




2011

Global Leadership Development: An Analysis of Talent Management, Company Types and Job Functions, Personality Traits and Competencies, and Learning and Development Methods

John Gillis Jr.
University of Pennsylvania

Follow this and additional works at: <http://repository.upenn.edu/edissertations>

 Part of the [Business Administration, Management, and Operations Commons](#), [Education Commons](#), [Industrial and Organizational Psychology Commons](#), [Leadership Studies Commons](#), [Performance Management Commons](#), [Personality and Social Contexts Commons](#), and the [Training and Development Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Gillis, John Jr., "Global Leadership Development: An Analysis of Talent Management, Company Types and Job Functions, Personality Traits and Competencies, and Learning and Development Methods" (2011). *Publicly Accessible Penn Dissertations*. 1177.
<http://repository.upenn.edu/edissertations/1177>

Degree: Ed.D.

This paper is posted at ScholarlyCommons. <http://repository.upenn.edu/edissertations/1177>
For more information, please contact libraryrepository@pobox.upenn.edu.

Global Leadership Development: An Analysis of Talent Management, Company Types and Job Functions, Personality Traits and Competencies, and Learning and Development Methods

Abstract

As our world "shrinks" and globalization increases, companies are changing strategies and operational procedures, which are dependent on leaders to deploy and implement. As companies evolve from domestic companies towards international, multinational and global companies, developing future global leaders becomes an essential component for successfully carrying out corporate global strategies. Because of this, there is an increasing need for global leaders; yet, they are not prepared, causing a significant shortage of global leaders, which is a critical issue for human resource departments.

Thus, global leadership development (GLD) programs are urgently needed to address the gap between global leadership needs and the capacity shortage, and should be a major focus of HR's talent management. Even though GLD significantly impacts company performance, current GLD programs offered by practitioners are deficient and there is disjointed research on the topic by scholars. However, there is a growing consensus around global leadership attributes (personality, values, cultural background and corporate work experience) used for the recruiting and succession planning talent management functions, global leadership competencies (engagement in personal transformation, knowledge, networking skills, social judgment skills, self awareness, and self regulation) used for the career development talent management function, and learning and development methods (expatriate assignment, global teams, experiential learning, coaching, intercultural training, assessment and reflection) used for the learning and development talent management function. The research findings indicate several implications for practitioners to address when building a global leadership development program. First, personality traits and global leadership competencies are primarily idiosyncratic to job function, but not to company type. Second, while leadership competencies are the same for domestic and global leaders, certain competencies are more critical for global leaders and the proficiency level typically increases. Third, the list of competencies must be manageable, clearly defined and comprehensive. And fourth, the learning and development method and corresponding budget prioritization is very dependent on the global leadership competency to be developed.

Degree Type

Dissertation

Graduate Group

Education

First Advisor

Jonathan A. Supovitz

Keywords

global, learning, competency, leadership, talent management, personality traits, globalization

Subject Categories

Business Administration, Management, and Operations | Education | Industrial and Organizational Psychology | Leadership Studies | Performance Management | Personality and Social Contexts | Training and Development

Comments

Degree: Ed.D.

**GLOBAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT:
AN ANALYSIS OF TALEN MANAGEMENT, COMPANY TYPES AND JOB
FUNCTIONS, PERSONALITY TRAITS AND COMPETENCIES, AND
LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT METHODS**

John Gillis, Jr.

A DISSERTATION

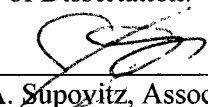
in

Work-Based Learning Leadership


Presented to the Faculties of the University of Pennsylvania
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Education

2011

Supervisor of Dissertation:


Jonathan A. Supovitz, Associate Professor of Education

Dean, Graduate School of Education:


Andrew C. Porter, Dean

Dissertation Committee:

Jonathan A. Supovitz, Associate Professor of Education
Donna McNamara, President, Donna McNamara Associates
Jerome T. Murphy, Visiting Professor of Education

Global Leadership Development: An Analysis of Talent Management,
Company Types and Job Functions, Personality Traits and Competencies,
and Learning and Development Methods

COPYRIGHT

2011

John Gillis, Jr.

ABSTRACT

GLOBAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT:

AN ANALYSIS OF TALENT MANAGEMENT, COMPANY TYPES AND JOB FUNCTIONS, PERSONALITY TRAITS AND COMPETENCIES, AND LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT METHODS

John Gillis, Jr.

Jonathan Supovitz

As our world “shrinks” and globalization increases, companies are changing strategies and operational procedures, which are dependent on leaders to deploy and implement. As companies evolve from domestic companies towards international, multinational and global companies, developing future global leaders becomes an essential component for successfully carrying out corporate global strategies. Because of this, there is an increasing need for global leaders; yet, they are not prepared, causing a significant shortage of global leaders, which is a critical issue for human resource departments.

Thus, global leadership development (GLD) programs are urgently needed to address the gap between global leadership needs and the capacity shortage, and should be a major focus of HR’s talent management. Even though GLD significantly impacts

company performance, current GLD programs offered by practitioners are deficient and there is disjointed research on the topic by scholars. However, there is a growing consensus around global leadership attributes (personality, values, cultural background and corporate work experience) used for the recruiting and succession planning talent management functions, global leadership competencies (engagement in personal transformation, knowledge, networking skills, social judgment skills, self awareness, and self regulation) used for the career development talent management function, and learning and development methods (expatriate assignment, global teams, experiential learning, coaching, intercultural training, assessment and reflection) used for the learning and development talent management function. The research findings indicate several implications for practitioners to address when building a global leadership development program. First, personality traits and global leadership competencies are primarily idiosyncratic to job function, but not to company type. Second, while leadership competencies are the same for domestic and global leaders, certain competencies are more critical for global leaders and the proficiency level typically increases. Third, the list of competencies must be manageable, clearly defined and comprehensive. And fourth, the learning and development method and corresponding budget prioritization is very dependent on the global leadership competency to be developed.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1	1
Chapter 2	8
Global Leadership Competencies	22
Global Leadership Learning and Development Methods	26
Global Leadership Development Conceptual Framework	41
Research Questions	48
Chapter 3	51
Population and Respondent Selection	52
Respondents	56
Survey Instrument	58
Validity	65
Data Collection	68
Analysis	69
Study Limitations	76
Chapter 4	79
Personality Traits	79
Global Leadership Competencies	91
Qualitative Responses:	105
Comparison: Personality Traits vs. Global Leadership Competencies	108
Competencies' Comparison: Domestic vs. Global Importance	109
Learning and Development Methods for Global Leadership Competencies ...	111

Summary.....	114
Chapter 5.....	119
Implications	118
Recommendations	127
Future Research.....	130
Conclusion.....	132
APPENDICES	134
Appendix A: Global Leadership Competency Meta-Analysis Table.....	134
Appendix B: Global Leadership Development Survey Email Solicitation	158
Appendix C: Global Leadership Development Survey Consent Form	159
Appendix D: Global Leadership Development Survey.....	160
Appendix E: Global Leadership Development Research Findings Report	180
References	183

List of Tables

Table 1: Definitions of Company Type.....	2
Table 2: “Big Five” Personality Traits	15
Table 3: Global Leadership Competencies.....	24
Table 4: Learning & Development Methods.....	27
Table 5: Survey Completion by Company Type.....	57
Table 6: Survey Completion by Job Function.....	58
Table 7: Value of Aggregated Personality Traits’ Means by Company Type ...	80
Table 8: Correlation Coefficients between Personality Traits and Company Type	82
Table 9: t-tests between Personality Traits and Company Type	83
Table 10: Value of Personality Traits’ Means per Job Function.....	84
Table 11: Personality Traits’ Statistical Significant Differences per Job Function	88
Table 12: Personality Traits’ Mean Standard Deviation for Respondents’ Perceptions	90
Table 13: Weighted Value of Aggregated Global Leadership Competencies’ Means by Company Type.....	92
Table 14: Correlation Coefficients between Average Global Leadership Competencies and Company Type.....	93
Table 15: t-tests between Global Leadership Competencies and Company Type	94

Table 16: Value of Global Leadership Competencies' Means per Job Function...	96
Table 17: Global Leadership Competencies' Statistical Significant Differences per Job Function	99
Table 18: Global Leadership Competencies' Mean Standard Deviations for Respondents' Perceptions.....	102
Table 19: "Other" Personality Traits per Job Function	106
Table 20: Competency Importance Comparion: Domestic vs. Global Frequency	110
Table 21: Learning & Development Method Frequency per Competency	112

List of Figures

Figure 1: Global Leadership Development Conceptual Framework.....	45
Figure 2: Company Type Determination.....	71
Figure 3: Value of Personality Traits' Means Within Job Function	85
Figure 4: Value of Personality Traits' Means Across Job Function	87
Figure 5: Value of Global Leadership Competencies' Means for Job Function per Company Type	97
Figure 6: Value of Global Leadership Competencies' Means Across Job Function.....	98
Figure 7: Comparison of Importance: Personality Traits vs. Global Leadership Competencies Frequency.....	109

Chapter 1

IS GLOBAL CORPORATE PERFORMANCE DEPENDENT ON GLOBAL LEADERS?

Global leaders, who come from all job functions at international, multinational and global companies, are critical to global corporate performance. This is because globalization has effected major changes in the business environment. Former U.S. Secretary of Commerce under President George W. Bush, Carlos Gutierrez, said, “today there has been a fundamental shift in the value chain from producing the most merchandise as cheaply as possible to those who can capitalize on great ideas using the globally integrated pathways we have developed” (IBM Forum on Global Leadership, 2007). The dramatic increase in global trade and investment heightens a company’s interest in globalization (Roth & Morrison, 1992). In 2003, the World Trade Organization reported that international trade comprised 30% of global GDP, and Bryan, Rall, Fraser, & Oppenheim, (1999) predicted that 80% of world output would be in global markets by 2029 (Alon & Higgins, 2005). In his 2007 book, *The World is Flat*, Thomas Friedman lists international trade, outsourcing, supply-chaining, and political forces as contributions to globalization that have had an accelerated impact on business. Changes to advanced countries’ competitive advantages have impacted economies, economic and trade policies, and innovation stimulation (Zahra, 1996).

Changes to this business environment necessitate changes in how companies operate on a global scale. However, many companies do not understand or underestimate the issues of globalization (Dowling, Welch, & Schuler, 1999), as it is very different than

domestic operations, as well as international and multi-national. Globalization is not just where products and services are sold, it fundamentally alters a company's operations. Adler and Bartholomew (1992) suggest that companies can be located on a continuum ranging from domestic to global, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Definitions of Company Type

Domestic	International	Multinational	Global
Operates only in home country	Operates across borders in addition to domestically	Operates across many nations: - Services and products are standardized, - Decision-making is local	Operates world-wide: - Services, products, and decision-making are adapted to local markets

Based on this continuum, *international* describes operations across nations, while *global* describes integrated operations and those united among nations (Ayman, Krieger, & Masztal, 1994). However, despite distinctions between these company type definitions, they are frequently used interchangeably in global leadership development (GLD) research (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). Yet, some researchers identify different types of global strategy per company type, and each strategy could require different global leadership competencies. For example, one company type is the more sophisticated when it is based on mass-customization where network management, learning, and cross-cultural skills are essential (Morrison, 2000). Other researchers map the company type to mindsets: ethnocentric, polycentric, and geocentric (Taylor, Beecher, & Napier, 1996). Finally, other researchers map the company type to types of transfer of HR practices

across borders: adaptive, exportive, and integrative approaches (Harzing, 2004). Thus, differences in the company type impact how a company operates.

Yet, with global companies defined as they are above, domestic leaders currently appear ill-prepared to respond to the evolving business environment towards globalization. Global leaders require work across a complex, changing, and often ambiguous global environment (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009) span of multiple time zones, country infrastructures, and cultural experiences, regulations, customers, beliefs and customs, conflicting viewpoints, and differing cultural backgrounds (Sinclair & Agyeman, 2005; Dalton, Ernst, Deal, & Leslie, 2002). Global companies present global leaders with higher degrees of complexity and uncertainty, as there is a need for adapting to different cultures' leadership styles preferences (Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000) based on different cultural norms and values (Morrison, 2000), creating global integration and local responsiveness (Doz & Prahalad, 1987), balancing between commercial and cultural concerns (Sheridan, 2005), thinking globally strategically and acting locally (May, 1997), and adopting better practices regardless of origin ("Colgate-Palmolive", 2004).

They must deal with uncertainty, as there is no uniformity in customer preferences, competitive circumstances, economic conditions, employee relations, or governmental regulations across the various countries and cultures. We live in an increasingly borderless world that is nonetheless still filled with linguistic, cultural, political, temporal, economic, and social borders. This creates conflicts and tensions between and among various units in the worldwide company. (Bingham, Felin, & Black, 2000, p. 290)

Most researchers and practitioners perceive the demands of global leadership as qualitatively different and significantly more complex than those of domestic leadership.

Because of this, there appears to be a deficient number of global leaders prepared to conduct global business. Even with identified increasing need for global leaders, executives continually report that they do not have enough global leaders for the future (Black & Gregersen, 2000). A lack of global leadership will result in a failure to take advantage of the global markets (Foxon, 1998), since a shortage of qualified leaders is an obstacle to global effectiveness (Dalton et al., 2002). 85% of Fortune 500 firms surveyed did not have an adequate number of leaders, 65% felt their leaders needed additional skills, one-third of international managers underperformed in their international assignments based on their superiors' evaluations, and organizations have erroneously promoted leaders to international assignments based on technical and organizational skills (Manning, 2003; Alon & Higgins, 2005).

This shortage of global leaders hinders companies' global business strategy execution. The more a company develops global leaders, the more capable they are of growing their global strategies (Morrison, 2000), since developing and executing a business strategy is a function of leadership. Subsequently, global competitiveness will be determined by the quality of leadership at the helm of tomorrow's organizations (Zahra, 1998), as Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn, & Ainina (1999) wrote, "strategic competitiveness: the ability to achieve above-average returns and generally move value relative to competition, results from superior global leadership" (p. 63). Thus, the developing and executing of a global strategy is dependent on the global leaders.

One of a global leader's impacts is increasing the capacity of an organization to evolve into a global company, seeking and growing their business strategy for the larger

global marketplace. Based on this shrinking globe, changing business models and evolving job functions, there is an increasing corporate need for global leaders to adapt to the new company type. The world has more companies pursuing global strategies, resulting in a greater problem of having a sufficient number of global leaders who will work in unfamiliar cultures and with employees from different societal, political, industrial, and organizational cultures (Carl, 1999). Global strategy implementation cannot be deployed successfully without developed global leaders, since “a company’s ability to devise strategic responses...may be constrained by a lack of suitably trained, internationally oriented personnel” (Shen, 2005, p. 657). Concurring, a global company’s implementation of a global strategy is constrained by the shortage of global leaders, which leads to lower bottom-line results (Colvin, 2006). An energy company senior executive said that 80% of future growth would come from global sales, yet there is currently not the quantity or quality of globally minded leaders that will be required in the future. “They’re not grown overnight, so what can we do today to train them?” (Black & Gregersen, 2000, p. 173).

In summary, this changing business environment provides competition and opportunities resulting in a need for leaders to have global leadership competencies that were not required of business leaders in the last generation (Neary & O’Grady, 2000). Thus, companies need a robust global leadership development program to develop the global leaders who will guide them through this changing business environment. Based on the premise, the conceptual framework and the research findings, this dissertation raises several questions for practitioners to address when building a global leadership

development program. First, which personality traits and global leadership competencies are idiosyncratic to job function and company type? In contrast, which ones are universal? Second, what is the difference between a domestic and global leadership competency? Or, is it the same competency yet with a higher degree of proficiency required for a global role? Also, are some leadership competencies more critical than other competencies for a global leader? Third, what does a practitioner need to consider when developing a list of leadership competencies? And fourth, what learning and development method should a global leadership development practitioner utilize to develop a global leader's competencies?

Today, at all job levels, there is a strengthened and irrefutable need for a new kind of leadership - global leadership (Lokkesmoe, 2009). This dissertation attempts to address this need through a conceptual framework of global leadership development which integrates the talent management functions: recruiting, succession planning, career development and learning and development. The research implies that global leadership candidates, when selected for specific personality traits, can develop their global leadership competencies through specific learning and development methods.

First, for the recruiting and succession planning function, companies should assess candidates' personality traits. Results from descriptive and statistical analysis indicated global leadership development practitioners' perspectives of personality traits and global leadership competencies are idiosyncratic per job function.

Second, for the career development function, a company needs to establish their global leadership competencies. In order to increase the adoption of the competency list, it needs to be easily manageable, clearly defined, and comprehensive. Also, the difference between domestic and global leadership competencies is more of a degree of proficiency than it is a unique competency.

Third, the perceived effective learning and development method is dependent upon the global leadership competency, resulting in a blended learning solution leveraging multiple learning and development methods. The overall learning and development method preferences are for more experiential and high contact methods than didactic and low contact developmental experiences. This requires global leadership development programs to clarify the global leadership competencies to be developed per job function before designing programs.

Chapter 2

PREPARING GLOBAL LEADERS

The shortage of developed and prepared global leaders creates an immediate and critical need for global leadership development. The goal of global leadership development (GLD) is to address the gap between global leadership needs and the current capacity. Novicevic and Harvey (2004) state,

recent research findings suggest that developing competent global managers is the critical linking trait of the firm-level strategic relevance because global leadership and teamwork development are increasingly becoming the primary means of the firm to differentiate itself based on its human capital involved in knowledge creation, sharing, transfer, and protection across borders. (p. 570)

A global leadership development program must prepare participants to lead in a multinational, multicultural, multilingual, multimedia world with multiple stakeholders, including: colleagues, subordinates, suppliers, customers, competitors, affiliates and parent organizations (Bonnstetter, 2000). While global leadership does not have a common definition, there are fewer competing definitions for a leadership development definition. Leadership development is defined as the expanding of a company's capacity for basic leadership collective of setting direction, creating alignment, and maintaining commitment (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004). For the purposes of this dissertation, I submit the following definition: *GLD is a company's effort to improve an employee's global leadership competency proficiency to positively impact global leadership behavior.*

Caligiuri and Tarique (2009) write, "given the importance of effective global leadership, it is not surprising that both academics and practitioners alike have become

increasingly interested in ways to develop successful global business leaders” (p. 336). Academics realize this need, as Thomas Gilligan, Dean of The University of Texas McCombs business school, said, “the business professional of the future will require a broader context of how to generate value in a global economy” (*The Alcalde*, September/October 2008, p. 14). In addition, scholars have emphasized an urgent need for leadership development (Tubbs & Jabllokow, 2009) so that executives understand the global market environment enough to be effective within it (Pucik, 1984), creating new leadership models to meet these challenges for the 21st century (Lokkesmoe, 2009). Practitioners also realize this need, as IBM CEO Sam Palmisano stated in a previous issue of Chief Executive Magazine, “if leadership development is not connected to the company’s business strategy, it simply won’t work” (Schein, 2005, p. 9).

Companies’ investments in GLD programs are intended to address the global leader pipeline shortage. 90% of U.S. companies provide some type of leadership training (Spiro, 2003), spending an estimated \$50 billion in 2000 (Ready & Conger, 2003). In contrast, many global companies experience a considerable adverse impact when they do not invest in a GLD program (Shen, 2005). This is why “companies that hope to thrive into the next century must be highly proactive in developing leaders with global perspectives, skills and competencies” (“Colgate-Palmolive”, 2004, p. 20). Compounding this, academic literature identifies GLD as a critical component for the future success of global companies (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009), such as Stroh and Caligiuri’s study (1998) that suggests a positive relationship between the global companies’ bottom-line financial successes and their GLD program effectiveness. GLD is one of many key HR issues for

global chief executives (Vloeberghs & Macfarlane, 2007), because it is critical that the company develop the company's leadership capital as a part of the company's intangible asset base (Novicevic & Harvey, 2004). The goal is to make GLD a source of sustainable competitive advantage for the firm (Petrick et al., 1999).

Without developing employees' global leadership competencies, a company will significantly limit its global growth (Talkington, 2001). In a survey of learning executives, Bersin (2008) reported that 56% of respondents said that a globalized learning strategy is vital to their overall success. As an example of a global leadership program's impact at a pharmaceutical company, 15 months after implementation the results included: the recruitment of highly talented employees from some of the best companies, the hiring of key critical positions organically, and a decrease in highly talented employee attrition rate from 19% to 12.89% (Sharma & Bhatnagar, 2009). Therefore, GLD not only benefits the individual, but is also critical to company performance. Because of this, it should be a major focus of human resources (HR)'s talent management efforts.

Even though scholars tend to define global leadership with a bias towards what they are studying (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004), most definitions contain two common elements: motivation and international capability. When it comes to motivation, global leadership has been defined as the ability to motivate, influence and enable individuals to contribute to the effectiveness of organizations of which they are members (House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, Javidan, Dickson, et al., 1999); influencing others to accomplish organizational goals (Tubbs, 2009b); and the ability to

influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute to the achievement of common goals across international boundaries, regardless of the broader national, cultural, political, economic, and personal contexts (Lokkesmoe, 2009). Second, for international capability, global leadership has been defined as more complex than domestic (Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000); global integration responsibilities (Suutari, 2002); influence across national and cultural boundaries (Mobley & Dorfman, 2003); management across borders and cultures (Andrews, 2009), the ability to manage increasing cultural diversity (Manning, 2003); and the ability to unleash human potential and leverage the richness that lies in cultural diversity (Rosinski, 2003).

One of the challenges with defining global leaders is differentiating leadership versus management. Some define global leaders as the executives, vice presidents, directors, and managers whose jobs have global integration responsibilities (Caligiuri & DiSanto, 2001). Osland (2006) argues that “all CEOs and global managers are not, by definition, global leaders” (p. 208). However, most of the primary research assumes that global managers are global leaders (Osland, 2006), or just the top executives, such as the CEO (Jokinen, 2005). For the purposes of this dissertation, I will also make the assumption that global corporate executives and global managers are global leaders. In addition to this, there are global leadership differences between job functions similar to the domestic leadership differences, such as HR versus finance global leaders. Therefore, for the purposes of this dissertation, I submit the following definition, which attempts to aggregate the above definitions. Global leadership is *an international, multinational or global company’s manager or executive’s ability to motivate, influence and enable*

individuals across national boundaries and cultural diversity to contribute to the accomplishment of a company's goals.

Building on the definitions above, there is a growing body of work that has sought to identify the personal attributes and competencies of global leaders. Tubbs and Schulz's (2006) global leadership model separates an individual's personal attributes (personality and values) from the global leadership competencies. Boyatzis (1982) defined "competency" as a term that describes the characteristics that lead to success on a job or at a task. Competencies initially focused on skills (technical), and then expanded to behaviors (what is required to execute) (Dive, 2005). In 2006, Tubbs and Schulz wrote that competencies could be described using the acronym KSA (knowledge, skills and abilities). Global leadership competencies are those required by a company as well as complementary, which do not conflict or overlap, and serve as an aggregate to make the competencies more accessible and user-friendly. For the purposes of this dissertation, I submit the following definition: *a global leadership competency is a body of knowledge, skill or ability that motivates, influences or enables individuals across national boundaries and cultural diversity to contribute to the accomplishment of a company's goals.*

A global leadership development program focuses on developing global leadership competencies through learning and development methods, as these are easier to change than personal attributes. However, personal attributes are critical to differentiate, since they impact the capability of one's learning and development of competencies (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). From a talent management perspective, the

distinction between personal attributes and global leadership competencies is also critical because the former has significant implications for recruitment and succession planning (May, 1997), while the latter profoundly shapes career development (Morrison, 2000), as well as learning and development (Bueno & Tubbs, 2004). This study focused primarily on the personal attribute of global leadership personality traits, the global leadership competencies, and the learning and development methods used to develop them.

The rationale for focusing the study on only one personal attribute, personality traits, is: (1) there is a more well-established construct, “The Big Five” personality traits, for this personal attribute, and (2) this is the personal attribute that some researchers include within competencies. Per the second point, Jokinen’s (2005) research on global leadership competencies, which this research paper builds upon, did blend personality traits with competencies. This initial and additional list of global leadership competencies was based on a group of global leadership competencies aggregated from a meta-analysis of others’ global leadership competency research (see Table 3 and Appendix B.) When the global leadership competency definition was limited to a knowledge, skill or ability, Jokinen’s list of global leadership competencies was restricted into those that met this parameter. Thus, the previously defined competencies, which were actually personality traits, were defined as personality traits. This aligns the divided list of global leadership competencies and personality traits to the personality trait research described previously, which results in an improved framework for global leadership development.

In the remainder of this section, I summarize the research literature related to the personal attributes and competencies of global leaders, as well as the learning and

development methods employed in the learning and development of global leaders. In the next section, I outline this study's conceptual framework, which aligns this literature with specific talent management functions, effectively presenting a theory of global leadership development.

Global Leadership Personal Attributes

Research on the characteristics of global leaders suggests four primary personal attributes: personality, values, cultural background and corporate work experiences. The first, personality, is perhaps the hardest to change and develop, as well as the most difficult to assess during the recruiting and succession planning process. Not everyone has the ability to become a global leader, as some personal attributes are more nature than nurture (Noble, Ozkaragoz, Ritchie, Zhang, Belin, & Sparkes, 1998; Dainty, Mei-I, & Moore, 2005) or fixed at a young age (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). Personality is formed by hereditary, cultural, familial, and social interactions and is rather absolute (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). After completing a study of expatriate, prepatriate, and repatriate employees, Caligiuri and Di Santo (2001) concluded that “global leadership development programs may be ineffective if they are relying on global assignments to shape the personality-aspect of global competence” (p. 33). Nonetheless, assessing personality is difficult but valuable since it impacts the effectiveness of the GLD experience. In fact, a study of over two hundred global leaders found that leaders' personality (e.g. highly extroverted) influenced learning and development effectiveness more than the learning and development method influenced personality (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). For

example, motivation to learn has a relatively constant effect on an individual's development.

In order to assess personality, there is a common framework that many use. Both Digman (1990) and Goldberg (1990) discovered five personality traits that present a classification system that have been confirmed repeatedly through trait analyses across time, contexts, and cultures. The "Big Five" personality traits, as shown in Table 2, are: (1) extroversion; (2) agreeableness; (3) conscientiousness; (4) emotional stability; and (5) openness to experience (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The "Big Five" are stable forms of an individual's character from early childhood, and remain stable across many countries (Blaylock and Rees, 1984). However, even though the "Big Five" list is commonly used in research, there are still some perceptions that it is not complete. For example, some believe that some situational contexts promote executives with the introversion instead of extroversion personality trait.

Table 2
"Big Five" Personality Traits

Personality Trait	Description
Extroversion	Energy, positive emotions, and urgency; the tendency to seek stimulation in the company of others
Agreeableness	Compassionate and cooperative, rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others
Conscientiousness	Show self-discipline, act dutifully, aim for achievement; planned rather than spontaneous behavior
Emotionally Stable	Calm, free from persistent negative feelings (opposite of neuroticism)
Openness to Experience	Appreciation for adventure, curiosity, emotion, unusual ideas, variety of experience

Specifically important to global relations, research has highlighted three personality traits that determine behavior in cross-cultural interactions. *Openness to Experience* and *Extroversion* facilitate cross-cultural interactions necessary for effectiveness in global leadership activities (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). *Openness to Experience* provides individuals with an interest in engaging in new settings, developing curiosity, determining what is needed to adapt to new and unfamiliar situations, and more accepting of diverse cultures (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). For managers and leaders, *conscientiousness* is the personality dimension most related to job performance (Rice and Lindecamp, 1989).

Essentially, trait theory argues that that leaders are born, not made. Trait theory has more research completed on it over the past 100 years than any other leadership theory, and is simpler than many other leadership theories because it does not take into consideration followers or the situation (Northouse, 2004). Leadership trait theory limits itself to an individual attribute, and not an activity or outcome. This is helpful if one is assessing a leader and their traits for something like recruiting or succession planning. Practitioners commonly use personality assessments to assess if the candidate has the right personality trait profile fit for the leadership position based on a benchmark, which should lead to organizational effectiveness (Northouse, 2004). There are many more recent leadership theories than trait theory; yet research on traits impacting and influencing leadership remains common (Bryman, 1992) and should remain a part of the leadership discussion.

However, the major critique of the trait theory is that it does not include followers and the situation. Because of this difference, trait theory is contested in the academic literature. Instead of a personality trait being universal for all leaders in all contexts, critics argue that leadership is instead dependent on the situation and relationships with followers (Stogdill, 1948). Since Stogdill's research, leadership theories temporarily abandoned trait theory and instead emphasized the situational context (Bass, 2008). One competing theory, distributed leadership, focuses on a leader's work activity instead of their personal trait or characteristic. The distributed theory of leadership, based on concepts from distributed cognition and activity theory, emphasizes the social context integration with intelligent activity (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001). Thus, this social context consists of the triad of leaders, follower and the situation, indicating that each employee's leadership potential and degree of success is dependent upon the way a leader facilitates (Harris, 2008). While distributed leadership theory's triad adds the needed dimensions of follower and situation to the trait theory, this theory primarily gained traction and acceptance only in the field of education, not with business practitioners.

However, business practitioners adopted similar theories that looked beyond traits, including contingency, situational, transactional, and transformational leadership. Contingency and situational leadership theories are similar to distributed theory's inclusion of the "situation" dimension, as both of these state that the situational context moderates the relationship between the leader's personality traits and effectiveness (Dorfman, 1996), based on idiosyncratic competencies (Lokkesmoe, 2009). As the

situation changes, the effectiveness of a leader's combination of traits and behaviors changes (McLaurin, 2006). Similar to distributed theory's addition of the "followers" dimension, transactional leadership theory focuses on the dyadic leader-follower relationship (Yukl, 2002). Transformational leaders, sometimes interchanged with charismatic, strongly influence that same leader-follower relationship by encouraging organizational goals above an employee's self-interest (Yukl, 2002).

