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Global Leadership Development

> The nature of competition and the forces of innovation shift the frontiers of science, business and technology at a rate we've never seen before, which is why expertise is not static. To be competitive, any individual—like any company, community or country—has to adapt continuously, learning new fields and new skills ... We need a workforce model that recognizes this shift. As always, the really hard part is culture and mindset.
>
> —Sam Palmisano, IBM chairman, president and chief executive officer (2007)

In 2008, IBM launched a company-wide initiative to completely change its cultural DNA. The goal? To become a truly "globally integrated enterprise." White and Rosamilia (2010) noted that IBM had "seen massive shifts in where revenue is generated, spurring the need to grow leaders with global mindsets wherever they are located" (p. 2). This realization led to a new cultural initiative where all IBMers had to play a part, and thus all needed to develop "a global mindset with common corporate values as the glue" (p. 2). As a result, an essential component of IBM's change strategy involves the mission-critical element of developing global leaders and increasing intercultural competence in all IBM employees (White and Rosamilia, 2010). We will return to IBM's strategy for accomplishing this lofty goal later in this chapter. IBM is not the first company to recognize that in order to compete in the age of globalization it needs executives, managers, and employees who possess global skills commensurate to the demands of their job descriptions.

Many firms today face the same issues, not because their current leadership has implemented a strategic plan, but simply because of the environmental changes that are in constant flux, making the world, as IBM's Palmisano stated in the opening quote, an almost impossible place to predict. New markets, changing governments, fluctuating economies, growing regulations, new competitors, more complex capital sourcing, changing population patterns, disrupted cargo routes, and many other things have created a landscape that is ever changing and increasingly complex to understand. No one person can manage it. No single country mindset can understand it.

The need for increased numbers of global leaders is an old refrain. In 1999 Black, Morrison and Gregersen studied Fortune 500 companies and concluded that 85 percent of the firms said they did not have adequate numbers of capable global leaders. Further, of those few "global leaders" they *did* have, only about 30 percent of them were rated as having the necessary competencies to really be effective. Very significantly, the human resource directors of these firms in the survey rated "having effective global leaders" as the number-one priority of their firms. Mendenhall, Jensen, Gregersen, and Black (2003) found similar conditions extant in large global firms across industries. In 2008 Development Dimensions International studied 35 industry sectors, with HR professionals and leaders from 76 countries, and found that although 75 percent of executives surveyed identified improving or leveraging global talent as a top business priority, only 50 percent of the organizations had a process to identify high-potential leaders and only 39 percent had a program to accelerate their development.

In 2013 Maznevski, Stahl & Mendenhall reviewed survey findings from both the World Economic Forum and McKinsey & Company and reported that the global leadership vacuum in global organizations is one of the ten most urgent issues to address in the world and is one of the biggest challenges for organizations in 2013 and beyond (p. 494). Folkman (2014) reported that "one-third of global organizations have identified 'global leadership' as a serious constraint ... consequently, 70% of larger organizations have plans to increase their overseas assignments. Yet, ironically, less than a third of these organizations have any formal leadership development process in place" (p. 1).

Bartram reported in his study that "roughly 60% of companies plan to increase significantly their global presence during the next three years" but that "as few as one in 15 professionals have the potential to be an effective leader today" in the global context (Bartram, 2013; 1). Gorman (2015), reporting on a study conducted by the Institute for Corporate Productivity, reports that only 44 percent of firms sampled were engaged in global leadership development, and of that group, only 21 percent believe they are producing effective results with their global leadership development initiatives. Salicru and his associates reported the results of Development Dimensions International's (DDI) Global Leadership Forecast of 2014–2015 where 13,124 global leaders and 1,528 human resource executives were surveyed (Salicru, Wassenaar, Suerz, and Spittle (2016: p. 12):

> "Only one in five organizations emphasize GLD, and only one-third of their leaders reported being effective in leading across countries and cultures—the lowest single skill effectiveness rating in the survey."

> "Out of 900 multinational organizations surveyed, 52% were planning to expand their operations within the next few years, but only 16% reported having enough globally ready leaders to fill their critical roles."

In addition to prioritizing the development of individual global leaders, global firms also need to "globalize" the leadership skills in their top management teams as well. Evans, Pucik, Björkman, and Morris (2017: p. 233) note that "when it comes to the background of those at senior levels—and despite decades of attention to diversity in talent management—top leadership positions in most multinational companies still remain dominated by parent-country nationals." Many organizations clearly are lagging in the implementation of programs and policies to identify and develop their future global leaders. However, it is not just medium and large organizations with foreign markets that need global leaders at the helm. Even the smallest of businesses need to be aware of the global business arena.

