, (d) use of a lingua franca or common corporate language, and (e) misunderstanding. Of interest was the belief that in a team using a common language, each member understands—when sometimes they do not—alluding to the notion of dilute communication (withdrawal from interaction due to language inadequacies) in Luring and Tange (2010). A study participant remarked “sometimes there are members who are not good enough in language and you cannot see it . . . they don’t let you know, so they say *yes*, and they give signs that they understand” (Kassis Henderson, 2005, p. 77). This remark infers that, although a common language unites a team, misunderstandings still occur. Teams build trust with language diversity because knowing the language of another, builds reciprocity, prevents miscommunication and permits communal interpretation of messages, all valuable leadership resources.

Market needs. Specific languages are used to reach certain market segments in the United States. An example is the prevalent use of Spanish today by North American companies. A study on bilingual call centers at the United States and Mexico border by Alarcón and Heyman (2013), revealed a market re-evaluation of Spanish with *language shift reversal*. The mixed methods study involved data from the 2006-2008 PUMS, as well as semi-structured interviews with local call center employees, to investigate language practices and beliefs of the working language Spanish. Qualitative analysis followed a structured plan. First, dimensions for systematic investigation were established (a) labor hierarchy, (b) ethnolinguistic origin and competence, and (c) call center structure. Second, three types of call centers were determined including in-house-

inbound, outsourced-inbound, and outsourced-outbound. Next, semistructured interviews were conducted with (a) 31 operators, technicians, and customer service, (b) 12 call-center professionals, and (c) eight executives and intermediate managers. The sample represented call center types and key workplace positions. Questions related to workplace language characteristics and skills, as well as experience. Several themes emerged from the responses, including verbal hygiene (i.e., speaking correct Spanish and not use of Spanglish) and language quality of service. Of notable interest was the theme regarding typology of language organization, in that no linguistic division of labor, translates into nonrewarded language skills. The research exposed that Spanish is regarded as an ethnic attribute, versus a special skill worthy of reward in greater Hispanic population areas.

Market needs of the United States involve the mobilization of current LOTE competence (Robinson et al., 2006). Heritage languages competence in the United States is present and extends a valuable resource (Wiley, 2007). Heritage languages can fill the market need for increased LOTE capacity. As generations of immigrants assimilate though, language shifts occur into the majority language of English. For example, consideration of Spanish retention is essential because of the Spanish language integral role in the United States. In a study on the change of language proficiency in Latinos, Tran (2010) assessed Spanish use and proficiency. Using the 1992-2002 Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Study (CILS), Tran (2010) collected data to analyze both English acquisition and Spanish retention. Of interest was the unique nature of the longitudinal CILS, which followed a sample of children into young adulthood through three waves of analysis. With dependent variables as English and Spanish proficiency,

and independent variables of background, household composition, and home or school use of Spanish, a growth curve model was used to accommodate multiple observations over time. Across skills measures, English acquisition and Spanish retention occurred at the same time. Overall for the group, findings showed English acquisition and Spanish retention were not mutually exclusive, and English acquisition did not occur at expense of Spanish loss. This may not have been the case on an individual level. In using Spanish language as a predictor of Spanish proficiency, findings showed Spanish use, with parents, positively impacted proficiency. This demonstrates the result of LOTE retention with home-use of LOTE. These outcomes relate to findings in Robinson et al. (2006) where 90% of individuals who spoke a LOTE very well reported acquiring it at home.

Along with home learning of a LOTE, the market needs to provide channels to maintain LOTE skills. U.S. Census data indicates a nationwide presence of a variety of languages. Yet, with the presence of the majority language, English, it is difficult to maintain LOTE skills. En masse measures, such as foreign language radio programming, can help conserve existing language diversity. In a study by Wang and Waterman (2011), foreign language radio programming availability in relation to foreign population size in the United States was investigated. The data used was from the 2005 Bacon Directory of Radio Stations (covering top 50 U.S. radio markets) and the 2000 U.S. Census. Data included 320 radio stations broadcasting in the 50 largest Arbitron radio markets, offering programming in one or more of 19 language groups. Spanish at 14% accounted for the largest language of the radio market population, with Chinese next at 1.3%, and the 17 remaining other languages under 1% of the radio market population. Within the top 50 markets, Spanish had service in 39 markets, while Chinese had service

in seven markets. With an extensive list of dependent variables, OLS results showed a positive relationship between foreign language population size and availability of foreign language radio programming. Specifically, significance showed for the Spanish population, and non-Spanish foreign language population. This analysis provides direction to review markets with underserved foreign language populations. However, availability of foreign language radio programming in the United States is not widespread because of being based on population size. If a market does not have a large population, then no foreign language radio programming is provided. This hinders maintenance of heritage language skills present in the United States.

Gaps in Language Diversity Research

Given present research, language diversity in some respects may be regarded as advantageous. Yet, research also signals what is still unknown about language diversity. This section first summarizes general gaps found in the literature for language diversity in (a) the marketplace, (b) skills and traits, and (c) countries abroad and the United States. Next, literature gaps are identified for language diversity specifically relating to the U.S. labor market in (a) current trends, (b) labor market rewards, (c) rewards for healthcare providers, (d) nonmonetary rewards, and (e) market needs. The majority of studies relative to language diversity in the U.S. labor market used secondary data with a similar feature of self-assessed language proficiency. An advantage of secondary data is results accuracy due to large sample sizes (Anderson, Prause, & Silver, 2011).

Marketplace. Research suggests foreign language skills are (a) rewarded in certain countries (Grin et al., 2010; Williams D. R., 2011), (b) advantageous in certain sectors (Madera et al., 2012), (c) valuable in particular functions (Saiz & Zoido, 2005;

Thitthongkam et al., 2011), and (d) paid premiums for specific languages (Saiz & Zoido, 2005; Williams D. R., 2011). In general, language diversity appears advantageous in the marketplace. Yet, it is not known why the U.S. labor market does not meaningfully value LOTE (Fry & Lowell, 2003). For specific occupations, language diversity has nonmonetary value. Studies show employees with LOTE skills in some occupations contribute versatility and enhanced communication (Harrison, 2007; Rathod, 2013). Helping foreign language clients with language proficient employees ameliorates misunderstanding. Despite language diversity advantages in some occupations, it is not known whether the leadership function values LOTE.

Skills and traits. A number of studies indicate relevance of language diversity on skills of individuals. Bialystok (1992, 2012), Bialystok and Martin (2004), and Salvatierra and Rosselli (2010), emphasize enhancement of cognitive functions with bilingualism. Creativity is another cognitive ability research attributes to bilingualism (Kharkhurin, 2010; Lee & Kim, 2011). Other studies show language diversity influences self-confidence (Grandin, 2011; Mistretta, 2008), as well as determination (Madera et al., 2012). Research also indicates creation of trust (Kassis Henderson, 2005), promotion of empathy (Madera et al., 2012), and shaping of cultural understanding (Grosse, 2004). Although research demonstrates pertinent advantages of language diversity on individual skills, and in one study particularly for business executives (Grosse, 2004), there is a lack of studies examining the relationship of language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

Countries abroad. In view of globalization's minimizing national borders, it is appropriate to consider language diversity abroad. In direct application of the LAR conceptual framework, South Africa established 11 national languages, and it is deemed

the most advanced language policy in the world, with a contradiction (Phaahla, 2010). South Africa's language policy promotes multilingualism, yet English monolingualism is practiced in commerce, education, and the media, contradicting the inclusive nature of the policy. Moreover, English nonproficiency in the workplace is a handicap (Phaahla, 2010). In Luxembourg, although French, German, and Luxembourgish share official status, English shows highest returns in the workplace (Klein, 2003). Similarly in Canada, despite official status of French and English, nonuse of English by French monolinguals bears earnings disadvantage (Christofides & Swidinsky, 2010). The EU confronts the similar U.S. challenge of a changing immigration landscape (Johnson, 2012). Generally, in Western Europe returns exist for speaking other languages in countries using majority languages, except in the U.K. where no return exists for speaking a LOTE (Williams D. R., 2011). Moreover, research of Western European countries showed highest returns were afforded from speaking English, although this was the least utilized of workplace languages (Ginsburgh & Weber, 2011).

United States. Similar to the EU, the United States is increasingly multilingual. Approximately 20% of the U.S. population speaks a LOTE at home (Shin & Kominski, 2010). However, English dominates outside the home. We know efforts to foster language diversity, with BEA, NCLB, and NSLI, have positioned English as the success path, with languages other than English in place for national security (Johnson, 2012).

Gaps exist relative to the consequences of positioning language diversity as a “symbolic resource with the potential to broaden worldview and cultural mindedness” (Johnson, 2012, p. 85), rather than as a reactionary measure for national security. Given the closer borders of countries due to globalization in general, and an increase of the

LOTE-speaking population in the United States (U.S. Census, 2010), challenges exist for the U.S. workplace relative to cultural and linguistic understanding. The gaps which were identified in the review of the literature relate to the relationship of language diversity in the leadership function. Specifically, the role a LOTE has in leadership effectiveness in view of the shifting U.S. landscape.

Current U.S. trends. Studies pertaining to current trends in the U.S labor market were analyzed. Research indicates a LOTE presence (Robinson et al., 2006; Shin & Kominski, 2010). In addition, studies revealed individuals with LOTE skills and cultural knowledge gain competitive advantage at work (Grosse, 2004) and cultural sensitivity when operating abroad (Hise et al., 2003). The globalized economy has in some ways engaged citizenry LOTE skills. Yet, it is unclear whether LOTE skills are engaged in a wider variety of functions such as leadership.

Rewards in the U.S. labor market. Studies relating to labor market rewards were explored. Concerning bilingualism wage returns, one study estimated small returns (Saiz & Zoido, 2005), while another showed no significant returns (Fry & Lowell, 2003). Relative to wage returns for bilingual minorities, research showed no meaningful return for bilingualism, but a handicap for limited English proficiency (Oh & Min, 2011; Shin & Alba, 2009). Despite the value of bilingualism in certain occupations, it is ambiguous whether value exists for the leadership function.

Rewards for healthcare providers. Studies of bilingualism returns among nurses were examined. Wage premiums for speaking Spanish in areas with large Spanish populations were not observed (Coombs & Cebula, 2010; Coomer, 2011; Kalist, 2005). Of interest, was the mixed evidence for a bilingual-earnings premium which canceled

with inclusion of specialized positions (e.g., advanced practice RN) for nursing (Coombs & Cebula, 2010). Though it seems logical for wages to grow with increased demand in nurses who speak Spanish in relation to a larger Spanish speaking population, they do not. Similar to wage premiums of bilingual nurses, research by Alarcón and Heyman (2013) on Texas call centers revealed in greater Hispanic population areas, Spanish was regarded as an ethnic attribute, instead of an economic viable skill. While value exists for some positions in certain geographical areas, it is not clear whether such value exists across other positions and nationally.

Nonmonetary rewards. Research revealed a positive impact on job performance. Two studies specifically identified cultural understanding stemming from LOTE knowledge (Grosse, 2004; Madera et al., 2012), two studies pointed to cultural knowledge as a means for organizations to maintain competitive advantage (Grosse, 2004; Suh et al., 2012), and one study attributed cultural understanding to the creation of trust among workplace colleagues (Kassis Henderson, 2005). In the face of nonmonetary rewards LOTE skills offer, it is unclear whether the presence of LOTE skills in leaders afford effectiveness in the leadership function.

Market needs. Three studies were considered for an illustrative rationale of market needs (Alarcón and Heyman, 2013; Tran 2010; Wang & Waterman, 2011). Tran (2010) examined a sample of immigrant children as they acquired English and retained Spanish. Findings showed the likelihood of acquiring English while retaining Spanish via home-use with Spanish speaking parents and highlighted “frequent use of a language is by far the best way to promote and retain it” (Tran, 2010, p. 278). This is essential for maintaining and building U.S. language capacity. Another measure for language

retention is foreign language radio programming. Wang and Waterman (2011) examined data on radio markets, and determined a positive relationship between foreign language programming and foreign language population. Yet, foreign language programming is a reaction targeting majority foreign language markets, rather than a proactive measure promoting minority foreign language markets. Hence, a wider variety of radio language programming could contribute to LOTE maintenance. Once the language is in the market, supply and demand forces cause language shift reversal as observed in research by Alarcón and Heyman (2013), where along the U.S. and Mexico border, Spanish was regarded as an ethnic attribute and not a compensated skill. It is not known whether language shift reversal has occurred in languages other than Spanish and in other areas.

While studies show advantages in LOTE skills (Grosse, 2004; Kassis Henderson 2005; Madera et al., 2012), the labor market does not necessarily reward LOTE skills with wage premium (Fry & Lowell, 2003). Yet, higher returns exist for certain LOTE skills, such as use of German (Saiz & Zoido, 2005). Of interest is also existence of higher returns for specific occupations in services or management (Saiz & Zoido, 2005). Similarly, in nursing, certain RN positions have some wage premium (Coombs & Cebula, 2010). The same holds for professional employment among Hispanic and Asian groups where an earnings premium was observed with bilingualism (Shin & Alba, 2009). Although research relates language diversity advantages, a gap emerged whether a relationship exists between language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

Chapter Summary

In the United States, attention to language diversity has often been a reactive measure to national security issues, basically, a politically driven discourse. The lack of

proactive measures prior to national concerns, leads only to reactionary discourses about language capital needs post national security incidents. In the United States beliefs exist that language diversity hinders national unity (Hayakawa, 1992; Kelman, 1972; Kloss, 1998). Organizations have emerged to preserve English (U.S. English, Inc., 2013). Even immigrant groups adopt English within two or three generations (Veltman, 2000). Yet, there exists dialogue which points to the political, economic, and social value of language diversity (Robinson et al., 2006; Schmid, 2001; Tse, 2001).

In spite of investigations suggesting language diversity causes fragmentation in organizations (Lauring & Tange, 2010), research shows language diversity has a position in the workplace. Studies point to advantages created with language diversity including (a) empathy (Madera et al., 2012), (b) trust (Kassis Henderson, 2005), (c) competitive advantage (Grosse, 2004), and (d) business opportunities (Thitthongkam et al., 2011). Leaders with competencies in LOTE gain awareness, as language competency is in tandem with cultural understanding (Glaser, 2005). In these respects, language is a resource.

The concept of LAR provides a convincing lens for viewing language diversity by directing attention to the value of LOTE as a resource. The value of LAR is evident in politics, economics, and social well-being. However, as expressed by Urciuoli (2001), language diversity involves real people, who cannot be manipulated like languages. Moreover, people proficient in a minority language have a human right to that language (Kontra et al., 1999). In deeming language diversity as a resource, it is observed that in politics it builds nationhood (Schmid, 2001), on an individual level it improves cognitive

abilities (Bialystok et al., 2012; Bialystok & Martin, 2004; Salvatierra & Rosselli, 2010), and in the marketplace it contributes to competitive advantage (Grosse, 2004).

Nations that have embraced language diversity as a resource have realized benefits. In post-apartheid South Africa, the legal establishment of 11 national languages has created an environment of inclusiveness, despite the practicality issues arising from simultaneous management of 11 languages (Phaahla, 2010; Posel & Casale, 2011). Similarly, the presence of co-official national languages in public sectors of Canada (Christofides & Swidinsky, 2006), Catalonia (Rendon, 2007), and Wales (Henley & Jones, 2005), resulted in better service for the citizenry. As far as monetary advantages in the marketplace, higher earnings were observed for English bilinguals in Quebec (Christofides & Swidinsky, 2010), as well as English bilinguals in Austria, Finland, Italy, Spain, and the Netherlands (Williams, 2011).

Similarly, advantages exist for leaders with foreign language competency. Effective leaders should possess traits which actually relate to the benefits resulting from proficiency in a foreign language. These traits include (a) intelligence demonstrated in cognitive ability (Bialystok, 1992), (b) self-confidence developed with cultural and language immersion (Grandin, 2011; Mistretta, 2008), (c) determination recognized in persistence when facing obstacles (Chin et al., 2001), (d) integrity as displayed with empathetic behavior toward other cultures (Madera et al., 2012), and (e) sociability acquired with the learning of different perspectives (Glaser, 2005). Northouse (2013) too identifies these traits as important in leaders as part of the trait approach to leadership.

Even though the United States today has global leverage with its majority language English positioned as the economic lingua franca, it possesses a historical

linguistic repertoire. From Native American languages present at the arrival of Christopher Columbus (McCarty, 2010), to the influx of colonial languages during colonization (Dicker, 2003), to the arrival of immigrant languages (Pavlenko, 2002; Potowski, 2010), the United States has in fact received a medley of languages throughout history. However, the call for expanding LOTE skills has often been triggered simply in response to politically driven issues (Baker & Jones, 1998). With no prior establishment of formal language policies (Pac, 2012), vacillation on language diversity often collides with nationalistic sentiments of Americanization (Simon, 1980), with the latter capturing public attention at the expense of languages other than English.

Current trends show that foreign language capacity is present in the United States. In fact, there is a variety of languages (Robinson et al., 2006; Shin & Kominski, 2010). Often LOTE acquisition occurs at home (Tran, 2010). The maintenance of heritage languages occurs in the home as well (Shin & Kominski, 2010). However, research seems to be split as to the value of LOTE skills in the U.S. labor market. Where LOTE skills are used in the workplace, findings show mixed results on their value. While studies demonstrate an advantage with cultural understanding in speaking a LOTE (Grosse, 2004; Kassis Henderson 2005; Madera et al., 2012), the U.S. labor market does not necessarily reward LOTE skills with wage premium (Fry & Lowell, 2003).

