INSIGHTS

Power and MNEs, Modern Slavery in IB, Culture, Leadership and Entrepreneurship

Daniel Rottig, Ph.D.,
Editor

John Mezias, Ph.D.,
Associate Editor

This second issue of 2018 includes an eclectic set of articles which are centered on the topics of power and multinational enterprises (MNEs), modern slavery in international business, as well as the influence of national culture and leadership on entrepreneurship and organizational cultural practices.

The first article, by John Child, is part of our interactive lead article series, which we started in 2016. This series invites articles by renowned IB scholars and thought leaders to raise insightful and thought-provoking questions in an attempt to engage the AIB community in fruitful conversations that we hope will advance our field. John Child raises the question: Should your IB research deal with power? He quotes Jeff Pfeffer (1981), who noted in his seminal book on *Power in Organizations* that "politics is the study of power in action," and refers to a recent study by Stewart Clegg (2017), in which he remarked that "the central business of MNEs is politics by other means." Although much work has been published on the political relations between MNEs and external institutions, John Child notes that "the dynamic processes through which MNEs take political initiatives remain obscure." He then discusses possible reasons for this lack of knowledge in the literature, sketches out interesting angles IB researchers can take to explore the topic, and presents some tools for analyzing power in MNEs.

We invite you to respond to the author through our interactive 'Comments' feature on the *AIB Insights* website at https://aib.msu.edu/publications/insights. We will publish replies by John Child to your comments in an upcoming issue of the journal. We hope that you will continue to find this interactive lead article series valuable and would like to thank Jean Boddewyn, who contributed the inaugural article to this series (Boddewyn, 2016), for his continued commitment and great efforts to work with AIB Fellows and thought leaders in our field to solicit and refine contributions to this series.

In the second article, Snejina Michailova and Christina Stringer draw attention to "the ugliest phenomenon of our times": modern slavery in international business. They note that an estimated more than 40 million people worldwide are in some type of modern slavery situation, which includes forced labor, bonded labor, involuntary servitude, human trafficking, and other forms of exploitation. The authors provide examples for modern slavery in international business, point out the disturbing fact that IB research has largely been silent on the issue, and provide an initial explanation and examination of the subject through the lens of institutional theory. Snejina Michailova and Christina Stringer then ask, "What conversations on modern slavery can and should the IB scholarly community address?" and so encourage you, our valued *AIB Insights* reader, to learn more about the topic and integrate it into your IB teaching and possibly also your research agenda. In order to facilitate this worthy cause, we invite you to submit papers on modern slavery in IB for a special issue on the topic, which we plan on publishing in 2019. Please find more detailed information in the Call for Papers at the end of this issue.

The third article, by Saurav Pathak and Etayankara Muralidharan, examines how culturally endorsed leadership theories (CLTs) from the GLOBE project (House et al., 2004) may inform cross-country entrepreneurship research. The authors discuss several theoretical perspectives that may facilitate a better understanding of the influences of CLTs on entrepreneurial behaviors across cultures, examine some of the mechanisms by which CLTs may influence cross-cultural entrepreneurship, and sketch out implications for IB research, pedagogy and business practice.

The fourth article, by Rob Bogosian, also examines leadership practices across cultures from the perspective of influencing organizational cultural practices in different national cultural environments. More specifically, he examines the interesting organizational cultural phenomena of voice and silence, and conceptually explores the national cultural dimensions of power distance as well as individualism and collectivism as direct antecedents of cultures of voice and silence, and the moderating effects of participatory and directive leadership behaviors.

Daniel Rottig   *John Mezias*

References

Boddewyn, J. 2016. Is Your "IB" Research Truly "International"? *AIB Insights*, 16(2): 3-5.
Clegg, S. R. 2017. The East India Company: The first modern multinational? In C. Dörrenbächer & M. Geppert (eds.) Multinational Corporations and Organization Theory: Post millennium perspectives. (Research in the Sociology of Organization, Volume 49): 43-67.
House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. 2004. *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
Pfeffer, J. 1981. *Power in Organizations*. Marshfield, MA: Pitman.

Should Your IB Research Deal with Power?

John Child, University of Birmingham, UK

There has been a long-standing interest in the political behavior of multinational enterprises (MNEs). Yet international business (IB) research still has to come to grips with the key dynamic of such behavior—namely, *the exercise of power.* So, yes, in many cases you should deal with power in your IB research, but this is easier said than done. Here are some suggestions on a way forward and a question for you to answer. [1]

The MNE Is a Political Actor

Stewart Clegg (2017) recently claimed that "the central business of MNEs is politics by other means." This phenomenon has long been recognized in the theorization of the MNE and of its relations with governments (Boddewyn, 1988, 2016) as well as in the emerging perspectives of corporate political activity, political CSR, and non-market strategy. Nevertheless, despite considerable progress in *framing* the political relations between international firms and external institutions, the *dynamic processes* through which MNEs take political initiatives remain obscure. These processes have essentially to do with *the exercise of power*, because, as Jeff Pfeffer put it (1981: 7): "politics is the study of power in action." Therefore, we need to take account of power and to think about how to do so. [2]

We Have Been Skirting Around Political Issues

The majority of studies on MNE–institution relations have conducted variance analyses employing databases and, less often, surveys as empirical sources. However, by eschewing a process model, [3] researchers have distanced themselves from direct insights into the interactions between MNEs and institutional agencies—that is, into the how and why of what happens—so that *political processes are implied but actually not investigated.* Many articles in JIBS and other leading journals exhibit this limitation. To take two recent examples, both Edwards et al. (2016) and Rathert (2016) raise the question of how national institutions affect MNE practices, and they develop full and enlightening theoretical rationales for addressing it. However, they are constrained by the inability of the data employed to throw light on the processes central to their theoretical rationales.

In a nutshell, most IB research has not been able to explain how governmental and other institutions matter for MNEs and what firms do about it so that the mechanisms behind many observed effects of institutions on MNE behavior remain ill-known (Van Hoorn & Maseland 2016: 379). A major problem lies in the fact that key constructs such as power and influence are normally assessed through *indirect* measures.

Two instances of such indirect approaches are: (1) assessing MNE power to resist institutional constraints by measuring the extent of the standardization of MNE international practices among host countries as an indication of the MNE's ability to avoid national adaptations (Edwards et al., 2016) and (2) measuring host country institutional pressures on inward-investing enterprises by reference to the strength of the host country's rule of law and its technological endowment which governments will seek to protect from MNE acquisition (Meyer, Ding, Li, & Zhang, 2014). *Both examples rely on proxies for power.* In the first one, limited institutional power is imputed to the high standardization of MNE practices which, however, might actually be welcomed in some host countries as "international best practice." In the second case, it is assumed that host country conditions are necessarily converted into effective pressures on MNEs.

Addressing the Challenges

Fortunately, a few studies have examined the politics of MNE institutional relations at closer range, and they point to a way forward. They generally focus on MNE initiatives and reactions vis-à-vis the constraints, threats, or opportunities present-

ed by host country institutions, and they address the actions taken by MNEs to enhance their legitimacy, thereby providing insights into the rationales of key market actors and how they relate to their institutional counterparts. Given these objectives, the researchers normally employ a case study methodology and access participants directly in order to achieve a rich understanding that can contribute both to theory building and managerial recommendations. When combined with a longitudinal perspective, this approach enables researchers both to capture events and processes over time and to bridge levels of analysis by offering insights into the initiatives taken by corporate actors at the "micro-foundational" level to manage their institutional contexts.[4]

A pioneering study of this kind is that by Gifford and Kestler (2008), who investigated how a multinational mining company achieved local legitimacy and support for its activities by contributing to sustainable development in the Peruvian communities where it operated. Their study demonstrated the development of a legitimation strategy suited to the conditions of an emerging economy.

A more recent example is Darendeli and Hill's (2016) comparative case study of Turkish construction MNEs operating in Libya in a period of radically changing political conditions. They show that the success or failure of these firms in maintaining a viable presence was partly due to their choice of social and political ties to local power holders—namely, bureaucrats and local families. This is an IB study that offers direct insights into the political processes between MNEs and external parties in conditions of political threat.

Such studies come closer to analyzing the role of power and the exercise of influence as core dynamics in political relations between MNEs and external agents, but they are still uncommon, and this kind of research faces significant challenges. One is how to theorize the use of power as a process—in other words, the circumstances and events through which the potential to exercise power is translated into action. Another challenge is how to gain adequate empirical access to study it at sufficiently close hand. Nevertheless, as I will now illustrate, advances in the study of power by organizational scholars and political scientists offer helpful perspectives, while empirical access is not necessarily impossible.

Getting to Grips with Power

In the approach that colleagues and I adopted to incorporate power into IB research, we sought to account for the evolving relations over a 15-year period between a large MNE port operator in China and institutional agents at local and central levels (Child, Tse, & Rodrigues, 2013). Since these relations embodied various tensions and conflicts, we drew upon available concepts to develop a framework and methodology for

(1) identifying the power resources (or levers) available to both firms and their institutional counterparts and (2) revealing how the key actors sought to realize the potential of such levers to influence events and outcomes. The fundamental building blocks of our processual model were as follows:

1. *Power resources*. These resources are available to the firm and external agents, as adapted from French and Raven (1960), in terms of: (1) possessing *material resources* which provide *the ability to reward*; (2) *the ability to coerce* through force, intimidation, and the withholding of material resources such as investment; (3) *legitimacy* whereby the exercise of power is regarded as rightful by other parties; (4) *reference* (closely related to "charisma") whereby others are willing to accord power to persons or organizations that have gained their loyalty, identification, admiration, and the like, and (5) *expertise* whereby the competence held by, or attributed to, a person or organization creates a willingness to accept their authority. Relevant actors may possess several of these power resources which can be mutually reinforcing. In particular, material resources such as FDI can enhance other bases of MNE power such as coercion and legitimacy.