Consider the following, for example. A restaurant that gets its shrimp from South America needs to understand the issues related to sourcing from foreign countries and have alternate plans in case protectionist tariffs close off its sources of shrimp or the changing global climate patterns alter the sea temperature in that part of the world and affect the availability of shrimp. In both cases, the cost of shrimp will rise significantly and/or the need to source it elsewhere will become paramount. The small business owner who recognizes these potential vulnerabilities due to globalization and changing weather patterns will be better prepared to adapt to new conditions than the one who is more locally focused. In the surfboard industry, Clark Foam, a very small firm, was the clear majority supplier of surfboard blanks to surfboard manufacturers worldwide since surfing with nonwooden boards began in the 1950s. In 2006, it closed its doors almost overnight due to a decision to not upgrade to current US environmental policies. Customers unaware of the changing political climate in the US and resulting environmental policies were left to find new sources with virtually no notice (Development Dimensions International, 2009). Prices of surfboards doubled, and virtually all the new foam suppliers came from foreign countries. Without an understanding of the sometimes precarious interdependencies that exist with global operations, even small firms or seemingly insignificant industries will not be able to operate most efficiently or profitably. Even small firms need leaders who are broad-minded, aware of global trends, and adaptable to a changing and unpredictable world.

In this chapter, we will focus on the development of global leaders in larger firms, however. Larger firms generally have greater opportunities to fill market needs across the world and source from multiple locations globally. Because their markets are international or global, they generally affect and are affected by both local and worldwide trends in politics and economics, and by socio-cultural, legal, and technological changes more than smaller firms. Our focus will include general leadership methods that apply to global leadership development (GLD), conceptual issues that underlie effective GLD, and three examples of firms that have very different GLD initiatives and how they each can positively affect GLD.

General Leadership Development Methods

Firms' general approach to developing global leaders has usually involved altering existing traditional leadership development approaches to try to incorporate a global perspective in their GLD program designs. The following appear to be the most common components of leadership development programs (Day & Halpin, 2001; Freifeld, 2014; Griffith, Sudduth, Flett, & Skiba, 2015): online learning, 360-degree feedback, executive coaching, job assignments, mentoring, networking, reflection, action learning, outdoor experiences, service learning, and traditional seminars and workshops.

For many firms, almost all of these approaches are still part of their strategy for developing leaders who operate in multiple markets and/or across country boundaries in one capacity or another. If modified appropriately, such methods can become an important part of GLD. However, adapting what used to be general leadership methods requires a change of mindset, though. For example, online learning programs, be they live Internet, self-paced, or blended in nature, require content that is designed in tandem with international experts with real-world business experience to be "sticky" enough to be internalized by trainees. Similarly, mentoring will be more effective if a less-experienced manager is being guided by someone with significant learning accrued from global business experience rather than by someone who has risen through the organization when global markets were not necessary for adequate profit. Likewise, executive coaching will be more effective if the coach has had international work experience and can relate to the issues the manager might be struggling with in the context of global business, and service learning opportunities work best when they occur overseas and when the projects are meaningful, use volunteers' skills productively, provide opportunities for developing new skills that can be applied in the future, and ensure that adequate resources are in place to ensure project success and volunteer support (Caligiuri, Mencin, & Jiang, 2013).

Thus, one of the primary challenges for firms is whether or not they will appropriately modify their general leadership development programs to address the peculiar requirements of GLD. We have so far addressed primarily the common practices that are used to develop the competencies needed by global leaders. Relative to the *process* of GLD and how those competencies are acquired, we will examine the following aspects of GLD in the sections that follow: 1) the learning contexts of GLD methods, 2) the conceptual process and outcomes of effective training, and 3) the different strategies that firms can use to help "globalize" their managers.