Despite the fragile relationship that exists between LOTE skills and the U.S. labor market, some conclusions can be drawn based on current research. In describing the fragile relationship, statistical significance was present in some studies, but no *practical* significance as in the research by Saiz and Zoido (2005), where only an estimated 2.8% wage premium existed with speaking a LOTE. First, a premium for speaking a LOTE

exists, although it is very small and based on occupation. Specifically, the premium is found in service-related positions in both nonprofit and profit organizations, where individuals deal with other individuals. However, a caveat exists in language enclaves, where a greater supply of bilinguals in the LOTE of interest is present. Second, cultural understanding affords advantage in dealing with other individuals in both employment settings and social situations. Although cultural understanding does not have a financial advantage per se, it provides a social advantage. Third, of the LOTE speakers in the United States, those who claim of speaking a LOTE well, often use that particular LOTE in the home or in work-related situations. It is essential to regularly use any acquired languages skills in order to maintain their quality—use it or lose it (Welch et al., 2005). Fourth, heritage languages are present in the United States as detailed in secondary data sets, such as the U.S. Census, GSS, ACS, NALS, PUMS, and NSSRN, which were used in the studies contained in this review of the literature. In the last decade, public debates have pointed to the need to expand language capacity in the United States. Yet, foreign language capital, although present, is kept within certain confines such as family. Understanding how to extract it from these confines is more complicated than apparent. Fifth, with the available current research, it is unclear whether speaking a LOTE has bearing in leadership effectiveness in the U.S. labor market. However, with social and cultural threads, language diversity weaves a stronger fabric of understanding in society of the United States. Hence, more research is necessary to determine whether language diversity, in particular speaking a LOTE, is relevant for leadership effectiveness.

Chapter 3 describes the study design and execution used to collect data and provide answers for the research questions pertaining to language diversity. The research

attempts to add to the body of literature relating to language diversity and leadership effectiveness. The data collection and analysis of this study provides a report of findings necessary for implications about language diversity and leadership in terms of the U.S. labor market, and specifically for leaders.

Chapter 3: Research Design Methodology

Introduction

This chapter explains the research method used to answer research questions pertaining to language diversity and leadership effectiveness. A review of previous research materialized the initial inferential question if language diversity influences leadership effectiveness. The focused literature review confirmed a gap in the research which guided the emerging problem statement and research questions as to whether language diversity is an untapped leadership resource.

Research Questions

To examine whether language diversity contributes to leadership effectiveness, this researcher conducted a mixed research methods study. The first phase of the study examined the connection of competence in LOTE and leadership by addressing the questions: (a) Does knowing a LOTE predict occupational achievement? (b) Does the ability for LOTE to predict occupational achievement change depending on the second language? The second phase of the study explored the topic of language diversity and leadership by examining the detailed views of how individuals personally experienced LOTE in their professional or leadership career. Data analysis of these perspectives provided deeper understanding of language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

Research Context

Insight on the connection between LOTE and leadership effectiveness allows for better preparation of future leaders. Based on the descriptions of both quantitative and

qualitative approaches, the research in this study was well-suited for mixed methodology, which united numerical analysis to verbal details. Hence, the pragmatic nature of mixed methods permitted using two methodologies in this research study (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013).

Quantitative approach. In alignment with the explanatory nature of the quantitative phase of the study, the 2010 General Social Survey (GSS), a secondary dataset, was analyzed. The GSS monitors social trends in the United States (The General Social Survey, 2013). Conducted since 1972, the GSS is a personal in-home interview involving residents of the United States. The GSS allows researchers flexibility in the manipulation of variables for quantitative analysis (The General Social Survey, 2013). Glatthorn and Joyner (2005) state that a quantitative viewpoint “emphasizes measurement, and search for relationships” (p. 40). In turn, these relationships between variables, when measured with instruments, provide numeric data for statistical analysis (Creswell, 2009). With reference to these variable relationships, Phillips and Burbules (2000) indicate how “to uncover them and use them to best advantage” (p. 92). The focus was to analyze the relationship between LOTE and occupational achievement, after first controlling for background and demographic variables, and using measures of each construct found in the GSS.

Qualitative approach. For the exploratory aspect of the qualitative phase, a focus group interview was conducted. The purposefully selected participants were alumni who majored or minored in one or more foreign languages in a private research institution of academia located in upstate New York and referenced in this study as the Research Institution. As a top-tier center of research and academia, the Research

Institution has a yearly enrollment of about 10,500 students, with over 2,000 faculty and instructional staff (The Research Institution, 2013).

Amidst the Research Institution's schools and colleges resides the School of Arts and Sciences, which consists of humanities areas including an academic department focusing on the study of foreign languages and cultures referenced in this study as FLC. Foreign languages offered for study through FLC currently include the following seven: French, German, Italian, Japanese, Russian, Spanish, and Chinese. The research activities covered alumni who graduated from the Research Institution in the 30-year period from September 1983 to September 2013 with a major or minor in one of the seven currently offered languages.

Research Participants

For the quantitative phase, the 2010 GSS, a project of the National Opinion Research Center (NORC), was utilized (Smith, Marsden, Hout, & Kim, 2013). The GSS Cumulative Codebook indicates the GSS is representative of the population of U.S. adults. Starting in 2006, the GSS sampled Spanish speakers in addition to English speakers. The GSS interviews are generally 90 minutes and conducted by NORC trained interviewers. Data from the 2010 GSS interviews were processed with NORC procedures. The 2010 GSS reflects a new rotating panel design where cross-sections are combined. Hence, the 2010 GSS had a total of 4,901 cases. The total number of cases consisted of (a) 2,044 new cases for the 2010 panel, (b) 1,581 reinterview cases for the 2008 panel, and (c) 1,276 reinterview cases for the 2006 panel. Only the 2,044 cases contained in the new 2010 panel were used in this study. The 2010 GSS used first-stage unit selections from Consolidated Statistical Areas (CSAs) and Core Based Statistical

Areas (CBSAs), as well as second-stage unit selections. Full probability sampling in the 2010 GSS gave each household an equal probability of inclusion in the sample. In addition, nonrespondents were subsampled with use of weights to maintain an unbiased design.

Once variable relationships in the 2010 GSS dataset were analyzed, the qualitative phase took place through a focus group interview with FLC alumni to gain more insight on LOTE and leadership effectiveness. The Office of Alumni Relations at the Research Institution maintains an alumni database representing languages other than English studied from graduating classes in each of the selected 30-year period from 1983 to 2013. This database was the data source for selection of participants for the focus group. Participants were selected by identifying those alumni who majored or minored in one of the seven currently offered languages through the FLC department. The target population for the study was the entire identified alumni population.

Data Collection Instruments

Instrumentation for the present study included an instrument for each research phase. For phase one, the quantitative portion, the 2010 GSS secondary dataset was used to examine the relationship between LOTE and occupational achievement. For phase two, the qualitative portion, a focus group interview enabled collection of rich data as participants collectively interpreted meanings of speaking a LOTE and cultural understanding in leadership roles.

Secondary dataset. This instrument was the 2010 GSS which provided accessible and free data to researchers. According to Anderson, Prause, and Silver (2011), secondary datasets are a unique statistics resource publicly and electronically

open to researchers. Advantages of secondary datasets include (a) data collected with established measures, (b) diverse samples, and (c) large sample size (Anderson et al., 2011). The GSS monitors trends across the United States with variables that can be used as proxy measures to examine language diversity and leadership effectiveness. GSS data are publicly available on the GSS website at <http://www3.norc.umd.edu/GSS+Website/>.

Several features made the GSS an appealing primary instrument for the quantitative portion of this study. According to Marsden and Smith (2012), the GSS is a repeated cross-sectional survey that since 1994 biennially draws a new random sample of respondents (from 1972 until 1993 surveys were conducted annually), allowing for regular measurement. The target population includes adults 18 years of age and older living in the United States, and of particular interest since 1996, the target population includes Spanish-speaking individuals. Sampling techniques for the GSS have evolved since 1972, from early quota sampling design in 1972 to 1974, to subsequent full probability design in 1975, with an addition of a two-phase subsampling of survey nonrespondents in 2004. The first phase involves obtaining interviews from the households sampled, with a subsequent second phase which entails a random subsample of nonrespondents in an effort to reduce nonresponse error and bias. The sample of U.S. households has an equal selection probability. Concerning interview methods of sampled households, these are conducted in-person, occasionally telephonically, by highly trained and monitored interviewers which result in an approximate 70% current response rate.

From the available subject items in the 2010 GSS, proxy variables were identified for language diversity and for leadership effectiveness. With regard to leadership effectiveness, it is plausible to use occupational achievement as a way to examine

leadership effectiveness. Hence, although leadership effectiveness is not being measured directly, it is indirectly being measured by way of GSS proxy variables for occupational achievement.

The variable OTHLANG, a numeric measure of speaking a language other than English, where 1 denotes speaks a LOTE and 2 denotes does not speak a LOTE, was used to measure speaking a LOTE. The variable SPKLNG, a numeric measure of fluency in a language other than English, where 1 denotes respondent speaks LOTE very well, 2 denotes respondent speaks LOTE well, 3 denotes respondent speaks LOTE not well, and 4 denotes respondent speaks LOTE poorly/hardly at all, were used to measure fluency of LOTE. The variable OTHLANG1, a numeric measure of other language respondent speaks was used to measure the specific language spoken. The variable PRESTG80, a numeric measure of the prestige of the occupation held by the respondent, where it is denoted as a score 1-100 (higher values indicate more occupational prestige), was used to measure leadership effectiveness. PRESTG80 is not a variable on the GSS questionnaire, but rather, it is a score assigned using precalculated occupational scores. The data for PRESTG80 were collected in the 1989 GSS, which replicated and expanded occupational prestige ratings to include 1980 U.S. Census occupation classifications at the time. According to the GSS Methodological Report No. 70 (Nakao & Treas, 1990), a total of 740 occupational titles were rated. The 1989 GSS sample ($n = 1,500$) was randomly divided into 12 subsamples of 125 respondents, and of which only 10 subsamples were used to rate occupational prestige. GSS respondents in each subsample sorted cards with occupational titles. Each respondent evaluated 110 occupations in relation to the occupations' *social standing*, with the first 40 occupational titles constant in all ten

subsamples, and 70 occupational titles unique to each subsample. The 740 selected occupational titles were deemed as those familiar to the American public by GSS investigators and consultants (Nakao & Treas, 1990).

The variable RINCOM06, an ordinal measure of respondent income treated as a numeric measure between 1 and 25 where higher values denote more income (e.g., 1 = under \$1,000; 12 = \$17,500-\$19,999; 25 = \$150,000 or over), was used to measure the income of the respondent. Variables controlled for included: sex (male or female); race (white, black, or other); class (upper, middle, working, or lower); highest degree (less than high school, high school, Associate/Junior college, Bachelor's, or graduate); self-employed or works for somebody (self-employed or someone else); these corresponding to GSS variables of SEX, RACE, CLASS, DEGREE, and WRKSLF, respectively.

Focus group interviews. The secondary instrument for data collection involved a focus group interview. The focus group protocol reflected the language-as-resource conceptual framework proposed by Ruiz (1984) in his research on language orientations. Considering the resource value of languages addressed the current gap as to whether LOTE is an untapped leadership resource. With regard to focus group interviews, Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) explain these are “characterized by a non-directive style of interviewing, where the prime concern is to encourage a variety of viewpoints on the topic in focus” (p. 150). In focus groups, participants spontaneously describe their experiences and perspectives on the topic of interest (Stringer, 2007). Advantages of focus groups include (a) obtaining insight about a topic from a variety of individual viewpoints, and (b) among individuals gathered considering a topic “how they interact

and discuss the issue” (Liamputtong, 2011, p. 5). Focus group participants in this study were purposefully selected and contributed in understanding the research problem.

Procedures Used

This section first provides the procedures used to collect data for both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study designed to address the research questions. Next, this section relates procedures used for data analysis in both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study in an effort to answer the research questions. Prior to the undertaking of data collection and analysis for the qualitative phases of this research, permission to conduct this research was requested and granted from the St. John Fisher College Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Quantitative data collection. For the quantitative phase of the study, data was collected using the 2010 GSS. An initial review of the GSS Codebook described advantages of using the GSS in that interesting and high quality data are provided to researchers with available information on (a) demographic characteristics, (b) economic characteristics including occupation, and (c) social characteristics including languages spoken other than English (Smith et al., 2013). The merged single-year 2010 GSS data set, with cross-sectional and all panels (2006, 2008, and 2010), including all cases and variables (release 2 dated April 2012) was downloaded into SPSS® format from the current public website. In 2010, the GSS changed to a combined repeating cross-section and panel design which contained a total of 4,901 cases. Of the 4,901 total cases, 2,044 cases were new in the 2010 panel, while 1,581 cases were for the 2008 panel, and 1,276 cases for the 2006 panel. The present study used only the new 2010 cross-section of 2,044 cases, since the 2006 and 2008 panel cases were not asked the questions pertaining

to the variables of interest (i.e. OTHLANG, SPKLANG, OTHLANG1) in this study (The General Social Survey, 2011).

Qualitative data collection. For the qualitative phase of this study involving a focus group, initial authorization to use FLC alumni was granted by the chairperson and faculty body of the FLC Department of the Research Institution as shown in Appendix B, as well as the Dean of the School of Arts and Sciences of the Institution shown in Appendix C. Authorization to use the alumni database was also given by the Research Institution's Alumni Relations Office as shown in Appendix D.

The following steps were used to collect data for the qualitative phase:

1. Obtained a list of alumni who graduated from the Research Institution with a major or minor in Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Russian, Spanish, and from the Office of Alumni Relations at the Research Institution once approval was received from the St. John Fisher College IRB.
2. Prepared focus group questions protocol based on the conceptual framework of language-as-resource presented by Ruiz (1984) (see Appendix E).
3. Purposefully selected focus group participants from the available alumni database with assistance from the current FLC Department chairperson.
4. Selected focus group participants based on current address so as not to incur travel costs.
5. Established April 2014 as the month for the focus group.
6. Sent an email with an attached Introductory Inquiry Letter (see Appendix F) to selected focus group participants inquiring about their interest.
7. Sent a follow-up email for responses not received.

8. For email messages returned *undeliverable*, the introductory letter was sent via U.S. Postal Service.
9. Sent follow-up email messages or placed telephone calls to selected individuals to secure participation in the focus group on April 29, 2014.
10. Sent an email with an attached Invitation Letter (see Appendix G) and Informed Consent Form (see Appendix H) to participants that agreed to participate.
11. Once individuals agreed and consented, sent an email with the confirmed focus group date, time, and location, as well as requested a short background description pertaining to current employment position, and LOTE spoken.
12. Reserved a room at St. John Fisher College for the focus group, as well as arranged for refreshments and a small gift card incentive for participation.
13. Sent individual email reminders or placed a telephone call to each participant one week prior to the focus group and asked basic background details relative to profession and LOTE spoken (part of the focus group protocol).
14. Conducted focus group interview on Tuesday, April 29, 2014, served as facilitator, and used the prepared questions protocol. All Informed Consent forms were submitted and received prior to the focus group.
15. Completed transcription and coded data to determine emerging themes.
16. Emerging themes were cross checked by an intercoder for reliability.

In determining the ideal number of focus group participants, Liamputtong (2011) recommends six to eight, although at times groups may be larger. This researcher's focus group had 12 participants. Participants shared the similar experience of having studied a

LOTE at the Research Institution. Protocol questions allowed acquiring a deeper understanding of the relationship between LOTE and leadership effectiveness. The focus group enabled the development of themes expressed in the detailed views of how participants personally experienced a LOTE in their leadership role and how that LOTE influenced their leadership effectiveness. In order to maintain accuracy in the findings, an intercoder was used to cross check themes that emerged for reliability (Creswell, 2009). An important aspect of qualitative research involves ethical issues (Liamputtong, 2011), hence, this researcher ensured focus group participants were not harmed or exploited and that all information remain anonymous.

Confidentiality. This researcher took necessary precautions to maintain confidentiality of the data generated from the discussions and questions in the focus group interview. To this end, this researcher ensured collected focus group interview data (tape-recording and transcribed hard-copy) were secured in an office in a locked cabinet with access only to the researcher. Collected focus group interview data will remain secured for a period of five years after completion of the study. In addition, focus group participants remained anonymous as emails were individually sent to each participant, thus protecting names and email addresses.

Data Analysis

Data was analyzed within the quantitative phase, and summarized for emerging themes in the qualitative phase. Creswell (2009) suggests that in mixed methods, analysis may also transpire between the two approaches. This researcher reports quantitative findings, and relates themes that emerged from qualitative findings in Chapter 4 of this dissertation.

Secondary dataset. Statistical analysis was performed on the 2010 GSS data. As previously stated, the following variables from this dataset were used: OTHLANG, SPKLANG, OTHLANG1, PRESTG80, and RINCOM06. Descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and quartiles, were used to describe the distribution of the dependent variable PRESTG80, as well as the independent variable OTHLANG and the control variables. PRESTG80 was examined for normality with descriptive (e.g., skewness) and inferential statistics, and outlier analysis. The variable RINCOM06 was examined as well.