In the 30 years since the emergence of distributed, contingency, situational, transactional, and transformational leadership theories, researchers re-focused on trait theory. Yet, these researchers did not study trait theory by itself as before, but instead studied it in conjunction with the specific situational context that leaders operated since the research showed that the situational context impact on leadership is significant. A leader's trait's effectiveness is dependent upon the situation (Yukl, 2002), and this includes role and function (Bass, 2008). Advances in statistical analysis made leadership research possible that studied this interaction of personality traits and situational contexts (Bass, 2008). Thus, traits and situational contexts are integral parts to many modern leadership theories with learning and development applications (Bass, 2008).

In order for this research to address the current state of these competing and evolving leadership theories, I approached leadership from both a trait and a situational perspective. First, from a trait perspective, this research uses the commonly accepted and "Big Five" construct of personality traits as well as a list of global leadership competencies derived from a meta-analysis. This is because another critique of the trait theory is an endless multitude of lists of traits which are typically not grounded in reliable

research (Northouse, 2004); yet, the “Big Five” construct has been stable across a wide range of research studies. Thus, human resources practitioners continue to use the trait approach in making decisions at corporations.

Also, there is the criticism that because personality traits are relatively fixed psychological structures, then a company cannot teach and develop leaders (Northouse, 2004). The mindset that *leaders are born* should always be complemented with *leaders are made*. Acknowledging this, this research’s framework separates personality traits which cannot be developed and global leadership competencies that can be developed. As a result, learning and development practitioners use the competency approach in structuring development programs. Because leadership is learnable, companies invest in their employee’s leadership development in the expectation that it will improve the organization’s financial performance. These leadership development programs include formal training, developmental activities and self-help activities (Yukl, 2002), thus a company should implement a development program with multiple methods.

This research uses the trait approach as only one piece of understanding global leadership, while also asking about the personality traits’ importance variance depending on the situational context. Thus, from a situational perspective, this research addresses an employee’s situational context through company type, and their role and function through job function. This research design structure reflects the current state of an evolving leadership theory, summarized by the importance of one’s traits and competencies modified by the situational context, defined by company type and job function.

The second personal attribute, values, is easier to evaluate and develop than personality. These values include: moral appearance on one's surface, behavioral, hidden commitment to quality, life-long learning, and deep cognitive values (Robinson & Harvey, 2008). Learning and development does impact values more than personality, but competencies are still the easiest to change (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). The fundamental state of a leader's behavior is formed by values (Quinn, 2004), which subsequently determine one's effectiveness in that role. For example, the surface moral and behavioral values can unify or segregate a company, hidden commitment to quality and life-long learning drive the company's employee attitudes and activities, and deep cognitive values create individual and corporate behavioral systems (Robinson & Harvey, 2008).

The third personal attribute is the cultural background of the individual. It is important to identify one's cultural background as a personal attribute, because it impacts global leadership competencies, which are culturally bound (Eccher, 2001) and culturally contingent (House, 1998). When asked if competencies transfer across geographies and cultures, 83% surveyed said yes, yet only 28% confidently predict local effectiveness is transferable internationally (Bell, 2006, p. 11). This personal attribute is created by one's cultural background, such as: parents, religion, educational institutions, media, language, ethnic background, cultural traditions, values, ideologies, norms, history, political systems, family importance, relatives' health, and sexual orientation (Black & Gregersen, 2000; Vloeberghs & MacFarlane, 2007). Cultural background includes values and practices that are predictive of the culturally effective leadership styles (House & Javidan, 2002), expectations of leaders and followers (Lokkesmoe, 2009), and leadership

variables, such as relationships, short-term profits, hierarchies, ethics, and risk (Morrison, 2000). Laurent (1983) researched 817 managers from ten Western countries and found that a country's culture had a significant impact on the managerial perspectives, manager's role in organizations and society. Leadership theories developed in the U.S. are probably more easily generalizable to other western countries, as the homogeneity of country grouping determines the complexity of cross-national negotiations, mergers, assignments, and leadership (House & Javidan, 2002). For the purposes of this dissertation, because cultural background impacts global leadership competencies, I will focus only on international, multinational and global companies with headquarters based in a western country..

The final personal attribute is corporate work experience. Similar to cultural background, this personal attribute is not innate, but an aggregated influence from corporate work experiences. Global leaders' personal attributes are partially a reflection of influence of the corporate cultures in which they have worked, which in turn is influenced by societal culture (House & Javidan, 2002). While cultural background influences the dominant cultural values, beliefs, assumptions, the implicit motives result in common implicit leadership practices. A company's founders influence the corporate form, culture, and practices (House & Javidan, 2002), as well as the behavior of subordinate leaders by use of selective management selection criteria, role modeling, and socialization (Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990). The established corporate culture influences subsequent leaders, who continue to influence the corporate culture with the accepted leadership style (Lokkesmoe, 2009). Finally, some corporate work experiences

provide more global experience, which is a critical part of the corporate work experience personal attribute. In fact, lacking long-term strategic considerations, GLD programs are weak overall as they neglect one's previous global working experience (Shen, 2005). Thus, as one's personal attributes of personality, values and cultural background are largely shaped when a youth, the corporate work experience is shaped when in the workforce.

Global Leadership Competencies

While there is a lack of empirical studies on the effectiveness of global learning and development programs, there has been a considerable effort to identify the global leadership competencies that can be learned as well as the most effective learning and development methods for learning them (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). In her review of 30 studies of global leadership, Tiina Jokinen (2005) presented a comprehensive and integrative framework of 13 global leadership competencies. For the purposes of this study, I aligned an additional 34 research papers to this framework, in an attempt to build more consensus (Appendix A: Global Leadership Competency Meta-Analysis Table.) However, Jokinen and other scholars use the term "competency" to refer to both the personality traits and KSA's (Knowledge, Skill, Abilities) of global leaders. Because this study adopts a more narrow definition, 7 of Jokinen's 13 global leadership competencies were reclassified as one of the "Big Five" personality traits (Table 2). Jokinen's global leadership competencies that were reclassified as personality traits include: social skills, empathy, cognitive skills, optimism, motivation to work in international environment, acceptance of complexity and its contradictions, and inquisitiveness.

With the above seven previously identified global leadership competencies actually mapping to personality traits, only six global leadership competencies remain from Jokinen's integrative framework: engagement in personal transformation, knowledge, networking skills, social judgment skills, self awareness, and self regulation. Again, global leadership competencies can be learned or enhanced (Lokkesmoe, 2009), but personality traits cannot change as easily. Other research supports this perspective, as Tubbs and Schulz (2006) identified 50 global leadership competencies, clumped into 7 meta-competencies; which is probably too many for any manager to focus on. However, Tubbs also stratified the competencies into those that were more hard-wired, such as personal attributes, versus those that could be impacted the most through development investment, which are competencies (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). Below (Table 3) are the six remaining global leadership competencies, which I defined using the meta-analysis table (Appendix A.) These competencies may be impacted through learning and development methods, organized by KSA: knowledge (engagement in personal transformation, knowledge), skills (networking skills, social judgment skills), and abilities (self awareness, self regulation).

First, global leaders are able to *engage in personal transformation*. Brake (1997), using research combined with consulting, identified global leaders as those who "drive" to stay up to date since they are committed to the ongoing development of personal knowledge and skills. This aligns with the work of Bueno and Tubbs (2004), who used interviews for data collection, and Caligiuri & Tarique (2009) who describe global leaders having motivation to learn and self-development respectively. This competency is

defined as *the knowledge to commit to ongoing development of personal knowledge, skills and abilities.*

Table 3
The Global Leadership Competencies

Global Leadership Competency	Description
Engagement in Personal Transformation	The knowledge to commit to ongoing development of personal knowledge, skills and abilities
Knowledge	Cosmopolitan savvy needed to perform business literacy (structural, technical, political, systems, standards, issues, and opportunities) , while also understanding the local tension.
Networking Skills	The skill to create and maintain relationships on an organizational level
Social Judgment Skills	The skill to have a big picture and long-term orientation (cause-effect, interdependencies, consequences) considering multiple constituents' perspective
Self Awareness	The ability to have self-confidence, reliance, and insight, as well as social and cultural awareness
Self Regulation	The ability to control impulses, maintain integrity and remain flexible as one adapts to new situations

Second, global leaders are able to display the requisite job *knowledge*. While every job requires knowledge and global leaders are expected to have that specific functional knowledge, there is additional knowledge required for their role as a global leader. Black, Morrison, and Gregersen, (1999) notes that global leaders need to recognize business opportunities around the world, including business systems, international marketing, global finance, and global standards. Caliguiri and de Santo (2001) discovered that global leaders need knowledge of international business issues. Rosen and Digh (2001), using surveys, summarize this as the need for global leaders to have global literacy. Of course, this requires global business savvy (Osland & Bird,

2008). Yet, Rhinesmith (1996) also highlight the need for global leaders to balance global versus local tensions. This competency is defined as *the cosmopolitan savvy needed to perform business literacy (structural, technical, political, systems, standards, issues, and opportunities), while also understanding the local tension.*

Third, global leaders are able to demonstrate *networking skills*. Brake (1997) found that global leaders build community, connections, partnerships and alliances. Sinclair and Agyeman (2005) note that global leaders work effectively across a range of stakeholder groups, and Jordan and Cartwright (1998) concur, writing that global leaders build relationships and link capabilities and activities globally. This competency is defined as *the skill to create and maintain relationships on an organizational level.*

Fourth, global leaders are able to use *social judgment skills*. Rhinesmith (1996) highlights that global leaders should drive for a broader picture, while Talkington (2001) calls for having a global perspective and scale, and May (1997) refers to this as a helicopter view, which is the ability to stand back and have the big picture. Moran and Riesenberger (1994), Srinivas (1995) and May (1997) state that global leaders need to have a long-term orientation. This includes the ability to understand cause-effect chain reactions (Srinivas, 1995; Moran and Riesenberger, 1994), global interdependencies (Brake, 1997), and downstream consequences (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000). In addition to this, global leaders need to have an awareness of different constituents (Brake, 1997; Mumford et al., 2000). This competency is defined as *the skill to have a big picture and long-term orientation (cause-effect, interdependencies, consequences) considering multiple constituents' perspective.*

Fifth, global leaders are able to be *self-aware*. Goleman (1998) summarizes this argument that global leaders need to have self regulation and social awareness, and Kho (2001) concurs with the needs for self awareness and self-confidence. Peterson (2004) adds to this, writing that global leaders should have cultural self awareness and self-reliance. Spreitzer, McCall, and Mahoney (1997) go broader when describing global leaders as those with confidence in one's abilities, courage to take a stand, openness, self-confidence, self-insight, and values diversity. This competency is defined as *the ability to have self-confidence, reliance and insight to regulate the self with social and cultural awareness*.

And sixth, global leaders are able to *self-regulate*. Global leaders need to think before acting (Goleman, 1998) so that they know when to act and when to gather more information (Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998). Mumford et al. (2000) explains that global leaders respond to social setting dynamics, providing adaptive capacity and behavioral flexibility. The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM, 2002) concurred, indicating that global leaders needed flexibility and adaptability to different situations. This competency is defined as *the ability to control impulses and remain flexible as one adapts to new situations*.

Global Leadership Learning and Development Methods

Once a company identifies the competencies critical to performance, the next step is to design and provide learning and development opportunities aligned with those competencies. As shown in Table 4, the literature suggests that six learning and development methods are most common in global leadership development: expatriate

assignment, global teams, experiential learning, coaching, intercultural training, assessments and reflection.

Table 4
Learning and Development Methods

	Learning and Development Method	Description
High Contact	Expatriate Assignment	An international work assignment requiring an employee to temporarily move to another country for at least six months
	Global Teams	An on-going work-based group or temporary development activity group, whose members reside in different countries, organized around a specific work task
	Experiential Learning	A structured experience with learning objectives, including activities like simulations, case studies, and role playing
	Coaching	A relationship with an individual providing accountability and development in hopes for behavior change
Low Contact	Intercultural Training	A formal training around similar and different world cultures
	Assessment	An objective analysis (self-assessment, 360 degree feedback, performance reviews, assessment centers) of one's competency proficiency
	Reflection	A specific time set aside for processing, implementing and retaining lessons learned

While the literature on GLD program effectiveness is somewhat limited, research indicates that more experiential and high contact learning and development methods are more likely to change behavior, and more likely to be seen as effective or relevant, than didactic / low contact developmental experiences (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). High-contact GLD learning and development methods have a stronger correlation with

effectiveness in global leadership activities ($r = .35, p < .01$). These include: structured and rotational leadership development program, short-term expatriate assignment, long-term (one or more years) expatriate assignments, global meetings in various international locations, membership on a global team, and mentoring by a person from another culture (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). Low-contact GLD learning and development methods, with an effectiveness ($r = .20, p < .01$), includes: formal university coursework, cross-cultural training program(s), psychological assessments, assessment centers for leadership development, diversity training programs, and language training programs (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). Per Table 4, the first four of these are more experiential and high contact; whereas the last three are more didactic and low contact.

The first high contact learning and development method is expatriate assignment. For the purposes of this dissertation, the definition of expatriate assignment is *an international work assignment requiring an employee to temporarily move to another country for at least six months*. Jack Welch, who noted in a speech to GE employees in 2001 that: “the Jack Welch of the future cannot be me. I spent my entire career in the United States. The next head of General Electric will be somebody who spent time in Bombay, in Hong Kong, in Buenos Aires. We have to send our best and brightest overseas and make sure they have the training that will allow them to be the global leaders who will make GE flourish in the future” (House & Javidan, 2002, p. 1). John Pepper, the former Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and current Chairman of the Board (COB) of Procter and Gamble (P&G), said, “of all the career changes that I have had, the international assignment was the most important and developmental. It changed me as a

person” (Bingham, Felin, & Black, 2000, p. 287). He went on to say that expatriate assignments help leaders see that it is not the same in every country and that awareness is critical for global leadership, as are the other benefits, including: appreciation for diversity, understanding new viewpoints, experiencing new cultures, and establishing new paradigms for business and life (Bingham, Felin, & Black, 2000).

Research agreed with both of these, indicating that an international assignment or expatriation is most effective in developing global leadership competencies (Vloeberghs & Macfarlane, 2007). In Vloeberghs & Macfarlane’s 2007 survey, all respondents identified international assignments as the most important and primary dimension of GLD. Most organizations believe the high cost involved in providing international work opportunities is a worthwhile investment (Sparrow, Harris, & Brewster, 2004) to develop cultural intelligence (Alon & Higgins, 2005); yet, these escalating costs are becoming more of an issue for companies. To effectively develop global leaders, HR needs to leverage international assignments in a systematic and comprehensive manner with a strategic and long-term organizational perspective (Kho, 2001), including an integration with succession planning (Vloeberghs & Macfarlane, 2007). Some organizations even require two to three years of expatriate assignment for promotion (Vloeberghs & Macfarlane, 2007).

In addition to companies investing in expatriate assignments for development and succession planning, HR can also align GLD to the global organization design (Novicevic & Harvey, 2004). For example, Hewlett-Packard focuses on developing global leaders on account management teams that understand the global mindset of the

firm when customizing offerings for individual country markets (Novicevic & Harvey, 2004). Colgate-Palmolive provided executives with rotating and complementary experiences and assignments to develop their global leadership competencies. They balance cross-over experiences in businesses, geographies, and functions; such as mature and volatile economies, developed and subsidiary, corporate and line operating experiences (“Colgate-Palmolive”, 2004).

However, not all expatriate assignments are successful. In fact, there are many considerations before investing in an expensive expatriate assignment learning and development method. Because of this, other learning and development methods should be considered in developing global leadership competencies. Also, instead of organizations having broad assumptions on expatriate assignments, they should ask:

- How can an international assignment be successful in developing global leadership competencies?
- What makes some international assignments more successful than others in developing global leadership competencies?
- What are the competencies assignees develop during an international assignment that make them better prepared for a global leadership role?
- How can organizations construct international assignments to accelerate or deepen the development of competencies?
- How do the pre-existing competencies of the individual influence how successful an assignment is in developing their global leadership competence?
- How do some candidates possess the competence for global leadership without having the experience of an international assignment?

- What other learning and development methods instead of expatriate assignments would be effective in developing global leadership competencies? (Vloeberghs & Macfarlane, 2007)

Upon completion of the expatriation experience, repatriation, a follow-up activity, assists in the internalization of the learning and sharing the knowledge across the business (Novicevic & Harvey, 2004). As an example, Coca-Cola assesses performance impact and global mindset development before repatriation (Novicevic & Harvey, 2004).

There are limitations to the assumptions of this high contact learning and development method's impact, as an expatriate experience does not guarantee global leadership competency development (Vloeberghs & Macfarlane, 2007), as well as the difference between adjusting to a local culture instead of handling global strategy. Some expatriation experiences are more successful at developing global leadership competencies than others, based on matching the assignment to individual competency profile, moving assignees from less to more demanding assignments, pre-departure training in cultural values and norms, knowledge of the foreign country, behavioral skills, language training, orientation trips, and ongoing coaching and mentoring (Vloeberghs & Macfarlane, 2007).

There is also a high failure rate of expatriate assignments. There is a negative correlation between a company's selection and development functions' effectiveness, and its expatriate failure rate (Shen, 2005). The use of more rigorous training programs could significantly improve the expatriate's performance in an overseas environment, thus minimizing the incidence of failure. Also affecting expatriate assignments, family

impediments to mobility include: two-income families, aging parents, and school-age children (Schein & Kramer, 2005). Because there is sometimes an inability during an expatriate assignment to adjust to the foreign environment, between 16% and 40% end early and almost 50% of those who remain perform at a low level of effectiveness (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). An older research study provided a staggering financial number that is surely higher today, as Copeland and Griggs (1985) have estimated that the direct costs to U.S. firms of failed expatriate assignments is over \$2 billion a year, and this does not include unmeasured losses such as damaged corporate reputations or lost business opportunities (Black & Mendenhall, 1990).

One way to counter this failure rate is preparing the leader for the adjustment to a foreign environment, which should help in his/her own development of a global leader mindset (Sanchez, Spector, & Cooper, 2000). Gillette provided expatriate employees corporate planning and strategy formulation prior to their move (Sicilia, 1998). Most expatriate assignment research has the organization perspective rather than the individual. Because of this, not as much is known about the GLD processes, how such learning takes place during an expatriate assignment and whether alternative development deliveries may create the same outcomes (Vloeberghs & Macfarlane, 2007). Because of this and the logistical, fiscal, and organizational constraints which limit the number of expatriate assignments, short-term international travel assignments may provide a suitable alternative without the limitations (Oddou, Mendenhall, & Bonner Ritchie, 2000).

Because expatriate assignments have many constraints as the learning and development method, there is another high contact method, global teams, that does not have many of these same constraints. For the purposes of this dissertation, the definition of global teams is *an on-going work-based group or temporary development activity group, whose members reside in different countries, organized around a specific work task.*

Two variables with global teams that impact their global leadership competency development are a) the time duration, and b) the primary purpose. Senge has long said that an effective design for organizational learning is the team (1990), and the well-managed global team both contributes to organizational success as well as develops the company's future global leaders' knowledge and skills through an exceptionally rich context (Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000). These authors went on to write, "recent research has begun to identify the processes key to effectiveness in multi-culturally and multi-nationally distributed teams. While most empirical studies and tests have taken place in controlled settings, such as business schools, the lessons are being implemented in organizations with positive results" (p.197). Depending on the variables of time duration and primary purpose, a global team experience usually includes education, various meeting locations, remote communication, and team presentation to the senior leadership sponsors (Schein & Kramer, 2005).

One of the reasons global teams are effective as a GLD learning and development method is because it is a commonly used business requirement for today's market. Global companies need leaders who can lead multicultural and cross-functional teams effectively

(Black & Gregersen, 2000). The value of global teams as a development technique is that it incorporates learning, managing relationships, managing uncertainty, and making decisions (Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000). Global teams address real business issues with global scope, requiring a vast amount and breadth of information and skills (Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000), which is a critical development experience (Schein & Kramer, 2005) improving behavioral skills through observation, practice, and feedback. For highly complex and important tasks, global teams require managing member differences both face-to-face and across geographic distances through interactions that are frequent and intense in order to resolve problems and make decisions (Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000).

Global teams have the potential to develop multiple global leadership competencies due to the experiences that the variety of exercises that it provides. Global team leadership has evolved into a network facilitator of knowledge, skills and expertise instead of a traditional monitoring and reporting (Harvey, Novicevic, & Speier, 1999b). Global teams leverage a broad spectrum of people, functions, and business knowledge in order to assess different perspectives, make and implement decisions, and obtain feedback (formally or informally) about the quality of their decisions and knowledge, thus completing the learning cycle of generating knowledge effectively (Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000). Global teams develop and implement plans and solutions, requiring leaders to share the business knowledge they hold; thereby turning tacit knowledge into more explicit knowledge through sharing and accessing (Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000).

The performance of a global leader candidate in a global team learning and development method impacts not only their development, but also their career path.

Global team leaders' career development requires developing global leadership competencies, while successfully completing strategic projects (Novicevic & Harvey, 2004). An example of the primary purpose being a work task, The Body Shop, where "matrixed working and high degrees of collaboration facilitate formal and informal engagement with other global leaders in the development of operational plans and new developments" (Sinclair & Agyeman, 2005, p. 6). As an example of a global team with a primary objective of development, Motorola's HR division is now able to predict their global *Business Challenge* teams' transfer of learning based on the teams that stick to their action plan and use the training concepts and tools (Foxon, 1998). GLD participants' learning depends on how well their teams function, which is dependent on HR facilitating corporate support for the program (Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000). In summary, global team participation is a viable learning and development method.

In addition to expatriate assignment and global teams, another high contact learning and development method is experiential learning. For the purposes of this dissertation, the definition of experiential learning is *a structured experience with learning objectives, including activities like simulations, case studies, and role playing*. Global leadership competencies are not developed in a vacuum, but instead "learning by doing" (Neary & O'Grady, 2000, p. 189). In the absence of expatriate assignments, simulated or real global projects involving culturally diverse students are effective (Dainty, Mei-I, & Moore, 2005). Bell (2006) found that most focus on formal training and learning, yet experiences are the most relevant in GLD. Adults learn most effectively

when the learning is embedded in meaningful experiences (Kolb, 1983). Experiential learning is often more effective than traditional classroom work (Earley, 1987).

The experiential learning and development method can be accomplished several different ways. Bass's (2008) leadership handbook recommends experiential learning activities such as role playing, case studies, active problem solving exercises, and simulations; as well as feedback and extensive self-reflection. PriceWaterHouseCoopers allows career breaks to undertake a Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) project in the developing world (Vloeberghs & Macfarlane, 2007); whereas UBS assigns social welfare projects within their own country to expose employees to sub-cultures and to develop global leadership competencies (Mendenhall and Stahl, 2000).

However, the challenge to experiential learning is the balancing of job requirements and development (Sinclair & Agyeman, 2005). Motorola found that "ad-hoc team members whose day to day job does not fit well with the Business Challenge do not experience the same support, resources or consequences as their full time counterparts" (Foxon, 1998, p. 10), and thus did not receive the same value from the experiential learning. This could be why their experiential learning was perceived as less helpful (one third of the respondents identified it as valuable) than the training in developing leadership skills (Foxon, 1998).

The final high contact learning and development method is coaching. For the purposes of this dissertation, the definition of coaching is *a relationship with an individual providing accountability and development in hopes for behavior change*. Conger (2004) said that successful work performance can be attributed to experience and

coaching, rather than simply to in-born talent or early-life experiences. Adding to this, Schuler (2007) confirms that leaders are accountable for developing competencies through global experiences and responsibilities, while assessing and compensating results. GLD is most effective with continual practice in a relevant context, on impact of the behavior, and observations of behavior modeling (Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000).

Practitioners use coaching as a learning and development method at many companies. Colgate-Palmolive leverages a variety of executive coaches to develop global leaders; which range from psychoanalytically trained to business professionals (“Colgate-Palmolive”, 2004). Executives develop Maple Leaf Foods’ global leadership competencies through face-to-face fireside chats at Maple Leaf Leadership Academy (Gandz, 2000). TRW’s one-on-one coaching with a trained facilitator leverages both a 360 degree feedback and a self-assessment, resulting in a personal development plan with specific goals for improvement (Neary & O’Grady, 2000).

The first low contact learning and development method is intercultural training. For the purposes of this dissertation, the definition of intercultural training is *formal training around similar and different world cultures*. Addressing the cultural background impact on global leadership, many companies provide intercultural training. Significant intercultural experiences as a child or young adult can help prepare effective future global leaders by developing intercultural competence through learning the behaviors, values and assumptions of different cultures (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). Intercultural research, based on sound theory and large-scale samples of a large number of cultures, can assist leaders in developing insights when facing global challenges (House & Javidan, 2002).

Research confirms that organizations offering intercultural leadership development experiences have a positive trajectory of growth (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). Research also identified cross-cultural differences as a reason that negotiations between businessmen of different cultures often fail (Black & Mendenhall, 1990).

Before investing in intercultural training learning and development method, a company should assess both (1) their global leaders' candidates, as well as (2) the similarities and differences between cultural backgrounds. First, companies should assess leaders with the requisite individual attributes before investing in their GLD, since intercultural leadership development experiences do not benefit everyone equally (Suutari, 2002). Second, companies need to assess the degree of difference between countries' cultural backgrounds, as this impacts how similar or different their companies' cultures are (Lokkesmoe, 2009). Intercultural training, based on studies of cultural similarities and differences, highlights how intercultural perspectives influence global leadership; recognizing how different worldviews impact a person's actions and reactions. One specific program had participants assess significant differences in managing cross-cultural situations, and then develop behavior-oriented leadership styles with influencing skills across cultures in order to utilize these in global business (Caligiuri, 2006). However, cultural background similarities can be grouped into "cultural clusters", or a group of countries that share many similarities (House & Javidan, 2002). Cultural clusters facilitate the identification of the extent, nature, and dynamics of cultural similarities and differences across the globe (House & Javidan, 2002).

As with other areas of research, an *intelligence* has been assigned to assess the impact of intercultural training, which is cultural intelligence. For global leaders to succeed, emotional intelligence (EQ), analytical intelligence (IQ), and leadership behaviors must be tempered by cultural intelligence (CQ) (Alon & Higgins, 2005). CQ describes how a global leader should be culturally sensitive (Lokkesmoe, 2009). Definitions of cultural intelligence include: “the ability to engage in a set of behaviors that uses skills (i.e. language or interpersonal skills) and qualities (e.g. tolerance for ambiguity, flexibility) that are tuned appropriately to the culture-based values and attitudes of the people with whom one interacts” (Peterson, 2004, p. 89); and “a person’s capability for successful adaptation to new cultural settings attributable to cultural context” (Earley & Ang, 2003, p.9). Peterson (2004) states, “in an increasingly accessible world, cultures play a bigger, not a smaller role in business. Cultural intelligence becomes more important, not less important” (p. 84).

The second low contact learning and development method is assessment. For the purposes of this dissertation, the definition of assessment is *an objective analysis (self-assessment, 360 degree feedback, performance reviews, assessment centers) of one’s competency proficiency*. GLD needs to be experiential, reflective, developmental, and part of ongoing assessment (Lokkesmoe, 2009). Some researchers recommend that leadership development incorporate a three-part model: assessment, education, and experience. The assessment facilitates targeted education to meet leader’s development needs (Alon & Higgins, 2005). As an example, to focus on performance leadership, The Body Shop implemented a rigorous strategic and objective-based assessment process on

not only the high potentials, but also the critical business needs with potential. The assessment results are reviewed by the executive team in order to determine who will receive further development investment (Sinclair & Agyeman, 2005).

There are numerous types and offerings for global leadership assessments. In order for leaders to understand current competency and areas for development, The Center for Creative Leadership's recommendation is a full range of assessments: self-assessment, computer assessments, and colleague feedback (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004). The Global Executive Leadership Inventory (GELI) is both a self-assessment and a 360-degree assessment, focusing on twelve competencies (Kets de Vries, Vriegnaud, & Florent-Treacy, 2004). Yet, there are "numerous commercial global leadership assessments that are available for which there is scant, if any, research literature" (Osland & Bird, 2008).

The final low contact learning and development method is reflection. For the purposes of this dissertation, the definition of reflection is a *specific time set aside for processing, implementing and retaining lessons learned*. In addition to being experientially based, reflection is a key practice at each stage of development (Black & Gregersen, 2000) in order to continually learn about oneself and one's cultural idiosyncrasies (Lokkesmoe, 2009). *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development* (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004) and Avolio and Luthan's (2006) *The High Impact Leader* both recommend experiential learning and reflection (Lokkesmoe, 2009). Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan, and Robertson's (2004) book has reflective exercises and practical suggestions in each section to help develop the specific

global leadership competency. There is a need for reinforcing learning from experiential experiences through time for a reflection; however, 63% of learning designs do not have reflection as part of the program (Bell, 2006).

Together, the research on global leadership attributes, competencies, and learning and development methods has significant implications for global leadership development programs. However, two critical gaps remain in the literature. First, while the literature on global leadership competencies notes that they are culturally contingent, there has been no research focusing on which personality traits and global leadership competencies may be more universal in nature and which may be more idiosyncratic. Second, while the research offers guidance about what global leaders need to learn (competencies), we know very little about which learning and development methods are best suited to which competencies. The proposed study focuses specifically on these two areas. The following section outlines the study's conceptual framework, aligning global leadership personal attributes, competencies, and learning and development methods with specific HR functions, and locating the study's research questions within this framework.

Global Leadership Development Conceptual Framework

Due to this increased global competition and global leadership shortage, as well as the research that links organizational success to leadership development, HR needs to better integrate multiple talent management functions in order to effectively design and implement a GLD program. A GLD program requires alignment and integration of the talent management functions that it impacts: recruiting, succession planning, career development, and learning and development. The holy grail of HR's talent management

is a systematic, comprehensive solution integrating recruiting and succession planning, career development, and continuous learning and development (Black & Gregersen, 2000; “Colgate-Palmolive”, 2004) in order to attract, identify, select, develop and retain the pipeline of high-performance, high-potential future global leadership talent (Schein & Kramer, 2005; Shen, 2005).