Learning Context of GLD Methods

Learning the kind of competencies needed for global leadership can be had through multiple forums, each with its advantages and disadvantages. Although classroom type training can efficiently disseminate information, some research shows that approximately only 20 percent of our learning comes through formal classroom training, 30 percent comes through information exchanges with others, and 50 percent is derived from personal work experience (Dodge, 1993). Similarly, the 70–20–10 learning model (Lindsey, Homes, & McCall, 1987) espouses that 70 percent of leadership learning is best acquired by “doing” (on-the-job experience that advances the organization’s mission), 20 percent is best gained via “relationship-learning” through coaching and mentors, and 10 percent is derived from classroom/workshop settings (Hong, 2016; Griffith et al., 2015). Rabin (2014) conceptualizes the 70–20–10 framework in the following way: 10 percent constitutes *formal learning*; 20 percent involves *developmental relationships learning* (hereafter referred to as “developmental learning”), and 70 percent involves learning via *challenging assignments*, or what we will call “experiential learning.”

Though few of us recall over the long term much of what we hear or see in a classroom—efficient delivery does not tend to equate to internalized learning (Dodge, 1993; Lindsey et al., 1987)—formal learning in classrooms does allow for the gathering of in-company personnel from around the world, and when used strategically can help company managers forge networks (which can then contribute to developmental learning, the 20 percent dimension in the 70–20–10 model). Recent research indicates that GLD programs that are well-designed and fit with the norms and values inherent in the corporate cultures in which they are initiated can foster the formation of cross-divisional networks through the “information exchange” associated with developmental learning and increases social capital and knowledge sharing among managers and executives across functions and units in large multinational firms (Bjarn, Gooderham, & Stensaker, 2013; Espedal, Gooderham, & Stensaker, 2013; Stensaker & Gooderham, 2015). Mentoring, coaching, and 360-degree feedback are modes by which cultural self-awareness can be effectively produced in trainees as well (Cumberland, Herd, Alagaraja, & Kerrick, 2016).

A plethora of research exists that indicates that “lived experiences that are novel, of high significance to the organization, and require people to manage change with diverse groups of people and across organizational boundaries are important sources of leadership development” (DeRue & Myers, 2014). Rigorous experiential learning involves giving managers exposure to actual business operations in geographically dispersed, functionally different operations of the firm where they must confront cultural differences—it’s a case study in “living color.” Such experiences test the mettle and capabilities of the manager in real-life business experiences. The lessons learned in rigorous experiential contexts are “sticky” in nature because rigorous experiential learning involves both intellectual and emotional memory, and thus lessons learned are learned for a lifetime (Caligiuri et al., 2013; Pless, Maak, & Stahl, 2011). For example, Dragoni and her colleagues (2014) found that in their study of 231 executives that “the time they spent in global work experiences [experiences that required the executive to transcend national boundaries] positively relates to their strategic thinking competency, particularly for leaders who have had exposure to a more culturally distant country” (p. 867).

In summary, formal learning, developmental learning, and varying levels of experiential learning (the more rigorous the level the better) are all important and complementary and have a part in the development of global leaders (Pless et al., 2011).

Conceptual Process and Outcomes of Effective GLD Programs

If the development of global leaders has as its objective to broaden leaders' minds and increase their capacity to understand and predict events and behaviors across borders, then the methodology of that training must embody a process that will accomplish that goal. Black & Gregersen's proposed model for GLD (2000) embodies the essential elements of this learning process: *Contrast, Confrontation and Replacement* (Black & Gregersen use the term *Remapping* instead of "replacement"). Mezirow first identified this process of transformation in the late 1970s (Mezirow, 1978: p. 1) exposure to a disorienting dilemma (*contrast*), 2) self-examination and exploration of options (*confrontation*), and 3) provisional trying of new roles—and building competence and self-competence in those roles—to arrive at a stage of reintegration based on one's new perspective (*replacement or remapping*). Taylor (1994) cited Mezirow (1978) on the nature of transformation:

> [It is] the process of becoming critically aware of how and why our assumptions have come to constrain the way we perceive, understand, and feel about our world; changing these structures of habitual expectation to make possible a more inclusive, discriminating, and integrative perspective; and, finally, making choices or otherwise acting upon these new understandings.
>
> (p. 167)

Wernsing & Clapp-Smith (2013: p. 541) describe the same process in this way:

> Because cultural beliefs and values are implicitly learned through socialization practices, developing cultural self-awareness is initiated through experiences with culturally distinct people or contexts. A change, or even an anticipated change, in the environment (e.g., moving into foreign culture, working with a new multi-cultural team) can create the contrast needed to make salient each person's expectations for social norms … global leaders intending to develop intercultural competencies must be willing to make an active investigation into how their own implicit beliefs and values are derived from their cultural upbringing. The environmental contrast offers an opportunity to begin an intentional investigation into the cognitive and behavioral factors involved in cross-cultural interpretations.