To describe the relationship between speaking LOTE and occupational achievement, hierarchical regression analysis was performed, entering a set of control variables, and using proxy variables identified in the 2010 GSS, specifically, (a) OTHLANG, a numeric measure of LOTE speaking, SPKLANG, a numeric measure of LOTE fluency, and OTHLANG1, a numeric measure of specific spoken LOTE, for language diversity, and (b) PRESTG80, a numeric measure of the prestige of the occupation, and RINCOM06, a numeric measure of income, for leadership effectiveness. In addition, the variable SPKLANG, which is fluency of LOTE, was explored as a predictor of occupational achievement for the subset of subjects who speak a LOTE (OTHLANG = 1).

A subsequent analysis was performed on the subset of subjects who speak a LOTE (OTHLANG = 1). Seven dummy variables were created for variable OTHLANG1 corresponding to whether or not subjects speak each of seven languages: Spanish, French, German, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian. Each of these dummy variables took a value of 1 if the subject spoke the language and 0 if they did not. The

dummy variables were interpreted against an *Other* category, which being the control, did not have its own dummy variable. A hierarchical regression model was estimated entering a set of control variables, followed by the group of dummy variables corresponding to OTHLANG1.

Focus group interview. Data analysis and interpretation for the focus group involved collecting and understanding the information supplied by participants. Steps in managing focus group data included transcribing the collected data, analyzing emerging themes from the data, as well as analyzing any interaction which transpired in the focus group. The data transcription was outsourced to an expert transcriber. Once received, focus group participant comments were first identified and highlighted with similar comments shared by other participants. Next, highlighted comments were grouped into common categories. Finally, the categories were analyzed for emerging common themes by the researcher. According to Liamputtong (2011), analysis of focus groups data should also concentrate on “interactive effects and group dynamics” (p. 175) because these demonstrate how themes are jointly developed among participants. Interaction among focus group participants in this study fostered the relating of professional experiences resulting from LOTE knowledge, and cultural knowledge tied to a specific LOTE, thus providing a deeper understanding of the relationship of language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

This two-phase approach of data collection and analysis generated results that addressed the research questions in both a quantitative and qualitative manner. Hence, a complementary understanding of the relationship between language diversity and leadership effectiveness materialized. In particular, the synthesis of GSS data and that of

focus group data revealed if any connections existed between the two phases. To this end, Creswell (2009) defines “connected in mixed methods research means a mixing of the quantitative and qualitative research are connected between a data analysis of the first phase of research and the data collection of the second phase of research” (p. 208). Research findings in phase one were elaborated by drawing on qualitative data and themes that emerged from phase two. This mixed research methods approach to analyzing data improved the insight on the synergies of the two phases of this study.

Summary

The current global environment and shifting U.S. demographics, require awareness of LOTE and cultural knowledge tied to LOTE for leaders in the U.S. labor market. Because language diversity is present and growing in the United States, this study attempted to search for understanding as to whether language diversity is a leadership resource. The research questions addressed (a) if knowing a LOTE predicts occupational achievement, (b) how a specific LOTE predicts occupational achievement, and (c) how individuals experienced LOTE in their professional or leadership career.

The selection of a mixed methods approach as a strategy of inquiry and research design to examine the relationship between language diversity and leadership effectiveness provided insight on the research problem and appropriately addressed the research questions of this study. The two-phase approach that first quantitatively examined relationships among proxy variables of OTHLANG, SPKLANG, OTHLANG1, PRESTG80, and RINCOM06 in the 2010 GSS, set the stage for the second qualitative exploration of how individuals experienced LOTE skills in their leadership

roles in the focus group interview. The focus group discussion enabled a more comprehensive study.

The first phase of the study used the 2010 GSS. Considered a leading survey of social trends in the United States, the GSS is publicly available to researchers. Full probability sampling in the GSS provides each U.S. household equal probability of inclusion in the sample. The 2010 GSS contained a total of 4,901 cases of which only the 2010 cross-section of 2,044 cases was used. Proxy variables contained in the 2010 GSS used in this study included (a) OTHLANG to numerically measure speaking a LOTE, (b) SPKLANG, to numerically measure fluency in a LOTE, (c) OTHLANG1 to numerically measure what LOTE is spoken, as well as (d) PRESTG80 and RINCOM06 to numerically measure the prestige of the respondent's occupation and income, respectively.

The second phase of the study used a focus group interview to explore experiences of individuals using LOTE in their professional or leadership career. The focus group consisted of 12 purposefully selected participants. Participants were alumni of the Research Institution who majored or minored in a LOTE in the time period from 1983 to 2013. Guiding the focus group interview were open-ended protocol questions which were based on the conceptual framework of language-as-resource (Ruiz, 1984). Low-cost and minimal time requirement made a focus group an attractive qualitative research method to capture individual viewpoints on language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

For the quantitative phase, a series of steps enabled collection of 2010 GSS data. After reviewing the GSS codebook, GSS proxy variables, as well as control variables,

were identified and selected. Subsequently, statistical analysis was conducted. Findings are presented in Chapter 4. Variables were examined with descriptive and inferential statistics. The relationship between speaking a LOTE and occupational achievement was described by using hierarchical regression, which is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 4.

For the qualitative phase, a series of steps enabled data collection from the focus group interview. An alumni list was reviewed to purposefully select focus group participants who majored or minored in French, German, Italian, Japanese, Russian, Spanish, and Chinese. Purposefully selected participants were initially contacted with an introductory inquiry letter, followed by an invitation letter if they agreed to participate in the focus group. Participants were sent a consent form and were advised of the date, place, and time of the focus group. Focus group data was professionally transcribed and subsequently coded for themes by the researcher. An intercoder was utilized to cross-check themes for reliability.

To maintain ethical conduct, the researcher ascertained participants were neither harmed nor exploited. The identity of the participants remained anonymous. In addition, precautionary measures ensured the confidentiality of the data. The collected focus group data in both tape-recording and hard-copy form were secured in an office in a locked cabinet with access only by the researcher. Collected data will remain secured for a period of five years after study completion.

This chapter presented the research methods used to examine whether a relationship exists between language diversity and leadership effectiveness. An overview of the research context, participants, instruments, procedures, and analysis was presented.

The interpretation of the study results in Chapter 4 provides a basis for implications for leaders in the U.S. labor market and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to examine whether language diversity contributes to leadership effectiveness. Specifically, this study addressed the relationship between languages other than English (LOTE) and occupational achievement, which are proxy measures of language diversity and leadership effectiveness, respectively. Understanding this relationship potentially informs individuals on preparation for effective leadership roles by way of learning or maintaining a LOTE. This chapter presents quantitative findings of the General Social Survey (GSS), and an understanding of the qualitative focus group data regarding the relationship between LOTE and leadership effectiveness.

Research Questions

This mixed methods study provided insight on language diversity and leadership effectiveness in two phases. The first phase examined the connection of competence in LOTE and leadership by addressing: (a) Does knowing a LOTE predict occupational achievement? (b) Does the ability for LOTE to predict occupational achievement change depending on the second language? The second phase further explored language diversity and leadership effectiveness by examining the detailed views of how individuals personally experienced LOTE in their professional or leadership career. Examination of the data from these two perspectives yielded a deeper understanding of language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

Conceptual Framework

In constructing a conceptual perspective for the study of language diversity and leadership effectiveness, orientations found in the language planning field offered a practical framework. Ruiz (1984) developed three basic orientations to frame language-related issues (a) languages-as-problem, (b) language-as-right, and (c) language-as-resource. The specific orientation of language-as-resource (LAR) provided a suitable lens to view the research problem and address the research questions of this study. Hence, this study used LAR as the conceptual framework guiding both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research.

The orientation of LAR views language as a resource that (a) enhances minority languages status, (b) eases tensions in communities, and (c) allows appreciation of non-English languages in the United States (Ruiz, 1984). Despite these positive features, LAR has criticisms relating to the undermining of rights (Ricento, 2005) and the contribution to the neoliberal agenda (Petrovic, 2005). Although LAR was limited in making predictions in the quantitative phase, it provided useful insight relating to the qualitative phase. Overall, the examination of language diversity and leadership effectiveness through the orientation of LAR provided a useful framework.

Quantitative Phase

The first phase of this study involved analyzing the GSS for existing relationships among variables. This analysis generated results that provided understanding on the relationship between speaking a LOTE and occupational achievement.

Participants. The GSS is a full probability sample representative of the U.S. population age 18 and older, including Spanish-speaking adults. In 2010, the GSS

changed to a combined repeating cross-section and panel design which contained 4,901 total cases. Of the 4,901 total cases, 2,044 cases were new in the 2010 panel, while 1,581 cases were for the 2008 panel, and 1,276 cases for the 2006 panel. This analysis used only the new 2010 cross-section containing 2,044 cases, since the 2006 and 2008 panel cases were not asked the questions of interest in this study (The General Social Survey, 2011).

Preliminary analyses. Initial examination of PRESTG80, a numeric measure between 1 and 100 of the prestige of the occupation held by the respondent where higher values denote higher prestige, and RINCOM06, an ordinal measure of respondent income treated as a numeric measure between 1 and 25 where higher values denote more income, showed these two proxy measures of occupational achievement were not highly correlated ($r = .380$), hence statistical analyses were performed on each measure.

Visual examination of PRESTG80 and RINCOM06 stratified by OTHLANG using modified boxplots and stemplots showed unimodal distributions that were approximately symmetric with PRESTG80 slightly positive skewed and RINCOM06 slightly negative skewed, whether or not a LOTE was spoken. These observations were confirmed by calculating sample skewness and kurtosis which confirmed PRESTG80 and RINCOM06 only slightly deviated from normality.

Descriptive statistics for the stratified data are shown in Figure 4.1. The means and medians of PRESTG80 in both the LOTE and no-LOTE groups were approximately 44. To aid in the interpretation of GSS occupational prestige ratings, a prestige score of 44 corresponds to, for example, occupations relating to (a) actuaries; (b) religious workers; (c) science technicians; (d) supervisors, proprietors, and sales; (e) farm, forestry,

and logging workers; (f) bus, truck, and stationary engine mechanics; (g) mechanics and repairers; (h) extraction; and (i) cabinet makers and carpenters (The General Social Survey, 2013). The approximate means and medians of RINCOM06 in both the LOTE and no LOTE groups were 14, which correspond to the income category of \$22,500 to \$24,999 per year.

Measure	PRESTG80		RINCOM06	
	OTHLANG = 1 (LOTE)	OTHLANG = 2 (no-LOTE)	OTHLANG = 1 (LOTE)	OTHLANG = 2 (no-LOTE)
<i>n</i> Total	536	1,508	536	1,508
<i>n</i> Missing	191	651	191	651
<i>n</i> Observed	345	857	345	857
Mean (SD)	44.52 (14.116)	43.90 (14.182)	13.69 (6.460)	14.30 (6.125)
Median (IQR)	44.00 (20)	43.00 (19)	15.00 (10)	15.00 (9)
Skewness (SE)	0.300 (0.131)	0.365 (0.084)	-0.383 (0.131)	-0.510 (0.084)
Kurtosis (SE)	-0.662 (0.262)	-0.773 (0.167)	-0.915 (0.262)	-0.642 (0.167)
(Min, Max)	(17, 86)	(17, 86)	(1, 25)	(1, 25)

Figure 4.1. Descriptive data for the outcomes PRESTG80 and RINCOM06. Standard deviations, interquartile ranges, and standard errors are given in parentheses.

Descriptions of the categorical variables are shown in Table 4.1. Analysis controlled for demographic characteristics that could potentially explain a significant amount of variation in the dependent variables in the absence of information regarding LOTE speaking. The key independent variable used to answer the first research question is OTHLANG which indicates ability to speak a language other than English.

Table 4.1

Independent Variables in Analysis

Variables	Description	Value Label
Controls		
SEX	Respondents sex	1 = Male 2 = Female
RACE	Race of respondent	1 = White 2 = Black 3 = Other
CLASS	Subjective class identification	1 = Lower class 2 = Working class 3 = Middle class 4 = Upper class
DEGREE	Respondent highest degree	0 = Less than high school 1 = High school 2 = Junior college 3 = Bachelor 4 = Graduate
WRKSLF	Respondent self-employed or works for somebody	1 = Self-employed 2 = Someone else
Predictors		
OTHLANG	Respondent speaks a LOTE	1 = Yes 2 = No
Spanish D	Respondent speaks Spanish	1 = Yes 0 = No
French D	Respondent speaks French	1 = Yes 0 = No
German D	Respondent speaks German	1 = Yes 0 = No
Italian D	Respondent speaks Italian	1 = Yes 0 = No
Chinese D	Respondent speaks Chinese	1 = Yes 0 = No
Japanese D	respondent speaks Japanese	1 = Yes 0 = No
Russian D	Respondent speaks Russian	1 = Yes 0 = No
SPKLANG	How well does respondent speak other language	1 = Very well 2 = Well 3 = Not well 4 = Poorly/Hardly at all

Note. OTHLANG is a numeric measure of speaking a language other than English. D indicates a dummy variable. Dummy variables correspond to OTHLANG1.

Regression Analysis

Hierarchical regression was used to clarify whether language diversity matters in leadership effectiveness and to uncover whether it is an untapped leadership resource. Specifically, hierarchical regression analysis was performed to describe the relationship between speaking LOTE and occupational achievement. The analysis attempted to predict to what extent occupational achievement is based on an individual's ability to speak a LOTE. In terms of the data, proxy variables resembling this researcher's variables of interest were found in the 2010 GSS. In particular, OTHLANG, a numeric measure of LOTE speaking, SPKLANG, a numeric measure of LOTE fluency, and OTHLANG1, a numeric measure of specific spoken LOTE, were used as proxy variables for language diversity. Similarly, for general leadership effectiveness, PRESTG80, a numeric measure of the prestige of the occupation, and RINCOM06, a numeric measure of income, were used as proxy variables for occupational achievement in the analysis.

The hierarchical regression technique allowed the adding of variables in a specified sequence in order to determine the effect of LOTE-related variables after accounting for other possible effects. For each combination of language diversity and leadership effectiveness proxy variables, this researcher first began with a model consisting of control variables, and in the second step, added the independent variable of interest, specifically, the selected language diversity proxy variables from the 2010 GSS. Since the variables SPKLANG and OTHLANG1 only applied to subjects who speak a LOTE, the analysis using these variables was performed on the LOTE-speaking subset. The six different hierarchical regression models used to describe the relationship between speaking a LOTE and occupational achievement are described below:

- Model A1: This model was estimated entering a set of control variables, followed by OTHLANG as predictors of PRESTG80.
- Model A2: This model was estimated entering a set of control variables, followed by OTHLANG as predictors of RINCOM06.
- Model B1: For LOTE subset, this model was estimated entering a set of control variables, followed by SPKLANG as predictors of PRESTG80.
- Model B2: For LOTE subset, this model was estimated entering a set of control variables, followed by SPKLANG as predictors of RINCOM06.
- Model C1: For LOTE subset, this model was estimated entering a set of control variables, followed by OTHLANG1 as predictors of PRESTG80.
- Model C2: For LOTE subset, this model was estimated entering a set of control variables, followed by OTHLANG1 as predictors of RINCOM06.

Effect of speaking a LOTE on occupational achievement. Model A1

addressed the first research question in this study. Although statistically significant, the control variable only accounted for 31% of variability in occupational prestige. Among these control variables, Class, Degree, and Wrkslf were all significant predictors of occupational prestige. The addition of the predictor OTHLANG did not significantly improve the model because the change in R^2 was less than 0.001 ($p = .647$). Relative to the first research question in this study, data showed that, after controlling for potential confounding variables, speaking a LOTE does not predict occupational prestige, as regression results indicated OTHLANG was not significant ($p = .647$). These results are displayed in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Regression Analysis Summary for Variables Predicting Occupational Prestige

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Model ΔR^2	Model <i>p</i>
Controls						.311	.000
Sex	-.260	.537	-.009	-.484	.628		
Race (black)	-1.140	1.154	-.029	-.988	.323		
Race (white)	1.275	.959	.039	1.329	.184		
Class	2.050	.429	.100	4.773*	.000		
Degree	5.555	.230	.500	24.148*	.000		
Wrkslf	1.772	.816	.042	2.172*	.030		
Predictor						.000	.647
Sex	-.266	.537	-.010	-.496	.620		
Race (black)	-1.295	1.203	-.033	-1.077	.282		
Race (white)	1.139	1.005	.035	1.134	.257		
Class	2.053	.430	.100	4.780*	.000		
Degree	5.563	.231	.501	24.098*	.000		
Wrkslf	1.775	.816	.042	2.176*	.030		
Othlang	.292	.639	.009	.458	.647		

Note. Wrkslf indicates if a respondent is self-employed or works for somebody. Othlang is a numeric measure of speaking a language other than English.

* $p < .05$

Model A2 addressed the first research question of this study as well. Although statistically significant, the control variables only accounted for 22% of variability in respondent income. Among these control variables, Sex, Race, Class, and Degree were all significant predictors of respondent income. The addition of the predictor OTHLANG did not significantly improve the model as indicated in Table 4.3 because the change in R^2 was 0.002 ($p = .071$). Although there may be a very small effect, it is not significant ($p = .071$).