Colgate-Palmolive’s success in developing global leadership has focused on recruiting potential talent, identifying global competencies, and designing learning and development methods for global leadership competencies (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). Hence, the three talent management functions that are part of GLD include: recruiting and succession planning, career development, and learning and development. We must understand the integration of talent management functions, the traits required to facilitate these functions, and the elements that each trait leverages. This is captured in Figure 1, the GLD conceptual framework. There is a large gap between GLD theory and how companies practice it in reality (Shen, 2005).

The GLD process begins with recruiting and succession planning, when HR assesses business talent needs based on the global leadership personal attributes, and then develops the leadership pipeline to compete globally (Black & Gregersen, 2000). Thus, the personal attributes trait, with elements including personality, values, cultural background and corporate work experience, is one trait that a company can use for their recruiting and succession planning.

Next, for HR’s career development talent management function, as well as the subsequent talent management functions of learning and development, a company needs

global leadership competencies. This is the responsibility of a company's HR department since they are responsible for providing the advice, traits, competencies, programs and processes to support the successful development of global leaders and the resulting globalization of the broader organization. Building and maintaining global leadership competencies is a valuable and important step in implementing a global leadership development program (Tubbs & Jablow, 2009), and because of this, Bonnstetter (2000) wrote, "as organizations chart and navigate their courses, the interest in global leadership competency is quickly becoming a necessity" (p. 132). Because an effective GLD program is not an event, a company should not wait to develop global leaders as an event upon promotion; instead, it should strategically select global leader candidates early in career development as part of an ongoing process (McCall, 2004) of a greater developmental career path (Gregersen & Black, 1995). This is supported by research that found that global leadership competencies develop over a long period of time (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000), and that GLD is a non-linear process where competency development change comes through various experiences (Osland & Bird, 2006), and should apply to all levels of employees (Bergman, Hurson & Russ-Eft, 1999).

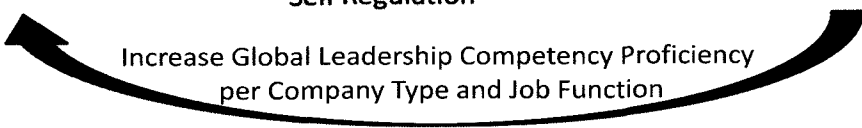
Finally, HR's talent management function of learning and development should align effective learning and development methods per each global leadership competency. These learning and development methods include: expatriate assignment, global teams, coaching, intercultural training, assessment and reflection.

The goal of this conceptual framework is to provide the structure to companies to develop global leadership, which we previously defined as, "*an international,*

multinational or global company's manager or executive's ability to motivate, influence and enable individuals across national boundaries and cultural diversity to contribute to the accomplishment of a company's goals." At one level, this framework may be perceived moving left to right similar to an employee lifecycle, as an individual moves from being a global leader candidate to a global leader. However, the framework also represents GLD as an iterative process in which a global leader continues to develop through different experiences with company types and job functions, and never completes the process of GLD. With the global leadership competencies providing a continuum of proficiency instead of a dichotomy, this provides opportunities for continual learning and development progress based on accumulated experience and knowledge through the different learning and development methods (Beck and Cowan, 1996). Because of this research, this dissertation proposes global leadership competencies that would be an iterative development process as people increase their proficiency throughout their career, highlighted in the conceptual framework by an arrow going back from learning and development to recruiting and succession planning (Figure 1.)

The conceptual framework effectively shows the relationships between personal attributes, global leadership competencies and learning and development methods, and aligns each with specific talent management functions. As such, it lays the foundation for a theory of global leadership development. For such a theory to be more fully developed however, three critical sets of relationships must be further explored.

Talent Management Function	Recruiting, Succession Planning	Career Development	Learning & Development
Factor	Personal Attributes	Global Leadership Competencies	Learning and Development Methods
Elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Personality Traits •Values •Cultural Background •Corporate Work Experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Engagement in Personal Transformation •Knowledge •Networking Skills •Social Judgment Skills •Self Awareness •Self Regulation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Expatriate Assignment •Global Teams •Experiential Learning •Coaching •Intercultural Training •Assessment •Reflection



 Increase Global Leadership Competency Proficiency per Company Type and Job Function

Figure 1
Global Leadership Development Conceptual Framework

First, there is almost no research about which personality traits are most important for a global leader, specifically relating to the company type and job function. Thus, the proposed research will enhance global leadership personality traits by identifying which ones are universal across company type and job function, and which ones are idiosyncratic based on the situation.

Second and again similar to the first, while there is a reasonably good body of literature focused on the competencies of global leaders, there is almost no research about which competencies are most important in which contexts, specifically the company type and job function. Companies struggle identifying a list of global leadership competencies that is comprehensiveness, resulting in complexity, difficulty in assessing, and inefficiency (Morrison, 2000). Research has shown competency models with a maximum of 6 are easier to assess, after which it becomes less manageable for the practitioners

(Dive, 2005; Alon & Higgins, 2005). In order to be efficient, it is important to identify which global leadership competencies are universal and which are idiosyncratic per company type and job function. A global leadership model divides universal and idiosyncratic competencies (Triandis, 1993), such as 2/3 universal and 1/3 idiosyncratic (Black, Morrison, & Gregersen, 1999), or universal demands (understanding the many culture levels) and idiosyncratic demands (external business environment context) (Digh, Rosen, Phillips, & Singer, 2000). However, only 23% of surveyed companies are implementing idiosyncratic competency models that vary by situation (Bell, 2006). From this research, it becomes much clearer that HR professionals must develop within their own companies unifying competency-based models of global leadership that contain both idiosyncratic and universal components (Morrison, 2000). The proposed research will enhance global leadership competencies by identifying universal competencies that are required regardless of the company type or the job function, as well as idiosyncratic competencies necessary because every situation is a unique context (Morrison, 2000). Idiosyncratic competencies are specific to the context, such as company type and job function (Morrison, 2000). The idea of idiosyncratic competencies is from long-standing research on situational leadership. In support of situational leadership theory and contingency theory, the circumstances attribute great importance to the situational context in which certain people rise to leadership. Idiosyncratic competencies can identify the right leader for the specific corporate strategy being implemented, based upon Fiedler's contingency theory of 1967 (Lokkesmoe, 2009). This states that the leader's context of situation moderates the relationship between the leader's personality

traits and effectiveness (Dorfman, 1996). Company type and job function could impact global leadership idiosyncratic competencies, because leaders adjust their behaviors to meet the situation requirements (House & Javidan, 2002), yet they will have varying degrees of impact on the global leadership competencies (Morrison, 2000). Opposite of an idiosyncratic competency is a universal competency, which can transfer across a company type and job function. Going further, despite country cultural differences, GLOBE states that some global leadership competencies are near universally accepted and effective (House & Javidan, 2002).

Third, while the research suggests that high-contact learning and development methods may be more effective than low-contact ones, there is little research about which learning and development methods are most effective in developing each global leadership competency. Each of the 7 learning and development methods should vary in effectiveness in developing the 6 global leadership competencies, which are very diverse considering that there are 2 competencies per knowledge, skill and ability. Each global leadership competency determines the GLD learning and development method (Bueno & Tubbs, 2004), as practitioners use this to continually attempt making the leadership development process more efficient (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). Morrison (2005) argued that:

Substantially more research is also needed to understand the linkages between global leadership competencies and the processes for developing global leaders. How can individuals who are weak in one or more competency more efficiently and effectively bridge the competency gaps? Which of the range of leadership development tools works best in bridging specific competency gaps? How can companies develop more precision in identifying specific competency

deficiencies and how can they organize individual developmental programs for maximum impact? (p. 129)

Leveraging multiple learning and development methods that reinforce each other is an effective technique to develop a company's global leaders (Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000). A GLD program should offer multiple learning and development methods, since research shows people learn different global leadership competencies from different learning and development methods (Morgan, Lombardo, and Morrison, 1988). The Conference Board's 2005 Global Leadership Trends Survey Report indicated that majority of the companies surveyed (62 out of 81 companies) leverage multiple learning and development methods for their GLD (Kramer, 2005). This being said, the global leadership program needs to have an integrated structure to the various learning and development methods (Lokkesmoe, 2009).

Research Questions

The situational context determines the prioritization of the global leadership competencies, and companies need processes to identify and develop their future global leadership per each of these situations (Schein & Kramer, 2005; Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). To summarize the global leadership conceptual framework presented above, the recruiting and succession planning talent management function relies on the personal attributes trait, with elements including: personality, values, cultural background and corporate work experience. Again, the rationale for focusing the research only on personality traits is that (1) there is a more well-established construct, "The Big Five", for this personal attribute, and (2) this is the personal attribute that some researchers include

within competencies. Thus, the first research question will assess which global leadership personality traits are perceived to be universal or idiosyncratic based on the situational context. Afterwards, for the career development talent management function, global leadership competencies are the component. The global leadership competencies include: knowledge (engagement in personal transformation, knowledge), skills (networking skills, social judgment skills), and abilities (self awareness, self regulation). Similar, the second research question will review, based on situational context, which global leadership competencies are perceived to be universal or idiosyncratic based on company type and job function.

Third, due to the evolving leadership theories away from trait theory and now incorporating trait theory in situational theory, this research will assess the practitioners' perspective on the importance of personality traits. Because there is overlap and confusion among practitioners and researchers between personality traits and competencies, these two will be compared. So the third research question will assess if global leadership development practitioners perceive personality traits or global leadership competencies more important in contributing to and facilitating global leadership effectiveness.

Fourth, the talent management function learning and development has several delivery methods. These learning and development methods include: expatriate assignment, global teams, coaching, intercultural training, assessment and reflection. Finally, the fourth research question will connect which learning and development

methods are perceived to be most effective in developing each global leadership competency.

Based on this, the research questions that I ask in this dissertation focus on the GLD program, specifically the global leadership personality traits used for recruiting and succession planning, the global leadership competencies used for the career development, as well as the learning and development methods used for the learning and development.

1. How do global leadership development practitioners' perceptions of global leadership personality traits' importance vary by company type and job function?
 - a. Which personality traits are universal or idiosyncratic per company type?
 - b. Which personality traits are universal or idiosyncratic per job function?
2. How do global leadership development practitioners' perceptions of global leadership competencies' importance vary by company type and job function?
 - a. Which global leadership competencies are universal or idiosyncratic per company type?
 - b. Which global leadership competencies are universal or idiosyncratic per job function?
3. Do global leadership development practitioners perceive personality traits or global leadership competencies more important in contributing to and facilitating global leadership effectiveness?
4. Which learning and development methods do global leadership development practitioners consider most effective for developing each global leadership competency?

Chapter 3

RESEARCH METHODS

An online survey collected exploratory data from international, multinational and global companies to answer the following research questions:

1. *How do global leadership development practitioners' perceptions of global leadership personality traits' importance vary by company type and job function?*
 - a. *Which personality traits are universal or idiosyncratic per company type?*
 - b. *Which personality traits are universal or idiosyncratic per job function?*
2. *How do global leadership development practitioners' perceptions of global leadership competencies' importance vary by company type and job function?*
 - a. *Which global leadership competencies are universal or idiosyncratic per company type?*
 - b. *Which global leadership competencies are universal or idiosyncratic per job function?*
3. *Do global leadership development practitioners perceive personality traits or global leadership competencies more important in contributing to and facilitating global leadership effectiveness?*
4. *Which learning and development methods do global leadership development practitioners consider most effective for developing each global leadership competency?*

The sample was made up of global leadership development practitioners; those people who were knowledgeable regarding their companies' global leadership job functions, competencies, and learning and development programs. The global leadership development practitioners were generally from HR, talent management or learning and development. However, their level of experience and knowledge as a global leadership development practitioner in an international, multinational or global company could not be validated. I explain this further in the study limitations section.

After completing the data collection and analysis, it was predicted that the data on global leadership development practitioners' perspectives would show that some global leadership personality traits and global leadership competencies are universal across both company types and job functions, while others are idiosyncratic. In addition, because the global leadership competencies are very diverse across knowledge, skills and abilities, it was hypothesized that a clear preference for a learning and development method for each global leadership competency would be determined. Because there are no standard global leadership competencies for scholars or practitioners, nor are there preferred learning and development methods, both scholars and practitioners should benefit from this research determining perspectives on universal and idiosyncratic global leadership personality traits and global leadership competencies, as well as perceptions on effective learning and development methods.

Population and Respondent Selection

The survey respondents in this research study included global leadership development practitioners from international, multinational and global companies based

in western cultures, specifically in the United States. Global leadership competencies are culturally bound (Eccher, 2001) and culturally contingent (House, 1998). Consequently, the researched attempted to narrow the sampling population field to one culture. Data was collected from a sample from western culture, primarily from companies with headquarters located in the United States. However, the respondent's cultural background could not be validated. In addition, representatives were sought from each company type that corresponded with the previously mentioned research by Adler and Bartholomew (1992): international, multinational and global. However, because companies do not identify themselves to a specific company type in readily apparent data, this remained an unknown until the survey was completed. Thus, it was not possible to sample evenly from these company types.

The sample was made up of global leadership development practitioners, such as CEO/Chairman, Strategic Planning, Chief Learning Officer, Global Talent Management and Leadership Development, Human Resource Strategy, Human Capital Performance and Assessment, Quality and Organization Effectiveness, Performance Improvement Director, and Human Capital Strategic Consulting. This group is generally knowledgeable of competencies, learning and development; including knowing other job functions' personality trait and global leadership competency requirements. They needed to know this in order to build learning and development courses and tools to develop people in these job functions. The sample's job title diversity is representative of the global leadership development practitioner population, who carry different job titles at different companies.

In order to create a sample, personal networks were leveraged to identify potential members of the sample, as well as potential contacts who had access to potential members of the sample. Global leadership development practitioners were selected who were either with an international, multinational or global company, or who had a connection to one. These included industry professionals, such as: previous work colleagues and clients; industry-based groups through Linked In; and classmates from The University of Pennsylvania's Work-Based Learning Leadership Doctoral Program. These initial emails went to an estimated 100 professional relationships and 75 school classmates and board members. In order to increase the sample size with respondents outside personal contacts, snowball sampling was encouraged, asking professional contacts to recruit their professional contacts that met the research qualifications to take the survey. These research qualifications were stated in the survey invitation email and introduction; however, the respondent's experience and knowledge as a global leadership development practitioner could not be validated.

In addition to the one-to-one emails that recruited global leadership practitioners, membership organizations whose members matched the sample were asked to contact their members. The New England Human Resource Association and the IBM alumni association posted a brief description and survey link on their website. The survey was also posted on topic applicable Linked In groups. Several organizations sent out email "blasts," including from Elliott Masie to his Learning Consortium, from Vice Dean Doug Lynch to The University of Pennsylvania's Work-Based Learning Program advisory board, and from Corporate University Xchange. This last email went to their database of

20,266 contacts, which 2,143 (10.6%) opened the email and 413 (19.3% of the emails opened) clicked through to take the assessment. This click through number represents 54.1% of the number of respondents who accessed the survey; however, the percentage who actually completed the survey from this group out of the 177 respondents who completed the survey is unknown. The Corporate University Xchange email stated:

CorpU would like you to participate in this University of Pennsylvania Wharton Business School/Graduate School of Education research study on global leadership development. You have been contacted because of your experience with competencies, learning and development. Your practitioner perspective is important in creating a better understanding on how to develop global leaders. In return for your 15 minutes of time, we will send you a practitioner findings report! (email received 3/17/2010)

The snowball sampling, as well as and membership organizations, contact exponentially more global leadership development practitioners than the initial list of professional contacts. This method of respondent selection pulled respondents from a wide variety of industries, as well as from a wide range of company sizes. This sampling method was effective for this exploratory study; yet, further studies on this topic would need to address the sampling method limitations.

In return for completing a brief online survey, a practitioner report was developed, with a summary of the findings for each global leadership development practitioner. This report focused not only on survey results, but provided an analysis and synthesis of the information. This report was sent to each respondent's company through his or her global leadership development practitioner in order to give back value to the survey respondent in exchange for his/her time in completing the survey. As evidence of the impact of the

findings report on response rate, one respondent's email said, "I just finished your survey and found it a great exercise and can't wait for the results." In addition to the practitioner report, an online seminar reviewing the research findings was prepared for survey respondents from participating membership organizations. This can be found in Appendix E: Global Leadership Development Research Findings Report.

Respondents

Because the sample required a global leadership development practitioner, it was assumed that collecting a large sample size would be challenging. 177 completed surveys, 249 partial surveys and 764 survey accesses were collected. When assessing the 249 partials, all of those respondents answered the three company type questions, then 43 answered the personality trait questions for all six job functions, but none proceeded past this section to the questions about the global leadership competencies and learning and development methods. Even though the time commitment was stated in the survey email invitation, it is believed that both the length of the survey and the survey design, including visual code references, contributed to the high number of partial surveys and survey accesses. In addition, an assessor may have realized they were not qualified as a global leadership development practitioner to complete the survey. For purposes of this paper's data analysis, only the 177 completed surveys were used.

Of the 177 completed surveys, 104 (58.8%) of the respondents represented global companies, while 35 (19.8%) were from multinational, 16 (9.0%) were from international and 22 (12.4%) were from domestic (Table 5, *Survey Completion by Company Type*). In addition to differentiating between the three types of global companies—which is of

theoretical importance for this study—this question was used to remove domestic company survey participants who did not match the global company target population. Through the sampling method of contacting global leadership development practitioners through professional contacts, school classmates and industry groups, collecting a sufficient sample size was attempted by targeting only global companies, in order to reduce the number of domestic companies’ participants completing the survey. Answers from participants that resulted in a *domestic* company type designation were deleted and not used for this research project’s analysis. Thus, after the 22 domestic responses were eliminated, 155 international, multinational and global company responses remained for analysis.

Table 5
Survey Completion by Company Type

Company Type	Frequency	Percent
Global	104	58.8
Multinational	35	19.8
International	16	9.0
Domestic	22	12.4
Total	177	100.0

These survey respondents’ jobs (Table 6, *Survey Completion by Job Function*) were well represented by 66 from learning and development (42.6%), 16 from HR (10.3%) and 15 from talent management (9.7%). Of the 58 respondents (37.4%) who chose “other” for their job function, there 14 executives, 13 functional managers, 12 consultants (change management, certification and performance, internal and program management, leadership, strategy/business transformation/organization change, technical,

and human capital), 9 talent and learning professionals who had not selected those job function options, and then some others miscellaneous jobs.

Table 6
Survey Completion by Job Function

Job Function	Frequency	Percent
Human Resources	16	10.3
Talent Management	15	9.7
Learning and Development	66	42.6
Other	58	37.4
Total	155	100.0

Survey Instrument

The survey instrument was designed with the intention of collecting global leadership practitioner’s perspectives regarding personality traits, global leadership competencies and learning and development methods, which were considered the dependent variables in this study. The research study’s independent variables were company type and job function. The survey instrument corresponds with the three talent management phases of the conceptual model, presented in chapter two. The first talent management phase: recruiting and succession planning, focuses on the personal attributes, and the survey specifically narrows this down to personality traits. The second talent management phase: career planning, focuses on global leadership competencies. The third phase: learning and development, focuses on learning and development method.

The global leadership development practitioner survey instrument gathered data on: the company and company type, respondents’ perspectives on the degree that

personality traits and global leadership competencies for job functions facilitate and contribute to effective global leadership, the effective learning and development method per global leadership competency, and respondent contact information. In relation to this, it was important to explore the variability of the perceived effectiveness of personality traits and global leadership competencies across company type and job function, as well as the learning and development method that global leadership development practitioners perceived to have the largest impact per each global leadership competency.

Based on feedback from the committee during the dissertation hearing, the survey instrument was modified such that respondents could add personality traits, competencies, and learning and development methods, allowing for the possibility that those addressed by the survey might not be of greatest importance to respondents. In addition to this, the respondent had two open text boxes to provide qualitative data. The first text box provided the respondents an opportunity to explain the rationale for adding to both the personality traits and global leadership competencies list. The second text box provided the respondents an opportunity to explain the criteria they used to weight the personality factors and global leadership competencies, so their reasoning for their weighting could be understood. The open text box for respondents to answer questions in their own words resulted in a range of answers which required an interactive code development for categories that emerged from the answers in order on to place a structure for the answers (Fowler, 2009).

Second, in order to assess the practitioner perspective of the commonly contested trait theory, a question was added, asking if the respondent viewed personality traits or

global leadership competencies as more important to effective global leadership. Third, because the global leadership competencies' definitions were not specific to global, a set of questions was added which asked if the global leadership competency was more important for a domestic or global leader. Also, this was to help determine if the difference between global and domestic leaders was the degree of proficiency in a competency.

With these additional changes, the global leadership development survey instrument had 102 items (see Appendix D: Global Leadership Development Survey). Through piloting, the survey was found to take 15-20 minutes to complete. By limiting the time requirement, I anticipated the respondent completion rates would increase.

The global leadership development survey began with an introduction, which provided the purpose of the survey and instructions. Then, each online survey included a consent form (see Appendix C). Each respondent was not able to proceed to the online survey without acknowledging that the consent form had been read and was accepted. This was done by selecting "Submit" at the end of the consent form section. The survey was then split into three corresponding parts with the three talent management functions of the conceptual model. The final part collected respondent information.

Part I asked for the company name in an open text box, followed by three dichotomous screening questions to determine which company type the survey respondent represented. Company type was one of this study's independent variables. To determine a company type framework, Adler and Bartholomew's framework (1992) was

used, which separates companies into four company types: domestic, international, multinational, and global (Table 1). Differentiating between the four types of companies was of theoretical importance for this study.

Table 1
Definitions of Company Type

Domestic	International	Multinational	Global
Operates only in home country	Operates across borders in addition to domestically	Operates across many nations: - Services and products are standardized, - Decision-making is local	Operates world-wide: - Services, products, and decision-making are adapted to local markets

In Part II, the respondents identified the degree to which they believed each of the five personality traits contributes to effective global leadership per job function. Job functions were chosen that included a diverse, yet high-level range of jobs common across all companies in all industries. These were:

- CEO (Chief Executive Officer)
- Finance
- Operations
- Information Technology
- Human Resources
- Sales

The conceptual model identified several personal attributes, including: personality traits, values, cultural background, and corporate work experience. However, for this

research study, only personality traits were part of the research design for two reasons. First, global leadership personality traits had the clearest construct, with a consensus around what is commonly referred to as the “Big Five” (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Second, personality traits are more closely associated with competencies than the other personal attributes.

The survey instrument collected the global leadership development practitioners’ perspectives regarding personality traits and their effectiveness for each global leadership job function. Respondents were asked to weight the five personality traits as if they were designing a rating form for candidates for global leadership positions, reflecting the degree that the personality trait contributes to and facilitates global leadership effectiveness in the job functions. The global leadership personality traits were listed on the instrument with brief definitions (Table 2, “*Big Five*” *Personality Traits*’ *Descriptions*).

Table 2
“Big Five” Personality Traits’ Descriptions

Personality Trait	Description
Extroversion	Energy, positive emotions, and urgency; the tendency to seek stimulation in the company of others
Agreeableness	Compassionate and cooperative, rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others
Conscientiousness	Show self-discipline, act dutifully, aim for achievement; planned rather than spontaneous behavior
Emotionally Stable	Calm, free from persistent negative feelings (opposite of neuroticism)
Openness to Experience	Appreciation for adventure, curiosity, emotion, unusual ideas, variety of experience

In order to assess if there were other personality traits to add to the provided list, a question for each job function said, “Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each personality trait, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.” If the global leadership development practitioner believed a personality trait was needed, but not currently on the list, respondents were asked to add this information in the “Other” open text box. Similar to personality traits, if the global leadership development practitioner believed a global leadership competency was needed, but not currently on the list, the respondent was asked to add this information in the “Other” box.

Part II concluded with two additional open-ended questions in each section in order to validate the selected personality traits. These two questions included questions asking the respondent about the criteria they used in assigning relative weights within or across job functions, as well as to explain their thinking if they added a personality trait to “other.” Similarly, Part III contained open-ended questions in order to validate the selected global leadership competencies.

Subsequently, Part III collected the global leadership development practitioners’ perspectives regarding global leadership competencies and their effectiveness for each global leadership job function. Respondents were asked to specify the budget percentage one would allocate to the development of each global leadership competency, reflecting the degree that the competency contributes to global leadership effectiveness in the job functions listed above. The global leadership competencies were listed on the instrument with brief definitions (Table 3, *Global Leadership Competencies’ Descriptions*).

Table 3
Global Leadership Competencies' Descriptions

Global Leadership Competency	Description
Engagement in Personal Transformation	The knowledge to commit to ongoing development of personal knowledge, skills and abilities
Knowledge	The knowledge of business literacy (opportunities, systems, standards, issues) and savvy needed to perform
Networking Skills	The skill to create and maintain relationships on an organizational level
Social Judgment Skills	The skill to have a big picture and long-term orientation (cause-effect, interdependencies, consequences) considering multiple constituents' perspective
Self Awareness	The ability to have self-confidence, reliance, and insight, as well as social and cultural awareness
Self Regulation	The ability to control impulses, maintain integrity and remain flexible as one adapts to new situations

Part IV consisted of selecting which learning and development method was most effective in developing each global leadership competency. Through a review of previous research in chapter two, a list of learning and development methods was created (Table 4, *Learning and Development Methods' Descriptions*).

Similar to personality traits and global leadership competencies, if the global leadership development practitioner believed a learning and development method was needed, but not currently on the list, he/she was asked to add this information in an open-ended question.

Finally, Part V collected minimal respondent information, including respondent email and job function. The email field, which was needed in order to share the practitioner report once all data had been collected, was an optional field. The survey

instrument ended with a conclusion thanking the respondent for his/her time and participation, as well as providing the researcher's contact information for any questions.

Table 4
Learning and Development Methods' Descriptions

	Learning and Development Method	Description
High Contact	Expatriate Assignment	An international work assignment requiring an employee to temporarily move to another country for at least six months
	Global Teams	An on-going work-based group or temporary development activity group, whose members reside in different countries, organized around a specific work task
	Experiential Learning	A structured experience with learning objectives, including activities like simulations, case studies, and role playing
	Coaching	A relationship with an individual providing accountability and development in hopes for behavior change
Low Contact	Intercultural Training	A formal training around similar and different world cultures
	Assessment	An objective analysis (self-assessment, 360 degree feedback, performance reviews, assessment centers) of one's competency proficiency
	Reflection	A specific time set aside for processing, implementing and retaining lessons learned

Validity

The survey foundation, based on the significant literature review of theoretical and empirical research, improved the face validity. The survey used new question types to measure each variable. To assist with face validity and increase the reliability of these questions, an attempt was made to reduce wording ambiguity, standardize the

presentation, and have the questions mean the same thing to all respondents (Fowler, 2009). An attempt to increase the reliability was also made following the creation of the survey instrument, by asking two colleagues who are global leadership practitioners to test the survey in order to validate the survey protocol. They completed the survey and assessed survey problems, user-friendliness and time requirements.

There was a threat to validity with respondents writing in a personality trait or global leadership competency in an open text box labeled "other." While writing in was optional, the survey tool still required respondents to enter a number, even if it was "0." Through the two person test, I identified this issue, and then modified the survey based on the pilot feedback before distributing to the sample. The modification was an additional phrase in the instructions, stating: "You must weight 'other' - even if it is left blank and a '0.'" However, the one question that I received during piloting remained an issue, even after an attempt was made to address the issue by changing the instructions. An email from a respondent was received, which said:

Sorry. I filled in the first set of questions (carefully and time-consumingly). When I tried to continue it didn't recognize that I had completed these questions. Finally, after trying various things that didn't work, I found that if I put a 0 in each "other" box, it recognized that I had answered. (Have others had that problem? The instructions say that "other" is optional.) (email received 3/22/2010)

These efforts improved the face validity of the instrument; however, some survey issues remained, including: the job functional areas requiring responses, the company type descriptions, and the lack of a visual reference anchor scale in sections III and IV. These issues also may have impacted the number of partials. The first issue was a requirement

that respondents answer for all six job functions regardless of the respondent's familiarity with each of the six. The second issue was that in attempt to keep the company type descriptions brief for the survey, this brevity could have hindered the respondents' understanding of differentiating the company types. The third issue, the visual reference anchor scale, impacted section III when respondents were asked to rate the level of domestic versus global importance of each competency on a five point scale and section IV when respondents were asked to determine the effective learning and development method per competency out of seven options. Out of the 249 partials, only 23 made it past the first "other" question, clearly indicating that this was an issue since 226 dropped out at this question. While this loss of respondents was unfortunate, the overall survey completions for this exploratory study were satisfactory.

Some of the qualitative responses were very candid and negative. Respondents did share their company name and personal email address for identification, but it is believed that while the online format not only provided a safe environment for data collection, it also provided an area for people to write frustrations that they would not normally say out loud. Some of these frustrations were about the survey format, the list of personality traits and global leadership competencies, a grammatical error, or other survey tool remarks. Overall, besides the issue with "other" described above, it is believed that the survey instrument had a practitioner-friendly structure. This was critical in order to receive an adequate response rate. Highlighting this belief, another email said:

...it's not very often that I receive a survey that is as well laid out as yours. I am a perpetual student of understanding drivers and competencies (and the relationship between them)...Very much an enjoyable experience....and that's rare for a survey. (email received 3/22/2010)

Data Collection

Data collection began by contacting potential survey candidates. A survey solicitation email (see Appendix B), which described the study and asked for willing participation was sent to professional industry connections within the sample. The email educated the respondents to the study's purposes, identified the parameters for respondents, informed them that they would receive a practitioner findings report in return for completing the survey, set a deadline date, provided the link to the online survey, and included a student email signature and contact information.

The Internet is increasingly used to collect survey data (Fowler, 2009). The survey was administered using Zoomerang, an online survey tool, which offered efficient survey delivery and respondent access through email and the internet. In addition to these benefits, the data collection was automated and easily accessible, again through the internet, which also assisted the data importing for analysis. Because there was an elimination of manual entry and re-entry, the chances for data error were reduced. However, an online survey tool does not offer the intimacy of personal survey delivery or the hard-copy aspect of postal mail delivery. This lack of intimacy may have resulted in an increased number of non-responses to the survey request.