2. *Relational capabilities*. There is a necessary distinction between power resources and their effective use in influencing the events that drive the evolution of relations between MNEs and external organizations. Concepts such as "relational capabilities" and "relationship management" draw attention to this ability of MNEs and external agents to capitalize on their baseline sources of power within their evolving relationships. The processes of *mobilizing support* and *engaging in legitimizing discourses* belong here. Senior managers in the MNE we studied were very conscious of the importance not only of establishing personal relations with key government officials at local and national levels but also of creating a discourse that steered these relations toward a shared awareness of the win-win possibilities offered by the port's development. For example, by consistently emphasizing the messages of "establishing a world-class port" and "maximizing throughput growth" these managers were able to create a common platform with the government's developmental aspirations for China. This platform in turn facilitated the overcoming of opposition by agencies such as the port-based Customs Authority to the introduction of more efficient working practices.

3. *Relational frameworks*. Relationships between firms and governments—or more precisely between their key actors—construct an arena in which each party endeavors to influence the other. Here, the MNE may have some power to limit government enforcement and, vice versa, the firm's power can be restricted by the ability of governments to affect its opportunities and sources of competitive advantage (Barron, Pereda, & Stacey, 2017). In the case we studied, the MNE enjoyed influence through, among other factors, its command of investment financing and advanced technology while government agencies

possessed influence through factors such as their sovereign rights to grant or withhold official approvals. Outcomes are also partly dependent on each party's ability to mobilize support for their respective objectives, to define new possibilities and to achieve compatible sense-making among the participants. For example, the MNE mobilized the support of the port's city government when dealing with central authorities by offering tangible local development benefits to the former.

A political-action analysis employing these concepts rests on *four fundamental assumptions* which, I suggest, should underpin a political perspective in international business. The first is that we need to take account of a range of power resources, the importance of which, relative to each other, may change over time. The second assumption is that power operates through relationships and "is inseparable from interaction" (Clegg, Courpasson, & Phillips, 2006: 6). The third one is that power is a "capacity" rather than the exercise of that capacity (Lukes, 2005). In other words, holding a power resource provides the potential for achieving influence but the outcome will depend on the dynamics of the relations with the other parties involved. The fourth assumption is that the translation of power into influence is facilitated through activities such as articulating mutually acceptable aspirations, formulating beneficial solutions, and cultivating personal trust within the relational framework existing between a firm's actors and relevant external parties.

Tools for Analyzing Power
The relations between MNEs and external bodies can evolve in cycles over time, which may be analyzed by applying three principal lenses to interpret the use of power. The first one considers the power resources that actors possess and which create initial conditions for the involved organizations to potentially exercise influence on one another regarding a given issue. The second lens examines how corporate leaders and external actors construct and use a relational framework with the intention of actually achieving influence. A key phenomenon here is the discourse that enables the parties to move to a sense of shared purpose. For example in the port case, a consistent discourse on the part of the MNE in terms of developing a world-class port for China projected a shared purpose between the firm and government, which led in less than three years from its opening to the port being officially designated as the pilot site for China's national port-development program. This designation, in turn, legitimated the new operating practices that the MNE sought to introduce. The third lens considers how the actual realization of influence translates into the policies and practices of the parties over time as well as feeding back into their respective power resources.

The Critical Factor of Access
Needless to say, this kind of research requires a high level of access by academics to key actors in a firm and in its political environment, and for this to be maintained over a lengthy period of time. Although close collaboration between researchers and the "subjects" of study always runs the risk of compromising objectivity, the depth and quality of information and the insight that it offers makes for a major qualitative advance over the general run of studies that have relied on impersonal data and proxy indicators.

In fact, objectivity can be enhanced through good access that opens up multiple data sources and so permits triangulation between, say, interviews and documentary data as well as between multiple strands of fieldwork. For example, there were several factors that opened up and maintained a high quality of access for conducting the port study—among them a long-standing personal link to the CEO through his involvement in previous survey research, the conduct of 21 Master's thesis studies in the port that were supervised by the principal researcher, and repeated on-site visits and interviews with company and institutional personnel.

Another longitudinal study of political interaction in Indonesia between a large company and external parties also illustrates how rich insights can be derived from access to a range of sources—interviews, company reports and media material (Dieleman & Sachs, 2008)—although patience and persistence are required. The authors note that introductions were vital and that some interviews were only possible because of serendipity or through following a chain of connections.

Before you throw up your hands and say that this is all asking too much, it is worth recalling that power is present everywhere and we can study it in our own department, school, college or university. "This is not IB research," you may reply, but what about studying the units designed to attract, assist and direct *foreign* students, and to liaise with *foreign* higher education institutions? If not at your school, you can visit another one that does. Besides, there are countless trade and industry associations—local, regional or national—which often deal with IB issues. Even more active are the national and foreign governmental units attached to Departments of Commerce and/or foreign embassies/consulates to promote foreign trade and investment. Start by inviting their executives to your classes, preceded or followed by a meeting or meal together so as to establish preliminary good rapport and gain access to power!

Questions for You

At the outset, I asked whether your research should deal with power. I believe IB research needs to take power into account because a political perspective founded on the analysis of power contributes to unpacking the dynamics of relations between MNEs and the government actors with whom they deal in their environments. Yet, even if the relevance of power is acknowledged, *why is it so neglected?* If *you* have avoided power and a political perspective in your research, *why is that?* Is it because of conceptual and methodological problems? Or is it due to the

difficulty of securing good access? What other problems have you encountered and what ways have you found of overcoming or mitigating them? Tell us of your positive and negative experiences, because we still have a lot to learn on this subject. Please send me your answers, questions, and comments through the *AIB Insights* interactive comments system, which you can access at https://aib.msu.edu/publications/insights. I will address them in a later issue of this journal.

References

Barron, A., Pereda, A., & Stacey, S. 2017. Exploring the performance of government affairs subsidiaries: A study of organisation design and the social capital of European government affairs managers at Toyota Motor Europe and Hyundai Motor Company in Brussels. *Journal of World Business*, 52(2): 184-196.

Boddewyn, J. J. 1988. Political aspects of MNE theory. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 18(3): 341-363.

Boddewyn, J. J. 2016. International business-government relations research 1945-2015: Concepts, typologies, theories and methodologies. *Journal of World Business*, 51(1): 10-22.

Child, J., Tse, K. K.-T., & Rodrigues, S. B. 2013. *The Dynamics of Corporate Co-evolution*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Clegg, S. R. 2017. The East India Company: The first modern multinational? In C. Dörrenbächer & M. Geppert (Eds), *Multinational Corporations and Organization Theory: Post millennium perspectives*: 43-67. Bingley: Emerald.

Clegg, S. R., Courpasson, D., & Phillips, N. 2006. *Power and Organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Darendeli, I. S., & Hill, T. L. 2016. Uncovering the complex relationships between political risk and MNE firm legitimacy: Insights from Libya. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 47(1): 68-92.

Dieleman, M., & Sachs, W. M. 2008. Coevolution of institutions and corporations in emerging economies: How the Salim Group morphed into an institution of Suharto's crony regime. *Journal of Management Studies*, 45: 1274-1300.

Edwards, T., Sánchez-Mangas, R., Jalette, P., Lavelle, J., & Minbaeva, D. 2016. Global standardization or national differentiation of HRM practices in multinational companies? A comparison of multinationals in five countries. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 47(8): 997-1021.

Fellin, T., Foss, N. J., & Ployhart, R. E. 2015. The microfoundations movement in strategy and organization theory'. *Academy of Management Annals*, 9: 575-632.

French, J. R. P. Jr., & Raven, B. 1960. The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright & A. Zander (Eds), *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory*: 607-623. New York: Harper and Row.

Geppert, M., Becker-Ritterspach, F., & Mudambi, R. 2016. Politics and power in multinational companies: Integrating the international business and organization studies perspectives. *Organization Studies*, 37(9): 1209-1225.

Gifford, B., & Kestler, A. 2008. Toward a theory of local legitimacy by MNEs in developing nations: Newmont mining and health sustainable development in Peru. *Journal of International Management*, 14(4): 340-352.

Lukes, S. 2005. *Power: A Radical View* (2nd edn). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Meyer, K. E., Ding, Y., Li, J., & Zhang, H. 2014. Overcoming distrust: How state-owned enterprises adapt their foreign entries to institutional pressures abroad. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 45(8): 1005-1028.

Mohr, L. B. 1982. *Explaining Organizational Behavior*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Pfeffer, J. 1981. *Power in Organizations*. Marshfield, MA: Pitman.

Rathert, N. 2016. Strategies of legitimation: MNEs and the adoption of CSR in response to host-country institutions. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 47(7): 858-879.

Van Hoorn, A., & Maseland, R. 2016. How institutions matter for international business: Institutional distance effects vs institutional profile effects. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 47(3): 374-381.

Endnotes

[2] To save space, I shall focus on the external politics of MNEs vis-à-vis host-country institutions, especially government agencies and NGOs. This is not to belittle the importance of politics and power within the multinational corporation—a field that is making encouraging progress and which holds out the promise of significant integration between insights from IB and organization theory (Geppert, Becker-Ritterspach, & Mudambi, 2016).

[3] Put simply, variance analysis examines the variance in a dependent variable accounted for by independent variables while process analysis is concerned with understanding the nature and sequence of conditions that link variables together (Mohr, 1982).

[4] The micro-foundations view highlights how individual-level factors help to account for the ability of firms to formulate and sustain corporate policies and routines (Fellin, Foss, & Ployhart, 2015).