Table 4.3

Regression Analysis Summary for Variables Predicting Income

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Model ΔR^2	Model <i>p</i>
Controls						.222	.000
Sex	-2.548	.326	-.204	-7.829*	.000		
Race (black)	1.522	.678	.086	2.245*	.025		
Race (white)	2.204	.559	.150	3.940*	.000		
Class	.847	.280	.085	3.026*	.003		
Degree	1.823	.139	.367	13.091*	.000		
Wrkslf	.438	.495	.023	.884	.377		
Predictor						.002	.071
Sex	-2.556	.325	-.205	-7.859*	.000		
Race (black)	1.182	.703	.067	1.681	.093		
Race (white)	1.900	.584	.129	3.254*	.001		
Class	.866	.280	.087	3.097*	.002		
Degree	1.834	.139	.369	13.169*	.000		
Wrkslf	.451	.495	.024	.911	.363		
Othlang	.665	.368	.048	1.806	.071		

Note. Wrkslf indicates if respondent is self-employed or works for somebody. Othlang is a numeric measure of speaking a language other than English.

* $p < .05$

Effect of fluency in LOTE on occupational achievement. Model B1 addressed LOTE fluency as a secondary analysis in this study. This analysis was performed to elaborate on fluency of LOTE with the variable SPKLANG as a predictor of occupational prestige for the LOTE-speaking subset (OTHLANG = 1). Although statistically significant, the control variables only accounted for 27% of variability in occupational prestige. Among control variables, education was a significant predictor of occupational prestige. The addition of the predictor SPKLANG did not significantly improve the model because the change in R^2 was less than 0.001 ($p = .972$). Results are in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

Regression Analysis Summary for Variables Predicting Occupational Prestige

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Model ΔR^2	Model <i>p</i>
Controls						.269	.000
Sex	-.843	1.113	-.030	-.757	.449		
Race (black)	-1.959	2.248	-.039	-.871	.384		
Race (white)	.795	1.359	.026	.585	.559		
Class	1.446	.949	.066	1.523	.128		
Degree	5.126	.454	.483	11.290*	.000		
Wrkslf	1.280	1.697	.030	.755	.451		
Predictor						.000	.972
Sex	-.842	1.114	-.030	-.756	.450		
Race (black)	-1.970	2.273	-.039	-.867	.387		
Race (white)	.780	1.419	.026	.550	.583		
Class	1.443	.953	.066	1.514	.131		
Degree	5.127	.456	.483	11.253*	.000		
Wrkslf	1.277	1.702	.030	.750	.454		
Spklang	.020	.561	.001	.035	.972		

Note. Wrkslf indicates if respondent is self-employed or works for somebody. Spklang is a numeric measure of how well a language other than English is spoken.

* $p < .05$

Model B2 addressed LOTE fluency also as part of a secondary analysis in this study. Although statistically significant, the control variables only accounted for 23% of variability in respondent income. Among these control variables, Sex, Race, and Degree were all significant predictors of respondent income. The addition of predictor SPKLANG did not significantly improve the model because the change in R^2 was less than 0.001 ($p = .774$) as shown in Table 4.5. Regression results showed that SPKLANG does not predict income either ($p = .774$).

Table 4.5

Regression Analysis Summary for Variables Predicting Income

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Model ΔR^2	Model <i>p</i>
Controls						.229	.000
Sex	-3.013	.623	-.234	-4.836*	.000		
Race (black)	.450	1.201	.021	.375	.708		
Race (white)	1.615	.760	.117	2.124*	.034		
Class	.792	.529	.078	1.496	.136		
Degree	1.768	.256	.358	6.918*	.000		
Wrkslf	-.997	.959	-.050	-1.040	.299		
Predictor						.000	.774
Sex	-3.009	.624	-.234	-4.822*	.000		
Race (black)	.512	1.221	.023	.419	.675		
Race (white)	1.693	.808	.123	2.094*	.037		
Class	.802	.531	.079	1.510	.132		
Degree	1.757	.259	.356	6.789*	.000		
Wrkslf	-.979	.962	-.049	-1.017	.310		
Spklang	-.091	.315	-.015	-.287	.774		

Note. Wrkslf indicates if respondent is self-employed or works for somebody. Spklang is a numeric measure of how well a language other than English is spoken.

* $p < .05$

Effect of speaking a specific LOTE on occupational achievement. Model C1 and Model C2 addressed the second research question concerning specific LOTE spoken. The analyses were performed on the LOTE-speaking subset to investigate the effect of a specific LOTE on occupational achievement. Two separate hierarchical regression models were estimated. In these analyses, seven dummy variables were created to classify languages into one of eight categories: Spanish, French, German, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, Russian, and Other. The seven dummy variables were interpreted

against the Other category, which being the control, did not have its own dummy variable. As with the primary analyses, the same set of control variables were first entered into the model, followed by dummy variables representing the language categories as predictors of PRESTG80 and RINCOM06, respectively. Dummy variables correspond to OTHLANG1.

In Model C1, although statistically significant, control variables accounted for only 30% of variability in occupational prestige. Among these control variables, Race, Class, Degree, and Wrkslf were significant predictors of occupational prestige. The addition of language dummy variables did not significantly improve the model because the change in R^2 was 0.001 ($p = .385$). Hierarchical regression results indicated that, after controlling for potential confounding variables, none of the selected LOTE was significant, therefore not good predictors of occupational prestige. Although none of the language dummy variables were significant, there was some evidence that those speaking Chinese and Russian may have lower occupational prestige. Results are reported in Table 4.6.

In Model C2, control variables accounted for 20% of variability in respondent income, and were all significant predictors of income. Although statistically significant, the addition of language dummy variables did not substantially improve the model since the change in R^2 was only 0.006 ($p = .003$). The hierarchical regression results did indicate evidence that, after controlling for potential confounding variables, Spanish and French were significant. Those individuals who were fluent in Spanish ($\beta = -1.460, p < .001$) and those individuals who were fluent in French ($\beta = -2.114, p = .025$) had, on average, lower incomes. Results are reported in Table 4.7.

Table 4.6

Regression Analysis Summary for Dummy Variables Predicting Occupational Prestige

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Model ΔR^2	Model <i>p</i>
Controls						.303	.000
Sex	-.100	.349	-.004	-.287	.774		
Race (black)	-1.430	.768	-.036	-1.861	.063		
Race (white)	1.317	.644	.039	2.044*	.041		
Class	2.039	.280	.097	7.274*	.000		
Degree	5.614	.151	.493	37.218*	.000		
Wrkslf	1.779	.547	.040	3.249*	.001		
Predictor						.001	.385
Sex	-.143	.349	-.005	-.409	.683		
Race (black)	-1.540	.782	-.038	-1.969*	.049		
Race (white)	1.228	.659	.036	1.863	.063		
Class	2.026	.281	.096	7.216*	.000		
Degree	5.638	.152	.495	37.079*	.000		
Wrkslf	1.768	.548	.040	3.223*	.001		
Spanish (dummy)	-.956	.776	-.015	-1.231	.218		
French (dummy)	-.523	1.704	-.004	-.307	.759		
German (dummy)	-.106	1.772	-.001	-.060	.952		
Italian (dummy)	.054	3.025	.000	.018	.986		
Chinese (dummy)	-5.368	3.558	-.019	-1.509	.131		
Japanese (dummy)	3.798	3.560	.013	1.067	.286		
Russian (dummy)	-6.904	4.428	-.019	-1.559	.119		

Note. Wrkslf indicates if respondent is self-employed or works for somebody. Dummy variables correspond to OTHLANG1.

* $p < .05$

Table 4.7

Regression Analysis Summary for Dummy Variables Predicting Income

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Model ΔR^2	Model <i>p</i>
Controls						.202	.000
Sex	-2.314	.200	-.195	-11.544*	.000		
Race (black)	.896	.429	.053	2.091*	.037		
Race (white)	1.471	.357	.105	4.120*	.000		
Class	1.281	.177	.133	7.232*	.000		
Degree	1.542	.088	.321	17.480*	.000		
Wrkslf	.652	.310	.035	2.099*	.036		
Predictor						.006	.003
Sex	-2.314	.200	-.195	-11.542*	.000		
Race (black)	.663	.434	.039	1.528	.127		
Race (white)	1.287	.363	.091	3.540*	.000		
Class	1.300	.177	.135	7.345*	.000		
Degree	1.547	.089	.322	17.392*	.000		
Wrkslf	.668	.311	.036	2.148*	.032		
Spanish (dummy)	-1.460	.408	-.060	-3.576*	.000		
French (dummy)	-2.114	.944	-.037	-2.238*	.025		
German (dummy)	-1.201	1.005	-.020	-1.196	.232		
Italian (dummy)	-2.615	2.001	-.022	-1.307	.191		
Chinese (dummy)	-1.032	1.895	-.009	-.544	.586		
Japanese (dummy)	-2.759	2.380	-.019	-1.159	.246		
Russian (dummy)	-1.482	2.167	-.011	-.684	.494		

Note. Wrkslf indicates if respondent is self-employed or works for somebody. Dummy variables correspond to OTHLANG1.

* $p < .05$

Synopsis of Quantitative Results

The first phase of this study addressed whether language diversity is relevant in leadership effectiveness by analyzing the relationship between speaking a LOTE and occupational achievement. The quantitative analysis used proxy variables found in the

GSS to assess whether knowing a LOTE is a good predictor of occupational achievement. Six regression models were performed to analyze this relationship. The regression models used the 2010 GSS proxy variables best resembling this researcher's variables of interest, particularly, OTHLANG, SPKLANG, and OTHLANG1 to represent language diversity, as well as PRESTG80 and RINCOM06 to represent general leadership effectiveness. These six hierarchical regression models described the relationship between speaking a LOTE and occupational achievement. Hierarchical regression permitted the addition of variables in a specified sequence to determine the effect of LOTE-related variables on occupational achievement after accounting for other possible effects.

Overall, hierarchical regression results indicated LOTE was not a good predictor of occupational achievement. In effect, results of Model C2 indicated that, after controlling for potential confounding variables, speakers of Spanish and French had, on average, lower incomes. Important aspects of the quantitative study phase are that in the U.S. adult population (a) knowing a LOTE does not predict occupational prestige or income, (b) fluency in Spanish, French, German, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian does not predict occupational prestige or income, (c) fluency in German, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian does not predict income, and (d) Spanish and French speakers have, on average, a disadvantage in income. These quantitative results paved the way to further explore LOTE, as well as LOTE-related cultural knowledge and leadership effectiveness. This deeper understanding of LOTE and leadership effectiveness is revealed in the qualitative findings from phase two of this study. The following section relates qualitative research findings that emerged from the focus group interview.

Qualitative Phase

The second phase of this study further explored language diversity and leadership effectiveness by examining detailed views of how individuals personally experienced LOTE in their leadership or professional roles by means of a focus group discussion. The discussion was facilitated by the researcher. The focus group discussion enabled further exploration of the outcome of interest by means of themes which could only transpire with the detailed narratives of individuals in phase two, the qualitative part. The focus group of purposefully selected participants was conducted in April 2014 and lasted approximately one hour. The discussion was digitally recorded and professionally transcribed to examine the qualitative data for emerging themes.

Participants. Twelve individuals participated in the focus group. Background information was collected just prior to the focus group for an overall profile of the group and is presented in Figure 4.2.

Participant	Field	Profession	Title	LOTE studied at FLC	Prior LOTE	Subsequent LOTE
1	Law; nonprofit	Attorney	Director	Chinese		.
2	Fashion industry; profit	Analyst	Business Analyst	Chinese		French
3	Private company; profit	Owner	President	German		Italian
4	Private company; profit	Accountant	Assistant Controller	Japanese		
5	Private company; profit	Management	Project Manager	Spanish		Italian, Portuguese
6	Broadcasting; nonprofit	Management	Manager	Spanish	Spanish	
7	Healthcare; nonprofit	Counselor	Counselor	Spanish	Spanish	
8	Healthcare; nonprofit	Fundraising	Director	Spanish		
9	Technology; profit	Management	Service Liaison	French		Kiswahili, Spanish
10	Law; profit	Attorney	Solo-Practitioner	French	Greek	Spanish
11	Education; nonprofit	Teaching	ESOL Instructor	French		Spanish
12	Consulting; profit	Consultant	Consultant	French		ASL, Spanish

Figure 4.2. Focus group participants background information.

Preliminary consideration. The background information revealed the field of employment and profession, along with the work title of each participant. Review of the employment information, showed only one participant as part of the *goods-producing* sector, and specifically employed in the manufacturing (fashion) industry. This participant was currently a business analyst with leadership experience in current and past roles. The other 11 participants were part of the *service-providing* sector, and represented the following industries: education and health services, professional and business services, information, and leisure. Relative to the education and health services, three participants were part of this industry in the following capacities: (a) one director in a leadership role, (b) one trained counselor with subordinates and authority to hire personnel, and (c) one ESOL teaching instructor. With respect to the professional and business services, six participants were part of this industry in the following capacities: (a) two practicing attorneys both in leadership roles with one as a director and one as solo-practitioner, (b) one business owner in a leadership role, (c) one project manager in a management role, and (d) one accountant in an assistant controller role. As concerns the information industry, one participant was a service liaison with past management experience. For the leisure industry, one participant with leadership experience was a manager at a broadcasting station. Overall, not all participants were in a clearly defined leadership role. However, some participants in the professional and business services industry were responsible for hiring and managing personnel, as well as clients. In connection with the sector of work, 40% of participants were employed in nonprofit organizations with the remaining 60% employed in profit-oriented organizations.

The information provided by participants showed that 25% of participants grew up with a LOTE in the home. Moreover, the majority of the group commenced the study of one or more other LOTE after completing a LOTE major or a minor at the Research Institution. In fact, 25% of participants studied two other LOTE, besides the initial LOTE studied at the Research Institution. Languages other than English studied included the African language of Kiswahili and American Sign Language (ASL).

Data evaluation. Initial examination of the focus group discussion indicated that all participants favorably assessed study of a LOTE. In addition, all participants related that cultural understanding afforded by study of a LOTE positively influenced their leadership or professional work activities. All focus group participants dynamically shared personal viewpoints and specific experiences relative to using a LOTE, along with cultural understanding tied to that LOTE, in their work roles. Often, participant comments were prompted by each other's unique input.

Fifty percent of the participants referenced using a LOTE directly in their work positions, with 33% of participants having secured their specific employment position because of fluency in a specific LOTE. For those participants not utilizing a LOTE directly at work, their comments pointed to cultural awareness and refinement of communication skills resulting from knowing a LOTE as advantageous in understanding client or target audience needs. By and large, knowledge and use of a LOTE offered professional opportunities to the majority of the group. Moreover, two of the participants, who actively use a LOTE at work, and who are responsible for hiring staff, prefer to hire candidates with any LOTE skills over candidates with no LOTE skills at all.

Emerging themes. The main themes that emerged from the focus group discussion among leaders and professionals who majored or minored in a LOTE at the Research Institution include (a) cultural acumen, (b) relational insight, (c) communication savvy, (d) impetus for development, and (d) social civility. These main themes unfolded from detailed subthemes which materialized based on the dynamics of the focus group discussion. Similarly, the detailed subthemes that developed were based on leadership qualities which surfaced from specific participant comments relative to their knowledge of a LOTE and their leadership or professional role. The main themes, subthemes, and leadership qualities are summarized in Figure 4.3.

Main Theme	Subtheme	Leadership Qualities
Cultural Acumen	Cultural acuity	Understanding, awareness, insight, empathy
	Cultural malleability	Flexibility, nonstereotyping
Relational Insight	Builds relations	Trust, respect
	Enhanced rapport	Connection, acceptance
Communication Savvy	Refined communication skills	English/LOTE articulation, LOTE accuracy
	Heightened perceptions	Adaptability, intuition
Impetus for Development	Professional opportunities	LOTE necessary job skill, reshaped work style
	Personal development	Cognition, courage, patience, sensitivity
	Personal enrichment	Travel, arts appreciation, other LOTE stimulus
Social Civility	Fosters global awareness	Tolerance, benevolence
	Promotes community concern	Altruism, heritage appreciation

Figure 4.3. Main themes, subthemes, and leadership qualities resulting from LOTE-use, as well as cultural understanding derived from LOTE-use and knowledge, relative to leadership and professional employment positions in the current U.S. labor market.

The key themes that emerged from the focus group discussion align with the conceptual perspective of this study, which is specifically the language-as-resource (LAR) orientation proposed in research about models of language orientations by Ruiz

(1984). The LAR orientation is part of a three-prong model which views language diversity as a problem, as a right, or as a resource (Ruiz, 1984). Although developed to analyze issues in the language planning field, examining use of LOTE in the leadership function by using the LAR orientation is a relevant approach to view the human resource value of language. For individuals in leadership positions, or for aspiring leaders, competency in a LOTE offers an alternative measure to expand ones' leadership resources. In turn, leaders with LOTE skills are valuable members of organizations and valuable constituents of society. Similar to Harrison (2007), who applied the conceptual framework of language orientations for bilingual practitioners to inform the practice of social work, this study applied the LAR conceptual framework for LOTE-speaking leaders to inform the effectiveness of leadership. The themes discovered in the examination of focus group data, allowed the identification of LOTE as a potential human resource for leaders and professionals. By way of the identified themes, LOTE was connected to the human resource value of effective leadership.