Each professional contact received five business days to complete the survey. Those survey candidates who were invited by the researcher to participate received a reminder email two to three days after the initial communication. These reminders were implemented to increase response rates. However, because of the snowball sampling, reminders could not be sent to all potential respondents. Therefore, the length of time that

the survey was open was extended. All data was collected within 10 business days of the start of the study.

Analysis

After data collection, the analysis phase began. First, after exporting the coded data from Zoomerang into an excel document, the data was cleaned, then converted to an SPSS data file. The primary unit of analysis for this study was the individual global leadership development practitioner. The data collected was analyzed with regards to research questions using mean, standard deviation, frequency, and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient descriptive analysis to first look for variability by company type and job function. Second, where appropriate, independent samples t-tests and repeated measures analysis of variance (RM-ANOVA) inferential analysis were used to determine significance in the findings. Third, descriptive analysis was used to look at preferences of learning and development methods. From there, the descriptive and inferential analyses were supported with the qualitative responses in the survey. Finally, data tables were built and a final write up was completed.

The first step to cleaning the data was adjusting the rankings that did not add up to 100%. The online survey tool had mandatory answers to assist with data entry and reduce the reliance on post-entry cleaning (Fowler, 2009); yet, there was not a tool available to confirm that the percentages added up to 100%. The survey asked for respondents to rank the personality traits and global leadership competencies by giving a percentage to each one that equaled 100%. It was assumed that if they did not equal 100%, then it was a math error, although it may have been intentional by the respondent. Each of the 155

respondents ranked both personality traits and global leadership competencies for six job functions, which resulted in 1860 sets of rankings (12 rankings per respondent x 155 respondents). There were 136 sets of rankings (7.3%) that did not add up to 100%. These were re-scaled so that the ranking would remain the same, but they would add up to 100%.

Second, a search for missing data was completed, which uncovered one item. There was a “.” instead of a percentage for the weighting. This was addressed by determining if the other percentages added up to 100%, which they did. Thus, a “0” was added for the missing data because the other percentages added to 100%.

Third, data labels were added to all the variables so that data could more easily be identified when using SPSS to run analyses and build tables. In addition to this, within SPSS, data boxes were formatted to accurately indicate the type of data.

Finally, based on the first three questions about company type, each respondent was designated as a domestic, international, multinational or global company type (Figure 2, *Company Type Determination*.) This required reliable, unambiguous coding provides appropriate data interpretation (Fowler, 2009). If the respondent responded “no” to the first question, then they were classified as a domestic company. Those who responded “no” to the second question were classified as an international company, and those who responded “no” to the third question were classified as a multinational company. If they responded “yes” to all three questions, then they were identified as a global company.

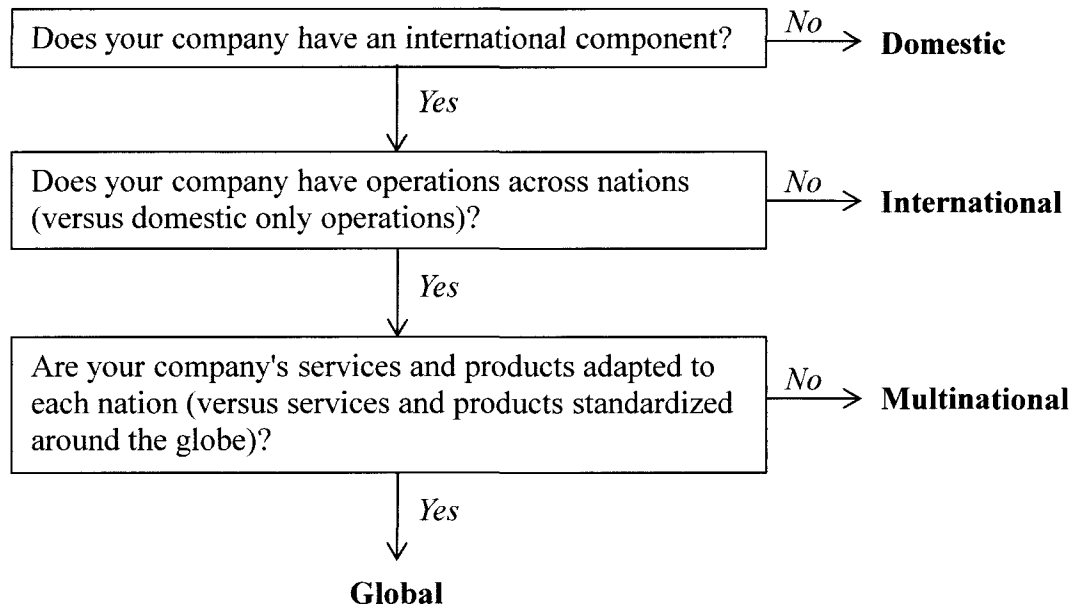


Figure 2
Company Type Determination

When planning sample sizes, a power analysis was conducted in order to decide how large the global leadership development practitioners sample needed to be. A power of .80 was sought, which is a common research standard in the field. To do so, estimates for the population were used, expecting low effect sizes and average variability. Thus, when calculating the needed sample size, the number of global leadership development practitioners was determined to be 35 per company type, a total of 105 for the three company types of international, multinational and global. Because there were substantially more global companies responding, a sufficient number of responses was not received in the international category to meet the power analysis requirement of a sample size of 35. Thus, the multinational and international were combined into one category so that it collectively had over 35 responses (N=51), now representing 32.9% of

the sample. Thus, the sample (N=155) for all analyses was from global, multinational and international company types.

To begin, the descriptive statistics analysis (means, standard deviations) compared personality trait and global leadership competency means variation between company types, and then between job functions. . This assisted in answering the first part of the research questions, “How do global leadership development practitioners’ perceptions of global leadership personality traits’ and global leadership competencies’ importance vary by company type and job function?” Means was used since it is the most common of sample survey estimates, while the standard deviation of the distribution was used to describe error (Fowler, 2009). Also, this mean descriptive analysis provided data trends that were then verified with inferential analyses (independent samples t-test, RM-ANOVA).

After completing the descriptive analyses of personality traits and global leadership competencies, inferential analyses were used to determine correlation’s strength of relationship and statistical significance. If a personality trait or global leadership competency had a strong relationship and a statistically significant difference – either by company type or by job function – then it was classified as “idiosyncratic.” On the other hand, if a personality trait or global leadership competency did not have a statistically significant difference – either by company type or by job function – then it was classified as “universal.” However, to assess both company type and job function, several different inferential analyses were required.

For company type, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients and independent samples t-tests answered the first part of the first and second research questions research questions, “Which personality traits are universal or idiosyncratic per company type?” and “Which global leadership competencies are universal or idiosyncratic per company type?”

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, used for scale data, assisted answering the research question by assessing the direction and strength of a relationship. Thus, this r identified the differences between personality traits and the differences between global leadership competencies per company type. The independent samples t-tests also assisted answering the research question by verifying if the group mean differences were statistically significant. More specifically, the independent samples t-tests, used to compare two independent samples, assumes independence of the respondents in the two groups.

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient and independent samples t-tests identified which personality traits and global leadership competencies were idiosyncratic and universal. When the differences between company types were meaningful, the correlation coefficients test provided the strength and direction of the relationship between company type and the variables personality trait and global leadership competency proficiency. In addition, the independent samples t-test determined if the differences between company types for personality traits and global leadership competencies that were apparent in the data were statistically significant, meaning not the result of random error.

For job function, the repeated measures analysis of variance (RM-ANOVA) test answered the second part of the first and second research questions research questions, “Which personality traits are universal or idiosyncratic per job function?” and “Which global leadership competencies are universal or idiosyncratic per job function?” The RM-ANOVA tested the personality traits’ and global leadership competencies’ strength of relationship and statistical significant differences.

The RM-ANOVA test is a parametric statistical test which was extremely useful for this research because the respondents did not answer the job function separately as they did with the company type, but instead the job function was integrated within the question about personality traits and global leadership competencies. Because of this job function integration, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient and independent samples t-tests used to produce company types correlations could not be used to produce job function correlations. A standard ANOVA assumes independence; thus, the RM-ANOVA tests the equality of means when modeling repeated measures. For job function, the RM-ANOVA, used for general linear method and analysis, assisted answering the research question by providing a F statistic to determine if the finding was statistically significant at a given probability level.

The RM-ANOVA was used in order to assess the statistical consistency of respondents’ answers across job functions, where one significant test indicates that at least one pair-wise comparison is statistically significant. This did not include “other” because respondents entered different personality traits and global leadership competencies there. By using the RM-ANOVA statistical analysis, the respondents’

scores of personality traits and global leadership competencies could be assessed to see if any of them were consistently ranked higher or lower for each job function.

In addition to the assumption that the sample is random, the RM-ANOVA has an assumption of sphericity, which is that the variance of the population difference scores for any two conditions should be the same as any other two conditions. For the RM-ANOVA, all data failed Mauchly's Test of sphericity. In order to address this assumption, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon correction was used first, which is more conservative than the Huynh-Feldt correction. The more conservative correction was used in an effort to lower the chance of creating a Type I error. Second, a post-hoc test was run to review group differences. In order to minimize the family-wise Type I error rate from accumulated t-test runs on the same data, the Bonferroni correction was used when running the post-hoc pair-wise comparisons.

In addition, a descriptive analysis comparing the means of the standard deviations helped assess the degree that a personality factor or global leadership competency was idiosyncratic. By reviewing the means of each respondent's standard deviations, the personality traits and global leadership competencies were ranked.

For both the third and fourth research questions, a descriptive analysis provided important direction by assessing the frequency that the respondents answered each question. The third research question asked, "Do global leadership development practitioners perceive personality traits or global leadership competencies more important in contributing to and facilitating global leadership effectiveness?" Practitioners clearly identified their preference when implementing a GLD program. To do this, the test

assessed if personality traits or global leadership competencies were listed most frequently. The frequency descriptive statistics of the data established clear data trends.

The fourth research question asked, “Which learning and development methods do global leadership development practitioners consider most effective for developing each global leadership competency?” To do this, the test assessed which learning and development methods were listed most frequently as the most effective per global leadership competency. Once again, the frequency descriptive statistics established clear data trends. These analyses and results, detailed in the next chapter, lead to results and findings.

Study Limitations

This research explored and assisted in identifying the perceived universal and idiosyncratic personality traits and global leadership competencies, as well as the perceived effective learning and development methods for those competencies. However, this dissertation has several study limitations to this research design that must be considered before making decisions based on its findings.

First, this analysis does not provide evidence of evaluation - whether the personality trait and global leadership competency had its intended impact or outcome on individual leadership leading to company performance. Second, this study does not provide evidence for the learning and development method impact or outcome on global leadership competency development. Therefore, it is not possible to look directly at personality trait, global leadership competency or learning and development method

impact or outcome. For both of these, instead of a link to performance, this study has only global leadership practitioners' perceptions.

Third, there may be other variables besides personality traits and global leadership competencies that have not been identified that may have an equal or greater effect on a global leader's effectiveness. While the survey instrument had open ended boxes for respondents to enter additional personality traits and global leadership competencies, the survey instrument structured the data collection in a way that favored collecting personality traits.

Finally, the sample was made up of global leadership development practitioners; yet, the drawback of using data from a group such as this included some issues of internal validity. This led to an additional fourth, fifth and sixth study limitation. Fourth, a sample of convenience assisted with achieving a higher response rate, but also decreased the validity and generalizability of the findings. This is because the respondents were primarily professional contacts, through professional contacts, or associated with the membership organizations contacted by the researcher. Because there is an inherent bias in who was contacted, the validity and generalizability was impacted.

Fifth, since the individuals responding to the survey did not hold the specific job functions for which they were answering, they evaluated the required personality traits and global leadership competencies based on their perspectives of what would predict success in that job function. In addition, if a respondent's company had not conducted a formal competency study to base their responses, then the respondent could only

speculate on the required global leadership personality traits and global leadership competency proficiency per job function.

Sixth, the sample size of international and multinational companies was not as large as global companies, providing a limited sample size into these two company types. Instead of this uneven sampling representing the population's company type distribution, I believe it instead is a respondent error based on incorrectly identifying their company type either due to respondent lack of knowledge or confusing survey design. Because there was not enough representation from international and multinational companies to keep them independent, these two company types were combined. Because of this, the non-findings on the determination of global leadership competencies by company type should be further investigated.

These six limitations are also possibilities for future research. However, this study was exploratory, providing a first attempt into researching this previously unstudied phenomenon. It is the hope of this researcher that these findings will identify trends that can be verified through future research with more rigorous methods.

Chapter 4

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

To answer the research questions presented in this dissertation, several descriptive (mean, standard deviation, frequency, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient) and inferential analyses (independent samples t-tests, RM-ANOVA) were applied to the data set to identify relationships between company type, job function, personality traits, global leadership competencies and learning and development methods. A strong relationship and a statistically significant difference for a personality trait or global leadership competency – either by company type or by job function – determined which ones were “idiosyncratic” versus “universal.” This helped identify which personality traits and global leadership competencies global leadership development practitioners perceived as important.

In addition, a descriptive analysis provided important direction for the third research question, whether global leadership development practitioners perceived personality traits or global leadership competencies more important in contributing to and facilitating global leadership effectiveness. A descriptive analysis also provided direction for the fourth research question, which learning and development methods are considered most effective for developing each global leadership competency.

Personality Traits

Research Question 1: How do global leadership development practitioners' perceptions of global leadership personality traits' importance vary by company type and job function?

- a. Which personality traits are universal or idiosyncratic per company type?
- b. Which personality traits are universal or idiosyncratic per job function?

Perceived Personality Traits’ Importance by Company Type

In order to address the company type part of the first research question, means descriptive analysis was used. Table 7 (*Value of Aggregated Personality Traits’ Means by Company Type*) shows the perceived differences between company types regarding how a personality trait contributes to global leadership effectiveness. This aggregated table of all personality traits clearly indicates a preferential ranking of personality traits when considered across all job functions. Global leadership development practitioners from all company types perceive *conscientiousness* (M=24.46) as the personality trait to be most effective, followed in order by *emotionally stable* (M=20.83), *extroversion* (M=18.32), *openness to experience* (M=16.93) and *agreeableness* (M=16.48).

Table 7
Value of Aggregated Personality Traits’ Means by Company Type

Company Type		E	A	C	ES	OTE	O
Global N=104	Mean	17.59	16.52	24.49	21.09	16.72	2.95
	SD	6.70	4.13	5.62	4.98	5.50	6.53
Multintl. & Interntl. N=51	Mean	19.81	16.40	24.39	20.30	17.35	1.76
	SD	6.62	4.07	7.31	3.93	5.39	3.73
Total	Mean	18.32	16.48	24.46	20.83	16.93	2.56
	SD	6.73	4.10	6.20	4.66	5.45	5.77

Legend E= *extroversion*, A= *agreeableness*, C=*conscientiousness*, ES= *emotionally stable*, OTE=*openness to experience*, and O=*other*

Respondents were asked to indicate the relative weight they would assign to each of these five personality traits for a candidate for international, multinational or global

company's leadership positions, reflecting the degree that the personality trait contributes to and facilitates global leadership effectiveness. There does not appear to be a large difference in the scoring of personality traits per company type except for *extroversion*. For the perceived importance of this personality trait, global company type respondents ranked *extroversion* with a mean of 17.59% and multinational and international company type respondents ranked it with a mean of 19.81%. This small difference of 2.22% is meaningful, as it is believed that it signifies the greater need of multinational and international companies to have an extroverted leader to build the required relationships needed to move a company towards "global" on the company type continuum. The other personality traits indicate a consistent ordering of personality traits' importance in both company types. They did not have a large difference between means per company type, including .1 for *conscientiousness* (M=24.49, M=24.39), .79 for *emotionally stable* (M=21.09, M=20.30), .63 for *openness to experience* (M=16.72, M=17.35) and .12 for *agreeableness* (M=16.52, M=16.40).

In summary, to answer the first research question for company type, it appears that there is an overall preference of certain personality traits for global leaders. However, company type does not impact the variability of personality trait requirements between global companies and multinational and international except for *extroversion*, and that is a small difference.

Idiosyncrasy of Personality Traits per Company Type

To answer the first part of the first research question, “Which personality traits are more idiosyncratic or universal per company type?”, descriptive and inferential analysis was completed on the relationship between company types and personality traits to determine the correlation, strength of direction and statistical significance. Using the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Table 8 (*Correlation Coefficients between Average Personality Traits and Company Type*) below provides correlation coefficients (r) of company type and average personality traits used in this analysis. Only the *extroversion* personality trait ($r=.16$, $p < 0.05$) correlated at a statistically significant level with company type. However, any r below .3 is a weak relationship, so even though *extroversion* is statistically significant, it is a weak correlation.

Table 8
Correlation Coefficients between Average Personality Traits and Company Type

Personality Trait	r
Extroversion	0.16*
Agreeableness	-0.01
Conscientiousness	-0.01
Emotionally Stable	-0.08
Openness To Experience	0.05

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

N=155

Supporting these findings, independent samples t-tests results are below (Table 9, *t-tests between Personality Traits and Company Type*). An independent samples t-test was used to determine whether there was a difference between personality traits and

company types. This revealed a significant difference ($t(153)=-1.95, p=.05$) company type variability only for *extroversion*. The other personality traits did not have significance for company type variability. In summary, while there are differences between the means of personality traits per company type, *extroversion* is the only one that is statistically significant.

Table 9
***t*-tests between Personality Traits and Company Type**

	t	df	Significance	Mean Difference	Global	Internatl & Multinatl
Extroversion	-1.95	153	0.05	-2.22	18.96	20.96
Agreeableness	0.17	153	0.86	0.12	15.52	14.84
Conscientiousness	0.09	153	0.92	0.10	22.00	20.69
Emotionally Stable Openness To	0.99	153	0.32	0.79	22.20	21.67
Experience	-0.67	153	0.51	-0.62	18.18	19.69

Thus, to answer the first part of the first research question, when identifying idiosyncratic and universal personality traits per company type, the correlation coefficients and t-tests tests both indicate that *extroversion* is the only idiosyncratic personality trait, yet, this significant difference also has a weak correlation. In summary, respondents generally view personality traits' importance universal across company type, as they did not use this situational context to determine variability between personality traits.

Perceived Personality Traits' Importance by Job Function

In order to address the job function part of the first research question, it was necessary to analyze the data two ways, by looking at each personality trait (1) within a job function and (2) across the job functions. Because company type does not determine variability between personality traits, this factor was eliminated from these analyses. As shown below (Table 10, *Value of Personality Traits' Means per Job Function*), respondents clearly differentiated personality traits per job function, which is different than the findings per company type.

Table 10
Value of Personality Traits' Means per Job Function

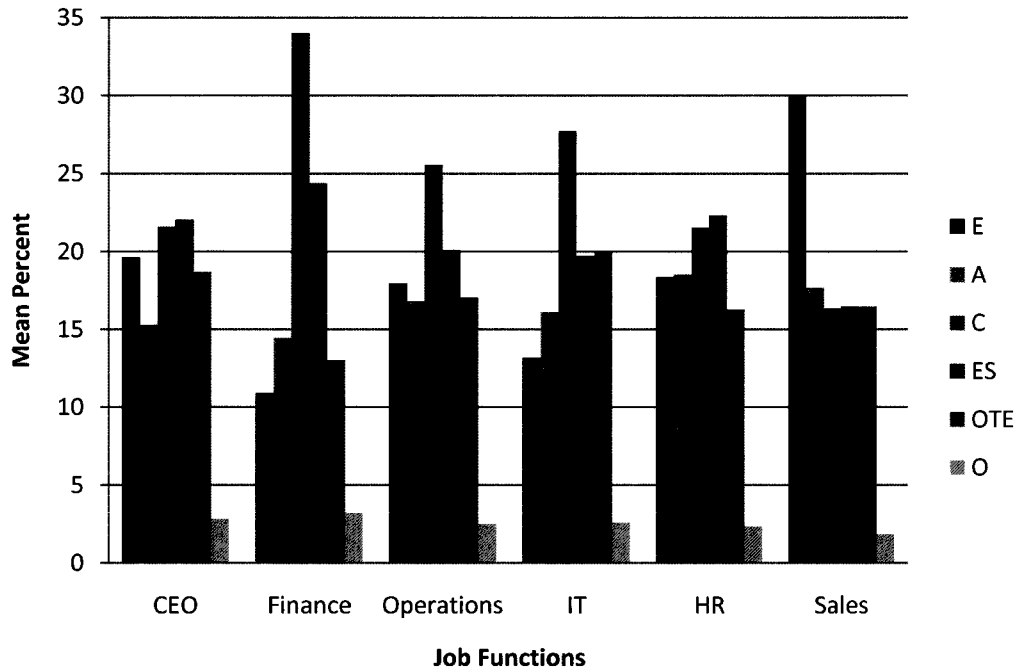
Job Function		E	A	C	ES	OTE	O
CEO	Mean	19.62	15.30	21.57	22.03	18.68	2.81
	SD	10.13	6.63	8.25	7.69	8.00	6.75
Finance	Mean	10.91	14.44	34.01	24.38	13.02	3.25
	SD	6.07	6.24	11.64	7.71	6.85	7.73
Operations	Mean	17.95	16.82	25.57	20.09	17.06	2.51
	SD	10.47	7.08	9.95	7.08	8.58	7.09
IT	Mean	13.17	16.11	27.73	19.71	20.06	2.60
	SD	8.53	6.14	10.11	7.65	9.45	6.69
HR	Mean	18.37	18.52	21.53	22.31	16.28	2.34
	SD	9.28	7.15	10.54	9.06	7.69	7.54
Sales	Mean	29.89	17.68	16.36	16.47	16.46	1.86
	SD	13.81	7.76	7.83	8.31	8.74	5.04

N=155

Legend E= extroversion, A= agreeableness, C=conscientiousness, ES= emotionally stable, OTE=openness to experience, and O=other

When the results are compared within a job function (Figure 3, *Value of Personality Traits' Means within Job Function*), the personality traits identified by

respondents were more clearly identified for some job functions (finance, operations, IT, sales) due to there being a clear importance placed on the required personality traits. In contrast, respondents did not prioritize the personality traits as clearly for other job functions (CEO, HR).



Legend E= extroversion, A= agreeableness, C=conscientiousness, ES= emotionally stable, OTE=openness to experience, and O=other

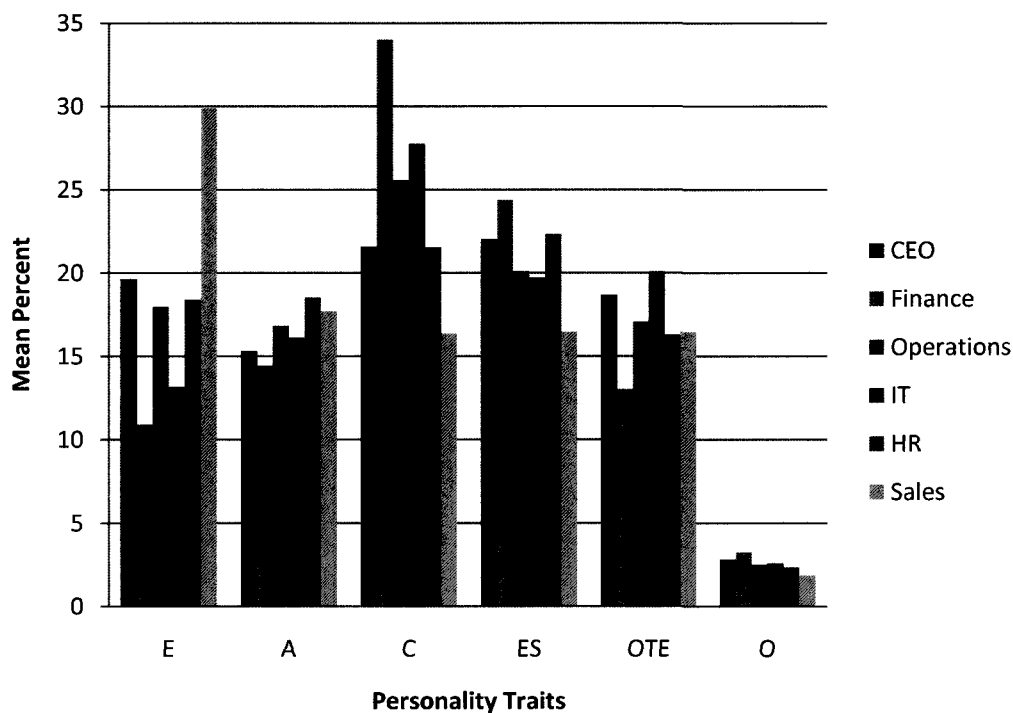
Figure 3
Value of Personality Traits' Means within Job Function

Respondents clearly highlighted *conscientiousness* as the most critical personality trait for the finance (M=34.01), operations (M=25.57), and IT (M=27.73) job functions. *Emotionally stable* was a distant second for finance (M=24.38) and operations (M=20.09), while the IT job function had a gap until *Openness to Experience* (M=20.06). For the sales job function, respondents clearly identified *extroversion* (M=29.89) as the definite top personality trait. However, respondents were not as clear for the CEO or

human resources (HR) job functions as the same two personality traits, *emotionally stable* and *conscientiousness*, were ranked close together at the top. For the CEO job function, respondents perceived *emotionally stable* (M=22.03) as the most important personality trait, closely followed by *conscientiousness* (M=21.57); similarly for the HR job function, *emotionally stable* (M=22.32) and *conscientiousness* (M=21.53) were close together at the top.

Another way to look at the same data is to compare results across the job functions (Figure 4, *Value of Personality Traits' Means across Job Functions*), the perceived importance of specific personality traits varied considerably by job function. The personality traits identified by respondents are more clearly identified for some personality traits (*extroversion* and *conscientiousness*) than others (*agreeableness*, *emotionally stable*, and *openness to experience*). Respondents clearly highlighted two job functions with a clear personality trait difference: *conscientiousness* for the finance job function (M=34.01) and *extroversion* for the sales job function (M=29.89). The next closest were the IT job function (M=27.73) and the CEO job function (M=19.62) respectively. These gaps represent differences of means of 7.01 and 10.27 respectively.

In summary, the respondents prioritized specific personality traits as more important within job functions: *extroversion* for sales; *conscientiousness* for CEO, finance, operations, IT, HR; and *emotionally stable* for CEO and HR. An interesting result was that *Agreeableness* and *Openness to Experience* were the two personality traits that did not rate high for any job function.



Legend E= extroversion, A= agreeableness, C=conscientiousness, ES= emotionally stable, OTE=openness to experience, and O=other

Figure 4
Value of Personality Traits' Means across Job Functions

In addition, the personality traits were clearly identified across job functions, *conscientiousness* for finance and *extroversion* for sales, as determined by rank ordering. Respondents ranked *conscientiousness* highest within a job function for 5 jobs, making it appear to be universal. Yet, in comparing the value ascribed through these two analyses, respondents clearly identified the finance job function as needing this personality trait the most, as it had a larger distance between ranks.

To answer the second part of the first research question, the means of personality traits between job functions indicate that there is a definite preference of personality traits

per job function. These findings highlight the variability of personality trait requirements per job function (Figure 4, *Value of Personality Traits' Means Across Job Functions*). This is different than the findings per company type, where there was not a difference between personality traits. Hence, personality traits seem to be universal per company type but idiosyncratic per job functions. The job function situational context impacts the importance of traits more in global leadership than does the company type situational context.

Idiosyncrasy of Personality Traits per Job Function

To analyze the extent to which preferred personality traits varied by job function, the repeated measures analysis of variance (RM-ANOVA) test was utilized to determine whether any of the personality traits' differences per job function were statistically significant. Because all of the data failed Mauchley's test of sphericity, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was used throughout (Table 11, *Personality Traits' Statistical Significant Differences per Job Functions*).

Table 11
Personality Traits' Statistical Significant Differences per Job Functions

Personality Trait	ϵ	F	Post-Hoc
Extroversion	0.78	103.08	12/15
Agreeableness	0.89	9.77	6/15
Conscientiousness	0.85	82.96	13/15
Emotionally Stable	0.85	23.15	10/15
Openness To Experience	0.88	19.32	9/15

In order to assess if the personality traits were idiosyncratic per job function, the RM-ANOVA assessed the differences of the means. For *extroversion*, the Greenhouse-

Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was $\varepsilon = .78$ ($F_{(3\ 9, 599\ 2)} = 103.08$), and the Bonferroni correction for the post-hoc pair-wise comparisons indicated that 12 out of the 15 job function comparisons had statistically significant differences. For *agreeableness*, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was $\varepsilon = .89$ ($F_{(4\ 4, 681\ 3)} = 9.77$), and the pair-wise comparisons indicated that 6 out of the 15 job function comparisons had statistically significant differences. For *conscientiousness*, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was $\varepsilon = .85$ ($F_{(4\ 2, 652\ 8)} = 82.96$), and the pair-wise comparisons indicated that 13 out of the 15 job function comparisons had statistically significant differences. For *emotionally stable*, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was $\varepsilon = .85$ ($F_{(4\ 3, 657\ 5)} = 23.15$), and the pair-wise comparisons indicated that 10 out of the 15 job function comparisons had statistically significant differences. For *openness to experiences*, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was $\varepsilon = .88$ ($F_{(4\ 4, 683\ 5)} = 19.32$), and the pair-wise comparisons indicated that 9 out of the 15 job function comparisons had statistically significant differences. Hence, there is evidence that the differences in personality traits' means scores are different across job functions. Thus, to answer the second part of the first research question, when identifying idiosyncratic and universal personality traits per job function, the RM-ANOVA shows that the means for each personality trait were significantly different by job function. This finding indicates that all personality traits are idiosyncratic per job function.

To further this discussion, a comparison of the means of each respondent's standard deviations between the job functions illustrated a ranking of the degree idiosyncrasy (Table 12). After the RM-ANOVA compared variance for all respondents

for each personality trait per job function, this next analysis established the mean of each respondent's standard deviations of the personality trait per job function. The higher the mean, the more variability in how the respondents ranked a personality trait across job functions in regards to the degree that the personality trait contributes to and facilitates global leadership effectiveness for a candidate for international, multinational or global company's leadership positions. The higher respondent variability of personality traits across job function were *extroversion* and *conscientiousness*, which had standard deviation means of M=8.96 and M=8.85 respectively. These two personality traits were followed by *emotionally stable* (M=6.40), *openness to experience* (M=6.10), and *agreeableness* (M=5.49). This confirms that not only are personality traits idiosyncratic per job functions, but that the degree of being idiosyncratic varies between personality traits.