John Child (j.child@bham.ac.uk) is Professor at Birmingham University, UK. He received his PhD and ScD from the University of Cambridge. He is a Fellow of the British Academy (FBA) and of the AIB. He is widely published. Among his 24 books, Corporate Co-evolution, co-authored with Suzana Rodrigues, won the Academy of Management's 2009 Terry Book Award. His current interests focus on hierarchy and its social consequences, and on the internationalization of SMEs.

Tackling Modern Slavery, the Ugliest Phenomenon of Our Times: An Invitation to the IB Scholarly Community

Snejina Michailova, The University of Auckland Business School, New Zealand
Christina Stringer, The University of Auckland Business School, New Zealand

A Sad Foreword

Some of you, as you begin reading this piece, will have your iPhone near you. An essential part of an iPhone battery is the mineral cobalt, which is mined by "workers" from the Democratic Republic of Congo. The quotation marks are not accidental—would you call people who scrape and sift mud for over 12 hours a day, for just $1-2 a day, "workers"? We call them slaves. These slaves, some as young as 7 years old, work in intense heat without any protective gear. They have no shelter on the exposed mountain tops, are often beaten by security guards, and are forced to pay "fines" by police and other officials. Congo Dongfang Mining International, a wholly owned subsidiary of Zhejiang Huayou Ltd. (ZHL), is the largest buyer of cobalt in the area. ZHL supplies multinational corporations (MNCs) such as Apple, Microsoft, and Samsung. According to Amnesty International and African Research Watch (Afrewatch) in their 2016 report entitled "This is What We Die For" none of the MNCs could fully verify where the cobalt in their products comes from because of the complex nature of the supply chain.

"Workers" in Bangladesh make school uniforms and clothes for Tesco, Asda, Aldi, and other MNCs. Many workers are, in fact, slaves—again, how else would one describe people who work 12-hour shifts, about 74 hours a week, and are paid only 25 pence ($0.36) an hour? They live in abject conditions. Aldi has committed to a full investigation into the allegations. A Tesco spokeswoman stated: "We work closely with our suppliers to ensure good working conditions and we know they pay above market averages. We will continue to work with suppliers to improve wages and would take firm action against any kind of abuse or under-payment" (cited in Bright, 2017).

Maybe you are now thinking: *There is a lot to improve in developing countries*…. Indeed. But please consider just the following three facts: The USA is a destination country for forced labor in, for example, the hospitality, manufacturing, and healthcare industries. In 2016, New Zealand had its first human trafficking conviction, which pertained to the exploitation of migrant workers. The UK and Italy are among countries beset with claims of the exploitation of migrant workers in their agricultural sectors supplying MNCs. The list can go on and on. Developed countries are not immune to modern slavery. Sadly, it is a widespread crime and an international business (IB).

Modern Slavery and IB's Scholarly Silence

Modern slavery is an umbrella term that includes slavery and slavery-like practices, forced labor, bonded labor, involuntary servitude, human trafficking, and other forms of exploitation (ILO, Walk Free Foundation & IOM, 2017). While there is no legal definition of the term, there are legal instruments which define (and prohibit) the main forms of exploitation. Modern slavery is founded on the commodification and dehumanization of labor—people are forced to work under the threat of violence, for little or no pay, and are treated as a commodity by their employer, with restrictions placed on their freedom of movement. The economic benefits obtained through such exploitation is a key reason why slavery continues to flourish. While the legal ownership of a slave is prohibited under international law, enslavement can be contractual in nature, with the exploiter controlling the individual through, for example, physical and psychological means.

Modern slavery is one of the most, if not *the* most, extreme form of injustice and an abhorrent crime against humanity. It is a profitable IB which exists and thrives on an unprecedented scale. In 2016 there were in the vicinity of 40.3 million

slaves worldwide, of whom 16 million were victims of forced labor in the private economy (as distinguished from forced sexual exploitation and state-imposed labor) (ILO et al., 2017). An estimated US$150 billion annual profit is obtained from forced labor (ILO, 2016). Slavery operates in a hidden form in the complex and increasingly fragmented supply chains of MNCs linking supplier firms, labor contractors, and global retailers. While slavery has existed for centuries, the globalization of production has contributed substantially to it becoming modern and refined, and practiced more extensively than ever across borders.

IB research remains largely silent on the topic of modern slavery. We are not aware of research published in IB journals – mainstream or otherwise – on modern slavery. In the 112-page AIB 2017 annual conference program there was not one mention of "slavery" or related terms. Despite the numerous plenary sessions on "important topics in IB research" and a number of published articles on "big questions," "grand challenges," etc., our collective silence regarding modern slavery is deafening. We are behind the media, many MNCs, and policymakers that actively discuss (and act on) the issue. We are also behind other disciplines, such as Development Studies, Law, Sociology, and Human Geography that have tackled the topic for some time. We also seem to be slower than our Management colleagues, who have joined others in addressing the phenomenon of modern slavery. In contrast, we seem to be doing a poor job of influencing discussions that really matter in our world.

This article offers an invitation to fellow IB scholars to start a conversation on modern slavery in IB or as an IB. As an initial step, we open the conversation with a brief sketch of only a few selected issues. We portray modern slavery as a persistent and thriving IB, a business that operates across borders and persists in MNCs' supply chains. We then look at the IB of modern slavery through the lens of one of the most utilized theories in IB research, institutional theory. We intentionally pose more questions than answers, with the hope that others will join the overdue discussion. We also suggest promising avenues in IB scholarship for studying modern slavery.

A (Very Brief) Explanation of Modern Slavery through the Lens of Institutional Theory

Modern slavery as an IB phenomenon can be analyzed with the help of multiple theoretical tools. Here we briefly delineate just one possibility, namely institutional theory. Old institutionalism, in particular, offers a fertile analytical prism in terms of at least two ideas—the inherent complexity of institutions, and institutional deflection—that help us understand why modern slavery exists in many MNCs and their supply chains.

The institutional pressures that MNCs face are becoming ever more diverse and increasingly weaker, partly because globalization has led to disconnects between transnational institutions and national institutional arrangements. Old institutionalism emphasizes that complexities, ambiguities, and contradictions are inherent to the existence of institutions. Thus, not only do MNCs play around with institutional rules and requirements, but they can also deliberately manipulate those. Put bluntly, MNCs are not only capable of changing the rules of the game; they can change the game itself and introduce new games. For them, it is no longer about "taking what the system gives" (Fligstein, 1997: 399); it is rather about establishing systems that they can benefit most from. And slavery can be a highly profitable business.

When an institutional environment is highly complex and diverse, it is more prone to cracks and contradictions. The capability of MNCs to use these cracks and contradictions skillfully to serve a particular self-interest is considerable. Companies can develop what Crane (2013: 58) calls "slavery management capabilities." These are "exploiting/insulating" and "sustaining/shaping" capabilities that allow firms to engage in institutional deflection, a process which Crane (2013: 51) defines as one where "the institutional forces that render slavery illegitimate are deflected in some way by external and internal contingencies." By exploiting and insulating capabilities—such as debt management, accounting opacity, and supply chain management—firms are able to take advantage of their external contexts. The sustaining and shaping capabilities that allow a firm to avoid or deflect pressure to conform to legitimate labor practices include their moral legitimization (their justification for using slaves) and their domain maintenance, whereby they will, for example, bribe officials in order to reduce regulatory oversight. These practices are facilitated by the fact that victims of slavery are often isolated and in a controlled environment such as onboard fishing vessels or in sweatshops. Their isolation is often perpetuated by the lack of communication among the multiple layers within the supply chain, thus reducing the opportunity for community norms to be imposed.

Because the multiple institutional contexts in which MNCs operate are fragmented and continuously changing, the interface between the MNC and institutions is inherently flexible and dynamic. What MNCs find fits them best today may be very different from what they found optimal yesterday or would deem appropriate tomorrow. This results in the MNC having extreme discretion and agency power, sufficient to deflect the power of institutions. MNC supply chains typically span multiple countries and involve several layers – not only individual companies, but entire clusters and industries. Thus, "slavery can be found in any part of the chain and in any country" (Lake et al., 2016: 6), especially in supply chains which have ubiquitous subcontracting networks. This is not to say that MNCs necessarily condone slavery in their supply chains, but to argue that when cost pressures are passed down the

chain, subcontractors are likely to be inclined to underprice (or not pay at all for) labor.

What Conversations on Modern Slavery Can and Should the IB Scholarly Community Address?

Bales (2012: 235) links MNCs to modern slavery in the following unambiguous way: "Today economic links can tie the slave in the field or the brothel to the highest reaches of international corporations. How these links join up is the central mystery of the new slavery, and one that desperately needs investigation." IB scholars are very well positioned to address this and other mysteries that are at the heart of one of the most illegitimate and inhuman businesses of our time. Our collective scholarly silence on the topic of modern slavery is unjustified. We have the opportunity for studies that are both relevant and interesting from a research viewpoint, and that can be powerful in terms of triggering change in existing policies and practices. We suggest a few directions that we find promising.

The MNC will continue to be prominent in IB research as one of its central units of analysis. But we need to start looking at the MNC differently. For instance, what are the inadequacies in some of the principles that govern MNCs and their patterns of conduct that allow modern slavery to exist and persist? Are MNCs powerless to control their supply chains? If so, why? How is it possible that MNCs can, to a great extent, control, manipulate and even construct, their institutional environments, but often appear to be powerless to control their supply chains that can become breeding grounds for modern slavery? How can we position the various exploitative practices, ranging from precarious working conditions (e.g., violation of contractual rights) to abusive slavery on a continuum that goes beyond semantic nuances and specifies the mechanisms associated with these practices?