For us to learn, we must acquire new information and become able to see the same thing from a different perspective. As individuals with certain cultural maps about how the world works and how business operates, we need to experience contrasts to those views and confront our beliefs and assumptions. Without such contrasts that lead to confronting our traditional way of seeing or doing, there can be no change. Consider the following example of a German purchasing agent.

Case Scenario: Contrast, Confrontation, and Replacement

A purchasing agent in Germany sourcing supplies from a Malaysian company, for example, might not get the same service he would from a developed country where practices and assumptions are different. The possibility of supplies being disrupted in Malaysia is greater because the German now has to deal with local conditions that are different from the ones the German is used to. Inconsistencies in communication with a supplier in Malaysia might *contrast* with the German's normal experience because of local power outages and differences in notions of urgency with a foreign buyer. This forces the German to *confront* his mental map of how business is done in other parts of the world. To be effective in dealing with the agent's Malaysian counterpart, the agent must *replace* his previous notion (i.e., mental map) that business can be conducted with the same methods and communications, resulting in the same efficiency everywhere in the world—or at least in Germany. However, a changed mental map can occur at different levels—at a superficial level or a deep level. A superficial level change might be something along the lines of the agent's realization that Malaysia might have a less-reliable electricity infrastructure, negatively affecting the timeliness of communications. Such a remapping is superficial because it localizes the difference in operating methods to a particular person and to a physical infrastructure issue rather than a deeper underlying cultural issue common to many or most Malaysians that often is the more important variable affecting the efficiency of operations.

A deeper-level replacement of the purchasing agent's mental map would relate to an improved understanding of not only the physical infrastructure but of the cultural "infrastructure" as well. Perhaps the issue is not the infrastructure but the motivation of the vendor to fix it. Managers in developed countries place great value on urgency because of the value on customer service in the highly competitive world they operate in. This value reflects the importance of the customer—regardless of who it is. A deeper level understanding might involve knowing about the varying importance of relationships in Malaysia and how that variation influences responsiveness. Understanding that Malaysia is a high-context culture, where relationships are critical and in-groups and out-groups differentiate the level of responsiveness between two people would represent a much deeper-level of remapping. The German would normally be a member of the "out-group" and therefore be given less attention than members of the Malaysian's in-group. Knowing this would help the German predict and understand better local behavior.

One of the authors' brother-in-law and sister came to stay with him and his wife in France recently. The author and his wife had developed good friendships with many of the neighbors in the village and so invited them to dinner sometimes. Because the French don't usually invite others for dinner until 7:00 p.m., and it's often not until 7:30 p.m. or later that the meal actually begins—dinner often goes until 11:00 p.m. or later. Meals in France are a time to socialize and renew friendships. Eating can be secondary, although the food is always a topic of conversation. This meant that the author's relatives and accompanying teenagers did not get to bed until much later than usual. So the teenagers got up late as well—to the consternation of the brother-in-law. Why did we have to start so late? Why does it have to go so late? He would try to move things along faster and get us to start the dinner earlier. Despite my explanations for why the French eat later than Americans and why they eat this way, he could not internally accept it, and it became a source of frustration for him the entire time. He was, in essence, unwilling to confront his assumptions that eating was simply to replenish one's energy supply rather than develop deeper relationships and that eating dinner should occur earlier in the evening to allow an earlier bedtime to get up and start working. Without confronting his cultural assumptions about these things, there was no possibility of changing his perspective.

Whether the context is a social situation or a business operation, a deeper level of remapping represents a fundamental level of learning that can then be applied to multiple contexts. For example, the author's brother-in-law could expect sales calls in a French business environment to last much longer than he was used to in the US because they often are done over a meal. The purchasing agent doing business in Malaysia can expect a similar lengthy process to ensue in other high-context cultures that emphasize the hierarchy of relationships and the need to ensure good relationships before making final decisions. In both these instances, more fundamental lessons at this level of learning include the consideration of a culture's values. In the purchasing agent's situation, for example, it is important when planning an operation that when there is a critical interdependency that involves foreign operations and great distances, it is important to allow for more time and for greater possibilities for things to go wrong (the "remapping"), that it is critical to develop a good relationship with the agent's counterpart in the foreign country (in this case, Malaysia) in order to be better informed and have better access to information that might be helpful.