Cultural acumen. Focus group participants discussed attaining cultural acumen through their study of a LOTE. In this regard, LOTE skills are a resource for individuals and organizations because they are a channel to cultural acumen development. Cultural acumen increases cultural cognizance and dissolves cultural barriers. The theme of cultural acumen permeated the focus group discussion. Participant experiences varied with regard to cultural acumen acquired by way of a LOTE. In spite of the unique experiences, participants described how study of a LOTE added depth to their own general acumen of culture which was formed by two subthemes: cultural acuity and cultural malleability. Their comments collectively pointed to the same leadership

qualities. Leadership qualities that surfaced in the cultural acuity subtheme were understanding, awareness, insight, and empathy. Understanding was highlighted in a comment by the attorney (nonprofit director; Chinese), who often uses a LOTE with clients:

You have to really consider the culture people are coming from because they tend to live in cultural groups here. . . . if you don't kind of understand where people are coming from culturally and different pressure that are on them then you're not going to be able to, for me, I wouldn't be able to help them as well.

Another attorney (solo-practitioner; French), indicated better awareness in her leadership role by observing:

I actually grew up speaking a second language and then I learned another language. . . . I think that does help you in a leadership role. . . . when you're interviewing people and talking to people from all different types of cultures and I think more people than we know in America come from different cultures as it is.

Along with understanding and awareness stemming from a wider cultural repertoire, was also better insight. Leaders felt cultural acuity served as a tool for better insight in their leadership functions. The business owner (private company president; German) commented "my LOTEs have given me kind of a set of metalinguistic skills that I can take with me that help me penetrate other cultures a bit more easily."

Contained within the subtheme of cultural acuity, was also the quality of empathy acquired in learning another language and subsequently brought to the workplace as described by some participants. The quality of empathy was conveyed by the English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) instructor (education; French), who noted, "when

they realize that I speak a second language. . . I explain to them I get it. . . I know what that feels like. . . . They start to respect the fact that I know what they're feeling. . .”

These comments illustrated the subtheme of cultural acuity resulting from using and knowing a LOTE.

The main theme of cultural acumen had a second subtheme of cultural malleability characterized by leadership qualities of flexibility and nonstereotyping. In reference to the quality of flexibility, the business owner (private company president; German), who recently began studying Italian, related, “German was my first other language and the structure of it fit my personality in a way I think very well and then I finally realized you don't so much learn Italian as get a feel for it.” Along with feeling a language, are analogous cultural traditions as indicated by the assistant controller (private company; Japanese) in his experience with culture-specific formalities who described, “For Japanese you have a certain level of hierarchical stature so when you speak to someone you speak with hierarchical respect. . . . it wasn't just learning language or speaking it, it's actually being able to bow.” Comments relating to Italian and Japanese cultural mores were elaborated by the project manager (private company; Spanish), who added, “I think it's hard to separate learning a language from learning about that culture as well. You know, if there's any feel for Italian and you're still bowing in Japanese, I'm a little more relaxed about deadlines.” Regarding malleability, the knowledge of other cultures helped the service liaison (manager; French) exercise flexibility in thought as she observed, “I think it really helped me to kind of just see not everyone is anal American schedule type of person. . .” In addition to the study of French at the Research Institution, the service liaison eventually studied Kiswahili and Spanish. Cultural

malleability also contributed to diminished stereotyping as indicated by the business analyst (fashion industry; Chinese), who recently began the study of French and who observed, “I feel like I see past a lot of stereotypes that I might have adhered to before.” These comments reinforced the cultural malleability gained with use and knowledge of a LOTE.

Taken as a whole, cultural acumen clarifies misunderstanding in increasingly diverse organizations. Leaders that can navigate effectively across cultures and bridge over misunderstanding are a resource for organizations. LOTE skills are a valuable conduit for leaders to increase cultural acumen and alleviate misunderstanding in organizations.

Relational insight. Focus group participants expressed gaining relational insight with their LOTE study. Concerning this, LOTE skills are a resource for individuals and organizations because they are a method to expand relational insight. Relational insight generates trust by building connection. Relational insight is created by means of LOTE. Relational insight was evident among individuals utilizing a LOTE in the workplace, as well as those not currently using a LOTE in their positions. The theme of relational insight consisted of two subthemes: build relations and enhance rapport. Using a LOTE and cultural knowledge gained from knowing a LOTE builds relations with others. Leadership qualities that transpired within the builds relations subtheme were trust and respect. For the attorney (solo-practitioner; French), who rarely uses a LOTE at work, but has solid knowledge of two languages other than English (French; Greek), work experience reflected the building of relationships evident in her comment:

All leadership positions are based on mutual respect and trust and I'm dealing with other people, other attorneys and judges who have interests in other areas as well and knowledge that I have. . .brings another aspect on which we can bond outside of the law and develop those relationships that would be true in all jobs I think.

At the other end of the spectrum, the attorney (nonprofit director; Chinese) that regularly utilizes her LOTE at work commented, "My office speaks Mandarin . . . I do represent a lot of Mandarin speaking clients. . . they're new to the country, they're really happy to have a lawyer that speaks their language." These comments featured the leadership qualities of respect and trust.

The relational insight theme also included the subtheme of enhanced rapport, where leadership qualities of connection and acceptance surfaced. Of interest, the business analyst (fashion industry; Chinese), who occasionally uses a LOTE, stated, "So knowing Mandarin I think really helped me not only get that role, but perform in that role because I was able to relate. . ." regarding her ability to connect and relate with Chinese colleagues in their own language. Along with delighted clients and customers, who have the opportunity to connect in their own language, LOTE-speaking leaders benefit as well by becoming more accepting as stated by the French-speaking ESOL instructor, "There are definitely different ways of living, different ways of communicating. Like you said you become more malleable, you become more accepting." These comments highlighted the power of LOTE skills in enhancing rapport with clients, as well as with colleagues in the workplace. At times, the use of LOTE in the leadership role has been personally gratifying as expressed by the consultant (consulting; French), who embarked in the

study of American Sign Language (ASL) and Spanish, “when I’ve been in a situation where I’m really fully able to understand the person I’m working with and have a relationship with them it’s actually my favorite thing. . .”

In general, relational insight adds depth to relationships within the organization with colleagues, as well as outside of the organization with clients and suppliers. The power of relational insight lies in its creation of trust between individuals. Leaders with relational insight interact with others on the same wavelength. In order to prepare leaders for today’s diverse organizations, LOTE skills deserve attention because they are valuable tools in creating relational insight.

Communication savvy. Focus group participants explained their knowledge of a LOTE was a tool in sharpening their communication skills. As to LOTE skills, they are a resource because they contribute to skillful expression, effective interaction, as well as reduced misunderstanding, thus creating communication savvy. The theme of communication savvy was spread among focus group participants’ comments which pointed to two subthemes: refined communication skills and heightened perceptions. Leadership qualities within the refined communication skill subtheme were the articulation of English and the LOTE, as well as LOTE accuracy. Of particular interest, was the professional experience of the attorney (nonprofit director; Chinese), who accurately processed legal proceedings that at times suffered bias when handled by official court interpreters, as she related, “We have problems with interpreters too that are sometimes biased in a sort of way and so it’s good to be aware of that, you know, so it can play out in all different ways.” Better articulation of the English language as a result

of studying a LOTE, was also a benefit shared among participants. This benefit was expressed by the director (nonprofit healthcare; Spanish), who commented:

Knowing a certain phrase we might use in English and then thinking about how it would sound and what it would be in Spanish, knowing that the interpretation of it will be something that's really absurd. So kind of knowing that about myself when I'm talking or thinking about how I use the English language.

This personal examination of English language and LOTE-use demonstrated the benefits resulting from refined communicative skills.

Along with refined communication skills, communication savvy included the subtheme of heightened perceptions in dealing with others. Leadership qualities within the heightened perceptions subtheme were: adaptability and intuition. The director (nonprofit healthcare; Spanish) related her experience in dealing with the constantly changing work culture by commenting, "I think I'm able to easily adapt to reading other people or knowing someone who might be uncomfortable . . . it's helped me as a leader to be able to see what other people were going through. . ." The solo-practitioner and counselor-at-law who does not regularly use a LOTE observed, "Even though I'm maybe not speaking either one of those languages it makes you more intuitive to those differences." The comments relating to communication savvy were evidence of heightened perceptions resulting from knowing or using a LOTE.

Overall, communication savvy enables articulated message delivery and enhanced message receipt. Leaders with communication savvy by way of LOTE have access to language-specific cognitive patterns and cultural insight to send with messages to audiences and to process received messages from audiences. LOTE skills are valuable in

dissolving ethnocentrism surrounding one's own language by interacting with the mother tongue of another.

Impetus for development. Focus group participants shared that having studied and knowing a LOTE, afforded employment opportunities and sparked interest in the study of other LOTE. LOTE study was a catalyst for development, which in turn, propelled individuals to both professional and personal enrichment. When individuals are enriched, they become valuable human resources for organizations, as well as society. Impetus for development can potentially be generated with a LOTE. Participants recounted ways in which their LOTE or LOTE-related knowledge contributed to their own development. The impetus for development theme included three subthemes: professional opportunities, personal development, and personal enrichment. In reference to professional opportunities, these included necessary LOTE skills and reshaped work styles. The counselor (nonprofit healthcare; Spanish), who emigrated to the United States as a child stated, "Every position I've gotten is because I am bilingual, I am able to engage and bring people from other cultures into it not just as clients or patients. . ." In fact, this same participant related how she expanded these efforts in the hiring process, which is part of her work responsibilities, and stated, "I've always encouraged hiring people that are bilingual even if they're not going to have a caseload of Spanish speaking because they can relate and understand what it is to be from a different culture." Professional opportunities included reshaped work styles based on knowledge of different cultural work ethics. In particular, two leaders, who traveled abroad, observed different working styles which they subsequently applied in their own U.S. workplace. The assistant controller (private company; Japanese), who traveled to Japan, commented,

“What I experienced allowed me to come back here and utilize that work ethic that understanding the lower level to management level in my daily activities.” Similarly, the ESOL instructor (education; French), who traveled to France, observed, “I mean seeing other education systems, how things function . . . definitely changed the way I teach. . . . It just opened my eyes to the fact that this isn’t it, this isn’t all there is, this isn’t the best place. . . .”

Within the personal development subtheme, the building of the following leadership qualities appeared: cognition, courage, patience, and sensitivity. The business owner (private company president; German), who recently embarked in the study of Italian, explained, “picking up the study of language again really was a reinvigorating mental pursuit. . . . I think it definitely helps my mental acuity without a doubt.” Along with exercising cognitive functions, the study of a LOTE developed courage in the lives of several participants. The business analyst (fashion industry; Chinese) remarked, “I think studying another language has made me more adventurous too and I’ve done things that maybe if I had not taken Mandarin I would not have thought to do” to which the assistant controller (private company; Japanese) added regarding his study of Japanese, “especially when I go into interviews or I’m helping my employers and they say can you do this test, and I laugh at them and I say I learned the whole language. . . if I can do that I can do anything.” The director (nonprofit healthcare; Spanish), who does not currently use a LOTE at work, related the patience she developed with learning a LOTE and shared the following invaluable work experience:

I think for me it brought me more patience and understanding and now I work for an agency that works with people with disabilities and special needs and being

able to understand that someone could have Cerebral Palsy and they might not be able to physically tell me or show me but inside the cognitive function is there if I just have the patience to work with them. Just like others that had the patience to work with me when I wanted to work on my skills or be able to communicate with them.

Along with patience, knowledge and use of a LOTE generated sensitivity in dealing with others. This was captured in the comment of the business analyst (fashion industry; Chinese), who stated, “it definitely brought me more sensitivity to other people’s situations not only and where they come from too.” Comments relative to personal development demonstrated how the use and knowledge of a LOTE contributed to certain leadership qualities.

In conjunction with personal development, LOTE-use and knowledge also contributed to personal enrichment in the general life activities of leaders and professionals. Personal enrichment included areas of travel, appreciation for the arts, and motivation to study other languages. For travel, the attorney (solo-practitioner; French) commented, “All my travel to France or a French-speaking country, I just got back from St. Martin so that says it all.” The director (nonprofit healthcare; Spanish) mentioned, “I have used Spanish to travel, I’ve got to travel quite a bit. . . . it’s been a neat kind of feeling experience that wouldn’t have happened otherwise, that makes me value even more speaking another language.” Regarding Spanish knowledge, the project manager (private company; Spanish) related appreciation in the arts by commenting, “I think having another language totally opens you up to our end in film and. . . bodies of works that would be inaccessible otherwise” to which the consultant (consulting; French) added,

“I never dreamed I would find art history so amazing and I know that has much more of an effect. . .” Majoring or minoring in a LOTE at the Research Institution also provided the necessary incentive for 25% of focus group participants to engage in the study of additional languages other than English as part of personal enjoyment.

By and large, the study of a LOTE is incentive for professional opportunities, personal development and enrichment. The impetus for development improves personal qualities and encourages skills refinement. Leaders with impetus for development experience personal rewards. Moreover, in improving themselves, leaders with the impetus for development add human resource value in today’s changing and diverse organizations, as well as add human resource value to society. The impetus for development can be triggered by the study of a LOTE.

Social civility. Similar to the resource-value of language in mitigating tensions between minority and majority language communities in the field of language planning (Ruiz, 1984), LOTE-speaking leaders are a resource because they nurture tolerance and promote altruism. LOTE skills can potentially create a path to social civility. The theme of social civility encompassed two subthemes: foster global awareness and promote community concern. In the subtheme of foster global awareness, the leadership qualities of tolerance and benevolence appeared among participant comments. Some participants indicated the study of a LOTE expanded their worldviews. The attorney (nonprofit director; Chinese) described an expanded global awareness, “I certainly use it with my clients. . . understanding the different culture, I think that’s very important, especially when you’re working with people of different economic backgrounds and from different places in the world, I think that helps a lot.” The assistant controller (private company;

Japanese) commented, “So I think having that second language really exposed me to a whole different world than I probably would have ever imagined being in.” In addition, global awareness was marked with a feeling of tolerance and benevolence among participants. Tolerance is illustrated in an observation about a 2014 Super Bowl advertisement by the director (nonprofit healthcare; Spanish):

They were singing in all the different languages, I thought that was so beautiful and then seeing the backlash on Facebook of all the different people who loves it or didn't like it, just being able to appreciate that we have all these different languages and that we're kind of all one body of people coming together and knowing that I'm glad I took the time to learn another language.

Along with the quality of tolerance, fostering global awareness encouraged the quality of benevolence aptly described by the attorney (nonprofit director; Chinese), who interacted with Chinese culture, and related:

It really changed me. . . to feel strongly about, more strongly about injustice in that world system and I think now the world is becoming smaller and we're going to get a little poorer and hopefully other people will get a little richer.

In terms of benevolence within the United States, the same participant commented, “A lot of times people are really rude to people that don't speak English well.”

Social civility also included the subtheme of promoting community concern as manifested by qualities of altruism and heritage appreciation. Illustrating this subtheme was the altruistic experience of a participant who used Spanish skills to assist with medical translation needs in the community. The manager (public broadcasting; Spanish) commented, “I can help them translate it so they can better understand what it is that the

doctor is telling them...” With regard to heritage appreciation, the same participant highlighted her LOTE-study was in part motivated to show respect for heritage and expressed, “also out of respect to your grandparents...” These comments capture the concern for community that develops from knowing a LOTE and discerning the cultural aspects relating to that LOTE.

En masse, as national borders in the 21st century shrink, social civility has the capacity to spread tolerance and understanding. LOTE skills are a resource to build a path to social civility in local and global communities. With regard particularly to leaders, LOTE skills are a potential tool to create tolerance and altruism among individuals within organizations, in turn contributing to overall social civility.

Synopsis of Qualitative Results

The second phase of this study presented qualitative findings about the relationship between language diversity and leadership effectiveness developed in a focus group discussion of purposefully selected participants. Specifically, the focus group allowed exploration of speaking a LOTE, as well as LOTE-related knowledge on the effectiveness of leadership. The languages represented in the focus group were five including: Chinese, French, German, Japanese, and Spanish. Similar to the notion of viewing language-as-resource for the general benefit to society, in examining the focus group data, emerging themes identified the human resource value of LOTE for leaders and professionals. As a result of the focus group discussion, five main themes were identified, including (a) cultural acumen, (b) relational insight, (c) communication savvy, (d) impetus for development, and (d) social civility. Each of these main themes was based on a set of leadership qualities which transpired from the comments of the focus

group participants. The main themes were examined using the conceptual framework of LAR (Ruiz, 1984). Because LAR is an orientation which highlights the value of language for cultural understanding, the resource-value aspect of the LAR orientation was used to interpret comments of focus group participants into resource-oriented themes achieved by way of LOTE presented in this study. In terms of the relationship between language diversity and leadership effectiveness, LOTE skills add human resource value to the leadership function.

Emerging Connections in Quantitative and Qualitative Results

Quantitative results and qualitative findings in this study are not sequential because two different methods were used to examine the main study question. However, the two phases are intimately related because both phases examined the question of whether language diversity is relevant in leadership effectiveness. While the quantitative phase provided statistical meaning of the direct effects of LOTE on occupational achievement, the qualitative phase focused on the outcome of interest more so than the quantitative phase. Overall, quantitative results indicated LOTE was not a predictor of occupational achievement as measured by income and occupation prestige, hence no economic value exists in the U.S. labor market for the selected languages analyzed. Yet, the qualitative phase provided insight on the various associations of language diversity and leadership effectiveness. The emerging themes from the qualitative findings expanded the nuances of LOTE skills, along with LOTE-related cultural knowledge, which included cultural acumen, relational insight, communication savvy, impetus for development, and social civility. In a similar fashion that the LAR orientation emphasizes the resource-value of the diversity of language in a society, the focus group

themes, which were an outcome from individuals speaking a LOTE, are a potential human resource to leadership roles. The importance of this mixed methods research study lies in its strength to draw on a variety of perspectives to make a better overall assessment of language diversity and leadership effectiveness. The examination of the two phases together provides a comprehensive evaluation on the human resource value of LOTE skills for the leadership function.