If MNCs are not powerless, what can they do to prevent modern slavery in their multilayered supply chains? How can they exploit the very same cracks and contradictions in the institutional environments that allow slavery to prosper, and instead potentially destroy slavery? Some MNCs are working to address slavery in their supply chains. They are collaborating with non-government organizations (NGOs) and undertaking initiatives to ensure transparency in their supply chains. Following the identification of human rights abuses in the cobalt supply chain from the Democratic Republic of Congo, and subsequent efforts undertaken by Apple, Amnesty International considers Apple to be a leader in addressing human rights abuses in this area. In 2015, after a year-long investigation by Verité, a fair labor NGO, Nestlé announced that slavery was occurring in its fisheries supply chain.

What can we learn from collaborative initiatives that MNCs are engaged in? This is a fantastic opportunity for us as scholars to work with, and learn from, MNCs and NGOs. Increasingly MNCs must meet transparency requirements, such as the UK's Modern Slavery Act and the California Transparency in Supply Chains Act. How are these new transparency requirements shaping the activities of MNCs? These and related questions can frame and tell a different tale about the MNC.

The role of key actors involved in modern slavery is of key interest—the exploiter (for whom slavery is a profitable business often with a huge return on their "investment"), the broker

> **"** *IB scholars are very well positioned to address… one of the most illegitimate and inhuman businesses of our time.*

(the intermediary without whom slavery is difficult to maintain), and the victim (the vulnerable individual). The victims are most vulnerable, and maybe this is why much of extant research in other disciplines has centered on victimhood. We see merit in efforts to understand the role of slaves themselves in IB-related activities. Their unwilling (and sometimes willing) participation in their dehumanization is a fascinating puzzle. While individuals may voluntarily enter what they perceive to be a legitimate employment relationship, they can from that point onwards be trapped into slavery. They may be employed under fraudulent contracts, controlled through debt bondage as well as threats of, or actual, violence. So, what is the line between slavery and other exploitative labor relations? When are exploitative and coercive behaviors likely to occur—when people enter an employment relationship or at the point of exit where they realize they are trapped in an employment relationship they are unable to escape from? Or somewhere in between?

Research efforts also need to examine the other key "practitioners of slavery," the exploiters and the brokers, both as individual actors, and also as powerful groups of actors. They gain economic advantages from engaging in slavery despite pressures that seek to discourage engagement in the crime. What

are their incentives and cost-benefit considerations? How do they position themselves within existing institutions so that they not only exploit present opportunities, but also create new ones? What resources do they utilize to help make slavery flourish? Do they operate only at the margins of institutions (which, in their very nature, are often ambiguous, contested, and blurred), or also at the heart of well-functioning institutions in developed countries? Such a line of inquiry can inspire significant efforts to unpack the phenomenon of modern slavery, both theoretically and empirically.

Questions that deserve research attention also relate to slavery as an institution (rather than a business). Martí and Fernández (2013: 1206) highlight that "observing situations of oppression bring to the fore a fundamental question: How is (any kind of) institutional work possible when human beings have been dehumanized?" This too is an essential question in relation to modern slavery. Seeking answers is likely to evoke related questions: What institutional mechanisms and devices allow modern slavery to exist? What institutional work makes it persist? Understanding the subordinate social structures within the complex systems of modern slavery can reveal important insights into what allows it to prosper. It could be because of cracks and faults in the institutions that modern slavery thrives; it could alternatively be because of the lack of "good administration" or because of a combination of the two. These issues are well worth investigating.

The above questions are a very modest slice of a huge opportunity in front of us as IB scholars. We can conduct research that can save lives. And so we should!

References

Bales, K. 2012. *Disposable people: New slavery in the global economy*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Belser, P., de Cock, M., & Mehran, F. 2005. ILO minimum estimate of forced labour in the world. *Nondiscrimination*, 7.

Bright, E. 2017. Tesco, Aldi and Asda accused of paying poverty wages to Bangladeshi workers. *https://www.thegrocer.co.uk/channels/supermarkets/tesco-aldi-and-asda-accused-of-exploiting-bangladeshi-workers/557778.article*. Accessed 11 April 2018.

Crane, A. 2013. Modern slavery as a management practice: Exploring the conditions and capabilities for human exploitation. *Academy of Management Review*, 38(1): 49-69.

Fligstein, N. 1997. Social skill and institutional theory. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 40: 397-405.

International Labour Organization (ILO). 2016. *ILO standards on forced labour: The new protocol and recommendation at a glance*. Geneva: ILO.

International Labour Organization (ILO), Walk Free Foundation, & International Organization for Migration (IOM). 2017. *Global estimates of modern slavery: Forced labour and forced marriage*. Geneva: ILO.

Lake, Q., MacAllister, J., Berman, C., Gitshaw, M., & Page, N. 2016. *Corporate approaches to addressing modern slavery in supply chains: A snapshot of current practice*. Ethical Trading Initiative and the Ashridge Centre for Business and Sustainability at Hult International Business School, 29.

LeBaron, G., & Ayers, A.J. 2013. The rise of a 'new slavery'? Understanding African unfree labor through neoliberalism. *Third World Quarterly*, 34(5): 873-892.

Martí, I., & Fernández, P. 2013. The institutional work of oppression and resistance: Learning from the holocaust. *Organization Studies*, 34(8): 1195-1223.

Snejina Michailova (s.michailova@auckland.ac.nz) is a Professor of International Business at The University of Auckland Business School, New Zealand. She received her PhD from Copenhagen Business School, Denmark. She conducts research in the areas of International Business, Management, and Knowledge Management. She is currently Co-Editor-in-Chief of critical perspectives on international business. Her two major current research projects are on modern slavery as / in international business and on host country nationals.

Christina Stringer (c.stringer@auckland.ac.nz) is an Associate Professor in International Business at The University of Auckland Business School, New Zealand. An economic geographer by training, she conducts research on global value chains with a particular focus on labor and human rights abuses. She has recently finalized a research project on migrant worker exploitation in New Zealand and has published on slavery in New Zealand's fishing industry.

GLOBE Leadership Dimensions: Implications for Cross-Country Entrepreneurship Research

Saurav Pathak, Kansas State University, USA
Etayankara Muralidharan, MacEwan University, Canada

Introduction

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) survey reports that significant variance in rates of entrepreneurship exist across countries, establishing the contextually embedded nature of entrepreneurial behaviors. Only country-level factors could therefore meaningfully account for this variance. Identifying those factors then becomes the central tenet of cross-cultural or cross-country comparative entrepreneurship research, making it distinct from general entrepreneurship research in that the focus is mainly on understanding entrepreneurial phenomena in different contexts. It offers the benefit of generalization or modification of existing theories as well as presenting newer avenues of inquiry for research and theory development (Alon & Rottig, 2013).

However, several gaps still exist in this area of research. First, comparative entrepreneurship research draws predominantly on economic/formal institutional conditions as incentive structures for utility maximization through entrepreneurship. While the role of informal institutional conditions is gaining interest among scholars (Autio, Pathak, & Wennberg, 2013; Stephan, Uhlaner, & Stride, 2014), mechanisms through which national cultures shape entrepreneurial behaviors have not been understood fully and warrant further exploration.

Second, entrepreneurship, as a process, has been universally viewed as an act of leadership. But several gaps exist in our understanding of the links between leadership and entrepreneurship. Research has yet to find a set of specific leadership styles that are pertinent to entrepreneurship (Cogliser & Brigham, 2004). Given that leadership styles have also been known to be contingent upon the context within which leadership behaviors are performed (Antonakis & Autio, 2006), it makes them (contextually) culturally embedded too. In other words, the effectiveness of leadership styles varies across different contextual settings—different cultures, for example—and has the potential to shape entrepreneurial behaviors differently across countries.

We use the understanding of culturally endorsed leadership theories (CLTs), and also draw upon theoretical and empirical insights from the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project (Dorfman et al., 2012), to propose future research avenues that contribute to the literature exploring the role of cultural leadership styles in influencing entrepreneurial behaviors across different cultures. Our attempt here is to address both of these gaps and add to extant literature that integrates leadership and entrepreneurship research by introducing a cultural leadership paradigm that advances our understanding of the emergence of entrepreneurs as leaders across different cultures.

Theoretical Perspectives

In this section, we discuss various theories that are relevant to understand the influences of CLTs on entrepreneurial behaviors across cultures. The GLOBE study provides scores on six CLT dimensions—charismatic/value-based/performance-based, team-oriented, humane-oriented, participative, autonomous, and self-protective. The notion of CLTs in general and those of GLOBE CLTs in particular as cultural-level concepts derives from the individual-level implicit leadership theories (ILTs).

ILTs suggest that individuals hold belief systems, prototypes, or stereotypes and expectations about what constitutes "good leadership." They have assumptions and theories about the attributes of outstanding, ideal leaders that are often unconsciously held (Lord & Maher, 1991) and shaped by cultural

values. Cultures differ in their views of ideal leadership, i.e., in the attributes, motives, and behaviors that they believe characterize outstanding leadership. These cultural leadership ideals serve as the basis of CLTs (Dorfman, Hanges, & Brodbeck, 2004). ILTs legitimize leader behaviors and attributes in the eyes of followers and act as standards of appropriate leader behaviors. Since entrepreneurs too have been characterized as an important type of leaders, i.e., leaders of emerging organizations (Cogliser & Brigham, 2004) or as the main decision makers (strategic leaders) shaping the trajectory of their organizations in line with their goals, ILTs will exercise influence on the emergence of entrepreneurs as acceptable leaders in a given society. Entrepreneurship like leadership is a process of social influence toward achieving specific goals (Yukl, 2010) wherein entrepreneurs need to influence others around them including investors, customers, suppliers, and employees to launch and sustain their businesses successfully. This influencing process is therefore culturally embedded and will be effective if entrepreneurs display leadership attributes that are consistent with ILTs. Thus, cultural leadership expectations may be an important driver of cross-national differences in entrepreneurship.