Table 12
Personality Traits' Mean Standard Deviations for Respondents' Perceptions

Personality Trait	E	A	C	ES	OTE
SD Mean	8.96	5.49	8.85	6.40	6.10
N=155					

Legend E= *extroversion*, A= *agreeableness*, C=*conscientiousness*, ES= *emotionally stable*, OTE=*openness to experience*, and O=*other*

In conclusion, to answer the first research question, the descriptive (mean, standard deviation, frequency, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient) and inferential (independent samples t-tests, RM-ANOVA) analyses indicated a strong relationship and a statistically significant difference for a personality trait by job function, but not by company type. Global leadership development practitioners perceived the

personality traits to vary in importance by job function, making them “idiosyncratic” versus more “universal” by company type.

Global Leadership Competencies

Research Question 2: How do global leadership development practitioners’ perceptions of global leadership competencies’ importance vary by company type and job function?

- a. Which global leadership competencies are universal or idiosyncratic per company type?*
- b. Which global leadership competencies are universal or idiosyncratic per job function?*

Perceived Global Leadership Competencies’ Importance by Company Type

In order to address the company type part of the second research question, the means descriptive analysis was used. Table 13 (*Weighted Value of Aggregated Global Leadership Competencies’ Means by Company Type*) shows the perceived differences between company types regarding how a global leadership competency contributes to global leadership effectiveness. Again, there does not appear to be a large difference in the scoring of global leadership competencies per company type. This aggregated table of all global leadership competencies clearly indicates a preferential ranking when considered across all job functions. Overall, global leadership development practitioners clearly indicate a preferential ranking of competencies in this order: *knowledge* (M=22.25), *networking skills* (M=17.49), *social judgment skills* (M=17.18), *engagement in personal transformation* (M=15.04), *self awareness* (M=14.48), and *self regulation* (M=13.71).

Table 13
Weighted Value of Aggregated Global Leadership Competencies' Means by Company Type

Company Type		EPT	K	NS	SJS	SA	SR	O
Global N=104	Mean	14.83	21.44	16.79	16.67	13.95	13.23	2.58
	SD	7.53	7.70	5.22	5.51	5.97	5.06	11.07
Multintl. & Interntl. N=51	Mean	15.48	23.92	18.93	18.21	15.56	14.67	1.34
	SD	10.82	12.32	11.81	10.93	11.17	10.21	3.31
Total	Mean	15.04	22.25	17.49	17.18	14.48	13.71	2.17
	SD	8.72	9.50	8.03	7.72	8.06	7.17	9.26

Legend EPT=*engagement in personal transformation*, K=*knowledge*, NS=*networking skills*, SJS=*social judgment skills*, SA=*self awareness*, SR=*self regulation*. and O=*other*

Respondents were asked to indicate the learning and development budget percentage they would allocate to each of the global leadership competencies for a candidate for international, multinational or global company's leadership positions, reflecting the degree that the global leadership contributes to and facilitates global leadership effectiveness. In summary, to answer the second research question for company type, the means descriptive analysis indicates that there is an appearance of an overall preference of certain global leadership competencies for global leaders. However, company type does not impact the variability of global leadership competencies between international and multinational and global companies. The differences in the means of global leadership competencies per company type included 2.48 for *knowledge* (M=21.44, M=23.92), 2.14 for *networking skills* (M=16.79, M=18.93), 1.54 for *social judgment skills* (M=16.67, M=18.21), 0.65 for *engagement in personal transformation* (M=14.83, M=15.48), 1.61 for *self awareness* (M=13.95, M=15.56), and 1.44 for *self*

regulation (M=13.23, M=14.67). Similar to personality traits, these findings indicate a fairly consistent ordering of global leadership competencies' importance in both company types.

Idiosyncrasy of Global Leadership Competencies per Company Type

To answer the first part of the second research question, “Which global leadership competencies are more idiosyncratic or universal per company type?”, descriptive and inferential analysis was completed on the relationship between company types and global leadership competencies to determine the correlation, strength of direction and statistical significance, the same as was used for the first research question.

Table 14
Correlation Coefficients between Average Global Leadership Competencies and Company Type

Competency	<i>r</i>
Engagement in Personal Transformation	0.03
Knowledge	0.12
Networking Skills	0.13
Social Judgment Skills	0.09
Self Awareness	0.09
Self Regulation	0.09

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

N=155

Using the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Table 14 (*Correlation Coefficients between Average Global Leadership Competencies and Company Type*) above provides correlation coefficients (*r*) of company type and global leadership competencies used in this analysis. There were no differences between

company type and a global leadership competency that had a statistically significant correlation coefficient level ($p < 0.05$). Hence, there is no evidence that preference for specific global leadership competencies varies by company types.

Supporting these findings and similar to the personality traits' process and results, independent samples t-tests results are below (Table 15, *t-tests between Global Leadership Competencies and Company Type*). An independent samples t-test was used to determine whether there was a difference between global leadership competencies between company types. This revealed no significant differences, as all global leadership competencies had a $p > .05$ for company type variability. In summary, while there are differences between the means of global leadership competencies per company type, there are none that are statistically significant.

Table 15
t-tests between Global Leadership Competencies and Company Type

	t	df	Significance	Mean Difference	Global	Internatl & Mulinatl
Engagement in Personal Transformation	-0.43	153	0.67	-0.65	14.83	15.48
Knowledge	-1.53	153	0.13	-2.48	21.44	23.92
Networking Skills	-1.57	153	0.12	-2.14	16.79	18.93
Social Judgment	-1.17	153	0.24	-1.54	16.67	18.21
Self Awareness	-1.17	153	0.24	-1.61	13.95	15.56
Self Regulation	-1.18	153	0.24	-1.44	13.23	14.67

Thus, to answer the first part of the second research question, when identifying idiosyncratic and universal global leadership competencies per company type, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient and independent samples t-tests both indicate that all global leadership competencies are universal. Company type does not determine idiosyncratic global leadership competencies, just like it does not for personality traits.

Perceived Global Leadership Competencies' Importance by Job Function

In order to address the job function part of the second research question like the first research question, the data was analyzed by looking at each global leadership competency (1) within a job function and (2) across the job functions. Because company type does not determine variability between global leadership competencies, this factor was eliminated from these analyses. As shown below (Table 16, *Value of Global Leadership Competencies' Means per Job Function*), respondents clearly differentiated the global leadership competencies per job function, which is different than the findings per company type. When the results are compared within a job function (Figure 5, *Value of Global Leadership Competencies' Means within Job Function*), the global leadership competencies identified by respondents were more clearly identified for all job functions except HR, due to a clear importance placed on the required global leadership competencies. In contrast, respondents did not prioritize the global leadership competencies as clearly for the HR job function.

Table 16
Value of Global Leadership Competencies' Means per Job Function

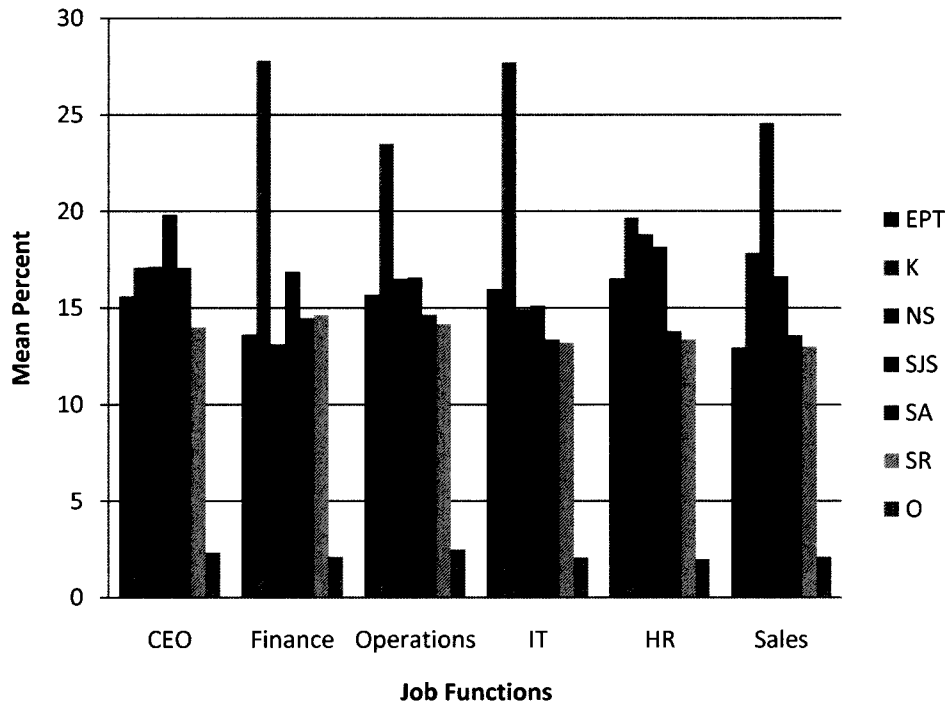
Job Function		EPT	K	NS	SJS	SA	SR	O
CEO	Mean	15.59	17.08	17.11	19.80	17.07	13.99	2.34
	SD	12.57	11.73	11.17	10.89	11.23	9.05	10.52
Finance	Mean	13.61	27.79	13.11	16.85	14.46	14.61	2.09
	SD	9.00	14.15	8.48	9.29	8.12	8.65	9.10
Operations	Mean	15.68	23.48	16.50	16.55	14.62	14.14	2.48
	SD	9.91	12.49	9.72	9.59	9.37	10.56	10.98
IT	Mean	15.96	27.70	14.89	15.11	13.35	13.18	2.06
	SD	11.37	13.32	9.54	9.01	8.97	8.64	9.00
HR	Mean	16.51	19.65	18.79	18.14	13.78	13.34	1.98
	SD	10.45	10.69	10.45	9.10	9.27	9.50	9.85
Sales	Mean	12.93	17.82	24.55	16.61	13.57	12.98	2.10
	SD	7.63	10.09	12.04	7.69	7.93	7.53	9.43

N=155

Legend EPT=*engagement in personal transformation* K=*knowledge* NS=*networking skills*, SJS=*social judgment skills*, SA=*self awareness*, SR=*self regulation*, and O=*other*

Respondents clearly highlighted *knowledge* as the most critical global leadership competency for the finance (M=27.79), operations (M=23.48), and IT (M=27.70) job functions. For the sales job function, networking skills (M=24.55) was the highest rated global leadership competency. Finally, for the CEO job function, respondents identified *social judgment skills* (M=19.80) as the most critical global leadership competency, but not to the degree that the other global leadership competencies were identified for other job functions. However, respondents were not as clear for the human resources (HR) job function, similar to the same issue with this job function when assessing personality traits. Three global leadership competencies were ranked close together at the top:

knowledge (M=19.65), networking skills (M=18.79) and social judgment skills (M=18.14).

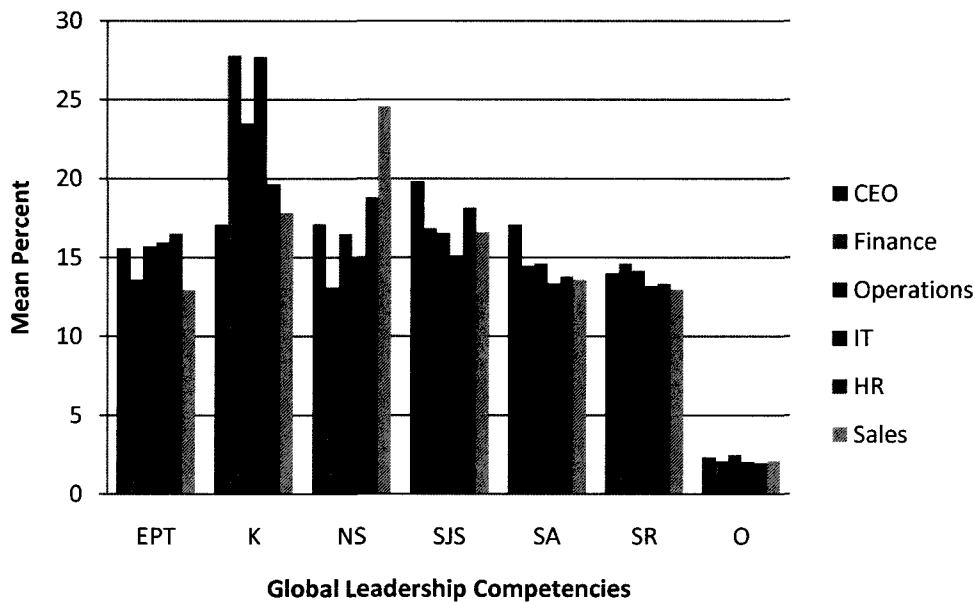


Legend EPT=*engagement in personal transformation*, K=*knowledge*, NS=*networking skills*, SJS=*social judgment skills*, SA=*self awareness*, SR=*self regulation*, and O=*other*

Figure 5
Value of Global Leadership Competencies' Means within Job Function

Another way to look at the same data is to compare how the perceived importance of specific global leadership competencies varied by job function (Figure 6, *Value of Global Leadership Competencies' Means across Job Functions*). The global leadership competencies identified by respondents are more clearly identified for *networking skills* than all other global leadership competencies (*engagement in personal transformation, knowledge, social judgment skills, social awareness, and self regulation*). Respondents

clearly highlighted the sales job function with a clear global leadership competency preference of *networking skills* (M=24.55). The next closest was the HR job function (M=18.79), representing a gap differences between means of 5.76.



Legend EPT=*engagement in personal transformation*, K=*knowledge*, NS=*networking skills*, SJS=*social judgment skills*, SA=*self awareness*, SR=*self regulation*, and O=*other*

Figure 6
Value of Global Leadership Competencies’ Means across Job Functions

In summary, the respondents prioritized global leadership competencies as more important within job functions: *networking skills* for sales; *social judgment skills* for CEO; *knowledge* for finance, operations, and IT; and *knowledge, networking skills* and *social judgment skills* for HR. An interesting result was that *engagement in personal transformation, self awareness* and *self regulation* were the three global leadership competencies that did not rate high for any job function.

To answer the second research question, the means of global leadership competencies between job functions indicate that there is a definite preference of global leadership competencies per job function, leading to variability (Figure 6, *Weighted Value of Global Leadership Competencies' Means across Job Functions*). This is different than the findings per company type, where there was not a difference between global leadership competencies. Similar to the findings for personality traits, global leadership competencies seem to be universal per company type but idiosyncratic per job functions.

Idiosyncrasy of Global Leadership Competencies per Job Function

To analyze the extent to which preferred global leadership competencies varied by job function, the RM-ANOVA test was used to determine whether any of the global leadership competencies' differences per job function were statistically significant. Similar to personality traits, all of the data failed Mauchley's test of sphericity and the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was used throughout (Table 17, *Global Leadership Competencies' Statistical Significant Differences per Job Functions*).

Table 17
Global Leadership Competencies' Statistical Significant Differences per Job Functions

Global Leadership Competency	ϵ	F	Post-Hoc
Engagement in Personal Transformation	0.84	8.93	7/15
Knowledge	0.81	51.70	12/15
Networking Skills	0.68	48.86	12/15
Social Judgment	0.85	12.30	6/15
Self Awareness	0.73	12.10	5/15
Self Regulation	0.89	1.72	0/15

In order to assess if the global leadership competencies were idiosyncratic per job function, the RM-ANOVA assessed the differences of the means. For *engagement in personal transformation*, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was $\epsilon = .84$ ($F_{(4\ 2, 648\ 4)} = 8.93$), and the Bonferroni correction for the post-hoc pair-wise comparisons indicated that 7 out of the 15 job function comparisons had statistically significant differences. For *knowledge*, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was $\epsilon = .81$ ($F_{(4\ 2, 642\ 8)} = 51.7$), and the Bonferroni correction for the post-hoc pair-wise comparisons indicated that 12 out of the 15 job function comparisons had statistically significant differences. For *networking skills*, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was $\epsilon = .68$ ($F_{(3\ 4, 520\ 6)} = 48.86$), and the Bonferroni correction for the post-hoc pair-wise comparisons indicated that 12 out of the 15 job function comparisons had statistically significant differences. For *social judgment skills*, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was $\epsilon = .85$ ($F_{(4\ 2, 650\ 3)} = 12.3$), and the Bonferroni correction for the post-hoc pair-wise comparisons indicated that 6 out of the 15 job function comparisons had statistically significant differences. For *self awareness*, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was $\epsilon = .73$ ($F_{(3\ 7, 565\ 5)} = 12.1$), and the Bonferroni correction for the post-hoc pair-wise comparisons indicated that 5 out of the 15 job function comparisons had statistically significant differences. For *self regulation*, the Greenhouse-Geisser epsilon corrective coefficient was $\epsilon = .89$ ($F_{(4\ 5, 686\ 2)} = 1.72$); thus, a Bonferroni correction was not required for this global leadership competency. Hence, there is evidence that the differences in global leadership competencies' means scores are different across job functions, except for *self regulation*.

Thus, to answer the second part of the second research question, when identifying idiosyncratic and universal global leadership competencies per job function, the RM-ANOVA test indicates that all global leadership competencies are idiosyncratic, except for *self regulation* which is universal. It is interesting to note that this is opposite of the company type variable where *extroversion* was the only personality trait or global leadership competency that was idiosyncratic per company type; for job function, every personality trait and global leadership competency is idiosyncratic except for the global leadership competency *self regulation*.

Similar to personality traits, taking this discussion further is a comparison of the means of each respondent's standard deviations between the job functions illustrating a ranking of the degree idiosyncrasy. After the RM-ANOVA compared variance for all respondents for each global leadership competency per job function, this next analysis established the mean of each respondent's standard deviations of the global leadership competencies per job function (Table 18, *Global Leadership Competencies' Mean Standard Deviations for Respondents' Perceptions*.) These reported means represent the learning and development budget percentage that respondents would allocate to each of the global leadership competencies for a candidate for international, multinational or global company's leadership positions, reflecting the degree that the global leadership contributes to and facilitates global leadership effectiveness.

The most idiosyncratic global leadership competency was *knowledge*, which had a standard deviation means of $M=7.75$. Following in order of the degree of being idiosyncratic, the global leadership competencies were: *networking skills* ($M=6.47$), *self*

regulation (M=4.83), *engagement in personal transformation* (M=4.72), *self awareness* (M=4.51), and *social judgment skills* (M=3.86). This confirms that not only are global leadership competencies idiosyncratic per job functions, but that the degree of being idiosyncratic varies between global leadership competencies.

Interestingly, the standard deviations' mean of *self regulation* was greater than three other global leadership competencies. After following the results above, this indicates that while the average *self regulation* ranking makes it universal across job functions, the individual respondents varied significantly when rating *self regulation*.

Table 18
Global Leadership Competencies' Mean Standard Deviations for Respondents' Perceptions

Competency	EPT	K	NS	SJS	SA	SR
SD Mean	4.72	7.75	6.47	3.86	4.51	4.83

N=155

Legend EPT=*engagement in personal transformation*, K=*knowledge*, NS=*networking skills*, SJS=*social judgment skills*, SA=*self awareness*, SR=*self regulation*, and O=*other*

In conclusion, to answer the second research question, the descriptive (mean, standard deviation, frequency, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient) and inferential (independent samples t-tests, RM-ANOVA) analyses indicated a strong relationship and a statistically significant difference for a global leadership competency by job function, but not by company type, except for the global leadership competency *self regulation*. Global leadership development practitioners perceived the global leadership competencies to vary in importance by job function, making them “idiosyncratic” versus more “universal” by company type.

Qualitative Responses: Weighting Personality Traits and Global Leadership Competencies

Because respondents based their ratings on their personal experience with job function requirements, answers and perspectives were diverse when respondents answered, “What criterion was important to you in assigning relative weights within or across job functions?” The content of the responses for both personality traits and global leadership competencies were very similar, as were the response rates. 146 (94.2%) answered for personality traits, while 129 (83.2%) answered for global leadership competencies.

For assessing personality traits, 54 respondents discussed understanding the job requirements at a high level as the criteria they used, saying: “Expectations of the role, client needs, organizational needs, etc.,” and “The nature of the role and the context (internally versus externally oriented).” Other respondents focused more on specific responsibilities, including 29 respondents highlighting the interactions required by the job, saying “Primary consideration was given to the specific results and immediate interactions for which individuals in these positions would have responsibility.” There were 9 respondents who commented on performance expectations, saying “Ability to accomplish, to get things done.” In addition, there were 6 who focused on the global aspects, saying “To what degree the function requires flexibility in its approach working globally and understanding and appreciating local needs.” Next, 4 held leaders responsible, saying “Thinking about the broad responsibilities of each function and how they would require different capabilities to be effective.” Finally, 3 communicated the emotional needs, saying “Key emotional requirements for sustained success in the

position.” Perspective about the job requirements from corporate work experience was cited by 13 respondents, including one who said, “I considered my understanding of primary roles/responsibilities for each function, and based on experience in an enterprise corporation and familiarity with leadership development programs, made my weighting decisions accordingly.”

Some other interesting insights from several respondents included the “perception of organization culture” by assessing that the “leaders set the behavioral standards” for the organization, and that “company culture is more important than functional differences.” Another interesting discussion point by a few respondents related to balance, specifically, “senior leaders need multi-faceted skills and need not be dominated by one or another aspect - hence the relative balance across all scales in most cases.” Similar, another respondent said, “I think that every executive role must be grounded in each of these factors with some flexibility,” and that “there is so much cross-functional work being done today that it is imperative for everyone to possess similar leadership traits....that is not to say that everyone must be mirror images of each other, but there needs to core skills that all leaders should be expected to possess or work towards as they take on the critical role of leading others.”

For assessing global leadership competencies, some respondents focused more on specific responsibilities including the 47 respondents who discussed understanding the job requirements at a high level as the criteria they used, saying “Ability to achieve functional outcomes and strategic objectives, relevant experience, ability to positively influence overall performance of company.” This also included 15 respondents who

highlighted the interactions required by the job, saying “Quality of interactions with clients and personal responsibility for implementing the role assigned.” Also, 8 commented on performance expectations, saying “Critical to business success and cultural transformation.” Next, 6 focused on the knowledge required, saying “Having a strong knowledge base for doing the job and exceeding expectations.” In addition, 3 held leaders responsible, saying “Knowing the positioning of each resource for their particular job and responsibilities.” Only 1 mentioned the global aspect. Finally, 11 respondents referenced their corporate work experience in order to have a perspective about the job requirements, saying “Thinking of typical people filling those roles and where they would need more or less education at their level to make them suitable for international assignments or working with multi-cultural groups.”

Thus, because global leadership development practitioners identified job function over company type for determining if a personality trait or global leadership competency was important, their criteria for assessing job function is critical to understand. In addition to each respondent’s corporate experience, it appears that the respondents’ understanding of each job function’s requirements, including interaction, performance expectations, knowledge, global aspects and responsibilities, impacted their weighting.

Qualitative Responses:
Listing “Other” Personality Traits and Global Leadership Competencies

In order to assess if the survey-provided framework of five personality traits and six global leadership competencies was suitable for measuring global leadership, at the end of each job function, the survey respondent could use an open text box to add to the list. For personality traits, they could add to the supplied list of the “Big Five.” As with

the literature review, the respondents did not differentiate between personality traits and global leadership competencies as this theoretic construct does. Thus, when respondents added personality traits to the open text box, they actually were entering ideas that were classified for the purposes of this study as global leadership competencies. One of the other primary causes of this was the survey structure, where questions about the global leadership competencies came after the personality traits; thus, if a respondent was going to add to the list, they did it at the first chance they had.

When asked to add a personality trait for each job function, only 15 respondents (9.7%) added a personality trait for at least 1 job function. If a respondent added a personality trait for one job function, then most of them added a personality trait for all six job functions. There was little consensus on what was added. In fact, the only additions that were listed by more than one respondent are captured below (Table 19, *Other Personality Traits by Job Function*.) This indicates that this dissertation’s use of the “Big Five” personality traits was a generally appropriate list.

Table 19
Other Personality Traits by Job Function

Other Personality Trait	CEO	Fin	Oper	IT	HR	Sales
Adaptable			2	2		
Analytical		2				
Dealing with Ambiguity	2					
Determination	2					
Integrative Systems Thinking				2		
Integrity	4	3	2	2	2	2
Intelligence	2	2	2	3	3	3
Personable						2
Strategic Thinking	4					

Thus, for all job functions, *intelligence* and *integrity* have the highest number of repeat occurrences at 15 each because respondents believed this to be the foundation of being a global leader. Intelligence aligns to the *knowledge* global leadership competency, defined as “The knowledge of business literacy (opportunities, systems, standards, issues) and savvy needed to perform.” Integrity aligns to the *self regulation* global leadership competency, defined as “The ability to control impulses, maintain integrity and remain flexible as one adapts to new situations.” The other items listed for the CEO job function included *strategic thinking* and *determination* which align to the global leadership competency *social judgment skills*, defined as “The skill to have a big picture and long-term orientation (cause-effect, interdependencies, consequences) considering multiple constituents’ perspective.” For the financial job function, another item listed was *analytical thinking* which aligns to the *knowledge* competency.

Similarly, at the end of each job function for global leadership competencies, the survey respondent could use an open text box to add in a global leadership competency that was not included on the supplied list. There were only six responses (3.9%) to this question, possibly because respondents had already added their perspective to the “other” open text box in personality traits. One competency listed for the CEO job function included *strategist* and *architect* (2), which again aligns to the global leadership competency *social judgment skills*.

In summary, the model of personality traits and global leadership competencies was validated by the lack of additions offered by the respondents. Also, for both the personality traits and the global leadership competencies, the respondent could weight the

importance of their addition. However, the weightings were most likely to occur between the low range of 10% and 20%.

**Comparison:
Personality Traits vs. Global Leadership Competencies**

Research Question 3: Do global leadership development practitioners perceive personality traits or global leadership competencies more important in contributing to and facilitating global leadership effectiveness?

Even though personality traits and global leadership competencies are part of two separate talent management functions, recruiting and succession planning as well as learning and development respectively, one area to address is global leadership development practitioners' perspectives of the comparative importance of these two. To answer the third research question, the respondents were asked, "How would you compare personality traits and global leadership competencies in contributing to and facilitating global leadership effectiveness?"

Interestingly, per Figure 7 (*Comparison of Importance: Personality Traits vs. Global Leadership Competencies Frequency*), the results looked like a bell curve, with the most frequency (N=50, 32.3%) perceiving that they are the same, while there was a similar number who slightly favored personality traits (N=44, 28.4%) as did global leadership competencies (N=36, 23.2%). A much smaller percentage of respondents thought that much more important were personality traits (N=14, 9.0%) or global leadership competencies (N=11, 7.1%). Even though the results were similar to a bell

curve, there was a slight preference favoring personality traits over global leadership competencies as far as contributing to and facilitating global leadership effectiveness. However, because many respondents did not differentiate between personality traits and global leadership competencies in a separate question when adding to the respective list in “other”, these results may not be reliable.

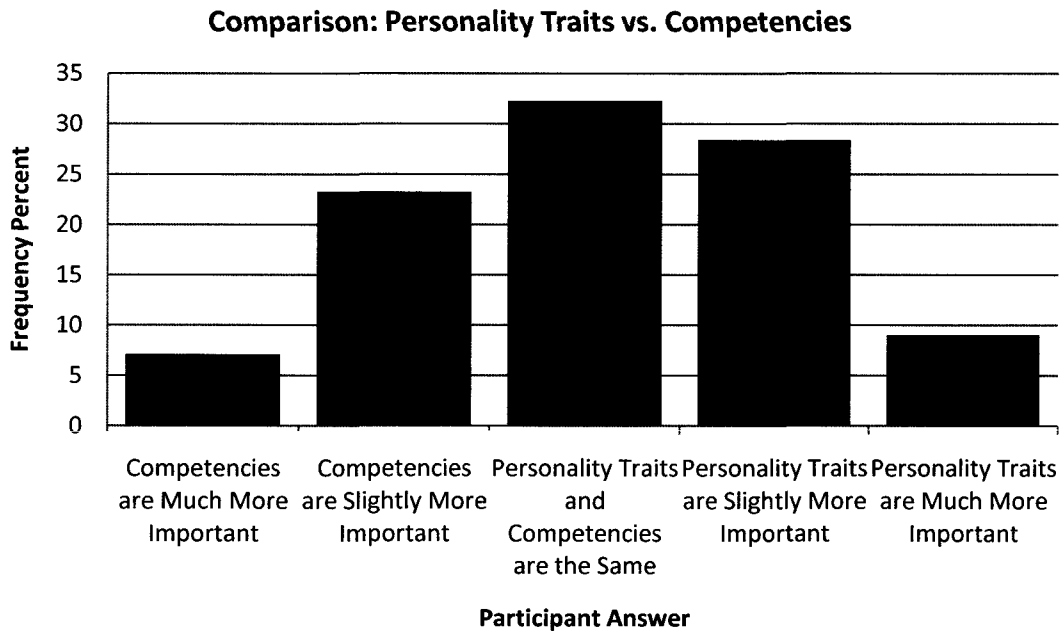


Figure 7
Comparison of Importance: Personality Traits vs. Global Leadership Competencies Frequency

Competencies’ Comparison: Domestic vs. Global Importance

Because the global leadership competencies’ descriptions did not differentiate global from domestic, the respondents from international, multinational and global companies (N=155) were asked, “To what extent do you feel that the importance of each

of the competencies below differs for leaders in international, multinational and global companies versus those in domestic companies?”