Summary

The two-phase approach of data collection and analysis used in this study generated results that described the relationship of language diversity and leadership effectiveness. This study addressed the research questions both a quantitatively and qualitatively to examine in detail the effect of speaking a LOTE on occupational achievement. Relative to quantitative findings, this chapter provided descriptive information of the GSS sample, described selected proxy dependent and independent variables, and discussed results of regression analyses used to address the research questions. Concerning qualitative findings, themes which emerged from the focus group interview were presented and discussed relative to the research questions and in terms of the language-as-resource conceptual framework proposed by Ruiz (1984).

In the quantitative phase, six separate hierarchical regression models were fit, entering the same set of control variables, to describe the relationship of LOTE and occupational achievement. Hierarchical regression results indicated that a LOTE does not predict occupational achievement. In effect, those who were fluent in Spanish and French had, on average, lower incomes.

Research findings in phase one were elaborated by drawing on qualitative data in phase two of this study. In the qualitative phase, a focus group discussion was used to help identify themes relating to language diversity and leadership effectiveness. Five main themes emerged from the focus group discussion among leaders and professional who majored or minored in a LOTE including (a) cultural acumen, (b) relational insight, (c) communication savvy, (d) impetus for development, and (d) social civility. These main themes unfolded from detailed subthemes which were based on specific leadership qualities expressed by participants relative to their LOTE knowledge and leadership or professional role. The main themes were examined using the orientation of language-as-resource, a conceptual framework borrowed from the field of language planning (Ruiz, 1984), which for this study, views LOTE as a valuable human resource for leaders.

A close connection exists between the quantitative and qualitative phase. Findings of the quantitative phase provided statistical meaning to the question of whether language diversity is a leadership resource, while results of the qualitative phase afforded insight on the nuances of LOTE skills and leadership effectiveness, which the quantitative phase could not capture. Although the two phases were different, each examined the same question. The quantitative phase showed the direct effect of LOTE on occupational achievement, while the qualitative phase revealed associations of LOTE skills and LOTE-related cultural knowledge, rendering a broader picture of language diversity and leadership effectiveness. In totality, this study provides a perspective on the relationship between language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

The worldwide privileged status of English potentially threatens the diversity of language (Phillipson, 2009a). To confront the power of English a balanced presence of languages is necessary (Phillipson, 2009a), which can create culturally receptive social environments that shape citizenry perspectives toward LOTE (Shenk, 2011). LOTE exists in the United States, but the importance of English has marginalized these (Shenk, 2011). Although English (Phillipson, 2008) dominates in the United States, language diversity in the past three decades has increased with 20% of the U.S. population over five years of age speaking a LOTE at home (U.S. Census, 2010). Given this upward trajectory, attention should focus on the role of LOTE in the United States. In a 2008 Democratic debate, then Senator Barack Obama addressed the notion of LOTE in the United States by stating, “It is important that everyone learns English and that we have that process of binding ourselves together as a country. . .every student should be learning a second language. . .leadership in the world is going to be our capacity to communicate across boundaries” (Obama, 2008). This study is motivated by the debate if languages other than English matter in the United States particularly in the labor market given changing demographics. Specifically, this study offers insight on whether language diversity could be a resource for effective leadership in the U.S. labor market.

This chapter discusses findings that first quantitatively analyzed the relationship between language diversity and leadership effectiveness with use of proxy variables

found in the General Social Survey (GSS), and next qualitatively explored language diversity and leadership with detailed views of how individuals personally experienced LOTE in professional or leadership careers through a focus group discussion. Topics in this chapter include (a) discussion, (b) implications, (c) limitations, (d) recommendations, and (e) conclusion for this chapter, as well as for the dissertation.

The discussion of language diversity and leadership effectiveness will borrow the orientation of language-as-resource (LAR), a conceptual framework used in the language planning field (Ruiz, 1984). LAR is one of three orientations which view language diversity as a problem, as a right, or—for the case in this study—a resource (Ruiz, 1984). While LAR is mainly used to address issues in language planning and policy, examining LOTE in the leadership function using LAR is appropriate to determine the human resource value of language. In a similar manner that Harrison (2007) used language orientations to view language diversity in the field of social work, this study applied the specific LAR framework to view language diversity in the leadership function.

The use of the LAR conceptual framework uncovers the value of LOTE as a human resource for leaders. LAR focuses on the current gap relative to the importance of LOTE skills for individuals, communities, and society. The importance of LAR lies in that it promotes language diversity as a benefit to all groups in a given society (Ruiz, 1984). This dissertation will be discussed within the LAR context because language is valuable not only as a means of communication and interaction, but also as a component of cultural identity that is often expressed with culture-specific languages (Fishman, 2001). Because culture-specific languages explain social contexts of specific cultures (Chen & Bond, 2010), when individuals speak in different languages they are exchanging

not just words, but cultural knowledge. This cultural knowledge exchange via LOTE benefits individuals to gain understanding and contributes to society overall. Therefore, current and future leaders can resort to LOTE skills as a means to expand their leadership resources.

In general, research indicates value resulting from language diversity in areas of economics (Grin et al., 2010), politics (Schmid, 2001), societal well-being (Taylor-Leech, 2008), the workplace (Harrison, 2007), and individual well-being (Bialystok et al., 2012). With reference to individuals, studies suggests advantages resulting from language diversity specifically in areas of creativity (Kharkhurin, 2010; Lee & Kim, 2011), empathy (Madera et al., 2012), and competitive advantage (Grosse, 2004). Yet, the literature lacks meaningful empirical research showing the relationship between language diversity and leadership effectiveness. As the LOTE-speaking population in the United States grows, research on the relationship of LOTE and occupational achievement requires consideration so as to provide insight on meeting this challenge and transforming it to opportunity. Knowing another language permits individuals to enter another world, understanding other perspectives as examined by Chen and Bond (2010), who suggested personality changes as a function of language use, as well as appreciating other cultures as related by Hong et al. (2000) in their discussion of cultural frame switching in bicultural individuals, and further investigated by Ramírez-Esparza (2006) with evidence that language affects personality.

This study examined whether language diversity could contribute to effective leadership by determining its relationship to occupational achievement and exploring its role in the leadership function. These research objectives were accomplished. Moreover,

this study is unique because it examined the role of language diversity as a resource specifically for leaders within the U.S. labor market. The study adds to the current body of literature by establishing whether language diversity is an untapped leadership resource. Furthermore, the research contained in this study offers understanding so as to encourage expansion of leadership resources by way of learning a LOTE, as well as maintaining already acquired LOTE skills.

Research questions. The current literature on language diversity and leadership effectiveness in the U.S. labor market reveals a gap when considering specifically speaking a LOTE and occupational achievement. Hence, this investigation was designed to address this gap with research questions tailored in a two-phase study. The first phase examined the connection of competence in LOTE and leadership by addressing: (a) Does knowing a LOTE predict occupational achievement? (b) Does the ability for LOTE to predict occupational achievement change depending on the second language? The second phase further explored the topic of language diversity and leadership by examining the detailed views of how individuals personally experienced LOTE in their professional or leadership career.

Methodology summary. The design of this study was a mixed methods two-phase approach. The first phase quantitatively analyzed relationships among proxy variables contained in the 2010 GSS, a secondary dataset. The GSS is a large scale and leading U.S. societal trends survey. Proxy variables were identified for use in this study which could measure: LOTE-speaking, LOTE-fluency, specific LOTE spoken, occupational prestige, and income. The use of secondary data in the GSS to conduct this current LOTE research, is similar to use of (a) the American Community Survey (ACS)

in LOTE research by Shin and Kominski (2010), (b) the National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS) in bilingualism and U.S. labor market research by Fry and Lowell (2003), and (c) the 5% Public Use of Microdata Sample (PUMS) in bilingualism and wages in U.S. minority groups research by Shin and Alba (2009) and Oh and Min (2011).

The second phase qualitatively explored the role of LOTE in the professional and leadership careers of purposefully selected LOTE-speaking leaders and professionals by means of a focus group discussion. LOTE-speaking leaders were identified in an alumni database of a Research Institution in upstate New York. These alumni majored or minored in one or more of the following languages: Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Russian, and Spanish. In the focus group discussion, participants collectively related their experiences and opinions relative to the use of a LOTE in their professional experience. Five of the selected seven languages were represented in the focus group.

Interpretation of findings. The ability of LOTE to predict occupational achievement was first investigated using the 2010 GSS, and further explored with a focus group discussion. Results based on GSS data suggest that neither speaking a LOTE nor fluency in a LOTE predict occupational prestige or income, after controlling for a set of demographic variables. Yet, results based on coded focus group data, provided insight on the connections between speaking a LOTE and leadership effectiveness. These connections show the complexities and nuances of LOTE skills captured within the themes of (a) cultural acumen, (b) relational insight, (c) communication savvy, (d) impetus for development, and (d) social civility. The combination of quantitative and qualitative findings, presented in greater detail in Chapter 4 and discussed in this chapter, offers a comprehensive perspective about the relationship between language diversity and

leadership effectiveness. This broad perspective provides insight on LOTE as a potential human resource for leaders.

Quantitative findings. In the first phase of this study, empirical results found no evidence that speaking a LOTE predicts either occupational prestige or income, after controlling for a set of demographic variables. This finding is similar to research of Fry and Lowell (2003), which suggests speaking a LOTE has no meaningful wage return in the U.S. labor market. Particularly for Spanish, which is spoken by 12.8% of the population (U.S. Census, 2010), empirical results in this study found no evidence that speaking Spanish predicts income. This result is analogous to other research concluding that speaking Spanish has no significant returns in the U.S. labor market (Saiz & Zoido, 2005). Still, in analyzing wage returns of a group of U.S. college graduates, Saiz and Zoido (2005), observed possible returns for service related or management positions.

In addition, the present study examined fluency of LOTE in a secondary analysis, and no evidence emerged that LOTE fluency predicts either occupational prestige or income. Analysis of LOTE fluency identified both Spanish and French fluency, on average, as a disadvantage to income in the U.S. labor market. For Spanish fluency in particular, findings in this study are comparable to results in research conducted by Shin and Alba (2009) where Hispanic bilingual workers (Mexicans) suffered economic penalties, as well as in research by Kalist (2005), where Spanish-speaking RNs suffered income disadvantages in Spanish-speaking population areas. Exacerbating this reality is limited English proficiency, which research by Oh and Min (2011) suggests that in the U.S. labor market is more relevant than bilingual ability, and for which research by Shin and Alba (2009) found highly significant differences in the U.S. labor market.

The Spanish and French fluency disadvantage is problematic for the LOTE debate because it potentially clouds existing noneconomic value of LOTE. Yet, these findings are curious and need more testing. If no monetary LOTE value is discerned, no reason may be apparent to learn or maintain LOTE skills. In essence, in a LOTE cost-benefit analysis, the nonexistence of economic rewards, outweigh the cost, time, and effort needed to learn and maintain a LOTE.

Qualitative findings. In the second phase of this study, qualitative findings provide another understanding of the connections between LOTE, as well as LOTE-related cultural knowledge, and leadership effectiveness in a leader's role. Twenty-five percent of the focus group participants grew-up with a LOTE at home, similar to research by Robinson et al. (2006), where it was observed that 26% of the sample (n = 1,398) grew-up in a home with LOTE-speaking parents. Focus group participants expressed their acquired LOTE as valuable in their leadership role. This value is described in the five emerging themes of (a) cultural acumen, (b) relational insight, (c) communication savvy, (d) impetus for development, and (d) social civility. These themes point to LOTE and LOTE-related knowledge as a resource for leaders and professionals.

Cultural acumen. Concerning cultural acumen, it sharpens a leader's acuity and malleability, clarifying misunderstanding within today's increasingly diverse organizations, as well as with outside global marketplace affairs. Cultural acumen is a potential outcome of knowing a LOTE. The extensive research conducted with the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program (GLOBE) highlights the culture-contingent aspects of leadership (House, 2004). According to House (2004), knowledge of a culture improves performance by mitigating

any conflicts arising between individuals of different cultures. LOTE skills are a way to gain understanding about different cultural perspectives (Crystal, 1997). Leaders with cultural acumen effectively maneuver across cultures and overcome misunderstanding, thus they are an organizational resource. Contributing to this acumen is the mindset shaped by knowledge in a specific LOTE, which is consistent with research by Chen and Bond (2010) describing personality changes as a function of language use. Therefore, LOTE skills are a valuable instrument for leaders to increase cultural acumen and alleviate misunderstanding within organizations. The cultural acumen identified in this study is similar to the cultural understanding identified in research by Grosse (2004). For certain leaders, cultural acumen gained by LOTE also provides a competitive edge due to leadership qualities resulting from LOTE study including: understanding, awareness, insight, and empathy. Again, findings in this study are consistent with those of Grosse (2004), who also posits competitive advantage as a result of cultural knowledge gained from speaking a LOTE in the workplace. Cultural acumen attained through language diversity connects individuals of differing cultures and languages within organizations. Cultural acumen relates to research on the ability to go through a cultural frame switch, where bilinguals express culture specific values elicited when switching from one language to another (Ramírez-Esparza, 2006), as well as ability to adapt to individuals of given cultures by activating culture-specific personalities (Chen & Bond, 2010). In turn, LOTE and culturally astute leaders across the U.S. labor market model the way in creating understanding with members of their own organizations, as well as external cohorts and affiliates. Cultural acumen fosters collaboration through understanding among individuals in organizations, similar to the cooperation created by language

diversity in given societies with the orientation of language-as-resource (Ruiz, 1984). In terms of this study, every participant indicated attaining some degree or form of cultural acumen with LOTE acquisition. LOTE skills are a human resource because they are a potential instrument in gaining cultural acumen.

Relational insight. Respecting relational insight, it builds relations and enhances rapport. Relational insight can potentially be achieved by way of LOTE. In organizations, relational insight among individuals contributes to improved employee interactions and working environments. Likewise, as global proximities diminish, organizations dealing in the global marketplace through leaders equipped with relational insight, benefit from improved business affairs. Improved individual interactions and business affairs are an outcome of leadership qualities resulting from the study of LOTE which include: trust, respect, connection, and acceptance. The leadership qualities identified within the relational insight theme concur to existing research which suggests that LOTE-use leads to more effective work performance (Madera et al., 2012) because of increased trust and connection (Kassis Henderson, 2005). Leaders with relational insight gain access to deeper relationships with employees and outside constituents. In this regard, LOTE skills are a resource because they provide a possible avenue to relational insight.

Communication savvy. With regard to communication savvy, it potentially develops from knowing a LOTE as revealed in findings of this study. LOTE skills are a potential human resource because not only do they refine communication skills per se, but they also contribute to heightened perceptions. On the importance of communication skills specifically for business, findings in this study relate to research by Conrad and

Newberry (2011), which point to the general value of communication skills. In a direct manner, communicating with someone in a LOTE overcomes linguistic barriers and increases language understanding with the leadership qualities of language articulation and accuracy. This finding relates to research by Posel and Casale (2011) that identified benefits of additive bilingualism (learning in mother tongue, while acquiring a second language), where proficiency in a heritage language trickled benefits into the second acquired language.

Indirectly, LOTE knowledge provides heightened perceptions to overcome any existing cultural barriers. Heightened perceptions include leadership qualities of intuition and adaptability. In organizations, communication savvy contributes to meaningful and accurate interaction. Because language differences create boundaries between individuals, using a LOTE permits leaders to progressively overcome communication barriers with individuals of different cultures and languages. This was the case in research by Kassis-Henderson (2005) that focused on the effects of language diversity in team dynamics. Knowing a LOTE also sharpens ones' own English skills as indicated by some leaders in the focus group discussion. Communication is an integral part of organizations. Research by Suh et al. (2012) also points to communication skills as a desirable competency for job performance and for organizational competitive advantage. Language diversity is an extra gear for communication. Concerning LOTE skills, they are a potential resource for leaders because these offer an alternative method of expression, allowing the world to be viewed from different perspectives and diminishing prejudices relative to language differences.

Impetus for development. LOTE skills are a potential resource to spark the impetus for development of leaders and professionals. Pertaining to impetus for development, the areas of human resource value for leaders are professional opportunities, along with personal development and enrichment. As a resource of professional opportunity for leaders in the workplace, LOTE skills allow access to LOTE-specific positions that would otherwise not be available as revealed in the findings of this study, where 33% of focus group participants secured their current employment position specifically because of their LOTE skills. As far as professional opportunities for leaders skillful in a LOTE, the findings in this study relate to empirical research by Harzing et al. (2011) that suggested one solution to confront language barriers within organizations is by use of bilingual employees. Moreover, findings in this study, where half of the focus group participants use their LOTE at work, relate to an investigation by Grosse (2004), which revealed that slightly half of employees with LOTE skills and cultural understanding utilized this knowledge in frequent or daily business activities.