Past research on ILTs has focused on leadership within organizations and discusses two mechanisms—*legitimation* and *motivational self-selection*—through which they influence the emergence of leaders and leader behaviors. The legitimation mechanism legitimizes leader behaviors and attributes in the eyes of followers, and it resonates with entrepreneurship research (Stephan & Pathak, 2016), where the key challenge for entrepreneurs is to be seen as legitimate and competent by investors, customers, suppliers, and other stakeholders, failing which can jeopardize the startup initiatives (Delmar & Shane, 2004). The motivational self-selection mechanism guides individuals as potential leaders and influences their aspirations to become leaders; it resonates with ILTs about entrepreneurs in that they are more likely to try to start a new venture if they think they have traits that align with these implicit theories (Gupta, Turban, & Bhawe, 2008).

GLOBE's six CLTs that draw upon ILTs can thus be used to provide fresh perspectives for culture and entrepreneurship research by leveraging insights from cross-cultural leadership theory and the understanding of cultural fit for the emergence of entrepreneurial leaders (Tung, Walls, & Frese, 2007). Entrepreneurship will flourish in cultures where cultural leadership ideals align with entrepreneurial behaviors, or where there is a "CLT–entrepreneurship fit"; individuals are more likely to choose to become entrepreneurs in countries where CLTs fit with and are supportive of motives linked with entrepreneur-

ship. Further, given that the *institutional configuration perspective* recognizes that human behavior is shaped jointly by formal and informal institutions (Stephan et al., 2014), GLOBE CLTs can be theorized as informal institutions—which can jointly with other institutional conditions influence entrepreneurial behavior.

GLOBE CLTs and Organizational Leadership Theories for Entrepreneurship Research

The traditional organizational leadership theories that have remained largely limited to explaining leadership effectiveness of managers of business firms could also be used in tandem with GLOBE CLTs to predict cross-cultural differences in entrepreneurial behaviors. There are four core theory groups—trait theory (what type of person makes a good leader?), the behavioral theory (what does a good leader do?), contingency theory (how does the situation influence good leadership?), and power and influence theories (what is the source of the leader's power?) – that have predominantly theorized on orga-

> " *The traditional organizational leadership theories that have remained largely limited to explaining leadership effectiveness of managers of business firms could also be used in tandem with GLOBE CLTs to predict cross-cultural differences in entrepreneurial behaviors.*

nizational leadership effectiveness. When a majority of managers across organizations in a country start displaying leadership styles predicted by these theories, then as per the aggregate trait hypothesis (Schwartz, 2006), those styles become manifestations of CLTs. Given that the six GLOBE CLT dimensions are offered as national aggregate scores on the responses from about 17,300 middle managers from 951 corporate organizations across 62 societies, they are reflective of the differences in the perceptions of organizational leadership effectiveness across cultures. As such, GLOBE CLTs can draw close parallels with the central concepts of organizational leadership theories.

For example, trait theories that talk about personality characteristics of effective leaders such as assertiveness, in particular, may find common ground with GLOBE's self-protective and autonomous CLTs. Behavioral theories that talk about autocratic leaders (make decisions without consulting their teams) and democratic leaders (allow team members to provide input before making decisions) can be used to explain how GLOBE's participative CLTs (defined as "a leader that encourages input from others in decision-making and implementation; and emphasizes delegation and equality") to predict entrepreneurial behaviors. Contingency theories that address key situational questions such as "when you need to make quick decisions, which style is best?", "when you need the full support of your team, is there a more effective way to lead?", "should a leader be more people-oriented or task-oriented?", etc. may find answers in GLOBE's participative, team-oriented and self-protective CLTs. Leader-member-exchange (LMX) leadership, which broadly fits into the contingency theory, has been shown to be contingent upon cultural values—consolidating the fact that the LMX leadership style too is culturally embedded (Rockstuhl, et al., 2012).

Finally, power and influence theories concern the different ways that leaders use power and influence to get things done and highlight three types of positional power—legitimate, reward and coercive—and two sources of personal power—expert and referent (leader's personal appeal and charm). Societies that endorse GLOBE's charismatic CLT—leaders that stress high standards, decisiveness, and innovation; seek to inspire people around a vision; create a passion among them to perform; and do so by firmly holding on to core values—resonate with elements of both types of power. Cross-country entrepreneurship research could combine benefits of both the GLOBE CLTs and organizational leadership theories to predict the emergence of entrepreneurs as leaders and entrepreneurship as leadership processes across cultures.

GLOBE CLTs and Influencing Mechanisms for Entrepreneurship

Scholars have turned to cultural values to characterize entrepreneurial cultures (Krueger, Liñán, & Nabi, 2013). A recent review of this domain of research does not support "the existence of a single entrepreneurial culture" (Hayton & Cacciotti, 2013: 708). The inconsistency has been partly addressed by the suggestion that cultural values affect entrepreneurial behaviors *distally* and more indirectly, via CLTs, or in other words, the influences of cultural values on entrepreneurial behaviors are *mediated* by CLTs, making CLTs more *proximal* influencers of entrepreneurial behaviors (Stephan & Pathak, 2016). Extant research defines leadership as an influencing process and that the influencing process is situated in a particular context. Leadership effectiveness may therefore be contingent upon the context within which

such behaviors are performed (Antonakis & Autio, 2006), thereby suggesting contextual moderating effects on CLTs. In other words, different contextual settings may require different leadership styles to trigger entrepreneurial behavior. In particular, a recent study (Muralidharan & Pathak, 2018) reports negative moderation effects between transformational CLTs (constructed as a composite out of charismatic, humane-oriented and team-oriented CLTs shown in Factor 1 in table below) and national sustainability conditions as embodiments of formal institutions (a composite developed using national scores on *human, environmental, and economic well-being* reported by Sustainability Society Foundation) to predict social entrepreneurship, suggesting that the effectiveness of transformational CLTs for creation of social enterprises matters more when sustainability conditions are low in a country. This finding consolidates the utility of institutional configuration perspective (that of institutional voids) as an adequate framework in future research that attempt to study the interplay between CLTs and other national institutions – either formal or informal or both.

The above mechanisms could be tested empirically using the six GLOBE CLTs in a variety of ways. First, individual-level data on entrepreneurship from sources such as the publicly available Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) survey and the European Social Survey (ESS) could be clustered or grouped by countries and the six GLOBE CLTs could thereafter be used as scores representing leadership styles for those countries. This data structure along with the use of multi-level regression techniques would allow testing cross-level (1) main effects of the influence of CLTs on indicators of individual-level entrepreneurship across countries, (2) moderation and mediation effects of CLTs on the influence of other country-level factors on individual-level entrepreneurship across countries (CLTs as moderators and mediators) or vice-versa (CLTs being moderated or mediated; CLTs as mediators as shown in Stephan & Pathak, 2016), (3) moderation and mediation effects of CLTs on the influence of individual-level attributes, such as *self-efficacy, fear of failure, entrepreneurial intentions,* etc., available from the GEM survey or other individual-level values such as *self-acceptance, openness,* etc., from ESS. Second, GLOBE CLTs could also be used in only country-level studies using OLS regression techniques. For example, GLOBE CLTs could predict the number of new firms registered in a country obtained from sources such as the World Bank Group Entrepreneurship Snapshot database, or rates of several types of entrepreneurship obtained as the corresponding national aggregates from the GEM National Expert Survey, etc.

Implications of GLOBE CLT for Practice and Pedagogy

GLOBE CLTs have the potential to enhance our understanding of the culture–entrepreneurship fit perspective by intro-

ducing a novel cultural leadership paradigm as antecedents of entrepreneurial behaviors across countries. Within the purview of institutional configuration perspective, they also introduce themselves as informal institutional conditions that influence the emergence of entrepreneurship as a leadership process in a given cultural setting. In addition, they have implications for different types of entrepreneurship. First, international entrepreneurship or born-global enterprises are liable to the newness of conditions in a different country. GLOBE CLTs can inform entrepreneurs of the resulting cultural distance such that they can adjust their leadership styles to match up to styles endorsed in other countries.

Second, Stephan and Pathak (2016) have shown that the six GLOBE CLTs load on two factors (as shown in Table 1 below) which they call *outward-focused (people-centric)* and *inward-focused (self-centric)* cultural leadership styles. It is worthwhile to research if the former drives utility maximization for entrepreneurs engaged in for-profit (commercial) entrepreneurship and the latter for those engaged in the creation of enterprises for pro-social purposes (social entrepreneurship). Even with the use of the single-item GLOBE CLTs, research can predict the effectiveness of performance-based charismatic leadership for high-tech, high-growth and strategic entrepreneurship, that of team-oriented leadership for entrepreneurial team dynamics, humane-oriented and participative leadership for social entrepreneurship, etc.

GLOBE CLTs also have implications for pedagogy. They can inform future business leaders about multi-cultural competency, cultural diversity, and inclusion in workplaces and in multinational enterprises. They can inform global leadership effectiveness based on the central premise that the endorsement of leadership styles varies across cultures.

Table 1: Principal component factor analysis of GLOBE CLTs

	Factor 1	Factor 2
	People-centric leadership [a]	Self-centric leadership [b]
Charismatic leadership	**0.93**	-0.18
Team-oriented leadership	**0.91**	-0.02
Participative leadership	0.23	**-0.90**
Humane-oriented leadership	**0.63**	0.41
Autonomous leadership	-0.11	**0.52**
Self-protective leadership	0.05	**0.94**
Variance explained (%)	36.11	33.99
Cronbach's Alpha	.74	.70

Notes: [a] created as arithmetic mean of *charismatic, team-oriented* and *humane-oriented leadership*).

[b] created as arithmetic mean of reverse coded *autonomous*, reverse coded *self-protective* and *participative leadership*.

In conclusion, our study calls for attention to cultural leadership styles as salient predictors of cross-cultural differences in entrepreneurship and the utility of GLOBE CLTs in making those predictions.