As shown below on Table 20 (*Competency Importance Comparison: Domestic vs. Global Frequency*), no more than five respondents indicated competencies “slightly more” or “much more” for domestic. Instead, the respondents thought that global leadership competencies were either the “same” importance, “slightly more important for global”, or “much more important for global.” The respondents’ rating of four out of six competencies as more important for global than domestic leaders reinforces the conceptual framework. In summary, the global leadership competencies ranked in order of most importance for global instead of domestic was: *social judgment skills, networking skills, self awareness, self regulation, engagement in personal transformation, and knowledge.*

Table 20
Competency Importance Comparison: Domestic vs. Global Frequency

			EPT	K	NS	SJS	SA	SR
Domestic	Much More	Pct	1.29%	1.29%	1.29%	1.29%	0.65%	1.94%
		Freq	2	2	2	2	1	3
	Slightly More	Pct	1.94%	0.65%	1.94%	1.29%	3.23%	3.23%
		Freq	3	1	3	2	5	5
Same		Pct	52.26%	51.61%	30.32%	27.74%	34.19%	36.13%
		Freq	81	80	47	43	53	56
Global	Slightly More	Pct	27.10%	31.61%	38.71%	31.61%	27.74%	32.90%
		Freq	42	49	60	49	43	51
	Much More	Pct	17.42%	14.84%	27.74%	38.06%	34.19%	25.81%
		Freq	27	23	43	59	53	40

Legend EPT=*engagement in personal transformation*, K=*knowledge*, NS=*networking skills*, SJS=*social judgment skills*, SA=*self awareness*, SR=*self regulation*, and O=*other*

Three competencies received the most responses in “same,” which were *engagement in personal transformation* (N=81, 52.26%), *knowledge* (N=80, 51.61%), and *self regulation* (N=56, 36.13%). *Engagement in personal transformation* and *knowledge* were the only two competencies that did not have a majority of respondents ranking them as more important for global than domestic. This being said, these three global leadership competencies also received significant responses combined for being “slightly more” or “much more important for global”, with *engagement in personal transformation* receiving 69 responses (44.52%), *knowledge* receiving 72 responses (46.45%), and *self regulation* receiving 91 responses (58.71%).

In addition to *self regulation*, there were three other global leadership competencies having a majority rank it as more important for global leaders. The *networking skills* competency (N=60, 38.71%) was “slightly more for global”, and combined with “much more for global” received 103 responses (66.45%). *Social judgment skills* (N=59, 38.06%) and *self awareness* (N=53, 34.19%) were “much more important for global,” and when combined with “slightly more for global” they received 108 responses (69.67%) and 96 responses (61.93%) respectively.

Learning and Development Methods for Global Leadership Competencies

Research Question 4: Which learning and development methods do global leadership development practitioners consider most effective for developing each global leadership competency?

Survey respondents were asked, “Which learning and development method is the most effective in developing each global leadership competency?” (Table 21, *Learning*

and Development Method Frequency per Competency). Overall, across the seven learning and development methods, four of them ranked first for one of the six global leadership competencies, and one of the other three was ranked second and third for two other competencies. This illustrates that the learning and development method is very dependent on the global leadership competency subject matter.

Table 21
Learning and Development Method Frequency per Competency

Learning and Development Method		EPT	K	NS	SJS	SA	SR	Total	
High Contact	Expatriate Assignment	Pct	10.97%	30.32%	9.68%	15.48%	10.32%	6.45%	13.87%
		Freq	17	47	15	24	16	10	129
	Global Teams	Pct	4.52%	27.74%	54.84%	16.77%	7.74%	7.10%	19.78%
		Freq	7	43	85	26	12	11	184
	Experiential Learning	Pct	22.58%	24.52%	10.97%	27.74%	10.97%	11.61%	18.06%
		Freq	35	38	17	43	17	18	168
	Coaching	Pct	32.26%	2.58%	10.32%	17.42%	20.00%	45.16%	21.29%
		Freq	50	4	16	27	31	70	198
Low Contact	Intercultural Training	Pct	3.87%	12.26%	9.68%	13.55%	10.32%	1.29%	8.49%
		Freq	6	19	15	21	16	2	79
	Assessment	Pct	10.97%	2.58%	3.23%	4.52%	21.29%	9.68%	8.71%
		Freq	17	4	5	7	33	15	81
	Reflection	Pct	14.84%	0%	1.29%	4.52%	19.35%	18.71%	9.78%
		Freq	23	0	2	7	30	29	91

Legend EPT=engagement in personal transformation, K=knowledge, NS=networking skills, SJS=social judgment skills, SA=self awareness, SR=self regulation, and O=other

When assessing the different learning and development methods, the largest preference (N=85, 54.84%) was for the *global teams* method to develop the *networking*

skills competency, but it was also perceived effective in developing the *knowledge* competency (N=43, 27.74%). *Coaching* was the preferred method for the *engagement in personal transformation* (N=40, 32.26%) and *self regulation* (N=70, 45.16%) competencies, as well as being perceived as effective for the *self awareness* competency (N=31, 20.00%). *Expatriate assignment* was the preferred method for the *knowledge* competency (N=47, 30.32%), and *assessment* method was the preferred method for the *self awareness* competency (N=33, 21.29%). *Experiential learning* method was the preferred method for *social judgment skills* competency (N=43, 27.74%), and was perceived effective for the *knowledge* competency (N=38, 24.52%) and *engagement in personal transformation* competency (N=35, 22.58%). The *reflection* method was not the first choice for any of the competencies; yet, was the second choice for *self regulation* (N=29, 18.71%) and third choice for *self awareness* (N=30, 19.35%) competencies. The *intercultural training* method did not rank very high for any of the competencies. In summary, the learning and development method in a GLD program clearly depends on the competencies to be developed. Also, it is important for a GLD program to include a blended approach to learning and development methods. One respondent said, “The power of these methods lie in their combination...to leverage, intersect with, or combine the other methods.”

Another way to analyze the learning and development methods is to aggregate them from all the competencies. In doing so, definite overall preferences appear. *Coaching* (N=198) was ranked the highest, followed by *global teams* (N=184), *experiential learning* (N=168) and *expatriate assignment* (N=129.) These four learning

and development methods represent the more experiential and high contact methods, which supports previous research indicating these methods to be more effective. One respondent's comment reflected this finding that most effective learning and development methods are high contact, saying "In general: theory is necessary but real experience within real situations is indispensable." The didactic and low contact learning and development methods, previously found to be less effective, were all ranked as the bottom three, with *reflection* (N=91), *assessment* (N=81) and *intercultural training* (N=79.) One finding was that the *self awareness* competency is the only one where respondents showed a preference for low contact learning and development methods.

When respondents were asked what additional learning and development methods they would add to the list, 64 responded (41.3%). The respondents' answers that occurred more than once included: mentoring (N=11), on-the-job assignments (N=11), university courses (N=6), social networking (N=6), action/problem-based learning (N=5), e-learning (N=4), job shadowing (N=2), memberships in local and community organizations (N=2), feedback structure/system (N=2), and foreign language skills (N=2).

Summary

The descriptive (mean, standard deviation, frequency, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient) and inferential (independent samples t-tests, RM-ANOVA) analyses described in this chapter provide a quantitative look at the research questions proposed in this study. This research explored and assisted in identifying the perceived universal and idiosyncratic personality traits and global leadership competencies, as well as the perceived effective learning and development methods for those competencies.

However, this dissertation has several study limitations to this research design, including: not providing evidence of evaluation, not providing evidence for the learning and development method impact or outcome on global leadership competency development, not identifying factors that may have an equal or greater effect on a global leader's effectiveness than personality traits and global leadership competencies, a decreasing in the validity and generalizability of the findings due to the sample of convenience, predicting of success in a job function biased by a respondent's perspectives, and the identifying of company types causing the sample size of international and multinational companies to be smaller than global companies.

Per the last limitation, if one assume the identification of company types to be accurate, then the results demonstrate that personality traits and global leadership competencies appear to be mostly universal across company type. However, all the personality traits and global leadership competencies have the statistically significant differences per job function, except for *self regulation*, which is universal. All the other personality traits and global leadership competencies are idiosyncratic per job function.

From the qualitative data, respondents primarily considered a leader's job function role and the corresponding requirements around knowledge, job functions and experience when weighting the personality traits and global leadership competencies. Also, respondents did not add a new personality trait or global leadership competency to the provided lists. When asked if personality traits or global leadership competencies were more important, the answers were fairly split, with a slight favoring towards personality traits.

The preferred learning and development methods vary, and are dependent on the global leadership competency to be developed. The *global teams* method is perceived to be the most effective in developing the *networking skills* competency, the *coaching* method for the *engagement in personal transformation* and *self regulation* competencies, the *expatriate assignment* method for *knowledge* competency, the *assessment* method for the *self awareness* competency, and the *experiential learning* method for the *social judgment skills* competency. In addition, the *reflection* method was also preferred for both the *self regulation* and *self awareness* competencies.

The following chapter will discuss the implications of these results and present recommendations based on the findings of the research.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

As our world “shrinks” and globalization increases, companies are changing strategies and operational procedures, which are dependent on leaders to deploy and implement. As companies evolve from domestic companies towards international, multinational and global companies, preparing future global leaders becomes an essential component for successfully carrying out corporate global strategies. Because of this, there is an increasing need for global leaders; yet, they are not prepared, causing a significant shortage of global leaders, which is a critical issue for human resource departments.

Thus, global leadership development (GLD) programs are urgently needed to address the gap between global leadership needs and the capacity shortage, and should be a major focus of HR’s talent management. Even though GLD significantly impacts company performance, current GLD programs offered by practitioners are deficient and there is disjointed research on the topic by scholars. However, there is a growing consensus around global leadership attributes (personality, values, cultural background and corporate work experience) used for the recruiting and succession planning talent management functions, global leadership competencies (engagement in personal transformation, knowledge, networking skills, social judgment skills, self awareness, and self regulation) used for the career development talent management function, and learning and development methods (expatriate assignment, global teams, experiential learning, coaching, intercultural training, assessment and reflection) used for the learning

and development talent management function. This chapter discusses the implications of the study and provides recommendations to consider for practitioners that are providing global leadership development for their companies.

Implications

Based on the conceptual framework and the research findings, there are several implications for discussion. First, the research question hypothesis that personality traits and global leadership competencies would be idiosyncratic to company type was not supported by the data; instead, it was primarily idiosyncratic to job function. Second, when comparing domestic versus global leaders, the research responses indicated that certain global leadership competencies were considerably more important for global leaders than for domestic, while others were more comparable. However, the findings indicate that it is not a different competency requirement, but instead the degree of competency proficiency that increases for a global role. Third, the list of competencies must be manageable, clearly defined and comprehensive. And fourth, the learning and development method is very dependent on the global leadership competency to be developed, and companies should prioritize their learning and development budgets based on these findings.

Idiosyncratic personality traits and global leadership competencies

While there was variability of personality traits and global leadership competencies per job function except for *self regulation*, there was not variability per company type except for *extroversion*. While there was a hypothesis that the personality

traits and global leadership competencies would vary by company type, other researchers have stated that they would not. Lokkesmoe (2009) said that global leaders are interchangeable with international, multinational, transnational and cross-cultural leadership.

Because there is not variability in personality traits and global leadership competencies based on company type, determining which of these are idiosyncratic is primarily based on job function. The idea of idiosyncratic personality traits and competencies, specific to the context, is from long-standing research on situational leadership. In support of situational leadership theory and contingency theory, the job function circumstances attribute great importance to the situational context in which certain people rise to leadership. Based upon Fiedler's contingency theory of 1967 (Lokkesmoe, 2009), the leader's job function moderates the relationship between the leader's personality traits and effectiveness (Dorfman, 1996). One's job function impacts the global leadership idiosyncratic competencies, because leaders adjust their behaviors to meet the situation requirements (House & Javidan, 2002).

Yet, job functions will have varying degrees of impact on the personality traits and global leadership competencies (Morrison, 2000), moderating a larger impact on the idiosyncratic personality traits and global leadership competencies. In summary, it is critical that companies identify the job function for the global leader so that the correct idiosyncratic personality traits can be used for recruiting and succession planning, and the correct idiosyncratic global leadership competencies can be used for career development and learning and development. However, the international, multinational and global

company type does not impact the idiosyncratic personality traits or global leadership competencies except for *extroversion*.

Comparing domestic versus global leaders

Second, in *Global Leadership Development*, Vloeberghs & Macfarlane (2007) discussed the failure to rigorously and collectively define global leadership due to confusion between global and domestic leaders. Some argue that global leadership is not simply an extension of a national, domestic, ethnocentric leadership model to a global market (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992), because domestic leadership competencies do not work well for broader, international application (Morrison, 2000). However, when compiling many scholars' research lists of global leadership competencies for the meta-analysis (Appendix A), very few of them differentiated domestic versus global. During data collection and analysis, respondents were asked the importance of a competency for a global versus domestic leader, and they replied that all the competencies were the same or more important for global leaders. In addition to this, when the survey respondents had an opportunity to add a global leadership competency in an open text box labeled "other", the competencies they added were not differentiated as "global." This leads to a contradiction to those who claim that there are different competencies for global leaders, and instead, an agreement with those who say that the difference is one of context and degree.

Global leadership is substantially distinct from its domestic counterpart (Lokkesmoe, 2009), is more critical (Tung, 1984), and has a significant degree of difference (Black & Gregersen, 2000) because the global context significantly increases

the valence, intensity, and complexity (Mendenhall, 2008). Thus, it may be the same competency for a domestic and global leader, but the proficiency level needed is much greater for a global leader. The challenge of global leadership demands new approaches and not doing “more of the same”, resulting in business leaders requiring a new proficiency of competencies (Robinson & Harvey, 2008). Black & Gregersen (2000) captured this proficiency difference requirement when they wrote, “A domestic leader need only put his mind around one country, limited cultural paradigms, one political system, and one set of labor laws. A global leader must stretch his/her mind to encompass the entire world with hundreds of countries, cultures, and business contexts” (p. 174).

However, some competencies were considerably more important for global leaders than domestic. The six competencies had two categorized as knowledge, two as skills and two as abilities. The two skill competencies, *networking skills* and *social judgment skills*, were ranked the highest for being important for a global role. Conversely, the knowledge competencies, *engagement in personal transformation* and *knowledge*, were the two competencies that ranked the highest for both domestic and global, even though there was still a clear preference for these two knowledge competencies to be important for global leadership. The two ability competencies, *self regulation* and *self awareness*, were between these two – knowledge and skills. Assessing this, it appears that while knowledge competencies are important for global leadership, they are also important for domestic leadership. Yet, more important for global leadership are ability competencies and especially skill competencies. In summary, it seems logical that *networking skills* and *social judgment skills* would be more critical for a global leader

than a domestic leader, as the magnitude of the leadership position expands the geographic area that one's network covers, requiring these skills to compensate for this degree of difference.

Manageable, clearly defined, and comprehensive lists of personality traits and global leadership competencies

Although there was a provided list of personality traits and global leadership competencies, a high number of respondents added to the list via the open ended text box in the survey titled "other." However, when it came to weighting their addition versus the provided list, the respondents did not rate these additions very high. There were many more additions to the list of personality traits than global leadership competencies, but when these additions were analyzed, they were all classified as competencies instead of personality traits. It is possible that there were more additions added to the personality traits for two reasons: (1) practitioners as well as scholars do not clearly differentiate or define personality traits or competencies, and (2) the survey covered personality traits before competencies, so many respondents did not differentiate between these two and added their competencies when they had the opportunity to do so. This meant that competencies were added in the personality trait section.

Similar to the meta-analysis process of aligning multiple lists of global leadership competencies to the established list of six, the survey respondent's additions to "other" could be aligned to a global leadership competency already on the list. This highlights the need for scholars and practitioners to provide clear definitions when using lists of personality traits and competencies. Providing a definition with clarity was one of the

challenges faced with completing the meta-analysis of global leadership competencies, since there were many competencies that needed to be represented when aligned to each of the six.

This challenge being acknowledged, the simplification of a list of global leadership competencies is critical to increase practitioner adoption. Research has shown lists of global leadership competencies with a maximum of six are easier to assess, after which it becomes less manageable for the practitioners (Dive, 2005; Alon & Higgins, 2005). The alternative to an efficient streamlined list is an exhaustive and comprehensive list of competencies that can become complex, difficult to assess, and inefficient (Morrison, 2000). A larger list of competencies is “missing a sense of hierarchy, internal homogeneity, or exclusivity in the dimensions identified” (Morrison, 2000, p.122). In summary, while both of these lists of personality traits and global leadership competencies may not be exhaustive and could change, there also needs to be a focused effort on keeping the lists to a manageable number of six or less.

Considering the discussion above, the next discussion is around company considerations when developing and implementing personality traits and global leadership competencies into their talent management functions. As important as it is for talent management, there are many challenges, including: lack of empirical research (Jokinen, 2005), lack of understanding of a global leader’s process or context-specific contingencies influencing behavior (Osland & Bird, 2006), instant customization (Bonnstetter, 2000), changing business situations (Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan, & Robertson, 2004) and bias of each scholar focusing on different elements: contextual

considerations or personality traits (Vloeberghs & Macfarlane, 2007). The last one, scholars focusing on different elements, is due to a lack of agreement on what global leadership competencies should be developed (Tubbs & Jablokow, 2009). Recent research on global leadership competencies cover a broad spectrum (DiStefano & Maznevski, 2000), including models of 12 (Moran & Riesenberger, 1994), 8 (Yeung & Ready, 1995), 10 (Kets de Vries & Mead, 1992), 12 (Kets de Vries, Vrignaud, & Florent-Treacy, 2004); 9 (Campbell, 2006), 50 (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006), 12 (Yukl, Gordon, and Taber, 2002), and 22 (Peterson, 2004). The complexity of these lists of global leadership competencies complicates end-user adoption (Morrison, 2000).

This study was designed to address this complexity, as well as to meet the need identified by Lokkesmoe (2009), who said that the knowledge, skills, and abilities identified for each global leadership competency needed to be refined. Through this paper's systematic approach to structuring global leadership competencies (Allen, 1991), including identifying universal versus idiosyncratic based on job function, the company will benefit by conveying to its employees a global leadership concept aligned to their structured GLD program (Ajarimah, 2001). In contrast, the lack of clarity about global leadership competencies makes it much more difficult to build an effective GLD program (Bonnstetter, 2000). Some GLD programs are unsuccessful because there is no agreed definition of competencies, individuals are assessed on too many competencies, and there is a lack of context in which these competencies are assessed (Dive, 2005). In summary, this paper's research findings should help a company's talent management with personality traits and global leadership competencies; whether they deploy it as a

generalizable off-the shelf list or instead use it to help create a company-specific list (Morrison, 2000).

Prioritizing learning and development budgets

Based on the universal and idiosyncratic global leadership competencies, companies should prioritize their budgets with consideration for the learning and development methods that are dependent on the global leadership competencies. Even though companies have a need for more global leaders in the future, companies are deficient in developing leaders for global business (Suutari, 2002) who manage diverse cultures, capabilities and customers (Morrison, 2000) because they are not clear on how to identify and develop global leadership competencies (May, 1997). Without an internal company-specific list of global leadership competencies, the GLD will invariably proceed in a disjointed way instead of being accelerated (Morrison, 2000). As evidence of this, there is large GLD sophistication variance among global companies (Vloeberghs & Macfarlane, 2007), where some companies have structure and others are more ad hoc (Shen, 2005). Gregersen, Morrison, and Black (1998) surveyed U.S. Fortune 500 firms and found: 8% had comprehensive GLD systems, 16% had some established programs, 44% used an ad hoc approach, and 32% were just beginning.

As in the field of leadership development, greater success has been achieved in identifying who global leaders are, what global leaders do, and what skills a global leader might need, than in determining how to develop or measure those skills (Lokkesmoe, 2009). Once a company defines the global leadership competencies per job function, the

leadership development process can focus on each individual's strengths and developmental needs (Bueno & Tubbs, 2004), and these leadership development processes can be adjusted for efficiency in developing the prioritized competencies (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). By conducting an individual and aggregate organizational gap analysis with the global leadership competencies, a company can then target individual and corporate development programs for maximum efficiency (Neary & O'Grady, 2000), as well as improve leaders' deficient levels in competencies (Bueno, Antolin, & Tubbs, 2004).

Thus, once the needed global leadership competencies for a company or individual are clearly defined in career development, then the learning and development function determines the appropriate learning and development methods. This paper's findings indicated that the learning and development method preferences in order were: *coaching*, *global teams*, *experiential learning*, and *expatriate assignment*. These four learning and development methods that are more experiential and high contact are consistent with Caligiuri and Tarique's previous research on this topic (2009). Their research indicated that more experiential and high contact methods are more likely to change behaviors, as well as are more likely to be seen as effective or relevant when compared to didactic / low contact developmental experiences, such as *reflection*, *assessment* and *intercultural training*. This finding is similar to the findings from Bueno and Tubbs' (2004) study that found global leaders attributed their global leadership competencies to different sources: 33.80% work experience, 32.39% natural ability, 14.08% role models, 9.86% formal training, 4.23% age, and 5.63% other. Global

leadership comes from conceptual knowledge learned in training programs being applied to real situations, which require the participant to learn new customs, foreign business procedures, and new ways of thinking (Oddou, Mendenhall, & Bonner Ritchie, 2000).

However, most companies emphasize efficiency (time and cost), which lessens the opportunity for internalizing and transforming (Mendenhall & Stahl, 2000). The low cost methods are usually the didactic / low contact. This results in GLD not producing the promised leadership bench, and resulting in training that is a short-term intellectual experience (Schein, 2005). In summary, companies should invest, based on the structured universal and idiosyncratic global leadership competencies, in both (1) organizations and individual assessment, and then in (2) experiential and high contact training.

Recommendations

When a practitioner is building a global leadership development program, it is recommended to use an integrated approach of recruiting and succession planning based on the personal attributes, career development based on the global leadership competencies, and learning and development based on the methods most effective per competency. Because practitioners essentially view personality traits and global leadership competencies the same when it comes to global leadership effectiveness (Table 21, *Comparison: Personality Traits vs. Global Leadership Competencies*), equal weight should be placed between recruiting and succession planning as well as career development and learning and development. In addition, this supports a practitioners'

perspective that the trait leadership theory is valuable to them, even if contested by scholars.

For the recruiting and succession planning function, companies should leverage personality traits. When global leadership development practitioners assessed the required personality traits and global leadership competencies for global leaders, they did not consider the company type. Instead, they evaluated a leader's job function role and the corresponding requirements around knowledge, job functions and experience. Overall, these perspectives were on personality traits and global leadership competencies that would predict success in their current or prior job.

Companies should focus on a global leader's job function when assessing the required personality traits. For all six job functions, *conscientiousness* is clearly the top rated personality trait in three job functions (finance, operations, information technology), is a close second in two other job functions (CEO, human resources), and is grouped with 3 other personality traits for the sales job function. *Emotionally stable* is top-rated for two job functions (CEO, HR), is second for finance leaders, third for information technology, and is grouped together with other personality traits for two job functions (operations, sales). *Openness to experience* was ranked second for both information technology and sales leaders. Finally, *extroversion* was a distant front runner personality trait in the sales job function.

For the career development function, a company needs to leverage global leadership competencies, which (similar to personality traits), are dependent upon a global leader's job function. The one universal global leadership competency is *self*

regulation, and all other global leadership competencies are idiosyncratic based on the job function. Also, practitioners should use a manageable, clearly defined, and comprehensive competency list. This will improve company adoption of the competency list, as well as keep the creation and maintenance manageable as companies leverage the competencies across job functions.

Global leadership development practitioners' perspective determined that all six competencies are needed by both domestic and global leaders; yet, they were all more critical for global leadership positions than domestic. The difference between domestic and global leadership competencies is more of a degree of proficiency than it is a unique competency. This is supported by the study's finding that there was not a significant difference of global leadership competencies by company type.

Once the global leadership competencies are clearly defined in career development, then the learning and development function determines the appropriate learning and development methods. The learning and development method findings strongly support the need for global leadership development programs to clarify the global leadership competencies to be developed per job function before designing programs and subsequent learning and development methods. If the company needs to develop the *engagement in personal transformation* competency, then the *coaching* and *experiential learning* methods are perceived the most effective; to develop the *knowledge* competency, then the *expatriate assignment*, *global teams* and *experiential learning* methods; to develop the *networking skills* competency, then the *global teams* method; to develop the *social judgment skills* competency, then the *experiential learning* method; to

develop the *self awareness* competency, then the *assessment, coaching and reflections* methods; and to develop the *self regulation* competency, then the *coaching and reflections* methods.

The overall learning and development method preferences for more experiential and high contact in order were: *coaching, global teams, experiential learning, and expatriate assignment*; followed by didactic / low contact developmental experiences, such as *reflection, assessment and intercultural training*. In addition to these learning and development methods, others to be considered are: mentoring/job shadowing, networking, memberships in local and community organizations, on-the-job assignments, and formal instructor-lead training courses. These results across learning and development methods strongly advocate for a blended learning solution leveraging multiple learning and development methods for a GLD program.

Also, companies should prioritize their learning and development budget based on the global leadership competencies that are most critical for each job function. This would include an effort to develop *self awareness* in their CEO, operations and financial leaders; *engagement in personal transformation* in their HR, operations, information technology, and CEO leaders; and *self regulation* in their financial, CEO, and operations leaders.

Future Research

There are several possibilities identified for future research. Based on the six limitations listed in Chapter 4, future research could provide evidence of causation

between personality trait and global leadership competency and leadership impact on company performance. Another causation evidence research study could explore the learning and development method impact on developing a global leadership competency. Third, a larger sample size of domestic, international and multinational companies could improve the validity; however, the lack of companies doing global leadership development well complicates the gathering of a large sample size. In addition to this, validating the respondent's experience and knowledge about their company type and global leadership will improve the validity of the survey responses. Finally, because contexts and situations change, the perceived personality traits and global leadership competencies that facilitate and contribute to a global leader's effectiveness will also change over time.

Additional ideas for future research include clarifying the strategic role of HR in developing global leaders; detailing how talent management (recruiting, performance management, succession planning, career development) should integrate with learning & development to develop global leaders; assessing how each of the other personal attributes contributes to global leadership; differentiating expatriate training and global leadership development; quantifying successful and effective global leadership, and systematically assessing global leadership competency proficiency. Illustrating how contingency/situational theory impacts a global leadership competency model, additional situational variables that could customize global leadership competencies include: company culture, industry, and societal culture, geographic region, developed versus

developing countries, start up versus mature companies, or thriving versus turn-around companies.

Conclusion

In this dissertation, a conceptual framework of global leadership development was proposed, integrating the talent management functions: recruiting, succession planning, career development and learning and development. A sample of global leadership development practitioners were selected based on their knowledge of competencies, learning and development. Results from descriptive and statistical analysis indicated global leadership development practitioners' perspectives of personality traits and global leadership competencies vary per job function. Additionally, research showed that different learning and development methods are effective per global leadership competency. Companies may consider these findings as they make decisions on creating or changing their global leadership development program. The research implies that global leadership candidates, when selected for specific personality traits, can develop their global leadership competencies through specific learning and development methods.