As a resource for the personal development of leaders in this study, LOTE skills contributed to the qualities of cognition, courage, patience, and sensitivity. These qualities identified within the impetus for development theme concur with existing research indicating that LOTE-use improves cognitive ability (Bialystok & Martin, 2004; Salvatierra & Rosselli, 2010), forms courage (Grandin, 2011), as well as builds patience and sensitivity in the form of empathy (Madera et al., 2012). Along with personal development, is the personal enrichment of speaking LOTE as revealed in this study for activities pertaining to travel, arts appreciation, and additional LOTE learning. Research by Mistretta (2008) suggested similar life-enhancing benefits. In conjunction with the

speaking of LOTE, is also the opportunity to listen to a particular LOTE, as was the case of one leader in the Hispanic community because of an affiliation in public broadcasting. In line with LOTE-specific broadcasting, is the research by Wang and Waterman (2011), which identified that U.S. foreign language radio programming is limited to population size, with bigger LOTE-speaking populations having the most radio programming. For the areas of travel and acquisition of other languages, this study's findings relate to those of Grosse (2004), where participants also conveyed increased opportunities in these areas. Given the impetus for development generated by LOTE, this study reveals the human resource value of LOTE skills in the professional and personal lives of leaders.

Social civility. Social civility fosters global awareness and promotes community concern. LOTE skills are a human resource with the potential to prepare paths to social civility. For example, half of the leaders in the focus group discussed the influence of their LOTE skills and cultural knowledge in expanding their global awareness of social issues. One leader highlighted the melting of stereotypes she once held about the Chinese once she began learning the language and culture. This finding supports conclusions of Hise et al. (2003) regarding the importance of U.S. executives' need to recognize cultural dimensions, such as knowing history and culture in conducting business affairs abroad. Another leader pointed to greater personal mindfulness to the English language, and an increased awareness of her American identity. In terms of community concern, one leader discussed volunteering in the community by assisting individuals needing LOTE interpreting. The same leader related interest in maintaining Spanish heritage LOTE skills in the workplace, in the community, and at home. These language endeavors resemble those described in a longitudinal study of children of

immigrants and their LOTE-retention (Spanish) alongside English acquisition (Tran, 2010). The theme of social civility identified in this study encompassed the leadership qualities of tolerance, benevolence, altruism, and heritage appreciation. The value of LOTE skills for social civility is highlighted in the language-as-resource orientation, where minority languages are given attention of maintenance and conservation because the communities speaking these are valuable parts of society. Supporting this resource orientation is the scholarly work of McCarty (2013), which describes the successes of establishing Hawaiian as a co-official language alongside English in the state of Hawaii in an effort to conserve the language and create an inclusive environment for native Hawaiians. In terms of human resource value for leaders and professionals, LOTE skills and knowledge are resources and potential conduits to social civility.

Convergence of findings. In an effort to clarify whether language diversity is relevant in leadership effectiveness and whether it is a resource for leaders, two distinct research phases were used in this dissertation. In the quantitative phase of this study, empirical results found no evidence that speaking a LOTE predicts either occupational prestige or income. Moreover, no evidence emerged that LOTE fluency predicts either occupational prestige or income. First phase findings suggest no direct effect exists for speaking a LOTE. Yet, from the qualitative findings of phase two, an enhanced perspective emerges about the human resource value of LOTE in the leadership function. The study's qualitative findings illuminated complexities and nuances of LOTE skills and LOTE-related cultural knowledge in terms of the leadership function. Coupling the two phases yields a wider panorama of the associations between LOTE skills, as well as LOTE-related cultural knowledge, and leadership effectiveness in the U.S. workplace

collected in the themes of (a) cultural acumen, (b) relational insight, (c) communication savvy, (d) impetus for development, and (d) social civility. Therefore, the lack of a direct effect of LOTE on occupational achievement should not deter leaders from studying or maintaining an already acquired LOTE because of the valuable insight that emerged from nuances tied to LOTE skills, as well as LOTE-related knowledge. Examining overall study results provides a broader perspective about language diversity and leadership effectiveness. This broader perspective on LOTE skills, as well as LOTE-related cultural knowledge and leadership effectiveness, provides insight similar to the scholarly research by Johnson (2012), who proposed positioning language diversity in the United States as a means to expand world views and cultural knowledge.

Additional Findings

In the qualitative phase, an unanticipated finding was that 58% of leaders who initially studied a LOTE at the Research Institution eventually pursued the study of other languages. A possible explanation for this finding is that knowing and using one language motivates individuals to study another language because of recognizing the importance of language. For example, the business owner in the focus group related, “especially in business, understanding the needs of the target audience and making that the primary focus of what you’re going to do” about his LOTE knowledge in conducting business activities. The unanticipated finding of motivation to undertake study of additional LOTE is consistent with research findings in Grosse (2004), where 29% of survey participants, who studied one foreign language, planned to study another language. One particular participant in the research by Grosse (2004) alluded to the

rising realities, such as the Chinese market and being able to meet Chinese language and culture.

Another unanticipated finding in the qualitative phase of the study was that approximately one-third of focus group participants would not have secured and continued in their employment position if not for the LOTE skills they possessed. These leaders were specifically selected for employment positions because of their LOTE skills. Moreover, half of the leaders use their LOTE skills in the workplace, with approximately 33% using LOTE often. These percentages were not expected to be so high.

Implications of Findings

This study addressed a research gap relative to the role of language diversity in the leadership function. In addressing this gap, insight is provided on the relationship between language diversity and leadership effectiveness that encourages expansion of leadership skills by way of learning or maintaining a LOTE. The LAR conceptual framework guided the discussion and emerging insight. This insight may be useful for individuals in or seeking leadership positions, and for employers hiring leadership personnel. Implications relative to LAR, leaders, and employers merit further discussion.

Language-as-resource. The conceptual framework of LAR offered context for the discussion of language diversity and leadership effectiveness. The LAR orientation suggests language diversity is a solution for societal issues because it promotes “cultural democracy” (Ruiz, 2010, p. 167). Concerning language diversity and leadership effectiveness, LAR allows the discussion to move forward. No evidence emerged for the direct effect of LOTE in occupational prestige or income, but the LAR framework conceptualizes LOTE as having more discreet, indirect effects. Using LAR permitted

gaining insight with the broader perspective provided by the qualitative phase, as the quantitative phase was unable to predict due to no specificity. In the focus group, evidence emerged that LOTE skills are a resource working in subtle ways. Respecting the quantitative phase, data show direct effects of LOTE outcome only. As a practical tool, LAR is a first step in addressing the gap in the literature relative to language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

Leaders. Leaders should consider acquiring or maintaining LOTE skills to bring human resource value to their (a) personal leadership competencies, and (b) to their leadership roles. According to research conducted by Kordsmeier et al. (2000), human resources managers view foreign languages knowledge as an important factor in the hiring, promotion, and retention processes of some U.S. businesses. LOTE skills are a medium to cultural intelligence, which is indicated by Offermann and Phan (2013) as an effective means for leaders to adapt to culturally and linguistically diverse followers in organizations. In turn, culturally adaptive leadership improves understanding with a diversified workforce. This study provided insight on nuances of knowing and using LOTE, along with LOTE-related cultural knowledge, and leadership effectiveness.

Research findings in this study suggest LOTE skills contribute to the human resource value of leaders captured with themes of (a) cultural acumen, (b) relational insight, (c) communication savvy, (d) impetus for development, and (d) social civility. In the U.S. workplace, these qualities are associated with leadership effectiveness in dealing with organizational colleagues, subordinates, clients, and suppliers. First, leaders with cultural acumen effectively handle situations requiring cultural understanding, empathy, and flexibility. Second, leaders with relational insight effectively build trust and

relationships. Third, leaders with communication savvy are effective communicators because of articulated LOTE and English skills, as well as enhanced intuition. Fourth, leaders with impetus for development continuously enhance their professional and personal skills adding human resource value to themselves and ultimately to the organization. Fifth, leaders cognizant of social civility not only contribute to global awareness, but also set exemplary conduct for members in their organizations, as well as outside constituents.

Leaders can use these findings to expand their personal leadership resources by acquiring or maintaining a LOTE. Among participants in this researcher's focus group, were professionals who recounted occasions of tapping into their LOTE skills to assist clients. These efforts contributed to expansion of the client base and enhancement of client relations. This particular finding in the study concurs with the concept presented by Rathod (2013), who advanced the idea of bilingualism in professions such as U.S. law practice by proposing focused attention on bilingual law practice not just to streamline client communication, but to enhance practitioner-client relations. Similarly, Harrison (2007) discussed efficacy of language diversity for bilingual practitioners in the area of social work.

In leadership practice, language diversity is a competency in managing the growing LOTE population, which will eventually join the U.S. labor force. As the LOTE-speaking population grows (Shin & Ortman, 2011), so does the need for culturally empathetic leaders. Cultural empathy is acquired by way of speaking a LOTE and knowing cultural nuances tied to a specific LOTE. Leaders in the focus group of this study indicated the development of empathy because of their LOTE-study and LOTE-

related cultural knowledge. Similarly, empirical research has established key competencies for leaders in multicultural groups to include cultural empathy and communication skills (Chang & Tharenou, 2004). LOTE competency expands a leader's skills and enables managing the challenges of a growing LOTE-speaking population.

In relation to leadership models, one in particular extends well into the notion of language diversity as a resource for leaders. This is the servant leadership model presented by Robert Greenleaf where leaders altruistically focus on needs of followers (Northouse, 2013). Speaking another's language manifests altruism and empathy. According to Greenleaf (2008), a servant leader is empathetic with a keen sense of awareness. Of language itself, Greenleaf (2008) expressed "Nothing is meaningful until it is related to the hearer's own experience" (p. 19). In practice, language diversity and the cultural understanding it provides, lend themselves well for servant leaders. This is because when one learns another language, one enters another world. In terms of application to leaders, LOTE skills coupled with the cultural knowledge LOTE skills afford, are a potential leadership resource as revealed in the qualitative phase of this study.

Employers. Because of the prevailing global environment and shifting demographics in the United States, employers should consider (a) recruiting leaders with LOTE skills, and (b) promoting LOTE acquisition or maintenance within the organization to reflect the changing U.S. landscape. According to research by Robinson et al. (2006), language capacity is present in the United States, and language diversity is in an upward trajectory as suggested by national LOTE-use estimates (Shin & Ortman, 2011).

In view of qualitative findings in this study, employers should select prospective employees with LOTE skills. Individuals with this ability add to organizational diversity, and may also serve as communication links for organizations headquartered in the United States with operations abroad. This is similar to the use of *bridge* individuals in the headquarter-subsidary relations suggested by Harzing et al. (2011). LOTE-speaking employees fill language gaps, as well as provide business opportunities abroad that would otherwise not be pursued. Obben and Magagula (2003) pointed to foreign language competency as determinant for firms entering the export market. Identifying prospective candidates with LOTE skills potentially provides organizations human resource value and competitive advantage relative to market competitors. In effect, two leaders of the focus group indicated a preference to hiring staff with foreign language skills even if not required for the position because they felt speakers of foreign languages are more sensitive and open-minded. A compelling group to consider in the hiring process includes *intercultural* individuals in the United States described by Chadraba and O'Keefe (2010). Intercultural individuals are children of immigrants raised with bilingual and bicultural experiences of which a significant number has been educated in the United States and can be evaluated for potential management roles (Chadraba & O'Keefe, 2010).

Besides hiring individuals with LOTE skills, employers should promote LOTE as an organizational asset by encouraging current employees who have LOTE ability to maintain it as discussed in research by Welch et al. (2005), as well as promoting LOTE-study among employees who do not. Efforts to refine and expand employee skills, add value to the organization's human capital, benefitting employees, organizations, and ultimately customers. Employees will delight at the interest the organization shows in

their development, and LOTE-speaking customers will benefit directly. Although learning a LOTE is costly in terms of effort, time, and expenditure for both employees and organizations, this challenge can be met with support at the leadership level as an organization initiative, and at the employee level with tuition reimbursement.

Employers draw benefits from hiring already LOTE-speaking employees, as well as promoting LOTE-study in the organization. In the case of U.S. employers with operations abroad, a creative method of promoting LOTE study exists—implementation of in-house language training. Research by Himmelein (1995) concerning an in-house German program at a manufacturing company in Ohio, suggested such language training was valuable in improving communication among colleagues, as well as in contributing to the overall organizational communication strategy. An analogous objective was achieved in the professional experience of this researcher who obtained support from company executives to launch an internal foreign language learning initiative. This researcher organized and participated in an in-house German language course for employees in a global manufacturing company in upstate New York. The course was established to encourage basic business communication skills, and impart cultural understanding between U.S. headquarters and German operations affiliates. Besides expanding employee skill sets, the initiative sought to melt prejudices among employees and ameliorate cultural-related intergroup conflicts within the organization.

Summary of Implications

There seems to be a perceived language deficit in the United States. This perception is mitigated by the fact that in 1980, eleven percent of the population over five years of age spoke a LOTE, whereas in 2010, 20% reported doing so (U.S. Census, 1980;

U.S. Census, 2010). Efforts should be directed to mobilize this existing U.S. LOTE capacity. To contribute to these efforts (a) using the LAR conceptual framework is a starting point in discussions of language as a resource, (b) leaders can develop or maintain LOTE as part of a sustainable skills-set, and (c) employers across different sectors can recruit LOTE-speaking leaders. Similar efforts across the United States and compounded together potentially contribute to a greater presence of LOTE in the U.S. labor market.

Limitations

Although conscientious efforts were made to ensure the credibility of this study's findings, there are limitations that need to be addressed. Limitations exist in the use of the LAR orientation as the conceptual framework for this research. In addition, limitations exist for both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study.

Language-as-resource limitations. First, relative to the use of the LAR orientation as a lens guiding the discussion of language diversity and leadership effectiveness, it is limited since LAR is a conceptual framework for clarifying beliefs about languages. LAR is part of a three-prong model, where language is viewed as a right, as a problem, or as a resource (Ruiz, 1984). LAR is an orientation with which to understand texts, specifically language policy related texts, and not a scientific theory. Therefore, LAR is difficult to test. The orientation of LAR lacks predictive power because it does not address specificity, hence it may not be adequate. As a predictor of connection for language diversity and leadership effectiveness, mainly in the quantitative phase, more specifics are needed. For example, LAR does not address LOTE fluency or

specific LOTE spoken. Because the LAR conceptual framework is not articulated in making predictions, it may impede research.

Second, a limitation of using LAR as the conceptual framework for this discussion includes the possibility that LAR is a fallible notion. Perhaps the diversity of language is not a resource. In the case of multinational organizations, Luring and Tange (2010), suggested language diversity causes fragmentation because of (a) contained communication, which is the gathering of individuals of a specific language, and (b) dilute communication, which is withdrawal from group interaction due to language inadequacy. Hence, the reason some organizations establish common corporate languages. When considering ideologies in language policy, Tollefson (1981) described the notion of a nation-state requiring the citizenry to learn one language as “a solution to linguistic inequality” (p. 10), which resolves social inequality as well. Likewise, Kloss (1998) discussed the argument of heritage languages in the United States as “a weakening of the national power and sovereignty which is based on unity” (p. 384).

Quantitative and qualitative limitations. In terms of the quantitative phase of this study, one limitation includes constraints created by the use of secondary data found in the GSS, mainly, the inability of this researcher to select specific questions or desired variables. The GSS has no measures of leadership or leadership effectiveness. Therefore, the proxy variable of occupational prestige utilized in phase one of this study, logical though it was, may not have captured the aspects of leadership that LOTE and/or LOTE fluency would otherwise predict. Hence, variables for analysis in this study were limited to the selection of available and established ones within the 2010 GSS. With regard to the qualitative phase which consisted of the focus group, some potential

limitations also exist. One limitation is the purposeful selection of participants limited to an upstate New York specific area. Another limitation is the participant selection from an alumni database of the same institution.

As a result of these limitations, this study cannot be deemed representative of all leaders who have knowledge of or speak a LOTE among different industries and professions throughout the United States. The findings on the topic of language diversity and leadership effectiveness should be considered as suggestive rather than conclusive.

Recommendations for Future Research

As the U.S. population continues to diversify, the make-up of the workforce continues to broaden as well. Hence, future research should address these demographic changes and the emerging challenges and opportunities given these changing demographics in the U.S. labor market. Considering the limitations discussed in this study, recommendations for future research are presented to mitigate these drawbacks.

First, because LAR is not a theory, but an orientation to view language, it is limited in making predictions, hence difficult to test. Although LAR provided an appropriate conceptual framework for the qualitative phase, it was not articulated enough to make predictions in the quantitative phase because of lacking specifics. Hence, a modified conceptual framework or theory is needed to specify how LOTE operates. Creswell (2009) defines a theory as “an interrelated set of constructs (or variables) formed into propositions, or hypotheses, that specify the relationship among variables” (p. 51). For future research, LAR could include evaluating the variable of LOTE fluency level. Grin et al. (2010) used 2001 Québec Census data in their research showing three “bilingualism” (p. 115) areas: low, medium, and high. Similarly, the LAR conceptual

framework could be amended to include LOTE fluency levels: low, medium, and high. As part of LAR, “a series of if-then statements” (Creswell, 2009, p. 53), could be established to explain why one would expect LOTE fluency level to influence leadership effectiveness (measured with occupational prestige and income proxy variables in the quantitative phase). One such if-then statement could be: the higher ones’ LOTE fluency, the greater ones’ leadership effectiveness.