References

Alon, I., & Rottig, D. 2013. Entrepreneurship in Emerging Markets: New Insights and Directions for Future Research. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 55: 487–492

Antonakis, J., & Autio, E. 2006. Entrepreneurship and leadership. In J. Baum, M. Frese, & R. A. Baron (Eds), *The Psychology of Entrepreneurship*: 189-208. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Autio, E., Pathak, S., & Wennberg, K. 2013. Consequences of cultural practices for entrepreneurial behaviors. *Journal of International Business Studies* 44(4): 334–362.

Cogliser, C. C., & Brigham, K. H. 2004. The intersection of leadership and entrepreneurship: Mutual lessons to be learned. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6): 771-799.

Delmar, F., & Shane, S. 2004. Legitimating first: organizing activities and the survival of new ventures. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 19(3): 385–410.

Dorfman, P., Hanges, P. J., & Brodbeck, F. C. 2004. Leadership and cultural variation. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds), *Culture, Leadership and Organizations: The GLOBE study of 61 societies*: 669–719. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dorfman, P., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., Dastmalchian, A., & House, R. 2012. GLOBE: A twenty year journey into the intriguing world of culture and leadership. *Journal of World Business*, 47(4): 504-518.

Gupta, V. K., Turban, D. B., & Bhawe, N. M. 2008. The effect of gender stereotype activation on entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93: 1053–1061.

Hayton, J. C., & Cacciotti, G. 2013. Is there an entrepreneurial culture? A review of empirical research. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development,* 25(9-10): 708–731.

Krueger, N., Liñán, F., & Nabi, G. 2013. Cultural values and entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 25(9-10): 703–707.

Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. 1991. *Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and performance*. Cambridge, MA: Unwin Hyman.

Muralidharan, E., & Pathak, S. 2018. Sustainability, Transformational Leadership, and Social Entrepreneurship. *Sustainability*, 10(2): 567.

Rockstuhl, T., Dulebohn, J. H., Ang, S., & Shore, L. M. 2012. Leader-member exchange (LMX) and culture: A meta-analysis of correlates of LMX across 23 countries. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97: 1097-1130.

Schwartz, S. H. 2006. A Theory of Cultural Value Orientations: Explication and Applications. *Comparative Sociology*, 5(2–3): 137–182.

Stephan, U., & Pathak, S. 2016. Beyond cultural values? Cultural leadership ideals and entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 31(5): 505-523.

Stephan, U., Uhlaner, L. M., & Stride, C. 2014. Institutions and social entrepreneurship: The role of institutional voids, institutional support, and institutional configurations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 46(3): 308-331.

Tung, R. L., Walls, J., & Frese, M. 2007. Cross-cultural entrepreneurship: The case of China. In J. R. Baum, M. Frese, & R. Baron (Eds), *The Psychology of Entrepreneurship*: 265-286. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Yukl, G. 2010. Leadership in organizations (7th edn). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Saurav Pathak (sauravp@ksu.edu) is an assistant professor in entrepreneurship at Kansas State University. He has received a PhD in mechanical engineering from the University of Florida, USA, and a PhD in entrepreneurship from Imperial College Business School, UK. He was the Rick and Joan Berquist professor of innovation and entrepreneurship at Michigan Tech University from 2011-2014. His research revolves around cross-country comparative entrepreneurship and focuses on examining the contextual influences on individual-level entrepreneurial behaviors.

Etayankara Muralidharan (muralidharane@macewan.ca) is an associate professor of management at MacEwan University, Canada. He received a PhD at the University of Manitoba, Canada. His research interests are in organizational crisis management and entrepreneurship, and he has published in *Business and Society, International Business Review, Journal of Business Ethics* and *Thunderbird International Business Review*. His research has been presented at the Academy of Management, and the Babson College Entrepreneurship Research Conference (BCERC).

The Intersection of National Cultural Values and Organizational Cultures of Silence and Voice, and the Moderating Effect of Leadership

Rob Bogosian, RVB Associates, Inc. and Florida Atlantic University, USA

Much has been written separately about organizational cultures of voice and silence and national cultural value orientations, but these two subjects have not been explored together. This article discusses the relationship between two organizational cultural phenomena—cultures of voice and cultures of silence—and two national cultural dimensions—power distance and individualism/collectivism (Hofstede et al., 2010)—and how leader practices can influence these relationships. The relationship between national culture and organizational cultures of voice and silence and the moderating influence of leader practices is shown in Figure 1.
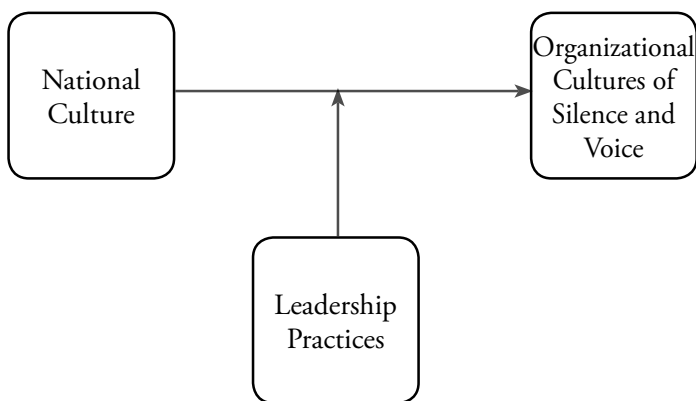

Figure 1. Relationship between National Culture and Organizational Cultures of Voice and Silence and the Moderating Effect of Leadership Practices

The article has three objectives:

1. Introduce the dynamics of organizational cultures of silence and voice.

2. Explore the relationship between the two national culture dimensions (power distance and individualism/collectivism) and two organizational culture phenomena (cultures of silence and cultures of voice).

3. Explore the moderating effect of leadership practices on the relationship between the two national culture dimensions and cultures of silence and voice in organizations.

Cultures of Voice and Silence

Organizational voice and silence are organizational cultural phenomena that impact the flow of valuable information up, down and across company silos for the purposes of problem identification, problem solving, decision making, and idea generation. Multinational corporations can enhance these processes when an organizational culture of voice exists, and cultures of silence are reduced or eliminated.

A culture of silence is characterized as the willful withholding of important work-related information. It is viewed as a choice of the organizational members' decision to remain silent (rather than to speak up) in the context of an organizational prob-

lem that affects the individual employee and the organization where they work. Cultures of silence lead to significant operational, fiduciary, and reputational risks and stifle organizational learning by restricting the amount and flow of information that could affect critical decisions.

For example, in 2015 it was discovered that Volkswagen Corporation altered emission test results in order to sell more diesel cars in the United States than its competitors. When the scandal was revealed, investigators learned that the altered test results were known to staff members who kept quiet for fear of reprisal. In another case, a Wells Fargo sales strategy forced employees to establish phantom bank accounts in order to meet sales targets. When US employees tried to question managers about the unethical practice, they were told to "get with the program" and meet their targets. Employees remained silent thereafter to stay safe in that environment. Another instance is the scandal that rocked the BBC when sexual assault victims revealed their stories after years of silence. One employee who had first reported a sexual harassment incident to BBC management was told to "keep her mouth shut because the [perpetrator] guy is a VIP" (NewsEurope, 2017). These organizations, collectively, paid $1.4 billion dollars in fines, which illustrates the reputational risks and financial consequences associated with cultures of silence in organizations.

Conversely, a culture of voice is characterized as the willful disclosure of important work-related information. Cultures of voice exist when organizational members feel psychologically safe (Kahn, 1990) to voice their views, opinions, and ideas without fear of reprisal. For example, at Microsoft, service managers routinely exchange ideas and divergent opinions in an effort to reach the best possible product and service solutions. Ideas are rapidly exchanged between members at different organizational levels without hesitation. At Google, employees are encouraged to share knowledge and information in an effort to learn as much as possible from each other. An interview with one Google executive revealed that the organization is familiar with approximately 85% of Google searches seen every day. However, Google employees obsess about the remaining 15% of searches, which is where they spend their time. Google is an organization that is constantly learning and growing, which cannot happen without knowledge sharing.

The Causes of Organizational Silence and Voice
Morrison and Millken's (2000) theory of organizational silence proposes three levels of management variables that contribute to a culture of silence: implicit managerial beliefs, managers' fear of negative feedback, and managerial practices. First, implicit managerial beliefs are defined as the underlying beliefs that managers hold about their world and, more specifically, employees. For example, managers may believe that if you give people an inch, they will take a mile. Another underlying belief is that managers know what is best for the organization. The belief that organizational conformity and cohesion is a sign of

strength and that conflict and disagreement should be avoided and "managed," or eliminated, are common beliefs among managers. Second, managers' fear of negative feedback can cause them to reject feedback whether it is about them personally or about an intitiative or idea that they endorse or advocate. Third, research shows that managerial practices influence organizational members' decisions to speak up or remain silent (Detert & Trevino, 2010).

Cultures of voice exist when employees are encouraged to share important work-related information. When employees experience knowledge sharing as a valued contribution, they are likely to speak up. Two cultural characteristics encourage voice behaviors: a positive organizational environment for divergent thinking and positive inquiry. When employees offer divergent ideas without negative repercussions, they are inclined to continue the behavior. When employees see that their ideas are met with curiosity more than judgment, they are inclined to continue speaking up.

Types of Organizational Cultures of Silence and Voice
According to Bogosian and Casper (2014), there are four types of cultures of silence: defensive silence, offensive silence, social silence, and futility. Defensive silence is rooted in fear and is used as a way to stay safe in a (perceived) unsafe work environment. Offensive silence occurs when employees provide ideas or solutions and do not receive credit. When this occurs, employees experience a general sense of organizational injustice. They can achieve interactional (interpersonal treatment) justice by withholding future ideas. Employees can also remain silent about important work related issues that could cause harm to a friend at work. This is known as social silence, and it is rooted in affiliation motives. Lastly, when employees' ideas, suggestions, and improvement efforts fall of deaf ears, they can conclude that it is futile to expend any further effort. This phenomenon leads to a sense of futility rooted in cynicism. Employees in this case simply give up. This silence type is known as futility.