Personally, this dissertation represents a milestone and accomplishment in taking the often researched and even more often discussed topic of "leadership", and creating a my own global leadership development framework after a comprehensive literature review. Through this process, I grew in my appreciation for the literature review process required to understand the multiple points-of-view, as well as the dissertation committee process required to incorporate multiple points-of-view in the research. This framework builds upon the existing leadership theories, and integrates yet defines the importance of

both personality traits and competencies for leadership. I have already used the lessons learned in my consulting practice, and I intend to publish the framework, list of global leadership competencies, situational context findings on personality traits and global leadership competencies, and the learning and development methods perceived important per competency. In addition to the self-satisfaction of publishing, the primary purpose is to make these tools and knowledge available so that practitioners and scholars can use it in addition to the current tools and knowledge in the study of leadership, leadership development, and global leadership development.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Global Leadership Competency Meta-Analysis Table

Global Leadership Competencies

Engagement in Personal Transformation			
Jokinen Alignment	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Motivation to extend one's performance capabilities
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Openness
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Openness to change
	Brake	1997	"Drive" to stay up to date
	Brake	1997	Commitment to the ongoing development of personal knowledge and skills
	Brake	1997	Creative dissatisfaction
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Accepting responsibility for one's own learning
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Proactive approach to learning
	Srinivas	1995	Continual improvement
	Harris & Moran	1987	Willingness to alter personal attitudes and perceptions
Gillis Alignment	Caligiuri & Tarique	2009	Self-development
	Osland & Bird	2008	Commitment
	Campbell	2006	Feedback
	Campbell	2006	Personal energy
	Bueno & Tubbs	2004	Motivation to learn
	Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Maintaining a competitive advantage
	Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Achieving personal mastery

	Kets de Vries	2004	Rewarding and feedback
	McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Leadership values (honesty, integrity, personal initiative and drive, positive and optimistic outlook)

Knowledge			
Jokinen Alignment	Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy	2002	Developing a complementarity with the universal motivational need (Maslow, 1945) of followers
	Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy	2002	Language skills
	Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy	2002	Understand and connect with universal basics of human functioning
	Caligiuri & de Santo	2001	Knowledge of company's business structure, knowledge of international business issues
	Caligiuri & de Santo	2001	Knowledge of international business issues
	Conner	2000	Language skills
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Ability to manage diversity and cross-cultural ethics
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Appreciating cultural differences
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Creating safe, positive environments for change
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Developing reward systems and performance goals that tap and are in harmony with different norms and values of other cultures
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Finding, hiring and motivating staff with diverse cultural background
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Recognizing the skills of others
	Goldsmith & Walt	1999	Computer skills

Goldsmith & Walt	1999	Technical expertise: hiring staff
Gregersen, Morrison & Black	1998	Balancing global vs. local tensions
Gregersen, Morrison & Black	1998	Recognizing business opportunities around the world
Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Ability to conduct global SWOT analysis
Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Linking activities and capabilities globally
Brake	1997	Recognizing the key constituencies and decision makers
Brake	1997	Total organizational astuteness; recognizing the key constituencies and decision makers; understanding key organizational processes, systems, procedures, and methods; understanding the global nature of one's business and being able to analyze current trends/market conditions
Brake	1997	Understanding key organizational processes, systems, procedures, and methods
Brake	1997	Understanding the global nature of one's business and being able to analyze current trends/market conditions
Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Language skills
Barham & Willis	1996	Understanding business systems
Birchall, Hee & Gay	1996	Language skills
Birchall, Hee & Gay	1996	Staying abreast of world standards of competition, and knowing what it takes to match and beat those standards
Birchall, Hee & Gay	1996	Understanding business systems
Birchall, Hee & Gay	1996	Understanding of international marketing and finance
Rhinesmith	1996	Balancing global vs. local tensions
Barham & Willis	1994	Language skills
Bartlett & Ghoshal	1992	Ability to conduct global SWOT analysis

	Coulson-Thomas	1992	Language skills
	Barham & Oates	1991	Language skills; understanding of international marketing and finance
	Barham & Oates	1991	Understanding of international marketing and finance
	Harris & Moran	1987	Coping with the interdependence of business activity around the world
	Harris & Moran	1987	Understanding the impact of cultural factors on behavioral communication
	Tung & Mille	1960	Balancing global vs. local tensions
Gillis Alignment	Caligiuri & Tarique	2009	Ability to deal with cross-cultural misunderstandings
	Osland & Bird	2008	Cosmopolitan outlook
	Osland & Bird	2008	Create learning systems
	Osland & Bird	2008	Demonstrate global business savvy
	Osland & Bird	2008	Global organizational savvy
	Vloeberghs & Macfarlane	2007	Intellectual receptiveness for differences in culture
	Sinclair & Agyeman	2005	Political astuteness
	Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Developing technical savvy
	Kets de Vries	2004	Global mindset
	McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Build effective work groups
	Riggio, Murphy, Francis & Pirozzolo	2002	Rational and logic-based verbal and quantitative intelligence
	Rosen & Digh	2001	Global literacy (seeing, thinking, acting, and mobilizing in culturally mindful ways)
	Talkington	2001	clear understanding of cultural and market diversity (including business ethics and cultural motivators)
	Bingham, Felin & Black	2000	Knowing customers
	Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Economic integrator

Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Global capitalist
Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Historical futurist
Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina	1999	Nurture financial growth prospects
Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina	1999	Show profitability
Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina	1999	Steward natural assets
Montagliani & Giacalone	1998	Ability to adapt cross-culturally
Brake	1997	Cross-cultural communication
Brake	1997	Professional expertise
Brake	1997	Stakeholder orientation
Brake	1997	Total organizational astuteness
May	1997	Ability to "float" globally (for example, design/R&D/marketing)
May	1997	Language fluency
May	1997	Multicultural team-selection skill, with broad horizons
May	1997	Skill in national business processes
Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Creates learning systems
Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Possesses a global mindset
Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Understands their own cultural values and assumptions
Perlmutter	1969	Cosmopolitanism (intellectual and esthetic openness toward divergent cultural experiences and an orientation toward the outside world)

Networking Skills		
Align	Goldsmith & Walt	1999
		Building partnerships and alliances

	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Building relationships and linking capabilities and activities globally
	Brake	1997	Building connections
	Brake	1997	Building partnerships and alliances
	Brake	1997	Community building
	Brake	1997	Creating internal networks
	Brake	1997	Pursuing partnerships actively
	Srinivas	1995	Building and maintaining networks
Gillis Alignment	Osland & Bird	2008	Build geographically dispersed communities
	Alon & Higgins	2005	Interpersonal conduct of global business
	Sinclair & Agyeman	2005	Work effectively across a range of stakeholder groups
	Center for Global Assignments	2004	Imaginative, enjoy traveling and networking and are skilled in developing strategic alliances
	Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Building partnerships and alliances
	Brake	1997	Community building
	Brake	1997	Influencing
	Lobel	1990	Leverage interpersonal influence rather than simply a search for the correct answer

Social Judgment Skills			
Jokinen Alignment	Goleman	2000	Social and organizational awareness
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Acknowledging that any solution is implemented and applied in distinctly social contexts, understanding and monitoring social systems, social perceptiveness, perspective taking capacity, wisdom, self-objectivity, self-reflection, systems perception
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Awareness of different constituencies, settings and dynamics
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Awareness of downstream consequences

Com Align	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Awareness of solution fit
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Coordinating multiple activities
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Judgment under certain conditions
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Sensitivity to relevancy of goals
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Systems commitment
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Understanding and monitoring social systems, social perspectiveness, perspective taking capacity, wisdom, self-objectivity, self-reflection, systems perception
	Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee	1999	Political awareness
	Brake	1997	Ability to switch perspectives
	Brake	1997	Awareness of different constituents
	Brake	1997	Understand global interdependences
	Rhinesmith	1996	Drive for a broader picture
	Srinivas	1995	Ability to understand cause-effect chain reactions
	Srinivas	1995	Long-term orientation
	Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Ability to understand cause-effect chain reactions
	Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Long-term orientation
	Yukl	1994	Ability to extend context beyond a particular problem or situation
	Yukl	1994	Impacts learning capacity positively
	Center for Global	2004	Able to decide on the correct course of action when faced with multiple opportunities and business issues

Assignments		
Talkington	2001	Global perspective and scale
Gandz	2000	Mobilize resources in the required direction
Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina	1999	Comply with regulations
Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina	1999	Ensure quality
Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina	1999	Service and innovation for customers
Brake	1997	Conflict management and negotiation
Brake	1997	Detached engagement
Brake	1997	Relationship building
May	1997	A helicopter view - ability to stand back: big picture
May	1997	Ability to operate in a long-term environment
Rhinesmith	1993	Strategy & structure
Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Has a long-term orientation
Lobel	1990	Make problem solving situations into a social process involving consensus

Self awareness			
Jokinen Alignment	Gupta & Govindarajan	2002	Explicitly self-conscious
	Goldsmith & Walt	1999	Personal Mastery
	Gregersen, Morrison & Black	1998	Exhibiting character
	Goleman	1998	Self regulation
	Goleman	1998	Social awareness
	Brake	1997	Maturity
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Confidence in one's abilities

	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Courage to take a stand
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Hardiness
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Openness
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Self-confidence
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Self-insight
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Values diversity
	Srinivas	1995	Questioning one's own assumptions
	Srinivas	1995	Well-developed ego and self-concept
	Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Understand one's own values and assumptions
	Harris & Moran	1987	Understand one's self and role
	Schein	1978	Aware of one's own defensiveness
Gillis Alignment	Osland & Bird	2008	Maturity
	Osland & Bird	2008	Meet demands for current performance and continual innovation and learning
	Campbell	2006	Personal energy
	Campbell	2006	Personal style
	Alon & Higgins	2005	Emotional intelligence (EQ)
	Sinclair & Agyeman	2005	Personal character
	Kets de Vries	2004	Life balance
	McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Self awareness
	Peterson	2004	Cultural self awareness
	Peterson	2004	Self-reliance
	SHRM	2002	Character
	SHRM	2002	Ethical standards and persistence
	Kho	2001	Self awareness
	Kho	2001	Self-confidence

	Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Aggressive insight
	Montagliani & Giacalone	1998	Impression management tendencies
	Brake	1997	Authenticity

Self regulation			
Jokinen Alignment	Bennis & Thomas	2002	Adaptive capacity
	Bennis & Thomas	2002	Integrity, character and accountability
	Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy	2002	Ability to retain capabilities even in completely unfamiliar situations
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Adaptive capacity
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Behavioral flexibility
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Low neurotism
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Responding to dynamics of social setting
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Tolerance for ambiguity
	Bonnstetter	1999	Behavioral flexibility
	Goleman	1998	Ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods
	Goleman	1998	Propensity to suspend judgment
	Goleman	1998	To think before acting
	Gregersen, Morrison & Black	1998	Integrity, character and accountability

Ali gn	Gregersen, Morrison & Black	1998	Knowing when to act and when to gather more information
	Gregersen, Morrison & Black	1998	Low neurotism
	Gregersen, Morrison & Black	1998	Tolerance for ambiguity
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Ability to handle stress, perseverance, resilience, "hardy" personality
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Impacts emotional stability, and ability to cope with distractions
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Low neurotism
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Tolerance for ambiguity
	Brake	1997	Good sense of timing
	Brake	1997	Integrity, character and accountability
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Adaptive capacity
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Behavioral flexibility
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Integrity, character and accountability
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Open-mindedness
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Self-efficacy
	Rhinesmith	1996	Behavioral flexibility
	Srinivas	1995	Flexibility in meeting needs
	Srinivas	1995	Impacts emotional stability, and ability to cope with distractions
	Harris & Moran	1987	Adaptive capacity
	Harris & Moran	1987	Avoiding ethnocentrism
	Osland & Bird	2008	Ability to improvise

Vloeberghs & Macfarlane	2007	Able to deal with cross-cultural exposure, adapt and react in an appropriate way
Sinclair & Agyeman	2005	Improvisation
Bueno & Tubbs	2004	Flexibility
Bueno & Tubbs	2004	Open-mindedness
Kets de Vries	2004	Resilience to stress
Kets de Vries	2004	Tenacity
McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Balance conflicting demands
Peterson	2004	Flexibility
Peterson	2004	Humility
Peterson	2004	Open-mindedness
SHRM	2002	Adaptability to different situations
SHRM	2002	Flexibility
Gandz	2000	Manage their own ambitions so that they don't self-destruct in the process of leading
Gandz	2000	Self-control
Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Authentic flexibility
Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Confident humility
Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Constructive impatience
Brake	1997	Accountability
Brake	1997	Improvisation
May	1997	Ability to cope with stress
May	1997	Coping ability (including manager's family)
May	1997	Resilience
Denison, Hoojiberg and Quinn, 1995	1995	Behavioral Complexity (profitability and productivity, continuity and efficiency, commitment and morale, and adaptability and innovation)

Previously Identified Global Leadership Competencies - Mapped to Personality Factors

Acceptance of Complexity and its Contradictions			
Jokinen Alignment	Goldsmith & Walt	1999	Enables appreciation of cultural differences
	Gregersen, Morrison & Black	1998	Embracing duality
	Gergersen et al.	1998	Increased ability to manage tensions and to balance global vs. local needs
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Enables appreciation of cultural differences
	Brake	1997	Attempt to create opportunities to broaden perspective on local and global challenges
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Enables appreciation of cultural differences
	Srinivas	1995	Being capable to live life on many levels
	Srinivas	1995	Seeing opportunity in adversity
	Srinivas	1995	Using diversity to stimulate creativity
Harris & Moran	1987	Leads to appreciating the influences of cultural conditioning	
Gillis Alignment	Osland & Bird	2008	Act in environments defined by increasingly higher levels of ambiguity and complexity
	Alon & Higgins	2005	Adapt to different ways of thinking
	Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Anticipating opportunities
	Lobel	1990	Take action with insufficient, unreliable and conflicting information

Cognitive Skills			
Jokinen Alignment	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Ability to learn and acquire new skills and competencies, especially regarding developing global leadership potential
	Barham & Willis	1994	"Cognitive complexity" = Core competence of international managers
	Mintzberg	1975	Ability to switch focus of concentration quickly from one thing to another
	Mintzberg	1975	Divergent thinking skills
	Mintzberg	1975	Identify key fact and anomalous observations, speed of closure, and intelligence

	Mintzberg	1975	Obtain capacity of pattern recognition
Gillis Alignment	Caligiuri & Tarique	2009	Problem-solving ability
	Osland & Bird	2008	Cognitive complexity
	Osland & Bird	2008	Thinking agility
	Alon & Higgins	2005	Analytical intelligence (IQ)
	Schein & Kramer	2005	Integrating new businesses and workforces into unitary corporate cultures.
	Sinclair & Agyeman	2005	Strategic thinking
	Center for Global Assignments	2004	Skilled in abstract thinking and dealing with ambiguity
	Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Thinking globally
	Kets de Vries	2004	Designing and aligning
	Kets de Vries	2004	Emotional intelligence
	McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Ability to learn
	McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Thinking and acting strategically
	Peterson	2004	Tolerance for ambiguity
	Riggio, Murphy, Francis & Pirozzolo	2002	Emotional intelligence
	Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Reflective decisiveness
	Brake	1997	Depth of field (an ability to switch perspectives from global to local)
	Brake	1997	Discernment
	Brake	1997	Realism
	Brake	1997	Thinking agility
	May	1997	Toleration of ambiguity
Bartlett & Ghoshal	1994	Cognitive complexity (ability to generate several competing interpretations of events and their interactive effects)	

Empathy

Jokinen Alignment	Bonnstetter	1999	"Horse-whispering": maintain spirit by "exploiting" natural characteristics--needs for security, affiliation and curiosity--to make employees freely and voluntarily behave in the desired direction
	Goleman	1998	One's ability to interact with others
	Goleman	1998	Service orientation
	Gregersen, Morrison & Black	1998	Goodwill
	Gregersen, Morrison & Black	1998	Having genuine concern for others
	Harris & Moran	1987	Being participative and sensitive to others' needs and assumptions
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Participative warm-heartedness
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Respect
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Social commitment
	Rhinesmith	1996	Being participative and sensitive to others' needs and assumptions
	Srinivas	1995	Being participative and sensitive to others' needs and assumptions
Gillis Alignment	Osland & Bird	2008	Stakeholder orientation
	Vloeberghs & Macfarlane	2007	Has an understanding of local employee needs
	Campbell	2006	Empowerment
	Bueno & Tubbs	2004	Respect for others
	Bueno & Tubbs	2004	Sensitivity
	Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Developing people
	Peterson	2004	Cultural sensitivity
	Peterson	2004	Empathy
	Talkington	2002	Building a global company culture
	Kho	2001	Cultural empathy and adaptability
	Kho	2001	Patience

	Bingham, Felin & Black	2000	Appreciating diversity
	May	1997	Cultural open-mindedness and awareness
	May	1997	Empathy with local customs, cultures and attitudes
	Rhinesmith	1993	Corporate Culture
	Rhinesmith	1993	People

Inquisitiveness			
Jokinen Alignment	Gupta and Govindarajan	2002	Curiosity
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Curiosity
	Gregersen, Morrison & Black	1998	Curiosity
	Brake	1997	Curiosity
	Brake	1997	Seeking knowledge and expertise beyond boundaries
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Curiosity: seeking information and feedback to support personal development
	Srinivas	1995	Concern with context
	Srinivas	1995	Concern with context
	Srinivas	1995	Curiosity
	Srinivas	1995	Motive for risk-taking, initiative, and commitment
	Harris & Moran	1987	Essential to acquiring knowledge of cultural influences on behavior, patterns, themes, or universals.
Gillis Alignment	Osland & Bird	2008	Curiosity
	Osland & Bird	2008	Entrepreneurial spirit
	Campbell	2006	Entrepreneurialism
	Kho	2001	Inquisitiveness
	Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Inquisitive internationalist
	Brake	1997	Curiosity and learning
	Brake	1997	Entrepreneurial spirit
	Brake	1997	Sense of wonder

Motivation to Work in an International Environment

Jokinen Alignment	Yukl		Willingness to enter situations and exercise different global leadership competencies
		1994	
Gillis Alignment	Caligiuri & Tarique	2009	Positive attitude towards members of other cultures
	Osland & Bird	2008	Establish close personal relationships with other cultures
	Beechler & Javidan	2007	Global mindset
	Kjar	2007	Global mindset (greater understanding of other cultures and one's own perspective on the world)
	Alon & Higgins	2005	Cultural intelligence (CQ)
	Alon & Higgins	2005	Endure in frustrating, confusing and lonely foreign environments
	Schein & Kramer	2005	Ambassadorial (ability to relate more intelligently to new world markets, different types of governments, and diverse populations of managers, employees, and host communities)
	Sinclair & Agyeman	2005	Global mindset
	Center for Global Assignments	2004	Imaginative, enjoy traveling and networking and are skilled in developing strategic alliances
	Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Appreciating cultural diversity
	Kets de Vries	2004	Outside orientation
	Riggio, Murphy, Francis & Pirozzolo	2002	Cultural intelligence (CI)
	Kho	2001	Global thinking
	Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Inquisitive internationalist
	May	1997	Understanding of business in a global context

	Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Accurately profiles the organizational and national culture of others
	Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Manages skillfully the foreign deployment cycle
	Rhinesmith	1992	Global mindset (a way of being, not a set of skills; orientation to the world that allows you to see certain things that others do not see; seeing the world from a broad perspective; always looking for unexpected trends and opportunities)

Optimism			
Jokinen Alignment	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Risk taking and ability to use problems as a vehicle for growth: "falling forward"
	Goleman	1998	Base for motivation
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Risk taking and ability to use problems as a vehicle for growth, "falling forward"
	Brake	1997	Impacts ability to maintain a positive and proactive "can-do" attitude under complex circumstances
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Courage
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Learning from mistakes
	Rhinesmith	1996	Ability to manage uncertainty
	Srinivas	1996	Seeking opportunity in surprises and uncertainties
Gillis Alignment	Osland & Bird	2008	Create and maintain a vision
	Osland & Bird	2008	Manage uncertainty
	Campbell	2006	Vision
	Alon & Higgins	2005	Persist in the face of adversity
	Schein & Kramer	2005	Awareness of the societal impact of business investment
	McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Thinking creatively

	Bingham, Felin & Black	2000	Dealing with uncertainty
	Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Realistic optimism
	Brake	1997	Courage
	Brake	1997	Resilience

Social Skills			
Jokinen Alignment	Bennis & Thomas	2002	Ability to engage others in shared meaning
	Bennis & Thomas	2002	Express oneself with a distinctive and compelling voice
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Communication
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Conflict management
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Negotiation
	Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman	2000	Persuasion
	Goleman	1998	Ability to take charge and inspire others with a compelling vision, visionary leadership, developing others, conflict management, expertise in building and leading teams, teamwork and collaboration, communication and listening skills, persuasiveness and ability to influence
	Goleman	1998	Being a change catalyst
	Goleman	1998	Building bonds
	Goleman	1998	Effectiveness in leading change
	Goleman	1998	Finding common ground with all kinds of people
	Goleman	1998	Get work done through other people
	Goleman	1998	Move people in the desired direction
	Jordan &	1998	Ability to interact with other people

Gillis Alignment	Cartwright		
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Listening ability
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Managing first impressions
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Moderate extroversion
	Jordan & Cartwright	1998	Multicultural communicative competence
	Brake	1997	Change agency
	Brake	1997	Conflict management
	Brake	1997	Cross-cultural communication
	Brake	1997	Fostering collaboration
	Brake	1997	Influencing
	Brake	1997	Inspiring others
	Brake	1997	Negotiation
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Help to: bring out the best in people
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Help to: increase capability for cooperation and team building
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Motivate and align people to one vision
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	Oral and written communication
	Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney	1997	To attract and develop talent
	Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Ability to motivate employees to excellence
	Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Lead and participate effectively in multicultural teams
	Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Negotiate conflicts
Caligiuri & Tarique	2009	Communication and decision-making	
Caligiuri & Tarique	2009	Interpersonal effectiveness	

Osland & Bird	2008	Balance both global and local tensions
Osland & Bird	2008	Communicate with other cultures
Osland & Bird	2008	Courage
Osland & Bird	2008	Manage cross-cultural conflicts
Osland & Bird	2008	Manage cross-cultural ethical issues
Osland & Bird	2008	Manage organizational change
Osland & Bird	2008	Motivate colleagues from other cultures
Osland & Bird	2008	Negotiate internationally
Osland & Bird	2008	Work in multicultural teams
Vloeberghs & Macfarlane	2007	Aware of diversity, adapts communication style to demonstrate respect
Vloeberghs & Macfarlane	2007	Deploys vision with international clients
Vloeberghs & Macfarlane	2007	Has leadership competencies that can be used in different country settings
Campbell	2006	Diplomacy
Campbell	2006	Management
Campbell	2006	Multicultural awareness
Alon & Higgins	2005	Elicit the right responses in cross-cultural interpersonal relationships
Sinclair & Agyeman	2005	Crisis management
Sinclair & Agyeman	2005	High levels of consultation and interpersonal skill
Sinclair & Agyeman	2005	Intercultural competence
Bueno & Tubbs	2004	Communication skills
Center for Global Assignments	2004	Able to enact change and "get things done" in a complex global organization
Center for Global Assignments	2004	Able to lead and get the best out of people from different cultures and working backgrounds
Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Creating a shared vision

Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Demonstrating integrity
Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Empowering others
Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Encouraging constructive dialogue
Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Ensuring customer satisfaction
Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Leading change
Goldsmith, Greenberg, HuChan & Robertson	2004	Sharing leadership
Kets de Vries	2004	Empowering
Kets de Vries	2004	Energizing
Kets de Vries	2004	Team building
Kets de Vries	2004	Visioning
McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Balance conflicting demands
McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Communication skills
McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Develop others
McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Initiating and implementing change
McCauley & Van Velsor	2004	Management skills
Peterson	2004	Cross-cultural communication skills
Peterson	2004	Cultural awareness of others
Peterson	2004	Outgoing personality

Kho	2001	Respectfully resolve cultural differences
Bingham, Felin & Black	2000	Balancing tensions
Gandz	2000	Communicate their visions to others
Gandz	2000	Overcome resistance to change
Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Chaos navigator
Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Collaborative individualism
Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Connective teaching
Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Cultural bridge
Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Leadership liberator
Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Respectful modernizer
Rosen, Digh, Singer & Phillips	2000	Urgent listening
Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina	1999	Compete fairly
Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina	1999	Empowering
Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina	1999	Instill shared pride
Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina	1999	Retain Employees
Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn & Ainina	1999	Trustworthy

Brake	1997	Change agency
Brake	1997	Maturity
Brake	1997	Patience
Brake	1997	Self-confidence
May	1997	Comfortable with empowering at a distance
May	1997	Company/team shaper (visionary)
May	1997	Courage (risk taker), often deciding with a paucity of information
May	1997	Listening skills
May	1997	Strong communication skills relevant to different countries
Yeung & Ready	1995	Catalyst for cultural change
Yeung & Ready	1995	Catalyst for strategic change
Yeung & Ready	1995	Empower others to do their best
Yeung & Ready	1995	Strong customer orientation
Yeung & Ready	1995	The ability to articulate a tangible vision, values, and strategy
Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Avoids mistakes and behaves in an appropriate manner in other countries.
Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Facilitates organizational change
Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Leads and participates effectively in multicultural teams
Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Motivates employees to excellence
Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Negotiates and approaches conflicts in a collaborative mode
Moran & Riesenberger	1994	Works as an equal with persons of diverse backgrounds
Lobel	1990	Communicate both verbally and non-verbally
Lobel	1990	Inspire trust and confidence
Lobel	1990	Make problem solving situations into a social process involving consensus

Appendix B: Global Leadership Development Survey Email Solicitation

Subject: Your Wharton/Education Global Leadership Study - Experience Needed

Dear Global Leadership Development Practitioner,

You have been contacted for this global leadership development research study because of your experience with competencies, learning and development. Your perspective is important in creating a better understanding on how to develop global leaders. In return for your time, I will send you a practitioner findings report.

As a doctoral student at The University of Pennsylvania's Wharton business school and graduate school of education, I found that there is very little consensus research available about what constitutes effective global leadership development strategies, especially from a practitioner perspective. If you are willing to participate, **please access the 15 minute online survey by Friday, March 19, 2010 at:**

<http://www.zoomerang.com/Survey/WEB22ACSL9LYXT>

No individual respondent or company will be identified. If you have difficulty accessing the online survey, please contact me directly at the information below. Thank you for your time, and I look forward to hearing from you.

John Gillis, Jr.
Doctoral Candidate, Work-Based Learning Leadership Program
University of Pennsylvania
jgillis@upenn.edu
512-913-4778

Appendix C: Global Leadership Development Survey Consent Form

Global Leadership Development Study Consent Form

You have been contacted for this global leadership study because of your experience with a global company. Please read this page and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Background Information

This survey is for research, and your perspective is important in creating a better understanding on how to develop global leaders.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study

The study has no known risks besides an investment of your time to participate in the survey. Participants will not receive any form of payment or service in compensation for participation except for a copy of the findings report. The other known benefit is that which may be derived by contributing to a body of knowledge that informs global leadership development strategies.

Confidentiality

All responses will be held in the strictest confidence. *No individual respondent or company will be identified.* All data will be stored in a secured location and only the researcher will have access to the identities of the research participants.

Voluntary Nature of the Study

Participation in this study is voluntary, and there are no consequences to anyone who declines to participate. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time.

Statement of Consent

I have read the above information. If needed, I have asked questions and have received answers to the terms and conditions of participation before completing the survey. I consent to participate in the study.

By beginning the online survey and clicking on "Submit", you will be acknowledging that you are voluntarily agreeing to participate in this study.

Contacts and Questions

Any questions regarding the study or requests for further information can be directed to the researcher, John Gillis, Jr., Doctoral Candidate, Work-Based Learning Leadership Program at the University of Pennsylvania, at jgillis@upenn.edu or at 512-913-4778.

Appendix D: Global Leadership Development Survey



Global Leadership Development

Part I - Company Information

Please answer about your company.

1

Please enter the name of your company:

2

Does your company have an international component?

3

Does your company have operations across nations (versus domestic only operations)?



4

Are your company's services and products adapted to each nation (versus services and products standardized around the globe)?



Global Leadership Development

Part II - Personality Traits

Suppose you were designing a rating form for candidates for leadership positions in your international, multinational or global company. Please indicate the relative weight you would assign to each of these five personality traits, reflecting the degree that the personality trait contributes to and facilitates global leadership effectiveness. These are:

- **Extroversion**-Energy, positive emotions, urgency, and the tendency to seek stimulation in the company of others
- **Agreeableness**-A tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others
- **Conscientiousness**-A tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement; planned rather than spontaneous behavior
- **Emotionally Stable**-A tendency to be calm, emotionally stable, and free from persistent negative feelings (opposite of neuroticism)
- **Openness to Experience**-Appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, curiosity, and variety of experience

You may assign any value (0 to 100) to each, but the total for all weighted personality traits should equal 100 % per job function (CEO will total 100%, as will Finance, Operations, Information Technology, Human Resources and Sales.)

You must weight "other" - even if it is left blank and a "0."

5

Chief Executive Officer

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each personality trait, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Extroversion

Agreeableness

Conscientiousness

Emotionally Stable

Openness to Experience

Other

6

Finance

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each personality trait, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Extroversion

Agreeableness

Conscientiousness

Emotionally Stable

Openness to Experience

Other

7

Operations

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each personality trait, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Extroversion	<input type="text"/>
Agreeableness	<input type="text"/>
Conscientiousness	<input type="text"/>
Emotionally Stable	<input type="text"/>
Openness to Experience	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>

8

Information Technology

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each personality trait, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Extroversion	<input type="text"/>
Agreeableness	<input type="text"/>
Conscientiousness	<input type="text"/>
Emotionally Stable	<input type="text"/>
Openness to Experience	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>

9

Human Resources

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each personality trait, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Extroversion	_____
Agreeableness	_____
Conscientiousness	_____
Emotionally Stable	_____
Openness to Experience	_____
Other	_____

10

Sales

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each personality trait, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Extroversion	_____
Agreeableness	_____
Conscientiousness	_____
Emotionally Stable	_____
Openness to Experience	_____

Other

11

What criteria was important to you in assigning relative weights within or across job functions.

▲
┌
└

▼
┌
└

12

If you added a personality trait to this list in 'other', please explain your thinking.

▲
┌
└

▼
┌
└

Global Leadership Development

Part III - Competencies

Suppose you were budgeting learning and development for global leadership candidates. Please specify the budget percentage you would allocate to each of the global leadership competencies listed, reflecting the degree that the competency contributes to and facilitates global leadership effectiveness in each of the same six job functions.

Please note that space is provided so that you can add a global leadership competency if there is one that should be added. You may assign any value (0 to 100) to each competency, but the total for all budgeted learning and development should equal 100% per job function (CEO will total 100%, as will Finance, Operations, Information Technology, Human Resources and Sales.)

- **Engagement in Personal Transformation**-The knowledge to commit to ongoing development of personal knowledge, skills and abilities
- **Knowledge**-The knowledge of business literacy (opportunities, systems, standards, issues) and savvy needed to perform effectively
- **Networking Skills**-The skill to create and maintain relationships on an organizational level
- **Social Judgment Skills**-The skill to have a big picture and long-term orientation (cause-effect, interdependencies, consequences) considering multiple constituents' perspective
- **Self awareness**-The ability to have self-confidence, reliance and insight to regulate the self with social and cultural awareness
- **Self regulation**-The ability to control impulses and remain flexible as one adapts to new situations

You must weight "other" - even if it is left blank and a "0."

13

Chief Executive Officer

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each competency, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Engagement in Personal Transformation	<input type="text"/>
Knowledge	<input type="text"/>
Networking Skills	<input type="text"/>
Social Judgment Skills	<input type="text"/>
Self awareness	<input type="text"/>
Self regulation	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>

14

Finance

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each competency, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Engagement in PersonalTransformation	<input type="text"/>
Knowledge	<input type="text"/>
Networking Skills	<input type="text"/>
Social Judgment Skills	<input type="text"/>
Self awareness	<input type="text"/>
Self regulation	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>

15

Operations

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each competency, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Engagement in PersonalTransformation	<input type="text"/>
Knowledge	<input type="text"/>
Networking Skills	<input type="text"/>
Social Judgment Skills	<input type="text"/>
Self awareness	<input type="text"/>
Self regulation	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>

16

Information Technology

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each competency, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Engagement in PersonalTransformation	<input type="text"/>
Knowledge	<input type="text"/>
Networking Skills	<input type="text"/>
Social Judgment Skills	<input type="text"/>
Self awareness	<input type="text"/>
Self regulation	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>

17

Human Resources

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each competency, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Engagement in PersonalTransformation	<input type="text"/>
--------------------------------------	----------------------

Knowledge	<input type="text"/>
Networking Skills	<input type="text"/>
Social Judgment Skills	<input type="text"/>
Self awareness	<input type="text"/>
Self regulation	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>

18

Sales

Please place a percentage (0 to 100%) next to each competency, so that they add up to 100. If you add a personality trait, put that in 'Other' and weight also.

Engagement in Personal Transformation	<input type="text"/>
Knowledge	<input type="text"/>
Networking Skills	<input type="text"/>
Social Judgment Skills	<input type="text"/>
Self awareness	<input type="text"/>
Self regulation	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>

19

What criteria was important to you in assigning relative weights within or across job functions.



20

If you added a competency to this list in 'other', please explain your thinking.