For the quantitative phase, a proposal could be submitted to add questions to the GSS relative to LOTE fluency levels (low; medium; high). For the qualitative phase, a preliminary question could be asked of participants about their LOTE fluency level as well (low; medium; high). LOTE fluency level could provide a conceptual departure point for discussions relating to language diversity and leadership effectiveness. Future research can begin with the conceptual framework, derive hypotheses based on the suggested if-then statement, test the hypotheses, and potentially add to the theory based on the results. For researchers examining language diversity and leadership effectiveness using LAR, more is needed than the current conceptual framework. Including LOTE fluency levels would offer an improvement to LAR. A better framework can specify how LOTE operates, and analyzing fluency may offer this enhancement.

Second, because the quantitative phase of this study was limited to the GSS predetermined survey questions, potential GSS questions relative to the use of LOTE and effectiveness can be submitted for GSS Board and principal investigators (PIs) review. The GSS has issued calls for proposals to add questions to the GSS in 2010, 2012, and more recently in 2014. Proposals for new content can vary from a single survey question to a complete topical module consisting of several questions. A proposal to add GSS

questions could engage researchers to articulate the specific issues of LOTE and leadership effectiveness, along with achieve empirical objectives, if such proposed questions were added.

Third, with respect to further language diversity research, although the GSS is a full probability sample representative of the U.S. adult population, it has an overall sample size that specific to the LOTE subsample may be too small to be statistically reliable. Therefore, more widespread sampling of the U.S. LOTE population, along with comprehensive questions concerning LOTE-use among the U.S. workforce and labor market could provide better insight.

Fourth, the selection of alumni living in a specific upstate New York area makes it difficult to generalize the experiences of LOTE-speaking leaders and professionals across other areas of the United States. A similar study should be conducted with leaders and professionals located in more culturally and linguistically diverse areas of the United States, and in a wider range of industries and employment functions. Connections of this study and future studies could contribute to a better understanding of the role of LOTE in the leadership function and provide further evidence as to whether LOTE skills are a resource for effective leadership.

Conclusion

Individuals learn from LOTE acquisition, not only the language, but also the culture tied to that specific LOTE as evidenced by the business owner who participated in this study's focus group and commented, "I finally realized you don't so much learn Italian as get a feel for it. . ."

This study determines if a relationship exists between language diversity and leadership effectiveness in the U.S. labor market. Specifically, the objectives identified whether a LOTE determines occupational achievement. This mixed methods study provides insight on language diversity and leadership effectiveness in two phases. The first phase examined the connection of competence in LOTE and leadership by addressing the questions: (a) Does knowing a LOTE predict occupational achievement? (b) Does the ability for LOTE to predict occupational achievement change depending on the second language? The second phase further explored language diversity and leadership by examining the detailed views of how individuals have personally experienced LOTE in their professional or leadership career.

This dissertation clarified that although no meaningful economic rewards exist for speaking a LOTE in the U.S. labor market, valuable insight exists pertaining to nuances tied to LOTE skills, as well as LOTE-related cultural knowledge, and leadership effectiveness. In terms of the workplace, this insight provides motivation to promote LOTE within the leadership function and in organizations as a potential human resource.

The conceptual framework for this study is the language-as-resource (LAR) orientation (Ruiz, 1984). Although LAR was developed to tackle language planning issues, examining LOTE skills and leadership effectiveness using the LAR orientation provides a resource-based perspective for LOTE within the leadership function. The LAR orientation promotes the benefits of language diversity to all groups in a given society (Ruiz, 1984). Similarly, leaders with diverse language skills and cultural knowledge related to specific languages are a resource for organizations. LAR unveils the potential human resource value of LOTE skills and LOTE-related cultural knowledge

for leaders. For the leadership function, LOTE offers a way to expand a leader's collection of skills. Accordingly, leaders with LOTE skills are valuable organizational components, and valuable constituents of society—a resource.

The research conducted in this mixed methods study first investigated the ability of LOTE to predict occupational achievement in the U.S. labor market using the 2010 GSS, and then further explored the topic of language diversity and leadership effectiveness with a focus group discussion. Results based on GSS data suggest that speaking a LOTE, fluency in a LOTE, and specific LOTE (Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Russian, and Spanish) do not predict the prestige or income of an occupation in the U.S. labor market. Furthermore, findings pointed to income disadvantage for Spanish and French fluency rendering the LOTE debate challenging and potentially waning support for LOTE. Yet, results of the second phase, which were based on coded focus group data, are valuable because they present the complexities of LOTE-speaking, as well as LOTE-related cultural knowledge, on leadership effectiveness in the U.S. workplace with the themes of (a) cultural acumen, (b) relational insight, (c) communication savvy, (d) impetus for development, and (d) social civility.

By and large, research suggests language diversity is a resource in economics (Grin et al., 2010), politics (Schmid, 2001), societal well-being (Taylor-Leech, 2008), the workplace (Harrison, 2007), and individual well-being (Bialystok et al., 2012; Bialystok & Martin, 2004; Salvatierra & Rosselli, 2010). Specifically for individuals, studies suggests advantages resulting from speaking another language for creativity (Kharkhurin, 2010; Lee & Kim, 2011), empathy (Madera et al., 2012), and competitive advantage (Grosse, 2004). However, the literature lacks meaningful empirical research about the

relationship of language diversity and leadership effectiveness. Because of the growing LOTE-speaking population in the United States, research on the relationship of language diversity and leadership effectiveness deserves attention to seize this opportunity with regard to the U.S. labor market. Research indicates that knowing another language permits the understanding of other perspectives (Chen & Bond, 2010; Ramírez-Esparza et al., 2006). Therefore, culturally astute leaders by way of a LOTE are a human resource for organizations and the nation.

National language projections suggest language diversity in the United States will continue to grow in the next ten years, and so will LOTE-use (Shin & Ortman, 2011). Although the LOTE landscape will shift, with an increase of populations speaking Spanish, Portuguese, Russian, Hindi, Chinese, Vietnamese, Tagalog and Arabic, other languages are projected to decline including French, Italian, German, and Polish (Shin & Ortman, 2011). The reality is that diversity of language already exists, in spite of the prolific presence of English within U.S. borders and abroad. Implications of this study relate to leaders acquiring or maintaining LOTE skills for the leadership function, and for employers to capture existing LOTE skills in the citizenry into the U.S. labor market, as well as to promote LOTE acquisition within organizations.

The idea of a language deficit seems to exist in the United States. This notion does not in and of itself depict current reality. According to U.S. Census data, in 1980, eleven percent of the population over five years of age spoke a LOTE, yet in 2010, twenty percent reported doing so (U.S. Census, 1980; U.S. Census, 2010). In terms of the U.S. labor market, efforts should engage in mobilizing the already existing LOTE capacity among the U.S. citizenry. First, leaders should focus on developing or

maintaining LOTE skills as part of a sustainable leadership skills set, and second, employers across sectors should actively recruit LOTE speakers into professional and leadership roles, as well as promote the study of LOTE in organizations.

This dissertation examined whether language diversity is a resource for the efficacy of leaders by determining its connection to occupational achievement and the leadership function in the U.S. labor market. Study results contribute to understanding language diversity as a leadership resource. For organizations, LOTE speakers contribute to human capital. Furthermore, diversity of language increases workforce diversity. A linguistically diverse workforce enables U.S. employers to tap into cultural acumen inherent with LOTE knowledge to greet the globalized marketplace. In view of the growing U.S. LOTE-speaking population, leaders with cultural acumen can better relate to employees, clients, and suppliers, thereby creating harmony within and outside of the organization. Among the increasingly diverse citizenry, there exists LOTE capacity that can be mobilized, cultivated, and woven into U.S. society. This can commence with U.S. employers recruiting citizens with LOTE skills. In U.S. society, cultural differences exist. Knowing or learning a LOTE enables individuals to understand and relate with culturally diverse individuals by using a given LOTE. The interdependency of language and culture allows individuals who use a LOTE to move across the cultural experiences of others ultimately embracing diversity of language and diversity of society. Given the results of this study, language diversity is a potential human resource for leaders in the U.S. labor market. Leaders should expand their portfolio of leadership skills by learning a LOTE or maintaining already acquired LOTE skills to enhance leadership effectiveness.

Cultivating an appreciation for the diversity of language and the cultural understanding tied to that language is a compelling approach to social justice. The diversity of language promotes social justice because knowing the language of another involves knowing the culture of another as well. Understanding the language and culture of our neighbors has the potential to “reorient societies toward cultural democracy” (Ruiz, 2010, p. 169), as considered in the orientation of language-as-resource. LOTE skills are resources for leaders, organizations, communities, and the nation. Appreciating the human resource value of LOTE is a step in promoting social justice.

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Appendix A

Relationship of Bilingualism Benefits and Leadership Competencies

Benefits of Bilingualism	Competencies of a Great Leader
Enhances creativity	Is a visionary
Imparts humility	Is humble/modest
Develops control over selective attention	Maintains focus
Improves cognitive skills	Is intelligent and competent
Imparts courage	Is fearless
Allows appreciation of other cultures	Displays empathy and embraces diversity
Helps delay dementia / improves memory	Has a sharp mind
Enhances communications skills	Is a good communicator and listener

Note. Competencies listed in table above are adapted from:

Bialystok, E. (1992). Selective attention in cognitive processing: The bilingual edge.
Cognitive Processing in Bilinguals, 501-513.

Collins, J. (2001). *Good to Great*. New York, NY: HarperCollins.

Maxwell, J. C. (1999). *The 21 indispensable qualities of a leader*. Nashville, TN: Thomas Nelson.

Stanley, A. (2003). *The next generation leader: Five essentials for those who will shape the future*. Colorado Springs, CO: Multnomah Books.

Appendix B



Re: Hallo und follow-up from Deb O-O -- Re: Danke, wirklich!!

1 message

Wed, Dec 12, 2012 at
2:37 PM

To: Oliverio-Olivieri [REDACTED]

Hi Deb,

[REDACTED] supports your idea. I assumed when I wrote to you in September that getting [REDACTED] faculty permission was the first step of a process for [REDACTED] permission? I am not sure how that works, but I will check with [REDACTED] to find out if there is any other formal process that you need to follow or if there is a [REDACTED] permission process etc. As soon as I hear back from him, I will let you know.

best,

[REDACTED]

Appendix C



Appendix D

FW: Deborah Oliverio-Olivieri, Doctoral Candidate at St. John Fisher College

1 message

Mon, Aug 5, 2013 at 10:32 AM

To: "[REDACTED]"

Deborah-

My name is [REDACTED], please let me know what I can do for you. [REDACTED] has asked me to help you.

Thank you,

[REDACTED]
Program Manager

[REDACTED]
Office of Alumni Relations

Confidentiality notice: This e-mail message, including any attachments, is for the sole use of the intended recipient(s) and may contain confidential and privileged information. Any unauthorized review, use, disclosure or distribution is prohibited. If you are not the intended recipient, please contact the sender by reply e-mail and delete all copies, including attachments, of the original message.

-----Original Message-----

From: [REDACTED]

Sent: Monday, August 05, 2013 10:22 AM

To: [REDACTED]

Cc: [REDACTED]

Subject: FW: Deborah Oliverio-Olivieri, Doctoral Candidate at St. John Fisher College

Hi [REDACTED]. [REDACTED] is on vacation and asked that I pass this directly to you. [REDACTED] reviewed the attached material and has given his approval for AR to provide Deborah with the information she needs. When you can, would you please connect with Deborah and help her with the list she is requesting. Many thanks!

Appendix E

Focus Group Questions Protocol

Background questions:

1. Introductions.
2. Profession. How many years?
3. Do you speak more than one language other than English (LOTE)? How long?

Main questions:

4. Share your experience in being a leader and the value of knowing or using your LOTE in your leadership role.
 - a. Do any specific experiences come to mind?
 - b. Do you work with individuals who speak that LOTE, or who are located abroad?
5. Share the value your LOTE skills have added in your general life activities.
 - a. Can you describe the value of your LOTE in your community involvement, travel, arts appreciation (e.g., music, visual art), etc.?
6. Share the ways knowing and using your LOTE has impacted your cultural understanding.
 - a. For example, Romance languages have formal and informal addressing in grammar, has this feature impacted your approach in dealing with foreigners?
7. Share in what ways knowing another language has changed your viewpoints.
 - a. Has knowing another language made you more empathetic, extroverted, etc.?
8. Is there anything else you would like to share about your experience in using a LOTE and your leadership role?

Alignment with research questions:

1. Does LOTE predict occupational achievement?
2. Does the ability for LOTE to predict occupational achievement change depending on the second language?
3. How have individuals personally experienced LOTE in their leadership role?

Appendix F

Focus Group Participant Introductory Inquiry Letter

Dear _____ :

My name is Deborah Oliverio-Olivieri and I am a doctoral candidate at St. John Fisher College. I am writing to ask your assistance in exploring language diversity and leadership effectiveness. This research is being conducted as part of a dissertation towards an Ed. D. in Executive Leadership through St. John Fisher College Ralph C. Wilson Jr. School of Education.

Recently, _____

_____ Your name was suggested because of your experience in studying a LOTE.

I am interested in your participation in a focus group to discuss your experiences related to your knowledge and use of a LOTE in your professional life. This focus group may be of interest if you are or have been in a management or leadership position, and if in your position you have tapped into your language knowledge and cultural knowledge acquired with study of that language. The focus group will take place at St. John Fisher College and will last approximately one hour (parking will be next to the building and free). It is tentatively scheduled for April 2014 in the evening. The date will be confirmed with an individual email or telephone call.

The focus group will include six to eight participants who have also studied a LOTE. Your participation in the research is completely voluntary. Your individual privacy will be maintained. Neither your name nor comments will be mentioned outside of the focus group. A _____ gift card will be given as a thank you for your participation.

If you are willing and able to participate, please respond to my contact information provided below, thank you. If you require further information to determine your participation, feel free to contact me.

Regards,

Deborah Oliverio-Olivieri

Appendix G

Focus Group Participant Invitation Letter

Dear _____ :

Thank you for your willingness to participate in the upcoming focus group exploring language diversity and leadership effectiveness. Specifically, I wish to explore the relationship of speaking a language other than English (LOTE) and occupational achievement.

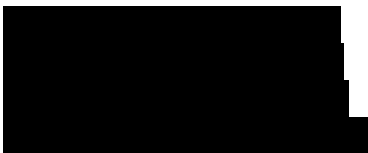
The focus group will take place at St. John Fisher College (Alesi Bldg., Room 102) 3690 East Avenue, Rochester, New York 14618, on Tuesday, April 29, 2014, at 6:00 p.m. (Alesi is #13 on the attached map). It will last approximately one hour and will include about eight participants who have also studied a LOTE. Participants will discuss their experiences in using a LOTE in their professional life based on eight predetermined questions. I will be present to serve as moderator, note-taker, and facilitator.

Because you are willing to participate, please read and sign the attached consent form. You may send the completed form as an attachment to my email address, fax number, or home address listed below. The session will be digitally recorded and transcribed for use in this study. While comments shared in the focus group will be summarized and contribute to the overall research results, your individual privacy will be maintained. Neither your name nor comments will be mentioned outside of the focus group.

I would like to ask some preliminary questions regarding your background. If you are currently not working, you may provide information of a previous position. You may send me your responses via email, thanks. (1) What is your profession/field? How many years? (2) What is your title/role? (3) How long have you spoken your LOTE? (4) Do you speak more than one LOTE? How many and for how long?

Your participation in this research is greatly appreciated. Feel free to contact me if you have questions.

Deborah Oliverio-Olivieri



Appendix H

St. John Fisher College Informed Consent Form

Title of study: Language Diversity and Leadership

Name of researcher: Deborah Oliverio-Olivieri

Faculty supervisors: Dissertation Chairperson: Dr. Marie Cianca (585) 899-3878
Committee Member: Dr. Bruce Blaine (585) 899-3808

Purpose of study: The researcher is pursuing a doctoral degree in Executive Leadership at St. John Fisher College in Rochester, New York. As part of this process, a research study must be conducted. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship of language diversity and leadership effectiveness.

Study procedures: A mixed methods research approach will be used. The first phase involves analyzing a secondary dataset for a relationship between speaking a language other than English (LOTE) and occupational achievement. The second phase consists of obtaining rich qualitative data about LOTE and occupational achievement from participants via a focus group session.

Approval of study: This study was submitted and approved by the St. John Fisher College Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Place of study: The focus group will occur at St. John Fisher College.

Length of Participation: The focus group session is estimated to last one hour.

Risks and benefits: There are no physical risks to participating in this study. By participating in this study, participants will contribute to study results which will add to the current body of research on language diversity and leadership and provide a better understanding of the impact in speaking a foreign language on professional achievement.

Method for protecting confidentiality/privacy: Neither names nor other identifying information will be presented in the written analysis of the focus group. Written transcriptions will be stored in an office in a locked cabinet with access only to the researcher for a period of five years after the successful defense of the dissertation and then shredded. The electronic file of the focus group session will be stored on an external hard drive in an office and will be placed in the same locked cabinet with access only to

the researcher for a period of five years after the successful defense of the dissertation and then destroyed.

Your rights: As a research participant, you have the right to:

1. Have the purpose of the study, and the expected risks and benefits fully explained to you before you choose to participate.
2. Withdraw from participation at any time without penalty.
3. Refuse to answer a particular question without penalty.
4. Be informed of appropriate alternative procedures or courses of treatment, if any, that might be advantageous to you.
5. Be informed of the results of the study.

I have read the above, received a copy of this form, and I agree to participate in the above-named study.

Print name (Participant)

Signature

Date

Print name (Investigator)

Signature

Date

If you have any questions regarding this study, please contact the researcher listed above for appropriate referrals.