This process of replacing simple maps (the ones we currently have) with more sophisticated ones requires a psychological process to occur. Kurt Lewin (1947) referred to this process of confronting our mental maps and replacing them with new ones as "unfreezing, changing and refreezing" within a context of dynamic stability. That dynamic stability applied to GLD, and the change process to become a global leader is at the heart of the "contrast, confrontation and replacement" process.

The German purchasing agent experienced a contrast to his usual way of doing business and had to confront the situation (unfreezing). In this case, he could either try to force an external change—the Malaysian salesman to change the situation in Malaysia (unlikely)—or change his own perspective (an internal change) on how to work with the Malaysian company more effectively ("changing" in Lewin's terminology and "replacement" or "remapping" in our previous discussion). When we experience a contrast in customs, beliefs, etc., that doesn't allow us to conduct business the way we are used to, we have forces that continue to push us toward doing business our old, normal way and we have forces that are pushing us to do business in a new way (i.e., resulting in a dynamic stability). The German continues to feel pressure from his own company to obtain the necessary supplies in a timely matter. That pressure doesn't disappear and motivates the German to continue to push for what he expects based on his "German" or "personal" map of how these things should happen. However, there are also pressures that are pushing the German to realize that he cannot always expect to realize the same time economies in Malaysia as he normally could in his own country. Those pressures, by contrast, will motivate the German to act in a way different from his customary behavior.

These competing pressures force a reconstruction of the previous "map." The conclusion or learning arises from creating a better understanding of all the variables at play and an effective way to work within that new context (changing). Finally, as our new way or new "map of the world" is reinforced through additional similar experiences across individuals, countries, and business operations, it becomes a new, usable "legend" that helps us more effectively manage our businesses and relationships (refreezing). And the process must continue so that our "legend" becomes increasingly refined and accurate because as noted in Chapter 1, the global context will continually change over time.

Enablers of Transformation

The kind of transformations we're speaking of do not occur automatically just because one experiences a contrasting experience that creates a confrontation. In other words, the German purchasing agent does not automatically move from one type of approach to time and relationships (the German's) to another (the Malaysian's). In fact, it's possible—or even likely—that the German will simply make a quick judgment about the Malaysian culture being inefficient. Such stereotypes are common and certainly do not allow for the development of a new understanding. There *is* a contrast, but in Lewin's terms, there is no "unfreezing" and therefore no "changing" that occurs.

For there to be a transformation, the individual needs to have certain competencies that enable this process. For example, if the German purchasing agent can *tolerate ambiguity* and *avoid being judgmental*, the agent is less likely to draw quick and most likely inappropriate, conclusions about the Malaysian vendor. This allows the agent time to inquire about the challenges the vendor might be facing or the specific cultural context in which the vendor lives. Such an inquiry demonstrates another enabling competency: *curiosity or openness*. To discover the relevant information to better understand the Malaysian's culture, the German might have to initiate conversations with the vendor, himself, or with people familiar with Malaysian culture. This, in turn, demonstrates another enabling competency: *interpersonal engagement*. If the agent takes a strong interest in the vendor himself, rather than in the issue as a general cultural concept, the German further demonstrates another competency that can lead to an effective transformation: *relationship development*. Wanting to develop and effectively manage their vendor-purchasing agent relationship is more likely to lead to a cooperative, long-term collaboration.

Thus, having these and other enabling competencies are necessary for appropriate transformations to occur in managers seeking to become effective global leaders. Because enabling competencies help ensure appropriate transformations, and transformations lead to better global managers and leaders, a complete GLD program needs to include a diagnosis of the leader's enabling competencies as well as experiences that can more easily lead to meaningful transformations. (For an in-depth discussion of the various enabling competencies, see Chapter 4.)

Kozai Learning and Transformation Model

The Kozai Group (2008) developed a useful model that indicates the process most individuals tend to follow through the learning process to develop greater global leadership competencies; it is illustrated in Figure 8.1.