Global Leadership Development

Part III - Competencies

21

To what extent do you feel that the importance of each of the competencies below differs for leaders in international, multinational and global companies versus those in domestic companies?

1	2	3	4	5
Domestic - Much More	Domestic - Slightly More	Same	Global - Slightly More	Global - Much More

Engagement in Personal Transformation-The knowledge to commit to ongoing development of personal knowledge, skills, and abilities

Knowledge-The knowledge of business literacy (opportunities, systems, standards, issues) and savvy needed to perform effectively



Networking Skills-The skill to create and maintain relationships on an organizational level



Social Judgment Skills-The skill to have a big picture and long-term orientation (cause-effect, interdependencies, consequences) considering multiple constituents' perspective



Self awareness-The ability to have self-confidence, reliance and insight to regulate the self with social and cultural awareness




Self regulation-The ability to control impulses and remain flexible as one adapts to new situations



22

Overall, how would you compare personality traits (from part II) and competencies (from part III) in contributing to and facilitating

global leadership effectiveness? 

- Personality Traits are much more important
- Personality Traits are slightly more important
- Personality Traits and Competencies are the same
- Competencies are slightly more important
- Competencies are much more important



Global Leadership Development

Part IV - Learning & Development Methods

In this section, you are asked to determine which learning & development method is the most effective in developing each global leadership competency. The method definitions are as follows:

- **Expatriate Assignment** - an international work assignment requiring an employee to temporarily move to another country for at least six months.
- **Global Teams** - a work-based group, whose members reside in different countries, organized around a specific work task.
- **Experiential Learning** - a structured experience with learning objectives, including activities like simulations, case studies, and role playing.
- **Coaching** - a relationship with an individual providing accountability and development in hopes for a behavior change.
- **Intercultural Training** - formal training around similar and different world cultures.
- **Assessment** - an objective analysis of one's competency proficiency.
- **Reflection** - a specific time set aside for processing, implementing, and retaining lessons learned.

23

Which learning & development method is the most effective in developing each global leadership competency? Check one method per competency.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Expatriate Assignment	Global Teams	Experiential Learning	Coaching	Intercultural Training	Assessment	Reflection

Engagement in Personal Transformation-The knowledge to commit to ongoing development of personal knowledge, skills and abilities



Knowledge-The knowledge to have the knowledge of global literacy (opportunities, systems, standards, issues) and savvy needed to perform globally, while also understanding the local tension



Networking Skills-The skill to create and maintain relationships on an organizational level



Social Judgment Skills-The skill to have a big picture and long-term orientation (cause-effect, interdependencies, consequences) considering multiple constituents' perspective



Self awareness-The ability to have self-confidence, reliance and insight to regulate the self with social and cultural awareness



Self regulation-The ability to control impulses and remain flexible as one adapts to new situations



24

What other learning & development method would you add to this list to develop global leadership competencies?

A rectangular box with a vertical line on the left and a vertical line on the right. On the right side, there are two small square icons, one above the other, each containing a small arrow pointing up and down respectively. This appears to be a placeholder for a list or a scrollable menu.

Global Leadership Development

Part V - Contact Information

25

Email

26

What is your job function?

- Human Resources
- Talent Management
- Learning & Development
- Other, please specify

Appendix E: Global Leadership Development Research Findings Report

Business Case: Global Leadership Development

Is **global corporate performance** dependent upon **global leaders**?

- Changing business environment creating competition and opportunities
- Global leadership competency proficiency was not required of leaders in previous generations

Global leadership development prepares **global leaders**

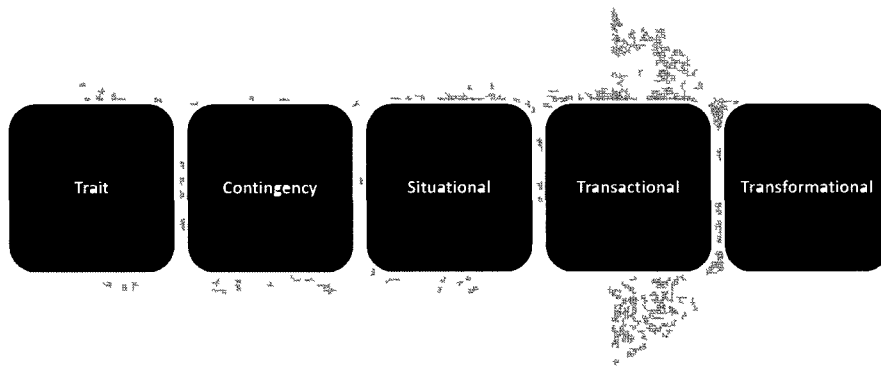
- Gap between needs and developed / prepared global leaders
- Global leadership competency proficiency was not required of leaders in previous generations

Global leadership is an international, multinational or global company's manager or executive's ability to motivate, influence and enable individuals across national boundaries and cultural diversity to contribute to the accomplishment of a company's goals.

A **global leadership competency** is a body of knowledge, skill or ability that motivates, influences or enables individuals across national boundaries and cultural diversity to contribute to the accomplishment of a company's goals.

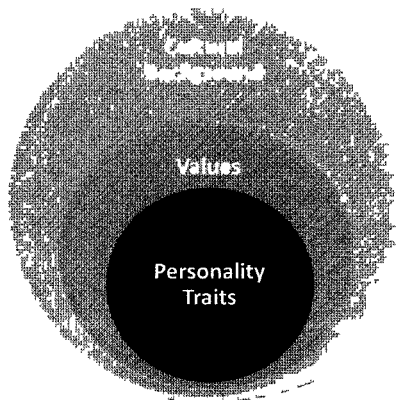
Global leadership development is a company's effort to improve an employee's global leadership competency job-specific behavior.

Leadership Theories



Situational context (job function, followers) impacts effective personality traits and competencies

Personality Traits



•Nature's *"Leaders are Born"* over nurture's *"Leaders are Made"*

•Stable forms of an individual's character

•Rather absolute – cannot be developed

•Formed by hereditary, cultural, familial and social interactions

•Influences learning and development method effectiveness

Business Case: Talent Management Framework

The holy grail of HR's talent management
is a **systematic, comprehensive** solution
integrating recruiting, succession planning,
career development, and
continuous learning and development

in order to attract, identify, select, develop and retain
the pipeline of high-performance, high-potential
future global leadership talent

Business Case: Talent Management Framework

The holy grail of HR's talent management
is a **systematic, comprehensive** solution
integrating recruiting, succession planning,
career development, and
continuous learning and development

in order to attract, identify, select, develop and retain
the pipeline of high-performance, high-potential
future global leadership talent

References

- Adler, N. J. (1997). Global leaders: A dialogue with future history. *Management International* , 1 (2), 21-33.
- Adler, N. J. (1997). Global leadership: women leaders. *Management International Review* , 37 (1), 171-196.
- Adler, N.J., & Bartholomew, S. (1992). Managing globally competent people. *Academy of Management Executive* , 6 (3), 52-65.
- Adler, N. J., Brody, L. W., & Osland, J. S. (2001). Going beyond twentieth century leadership: A CEO develops his company's global competitiveness. *Cross Cultural Management* , 8 (3/4), 11-34.
- Adler, N. J., Brody, L. W., & Osland, J. S. (2000). The Women's Global Leadership Forum: Enhancing one company's global leadership capability. *Human Resource Management* , 39 (2/3), 209-225.
- Ainina, M. F., Brodzinski, J. D., Petrick, J. A., Quinn, J. F., & Scherer, R. F. (1999). Global leadership skills and reputational capital: Intangible resources for sustainable competitive advantage. *Academy of Management Executive* , 13 (1), 58-69.
- Ajarimah, A. A. (2001). Major challenges of global leadership in the twenty-first century. *Human Resource Development International* , 4 (1), 9-19.
- Alon, I., & Higgins, J. M. (2005). Global leadership success through emotional and cultural intelligences. *Business Horizons* , 48, 501-512.
- Andrews, A. R. (2009). *Global leadership development and succession, and the significance of psychological assessments for high potential global executives*. Union Institute and University.
- “Colgate-Palmolive”. (2004). Colgate-Palmolive seeks tomorrow's global leader. *Strategic Direction* , 20 (6), 18-20.
- Avolio, B. J., & Luthans, F. (2006). *The high impact leader: Moments matter in accelerating authentic leadership development*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Ayman, R., Kreicker, N. A., & Masztal, J. J. (1994). Defining global leadership in business environments. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research* , 46 (1), 64-77.
- Baker, J., & Ivancevich, J. (1971). The assignment of American executives abroad: Systematic, haphazard, or chaotic? *California Management Review* , 13 (3), 39-41.

- Banaghan, M. (1998). Global leadership is badly needed. *BRW* , 20 (27), 84.
- Bartlett, C. S., & Ghoshal, S. (1989). *Managing across borders: The transnational solution*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Bartlett, C., & Ghoshal, S. (1996). Release the entrepreneurial hostages from your corporate hierarchy. *Strategy & Leadership* , 24 (4), 36.
- Bass, B. M. (2008). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications (4th ed.)*. New York: Free Press.
- Beck, D. E., & Cowan, C. C. (1996). *Spiral dynamics: Mastering values, leadership, and change*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Bell, A. N. (2006). *Leadership development in Asia-Pacific: Identifying and developing leaders for growth*. New York: The Conference Board.
- Bergmann, H., Hurson, K., Russ-Eft, D., Anderson, L., Gardner, J., Marin, R., et al. (1999, July 26). Other comments. *Forbes* , 36.
- Bersin, J. (2008). *The high impact learning organization: WhatWorks in the management, governance and operations of modern corporate training*. Industry Study, Bersin & Associates.
- Bingham, C. B., Felin, T., & Black, J. S. (2000). An interview with John Pepper: What it takes to be a global leader. *Human Resource Management* , 39 (2/3), 287-292.
- Birchall, D., Hee, J. T., & Gay, K. (1996). Competencies for international management. *Singapore Management Review* , 18 (1), 1-13.
- Black, J. S., & Gregersen, H. B. (2000). High impact training: Forging leaders for the global frontier. *Human Resource Management* , 39 (2/3), 173-184.
- Black, J. S., & Mendenhall, M. (1989). A practical but theory-based framework for selecting cross-cultural training methods. *Human Resource Management* , 28 (4), 511-539.
- Black, J. S., & Mendenhall, M. (1990). Cross-cultural training effectiveness: A review and a theoretical framework for future research. *Academy of Management Review* , 15 (1), 113-136.
- Black, J. S., Morrison, A. J., & Gregersen, H. B. (1999). *Global explorers: The next generation of leaders*. New York: Routledge.
- Blaylock, B., & Rees, L. (1984). Cognitive style and the usefulness of information. *Decision Sciences* , 15 (1), 74-91.
- Bonnstetter, B. J. (2000). The DNA of global leadership competencies. *Thunderbird International Business Review* , 42 (2), 131-144.

- Boyatzis, R. D., Goleman, D., & Rhee, K. (1999). *Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: Insights from emotional competence inventory (ECI)*. Retrieved from Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations: www.eiconsortium.org
- Boyatzis, R. (1982). *The competent manager: A model for effective performance*. New York: Wiley & Sons.
- Brake, T. (1997). *The global leader: Critical factors for creating the world class organization*. Chicago: Irwin Professional Publishing.
- Bryan, L. L., Rall, W., Fraser, J., & Oppenheim, J. (1999). *Race for the world: Strategies to build a great global firm*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Bryman, A. (1992). *Charisma and leadership in organizations*. London: Sage Publications.
- Bueno, C. M., & Tubbs, S. L. (2004). Identifying global leadership competencies: An exploratory study. *Journal of American Academy of Business* , September, 80-89.
- Caligiuri, P. (2006). Global leadership development. *Human Resource Management* , 16, 219-228.
- Caligiuri, P., & Di Santo, V. (2001). Global competence: What is it, and can it be developed through global assignments? *Human Resource Planning* , 24 (3), 27-35.
- Caligiuri, P., & Tarique, I. (2009). Predicting effectiveness in global leadership activities. *Journal of World Business* , 44, 316-346.
- Carl, D. E. (1999). *The robustness of charismatic leadership as a universal paradigm*. University of Calgary.
- Christopher, M. (2003, September 4). Study finds Europeans distrustful of U.S. global leadership. *New York Times* , p. 11.
- Cirincione, J. (2001). WANTED: Global leadership. *15* (3), 40.
- Colvin, G. (2006). Catch of rising Star. *Fortune* , 153 (2).
- Conger, J. A. (2004, August). Developing leadership capability: What's inside the black box? *Academy of Management Executive* .
- Conklin, W., & Lloyd Miller, R. S. (2004, Fall). Review of global leadership: The next generation. *Diversity Factor* , 12 (4), pp. 48-49.
- Conklin, W., & Miller, R. (2004). Review of Global Leadership: The Next Generation. *Diversity Factor* , 12 (4), 48-49.

- Conner, J. (2000). Developing the global leaders of tomorrow. *Human Resource Management* , 39 (2/3), 147-157.
- Copeland, L., & Griggs, L. (1985). *Going international*. New York: Random House.
- Costa, T., & McCrae, R. (1992). Normal personality assessment in clinical practice: The NEO personality inventory. *Psychological Assessment* , 4, 5-13.
- Cox, C., & Solomon, G. (1997, February 27). Global leadership, not global boondoggles. *Wall Street Journal - Eastern Edition* , p. A16.
- Dainty, A., Mei-I, C., & Moore, D. (2005). Competency-based model for predicting construction project managers' performance. *Journal of Management in Engineering* , 21 (1), 2-9.
- Dalton, M., Ernst, C., Deal, J. J., & Leslie, J. (2002). *Success for the new global manager: How to work across distances, countries, and cultures*. Hoboken: Jossey-Bass.
- Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual Review of Psychology* , 41, 417-440.
- Dive, B. (2005). *Why organization design is critical to global leadership development*. New York: The Conference Board.
- Doerr, J. E. (1997). Global leadership: It's not about you. *Management Review* , 86 (7), 5.
- Dorfman, P. W. (1996). International and cross-cultural research. In B. J. Punnett, & O. Shenkar (Eds.), *Handbook for international management research* (pp. 267-349). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Dowling, P. J., Welch, D. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1999). *International human resource management: Managing people in a multinational context*. Cincinnati: South-Western College Publishing.
- Doz, Y. L., & Prahalad, C. (1986). Controlled variety: a challenge for human resources management in MNCs. *Human Resource Management* , 55-71.
- Dutta, S., & Fraser, M. (2009). Global leadership in a web 2.0 world. *OECD Observer* (273), 35-36.
- Earley, P. C. (1987). Intercultural training for managers: A comparison of documentary and interpersonal methods. *Academy of Management Journal* , 30, 685-698.
- Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.

- Eccher. (2001). *Executive leadership competencies: Espoused versus practiced, convergent versus divergent. What can be learned from the study of one corporation's worldwide operation*. Benedictine University.
- Elizur, D., Borg, O., Hunt, R., & Beck, I. (1991). The structure of work values: A cross cultural comparison. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* , 12 (1), 21-38.
- England, G., & Lee, R. (1974). The relationship between managerial values and managerial success in the U.S., Japan, India, and Australia. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 59, 411-419.
- Erez, M., & Earley, P. C. (1987). Comparative analysis of goal-setting strategies across cultures. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 72 (4), 658-665.
- Fowler (2009). *Survey Research Methods* (4th ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Foxon, M. J. (1998). Closing the global leadership competency gap: The Motorola GOLD process. *Organization Development Journal* , 16 (4), 5-12.
- Friedman, T. L. (2007). *The world is flat: A brief history of the twenty-first century*. New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.
- Gandz, J. (2000). Global leadership and personal power. *Ivey Business Journal* , May/June, 10-12.
- Ghemawat, P. (2005, December). Regional strategies for global leadership. *Harvard Business Review* , 98-108.
- Gilligan, T. (2008, September/October). *The Alcalde* , 14.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An alternative 'Description of Personality': The "Big Five" structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* , 59, 1216-1219.
- Goldsmith, M., Greenberg, C., HuChan, M., & Robertson, A. (2004). *Global leadership: The next generation*. Upper Saddle River: FT/Prentice Hall.
- Goleman, D. (1998). What makes a leader. *Harvard Business Review* , 76 (6), 93-103.
- Gregersen, H. B., Morrison, A. J., & Black, J. S. (1998). Developing leaders for the global frontier. *Sloan Management Review* (Fall), 21-32.
- Alma Harris. (2008). Distributed leadership: according to the evidence. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 46(2), 172-188.
- Harvey, M., Novicevic, M. M., & Speier, C. (1999b). Inpatriate managers: How to increase the probability of their success. *Human Resource Management Review* , 9, 51-81.

- Harzing, A. W. (2004). Strategy and structure of multinational companies. In A. & Harzing, *International Human Resource Management* (pp. 200-250). London: Sage.
- Haubrich, H. (2009). Global leadership and global responsibility for geographical education. *International Research in Geographical & Environmental Education* , 18 (2), 79-81.
- Hoppe, M. (2007). Issues and observations: adult development theory may boost global leadership. *Leadership in Action* , 27 (3), 21-22.
- House, R. J. (1998). A brief history of GLOBE. *Journal of Managerial Psychology* , 13 (3/4), 230.
- House, R. J., & Javidan, M. (2002). Leadership and cultures around the world: Findings from GLOBE. *Journal of World Business* , 37, 1-2.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Research Program. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A., Dorfman, P. W., Javidan, M., Dickson, M., et al. (1999). Cultural influences on leadership and organizations: Project GLOBE. In W. H. Mobley, M. J. Gessner, & V. Arnold, *Advances in global leadership* (Vol. 2, p. 184). Stamford: JAI Press.
- House, R., & Aditya, R. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management* , 23, 409-473.
- House, R., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., & Dorfman, P. (2002). Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: an introduction to project GLOBE. *Journal of World Business* , 37, 3-10.
- Introduction to SAS. UCLA: Academic Technology Services, Statistical Consulting Group. From <http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/sas/notes> (accessed April 3, 2010).
- Jokinen, T. (2005). Global leadership competencies: a review and discussion. *Journal of European Industrial Training* , 29 (2/3), 199-261.
- Jordan, J., & Cartwright, S. (1998). Selecting expatriate managers: key traits and competencies. *Leadership & Organizational Development Journal* , 19 (2), 89-96.
- Kets De Vries, M. F., & Florent-Treacy, E. (2002). Global leadership from A to Z: Creating high commitment organizations. *Organizational Dynamics* , 30 (4), 295-209.
- Kets de Vries, M. R., Vriegnaud, P., & Florent-Treacy, E. (2004). The global leadership life inventory: Development and psychometric properties of a 360-degree

- feedback instrument. *International Journal of Human Resource Management* , 15 (3), 475-492.
- Kho, E. C. (2001). *An evaluation study of the effectiveness of a United States-based global leadership development program*. California School of Professional Psychology-Berkeley/Alameda.
- Kolb, D. A. (1983). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Kopelman, R. E., Brief, A. P., & Guzzo, R. A. (1990). The role of climate and culture in productivity. In B. Schneider (Ed.), *Organizational climate and culture* (pp. 282-318). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kramer, R. (2005). *Developing global leaders*. New York: The Conference Board.
- Latham, G. (1988). Human resource training and development. *Annual Review of Psychology* , 39, 545-582.
- Laurent, A. (1983). The cultural diversity of western conceptions of management. *International Studies of Management and Organization* , 8 (2), 75-96.
- Lobel, S. (1990). Global leadership competencies: Managing to a different drumbeat. *Human Resource Management* , 29 (1), 39-47.
- Lokkesmoe, K. J. (2009). *A grounded theory study of effective global leadership development strategies: Perspectives from Brazil, India, and Nigeria*. University of Minnesota. Ann Arbor: ProQuest.
- Manning, T. (2003). Leadership across cultures: Attachment style influences. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies* , 9 (1), 20-32.
- Marken, J. A. (2006). An application of activity theory: A case of global training. *Performance Improvement Quarterly* , 19 (2), 27-49.
- May, A. S. (1997). Think Globally – Act Locally! Competencies for global management. *Career Development International* , 2 (6), 308.
- Maznevski, M. L., & DiStefano, J. J. (2000). Global leaders are team players: Developing global leaders through membership on global teams. *Human Resource Management* , 39 (2/3), 195-208.
- McCall, M. W. (n.d.). Leadership development through experience. *Academy of Management Executive* .
- McCall, M. W., Lombardo, M. M., & Morrison, A. M. (1988). *The lessons of experience: How successful executives develop on the job*. New York: The Free Press.

- McCall, M., & Hollenbeck, G. (2002). *Developing global executives*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- McCauley, C. D., & Van Velsor, E. (2004). *The center for creative leadership handbook of leadership development (2nd ed.)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- McLaurin, J. (2006). The Role of Situation in the Leadership Process: A Review and Application. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 5, 97-114.
- Mendenhall, M. E., & Stahl, G. K. (2000). Expatriate training and development: Where do we go from here? *Human Resource Management*, 39 (2 & 3), 251-265.
- Miller, M. M. (1998). Perspectives: The radical shift to global executive education—A look back from the year 2007. *Journal of International Marketing*, 6 (1), 81-90.
- Mobley, W., & Dorfman, P. (2003). Introduction. In W. Mobley, & P. Dorfman, *Advances in global leadership* (Vol. 3, p. xiii). Oxford: JAI Press.
- Moran, R. T., & Riesenberger, J. R. (1994). *The global challenge: Building the new worldwide enterprise*. London: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Morrison, A. J. (2000). Developing a global leadership model. *Human Resource Management*, 39 (2/3), 117-131.
- Mossberg, B. (1993). A prescription for global leadership. *Educational Record*, 74 (4), 49.
- Mumford, M. D., Zaccaro, S. J., Harding, F. D., Jacobs, A., & Fleishman, E. (2000). Leadership skills for a changing world: Solving complex social problems. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11 (1), 11-35.
- Neary, D. B., & O'Grady, D. A. (2000). The role of training in developing global leaders: A case study at TRW, Inc. *Human Resource Management*, 39 (2/3), 185-193.
- Noble, E. P., Ozkaragoz, T. Z., Ritchie, T. L., Zhang, X., Belin, T. R., & Sparkes, R. S. (1998). D2 and D4 dopamine receptor polymorphisms and personality. *American Journal of Medical Genetics*, 81, 257-267.
- Northouse, P. G. (2004). *Leadership theory and practice*. London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Novicevic, M. M., & Harvey, M. G. (2004). The political role of corporate human resource management in strategic global leadership development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 569-588.

- Oddou, G., Mendenhall, M. E., & Bonner Ritchie, J. (2000). Leveraging travel as a tool for global leadership development. *Human Resource Management* , 39 (2/3), 159-172.
- Ohmae, K. (1989). Managing in a borderless world. *Harvard Business Review* , 152-161.
- Osland, J. S., & Bird, A. (2006). Global leaders as experts. In W. Mobley, & E. Weldon (Eds.), *Advances in global leadership* (pp. 123-142). Stamford: JAI Press.
- Osland, J., & Bird, A. (2008). Process models of global leadership development. In M. Mendenhall, J. Osland, A. Bird, G. Oddou, & M. Maznevski (Eds.), *Global leadership: Research, practice and development*. New York: Routledge.
- Peterson, B. (2004). *Cultural intelligence: A guide to working with people from other cultures*. Yarmouth: Intercultural Press.
- Petrick, J. A., Scherer, R. F., Brodzinski, J. D., Quinn, J. F., & Ainina, M. (1999). Global leadership skills and reputational capital: Intangible resources for sustainable competitive advantage. *Academy of Management Executive* .
- Pfaltzgraff, J. R. (2001). The importance of global leadership. *World & I* , 16 (1), 30.
- Pucik, V. (1998). Creating leaders that are world-class. *Mastering Global Business (a supplement to the Financial Post and Financial Times)* , 3-4.
- Quinn, R. E. (2004). *Building the bridge as you walk on it: A guide for leading change*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ralston, D., Gustafson, D., Cheung, F., & Terpstra, R. (1993). Differences in managerial values: A study of U.S., Hong Kong and PRC managers. *Journal of International Business Studies* , 24, 249-276.
- Ready, D. A., & Conger, J. (2003). Why leadership efforts fail. *MIT Sloan Management Review* , 44 (3), 83.
- Rhinesmith, S. (1996). *A manager's guide to globalization: Six skills for success in a changing world (2nd ed.)*. Chicago: Irwin Professional Publishing.
- Rice, J. G., & Lindencamp, D. (1989). Personality types and business success of small retailers. *Journal of Occupational Psychology* , 62 (2), 177-182.
- Robinson, D. A., & Harvey, M. (2008). Global leadership in a culturally diverse world. *Management Decision* , 46 (3), 466-480.
- Rosen, R. H. (2000, April). What makes a globally literate leader? *Chief Executive* , 46-48.

- Rosen, R., Digh, P., Singer, M., & Phillips, C. (2000). *Global literacies: Lessons on business leadership and national cultures-A landmark study of CEOs from 28 countries*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Rosinski, P. (2003). Coaching across cultures. *The International Journal of Coaching in Organizations* .
- Roth, K., & Morrison, A. (1992). Business-level competitive strategy: A contingency link to internationalization. *Journal of Management* , 18 (3), 473-487.
- Sanchez, J., Spector, P., & Cooper, C. (2000). Adapting to a boundaryless world: A developmental expatriate model. *Academy of Management Executive* .
- Schein, L., & Kramer, R. J. (2005). *The business value of leadership development*. New York: The Conference Board.
- Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology* , 40, 437-451.
- Schollhammer, H. (1975). Current research on international and comparative management issues. *Management International Review* , 15, 29-45.
- Schuler, T. (2007, May/June). Building global leadership at Avery Dennison. *Global Business & Organizational Excellence* .
- Schwartz, S., & Bilsky, W. (1990). Toward a theory of the universal content and structure of values: Extensions and cross-cultural replications. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* , 58 (5), 878-891.
- Schwartz, S., & Bilsky, W. (1987). Toward a universal psychological structure of human values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* , 53, 550-562.
- Senge, P. M. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. New York: Doubleday.
- Sharma, R., & Bhatnagar, J. (2009). Talent management – competency development: Key to global leadership. *Industrial and Commercial Training* , 41 (3), 188-132.
- Shen, J. (2005). International training and management development: Theory and reality. *The Journal of Management Development* , 24 (7/8), 656-666.
- Sheridan, E. (2005). *Intercultural leadership competencies for United States business leaders in the new millenium*. University of Phoenix.
- SHRM surveys cover workplace demographics, global leadership. (2002, August). *HR Focus* , p. 9.
- Sicilia, D. (1998). Cutting edge: Gillette's journey to global leadership. *Business History Review* , 72 (3), 505-507.

- Sinclair, A., & Agyeman, B. (2005). Building global leadership at The Body Shop. *Human Resource Management International Digest* , 13 (4), 5-8.
- Sinha, P., & Zoltners, A. A. (2005). Global sales effectiveness initiatives: What works and what does not? *Journal of Medical Marketing* , 5 (1), 19-26.
- Sparrow, P., Harris, H., & Brewster, C. (2004). *Globalising human resource management*. London: Routledge.
- Spillane, J., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. (2001). Investigating School Leadership Practice: A Distributed Perspective. *Educational Researcher*, Vol. 30, No. 3 (Apr., 2001), pp. 23-28.
- Spiro, L. N. (2003). In search of leaders. *Chief Executive* , 192, 1-7.
- Spreitzer, G. M., McCall, J. J., & Mahoney, J. (1997). The early identification of international executive potential. *Journal of Applied Psychology* , 82 (1), 6-29.
- Srinivas, K. M. (1995). Globalization of business and the third world: Challenge of expanding the mindsets. *Journal of Management Development* , 14 (3), 26-49.
- Stogdill, R. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, 25, (pp. 4-6).
- Stroh, L., & Caligiuri, P. (1998). Increasing global competitiveness through effective people management. *Journal of World Business* , 33, 1-16.
- Suliman, B. (2005). The global leadership marathon. *Employment Relations Today* , 32 (3), 11-17.
- Suutari, V. (2002). Global leader development: An emerging research agenda. *Career Development International* , 7, 218-233.
- Talkington, A. (2001, July 16). Global leadership: What chemical industry CEOs think about managing the global enterprise. *Chemical Market Reporter* .
- Taylor, C. (2001). Siemens relies on HR's input into global leadership initiative. *People Management* , 7 (11), 9.
- Taylor, S., Beecher, S., & Napier, N. (1996). Toward an integrative model of strategic international human resource management. *Academy of Management Review* , 21 (4), 959-985.
- Triandis, H. C. (1993). The contingency model in cross-cultural perspective. In M. M. Chemers, & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions* (pp. 167-188). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1998). *Riding the waves of culture*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Tubbs, S. (2009b). *Keys to leadership: 101 tips for success (7th ed.)*. New York: Learning Solutions Division of McGraw-Hill.
- Tubbs, S. L., & Jablokow, K. (2009). Leadership development and adaptaion-innovation theory. *The Business Review* , 13 (1), 53-59.
- Tubbs, S. L., & Schulz, E. (2006). Exploring a taxonomy of global leadership competencies and meta-competencies. *The Journal of American Academy of Business* , 8 (2), 29-34.
- Tung, R. L. (1981). Selection and Training of Personnel for Overseas Assignments. *Columbia Journal of World Business* (1), 68-78.
- Tyler, M. (2006). Creating an incubator for global leadership. *Leader to Leader* , 41, 71-74.
- Vloeberghs, D., & Macfarlane, A. (2007, June 27-29). Global leadership development: A working paper.
- Wolniasky, N. (1990). International training for global leadership. *Management Review* , 79 (5), 27.
- Yukl, G. (2002). *Leadership in Organizations (5th ed.)*. Prentice Hall.
- Yunker, G. (2003). Advances in global leadership. *Personnel Psychology* , 56 (4), 1073-1075.
- Zahra, S. A. (1996). Competitiveness and global leadership in the 21st century. *Academy of Management Executive* , 12 (4), 10-12.
- Zeira, Y. (1975). Overlooked personnel problems of multinational corporations. *Columbia Journal of World Business* , 10 (2), 96-103.