The two types of cultures of voice are acquiescent voice and assertive voice. Acquiescent voice occurs when employees speak up in an effort to show collaboration and group agreement. Divergent thinking is suppressed in an effort to get along with other group members. Assertive voice occurs when employees are willing and encouraged to speak up even when their thoughts, views and opinions are in conflict with those of others in the group.

Organizational cultures of silence and voice as well as national cultures are socially constructed. Hofstede's research shows that national cultural values can influence organizational cultural practices. This article focuses the how two national cultural dimensions—power distance and individualism/collectivism—influence organizational culture.

Table 1: Large and Small Power Distance Characteristics in Organizations

Small Power Distance	Large Power Distance
Employees expect to be consulted	Employees expect to be told what to do
Flatter organizations	Many layers between the top and bottom of the organization
Decentralization is popular	Centralization is popular
Status symbols are frowned upon	Status symbols are accepted and popular
Narrow salary range between the top and the bottom or organization hierarchy	Wide salary range between the top and bottom of the organizational hierarchy

Source: Hofstede (2010)

The Relationship between National Cultural Values and Organizational Cultures of Voice and Silence

Hofstede's (2010) research shows that power distance as well as individualism and collectivism can influence organizational cultures. Organizations operating in large power distance societies are likely to centralize decision making as well as minimize employee engagement and involvement. Employees are told what to do, which discourages voice behaviors, leading to a culture of silence. Organizations operating in small power distance societies are likely to maximize employee engagement and involvement, which encourages voice behaviors leading to a culture of voice. Table 1 shows differences between small and large power distance characteristics in organizations.

Hofstede (2010) defines the cultural dimension related to self and others as individualism and collectivism. According to Hofstede (2010), in individualistic societies, the individual voice is more important than the group voice. In collectivistic societies, the group ideas and viewpoints prevail over individual ideas and viewpoints.

Organizations operating in collectivist societies such as Guatemala, Ecuador, and Panama, for example, favor the group over the individual and are likely to have an acquiescent culture of voice in organizational settings because individual thought is not encouraged unless the group extends permission.

Organizations operating in individualistic societies such as Australia, Great Britain, and the United States, emphasize the individual more than the collective and organizational members are more likely to openly express their views, opinions, and ideas, which can shape an assertive culture of voice.

Table 2 illustrates some common workplace differences between individualistic and collectivistic societies.

The Moderating Effect of Leadership Practices

Although national cultural values influence organizational cultures of voice and silence, leader practices can have a moderating effect on this relationship. For example, a leader can demonstrate a range of behaviors from participative to direc-

Table 2: Collectivistic and Individualistic Workplace Differences

Collectivism	Individualism
Use of the word *"I"* is avoided.	Use of the word *"I"* is encouraged.
Only speak up when sanctioned by the group.	Individuals are expected to speak up.
Employees are in-group members and expected to pursue the group's interest.	Employees are expected to pursue the company's interests if they coincide with self-interests.
Important decisions tend to be made by group	Important decisions tend to be made by individuals
Direct appraisal of an employee can disrupt harmony.	Managers are trained and expected to provide honest and direct performance feedback.

Source: Hofstede (2010)

Table 3: Leadership Practices Scenarios

Leadership Practices (style)	Large Power Distance	Small Power Distance	Individualism	Collectivism
Participative Leader	May be disruptive to acceptable practices initially. Employees eventually practice voice behaviors leading to a Culture of Voice.	Consistent with acceptable leader practices. Likely to strengthen Culture of Voice.	Consistent with acceptable leader practices. Likely to strengthen Culture of Voice.	Leader may encourage voice at the group level. Risk is associated with lack of divergent thinking could lead to Acquiescent Voice. If the leader practices become the norm, they could lead to a culture of voice.
Directive Leader	Consistent with acceptable leader practices. In this dimension, individual voice is not encouraged which is likely to sustain a Culture of Silence	Disruptive to acceptable leader practices and likely to result in a Culture of Silence.	Disruptive to acceptable leader practices and likely to result in a Culture of Silence.	Consistent with acceptable leader practices. Leader may strengthen Acquiescent Voice.

tive. When leaders demonstrate behaviors that are antithetical to the national cultural values where they work, however, it could result in either a culture of voice or a culture of silence. Table 3 provides an overview of different leadership practices in different national cultural settings and their effects.

Participative and Directive Leadership Styles in Large and Small Power Distance Societies

In large power distance countries such as Malaysia, Guatemala, and Panama, subordinates are more dependent on their managers for decision making. Status symbols differentiating between top management teams (TMT) and employee cultures are pronounced and encouraged. A participative leader operating in a large power distance society may surprise employees at first, but they could eventually feel safe speaking up, assuming they are able and willing to contribute openly, which could lead to a culture of voice. Directive leaders use command, and control decision making practices and centralize decision making. Directive leader practices demonstrated in a large power distance society are more acceptable than participative leader practices. Employees in large power distance societies tend to conclude that those at the top are not interested in their views or opinions, which results in (or sustains) a culture of silence.

Companies operating in small power distance societies such as Austria, Israel, and Denmark tend to encourage and value participative leadership practices where employees are often consulted on organizational issues. The participative leader draws out and encourages divergent views and opinions, which encourages (and strengthens) voice behaviors. As a result, employees are likely to perceive that their voice has merit and speak up more frequently resulting in a culture of voice. However, a directive leader operating in a small power distance society will most likely tell employees what to do and how to do it (i.e. the opposite of a participative style), it could be perceived as threatening and therefore lead to a defensive culture of silence.

Participative and Directive Leadership Styles in Individualistic and Collectivistic Societies

Participative leaders operating in an individualistic society tend to encourage idea generation and give proper credit to employees, which is consistent with acceptable leadership practices and thus results in (and strengthens) organizational cultures of voice. Directive leaders operating in individualistic societies, however, could cause a negative perception among employees who expect to have a voice. Individualistic societies encourage individual ideas, and voice behaviors. If the directive leader

does not yield to acceptable individualistic societal norms, then employees could perceive directive leadership practices as egregious, causing them to withdraw, and thus leading to a culture of silence.

Participative leadership practices in a collectivistic society will encourage individual voice behaviors despite the fact that individual voice is not the norm. These practices could be viewed as counter-cultural at first and cause withdrawal. However, if such participative leader practices become the norm they could eventually encourage more individual-level participation among employees, leading to a culture of voice. Directive leaders operating in a collectivistic society are likely to be perceived by employees as acceptable. Collectivistic societies value the group rather than the individual. Therefore, the directive leader is more of a fit in a collectivistic society than the participative leader and so may establish and strengthen a culture of (acquiescent) voice.

Implications for IB Research and Practice

More empirical research is needed to test the relationship between national cultural dimensions, cultures of voice and silence, and the moderating influence of leadership practices when consistent and inconsistent with national cultural norms where the organization operates. Possible research strategies could be field studies, employee observations, and ethnographies in organizational settings that compare and contrast specific national cultural values and the relationship to cultures of voice and silence. This would allow researchers to gain a deeper and richer account of the relationship between national cultural values on organizational cultures of voice and silence, and to examine the moderating influence of participative and directive leadership practices on this relationship. For example, based on a phenomenological study, researchers could examine the lived experiences of employees working in an organization operating in a specific society where particular cultural values (e.g., large or small power distance) is expected to influence the relationship between cultural values and cultures of voice and silence. Researchers could then determine how employees actually experience participative and directive leaders at work and how leader practices actually influence their silence and voice behaviors across different national cultures.

Leaders of MNCs operating in multicultural environments must have extensive knowledge about the national cultural value orientations of local employees in all countries in which they operate subsidiaries. They must also understand how their leadership practices influence cultures of voice and silence and develop the ability to encourage voice. They must be able to recognize the signs of silence and voice in daily interactions and understand specifically which leader practices encourage

voice and which ones elicit silence. Recognizing the signs of silence is only a fist step. Leaders must then be able to flexibly shift their behavior to encourage voice when they realize that they have elicited silence. Human resource practitioners must establish a common language and mindset around cultures of voice and silence at all organizational levels starting with the C-Suite. Senior leaders should hold all organizational leaders and employees accountable for demonstrating practices that encourage voice behaviors resulting in a culture of voice, and for reducing or eliminating practices that elicit silence that can result in a cultures of silence. When organizations establish a common language around voice and silence behaviors, and leaders consistently demonstrate practices that encourage voice, only then can a culture of voice become an organizational norm.

References

Bogosian, R., & Mockler, C. 2014. *Breaking Corporate Silence: How High Influence Leaders Shape Cultures of Voice*. Boston: Silver Street Media.

Detert, J. R., & Trevino, L. K. 2010. Speaking up to higher ups: How supervisors and skip-level leaders influence voice. *Organizational Science*, 21(1): 249-270.

Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. 2010. *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind* (3rd edn). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Kahn, W. A. 1990. Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4): 692-724.

Lewin, D., & Mitchell, D. J. B. 1992. Systems of employee voice: Theoretical and empirical perspectives. *California Management Review, Spring 1992*, 95-111.

Morrison, E. W. & Milliken, F. J. 2000. Organizational silence: A barrier to change and development in a pluralistic world. *Academy of Management Review*, 25: 706-725.

New Europe. 2016. Keep your mouth shut... he's a VIP' - Jimmy Savile report reveals culture of 'fear' at BBC. Retrieved April 14, 2018 from https://www.independent.ie/world-news/europe/keep-your-mouth-shut-hes-a-vip-jimmy-savile-report-reveals-culture-of-fear-at-bbc-34484838.html.