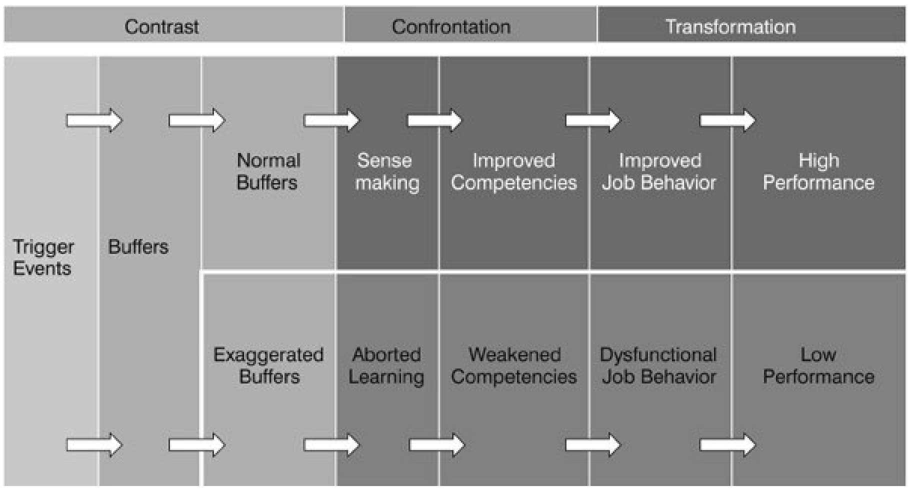

Figure 8.1 The Kozai Learning and Transformation Model

The first step in the transformation process is to experience events that act as trigger events; that is, ones that can cause us to step back, reflect, react to situations foreign to us, or otherwise trigger a process that leads to sense making and a greater understanding of the context and players that triggered the sense-making process. In their study of expatriates, Clapp-Smith and Wernsing (2014) found four types of triggers that led to transformation in global settings: 1) social immersion, 2) novel normality, 3) communicating in a new language, and 4) self-reflection. Social immersion involved daily interactions with local nationals ranging from the mundane to the adventurous that kept them consistently out of their natural, cultural “comfort zones.” Novel normality involved “experiencing normality in another culture” which in turn “made salient participants’ own assumptions about what is normal,” resulting in contradictions of their implicit stereotypes (p. 669). Communicating in a new language, on a consistent basis, triggered a variety of insights about cognition, social values and norms, self-identity, depth of character, and more. Finally, they found that in their subjects the immersive international experience, itself, forced the expatriates to engage in self-reflection in order to make sense of the reality they found themselves in. “Self-reflection built participants’ self-awareness and self-efficacy through the realization that participants could overcome language barriers, find their way on unfamiliar transportation systems, and relate to people who are culturally different from them” (p. 670).

This is the same process as Mezirow (1978) described as “a disorienting dilemma.” As the model indicates, after a given trigger, individuals typically do one of two things: they react defensively or dismissively (Exaggerated Buffers) and essentially abort the sense-making process. This might involve judging, stereotyping, or otherwise evaluating in a way that negates any value to the experience. In those circumstances, nothing is learned and behavior is unchanged. (Hence, being *nonjudgmental* is another enabler of transformation.) Other individuals think about the situation and become interested in understanding it better (Normal Buffers); they analyze the variables at play, try to characterize the players involved in an objective fashion, and so on, and learn something at both the surface and deeper level that they can carry with them into their next experiences. This learning in turns builds new knowledge and increases their competencies and their performance levels as well.

Strategies for Globalizing Personnel

Regardless of the enabling competencies an individual might have, for this change or developmental process to occur, firms need to strategize to put their personnel into situations where this transformation process of contrast—confrontation—replacement can happen. The key is to organize the transformation process into all aspects of the learning process. We will use the 70–20–10 framework to illustrate this, but the inherent assumption applies to any learning framework a firm prefers; namely, the framework must be infused with activities that focus on the contrast—confrontation—replacement process.

Formal Learning (10 Percent)

Formal learning is a broad umbrella that includes many different types of learning strategies, including but not limited to traditional seminars, webinars, case studies, assessments, games and role-plays, lecture, etc. (Rabin, 2014). These types of training approaches are often quite passive in nature with heavy doses of PowerPoint slides. Trainees usually sit behind desks and listen to the trainer, watch videos, and are invited to join in class discussions. Attempts to induce experiential learning through role plays, simulations, or small group exercises are often seen as contrived, unrealistic, or overly formulaic if the trainer is not deeply experienced in artfully facilitating them. Additionally, too often formal training is "one-size-fits-all" in nature and does not accommodate individual differences in trainees (e.g., learning styles, job roles, or experience).