Rob Bogosian (rob@rvbassociates.com) is a principal at RVB Associates, Inc. and an Adjunct Professor in the Executive Program at Florida Atlantic University. He holds a doctorate in human and organizational learning from George Washington University. He co-authored the book Breaking Corporate Silence, and published in Rutgers University Business Journal. He has been featured in Business Insider, CNN Money, Fortune Magazine, CEO Magazine, San Francisco Chronicle, Bloomberg Radio, and Entrepreneur Magazine.

Studying Modern Slavery: It Is Time for IB Scholarship to Contribute

Guest Editors: Snejina Michailova and Christina Stringer

Introduction

In 2016, an estimated 40.3 million people worldwide were living in a form of modern slavery, of whom 16 million were victims of forced labor in the private economy (ILO, Walk Free Foundation, & IOM, 2017). Modern slavery includes forced labor, bonded labor, human trafficking, and other forms of exploitation (Lake, MacAlister, Berman, Gitshaw & Page, 2016). It exists not just in commodity-based labor-intensive industries but also in high-tech sectors, generating an estimated US$150 billion in illegal profits annually (ILO, 2016). Modern slavery is found not only in underdeveloped economies, but also in developed countries. In the UK alone, it is estimated that 10,000-13,000 people are victims of modern slavery at any point of time (Lake et al., 2016). In the US it is estimated that there are in the vicinity of 57,500 people currently enslaved (Walk Free Foundation, 2016). While modern slavery is growing at an unprecedented rate (Bales, 2012; 2016), International Business (IB) research has so far been silent on the subject (Michailova & Stringer, 2018a). This is not only puzzling; it is worrying, and disturbing. Hence, this call for papers!

Modern slavery often operates across borders (Michailova & Stringer, 2018b; Stringer, Whittaker & Simmons, 2016). First, globalizing forces increase the number of migrant workers as well as the opportunities to exploit them and others. Second, modern slavery is a by-product of our global production system (Gold, Trautrims & Trodd, 2015). It is often a part of the activities of the multinational corporation (MNC). Slavery is widespread, although often concealed, in the MNCs' supply chains which link multiple layers of supplier-firms with global buying firms and retailers. The fragmented nature of these internationally connected supply chains often obscures slavery practices and leads to them not just existing, but growing and thriving (Greer & Purvis, 2016).

The neglect (so far) of modern slavery by/in the IB discipline opens opportunities for studies that are both interesting from a researchers' and educators' viewpoint, and powerful in terms of changing existing policies and practices. We suggest a few avenues and indicative research questions that we find promising—they not only provide a fruitful opportunity for IB scholars to start and engage in interesting scholarly conversations, but also educate IB students as the next generation of business people, as well as shape and influence policy debates that really matter.

IB Research

What does modern slavery look like as an IB? And in turn what does the IB of modern slavery look like? What are its key features and who are the key actors involved? What practices do these actors adopt and what skills do they possess that allow slavery to flourish across borders?

Has the structural design of the MNC become so complex that it 'naturally' creates opportunities to breed slavery? Or, rather is it the fluidity and fragmentation of the multiple institutional contexts in which the MNC operates that allows slavery to come into existence and to flourish?

Can MNCs protect themselves against modern slavery? If so, how? If not, why not? How are new transparency requirements shaping not only codes of conduct, but also the actual activities and behaviors of MNCs in regard to modern slavery?

IB Teaching

In 2017, the University of Nottingham introduced an online course on modern slavery, attracting 10,400 enrolments from 150 countries. These numbers speak for themselves.

How can we increase students' awareness and knowledge on issues related to modern slavery in our IB courses? What modules can we include in our undergraduate IB courses as well as in more specialized postgraduate courses on MNCs? What opportunities do we have at the PhD and post-doc level to tackle the issue of modern slavery?

What can we, as IB scholars, do to educate the public about this crime against humanity? How can we help bring about a change in society through our teaching?

Impact of IB Research on Policy Debates
Modern slavery has a corrosive effect throughout society on respect for the rule of law and the rights of individuals. Efforts to address forced labor abuses amounting to slavery are compromised by a lack of public prioritization of the issue in many countries.

To what extent can governments influence MNCs to combat modern slavery in their supply chains? How can governments hold MNCs to account? How can MNCs help governments reduce modern slavery?

Is globalization leading to a disconnect between transnational and national institutions? If so, what does such a disconnect mean for MNCs with slavery in their supply chains?

How do government policies in the host county of an MNC affect the level of vulnerability of low-skilled and/or migrant workers at risk of forced labor, in other countries?

Submission Process and Timeline

Colleagues interested in submitting their work to this Special Issue should consult the *AIB Insights* Editorial Policy and use the Online Manuscript Submission System, which you can access via the AIB Insights website at https://aib.msu.edu/publications/insights. Please select "Special Issue: Modern Slavery in IB" under 'Track' when submitting your manuscript.

Timeline: Please submit your work on or before November 1, 2018. Expected publication of this Special Issue in 2019.

References

Bales, K. 2012. *Disposable people: New slavery in the global economy*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press, 25.

Bales, K. 2016. *Blood and earth: Modern slavery, ecocide, and the secret to saving the world*. New York: Spiegel & Grau.

Gold, S., Trautrims, A., & Trodd, Z. 2015. Modern slavery challenges to supply chain management. *Supply Chain Management: An International Journal*, 20(5): 485-494.

Greer, B.T., & Purvis, J.G. 2016. Corporate supply chain transparency: California's seminal attempt to discourage forced labour. *The International Journal of Human Rights*, 20(1): 55-77.

International Labour Organization (ILO). 2016. *ILO standards on forced labour: The new protocol and recommendation at a glance*. Geneva: ILO.

ILO, Walk Free Foundation, & IOM. 2017. *Global estimates of modern slavery: Forced labour and forced marriage*. Geneva: ILO.

Lake, Q., MacAllister, J., Berman, C., Gitshaw, M., & Page, N. 2016. *Corporate approaches to addressing modern slavery in supply chains: A snapshot of current practice*. Ethical Trading Initiative and the Ashridge Centre for Business and Sustainability at Hult International Business School, 29.

Michailova, S., & Stringer, C. 2018a. Tackling the ugliest phenomenon of our times, modern slavery: An invitation to the IB scholarly community. *AIB Insights*, 18(2): 7-10.

Michailova, S., & Stringer, C. 2018b. Modern slavery as an international business. Paper presented at the annual ANZIBA conference, Brisbane, Australia.

Stringer, C., Whittaker, D., & Simmons, G. 2016. New Zealand's turbulent waters: the use of forced labor in the fishing industry. *Global Networks*, 16(1): 3-24.

Walk Free Foundation 2016. The Global Slavery Index 2016. https://www.globalslaveryindex.org/findings/.

palgrave
macmillan

NOW ACCEPTING SUBMISSIONS
JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS POLICY (JIBP)

JIBP
JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL
BUSINESS POLICY

AN OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE
ACADEMY OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

WWW.JIBP.NET

**Editor-in-Chief: Sarianna Lundan,
University of Bremen, Germany**

Positioned at the intersection between international business and public policy, *JIB*P aims to publish articles that identify novel policy issues and dilemmas, propose new policy directions, and measure the effectiveness and impact of policies for business and the wider economy.

JIBP welcomes submissions that contribute to our understanding of international business policy in any of the following five policy areas:

1. International business promotion
2. Foreign business attraction
3. Industrial policy
4. Social and development policy
5. Transnational governance

We encourage both qualitative and quantitative submissions that are well documented, rigorous, balanced, and above all, policy relevant, from individuals with different academic and professional backgrounds.

**For more information please contact lundan@jibp.net
or submit online now at mc.manuscriptcentral.com/jibp.**

A54881

jibp.net

EDITORIAL POLICY

AIB Insights is the Academy of International Business official publication that provides an outlet for short (around 2,500 words), interesting, topical, current and thought-provoking articles.

Articles can discuss theoretical, empirical, practical, or pedagogical issues affecting the international business community. The publication seeks articles that have an international business and cross-disciplinary orientation with IB researchers and faculty as the intended primary audience.

Authors should highlight the insight of their article in the first paragraph. They should prompt the reader to think about international business and international business teaching/learning in new ways. Articles sought should be grounded in research, but presented in a readable and accessible format.

Articles written for *AIB Insights* should be free of professional jargon and technical terms, light on references, but heavy on insight from the authors' experiences and research. Terminology should be defined if it is not in the common domain of the IB literature. Authors should remember the intended audience of the publication and write accordingly. A regression equation, a correlation matrix, a table or a graph needed to support a point may be included.

AIB Insights does not seek the kind of articles that are intended for traditional journals in international business, such as

the *Journal of International Business Studies*. The publication is intended to inform, educate, and enlighten readers with state of the art information on a topic with a broad appeal to the profession. Acceptable articles may fall into one of several categories:

1. Research insights from authors' stream of research
2. Current issues affecting international business as a discipline
3. The use of technology in international business
4. The evolving nature and evolution of the International Business department/function/discipline
5. Internationalization of the curriculum
6. Innovative approaches to teaching international business
7. Teaching pedagogy and content articles
8. Other topics of interest

Please include a cover page with all the authors' contact details (email, university affiliation, full address, telephone, fax if used). The second page should include 50-75 word biographies of participating authors. Articles submitted should follow *JIBS* referencing style for consistency. *AIB Insights* is published four times a year and available in print and digital format. Please submit your manuscript via our online manuscript submission system at *aib.msu.edu/publications/insights.* For any questions, please contact the *AIB Insights* editorial team via email at *insights@aib.msu.edu*.

Submit your manuscript at *aib.msu.edu/publications/insights*