However, if formal training can be designed to enhance contrast processes (and sometimes confrontation processes), it can act as an important preparation for engaging in contrast and confrontation learning. An important prerequisite for experiencing contrast is cultural self-awareness. Cultural self-awareness relates to "the ability to identify personal beliefs and values that are sourced from one's cultural upbringing and to recognize the influence of this cultural conditioning on behavior" (Wernsing & Clapp-Smith, 2013: p. 535). Cultural self-awareness is necessary to "examine the source of personal cultural beliefs and values, identifying the tendency to use personal beliefs as a reference for evaluating others, and recognizing how specific cultural beliefs shaped leadership behavioral responses" (Wernsing & Clapp-Smith, 2013: p. 535).

Creating cultural self-awareness can be achieved in individuals in a formal setting but requires approaching training in the formal setting in a way that individualizes content for the trainee. One way to do this is to assess each trainee before the formal training via the use of a global leadership competency instrument (these types of instruments are discussed in Chapter 5). In addition to teaching trainees about various global leadership competencies and the necessity of paying attention to them, trainees can be given specific feedback on the degree to which they currently are in possession of competencies that are important for global leadership. This is the first step toward cultural self-awareness: individualized, personal feedback.

The cultural self-awareness that comes from individualized feedback can be enhanced via the use of blended learning strategies within the formal learning context. Blended learning is "typically defined as a combination of traditional classroom training with some form of virtual learning, such as e-learning modules, webinars, or virtual classroom events" (Rabin, 2014: p. 2). Take, for example, the case of Sandra, an accountant for a large Austrian firm who is being transferred to Tokyo with regional responsibilities for Japan, China, South Korea, and Vietnam.

After being assessed on competencies crucial to being a successful global leader and receiving feedback on them, Sandra's next assignment in the formal learning environment might be to take an eLearning Module on living and working in Japan, such as GlobeSmart (Doherty, 2016). After completing the module, Sandra now has an increased cultural self-awareness regarding how her own personal values differ from those of the Austrian and Japanese social and corporate cultures. She now has an awareness of this cultural gap that she will be facing living and working in Japan, and she now also understands what her stronger and weaker global leadership competencies are that can be strategically deployed to bridge that cultural gap. Sandra can now, along with the others in the training group (who each have different types of global assignments), spend time on creating personal strategies for developing social and work relationships that will help them be successful in the new countries they will be living and working in. At this point, multiple coaches could be assigned to the formal training session to help the trainees facilitate the creation of their personal development plans. In this way the formal learning has transitioned now to what Rabin (2014) calls learning through "developmental relationships" or what we term, *developmental learning*.

Developmental Learning (20 Percent)

Learning via developmental relationships involves approaches including, but not limited to, communities of practice, networking, executive coaching, workplace coaching and mentoring, and learning from bosses and superiors (Rabin, 2014: p. 2). Developmental learning, put simply, involves learning through discussion and interaction with others in one-on-one settings or in very small groups. When the coach entered the training seminar and began working with Sandra on developing a plan geared at developing functional social and work relationships in Japan, the formal learning that produced some degree of contrast (and perhaps some degree of confrontation too) shifted into the "20 percent" realm of developmental learning.

After working with her coach and devising strategies based on her contrast and confrontation experiences that flowed out of the formal and developmental learning processes of her training, Sandra may even have begun to engage to some degree in "anticipatory replacement learning" (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991) before even setting foot in Japan. Even though she has not begun experiential learning via actual encounters in Japan with Japanese or in China with Chinese or in Vietnam with Vietnamese by foreseeing the types of encounters, she will likely experience an anticipatory form of experiential learning. For example, what she learned in her formal learning via the GlobeSmart modules and from her coach (developmental learning) about the importance of exchanging business cards in work contexts in Japan, and then linking that understanding with her current levels in competencies that can either enhance the probability of business card exchanging being successful or unsuccessful (e.g., social flexibility), she can experience by proxy, to some degree, experiential learning outcomes.

Experiential Learning (70 Percent)

Sandra's example illustrates the necessity of taking formal and developmental learning approaches and revamping them for individuals who will be working in global leadership roles. That said, this degree of blended learning is necessary but not sufficient for the significant development of global leadership competencies. Real blended learning is a "combination of formal learning combined with workplace-based or 'informal' learning opportunities—addressing all segments of the 70–20–10 rule" (Rabin, 2014). Global leadership competencies are only powerfully developed in the "70 percent" realm, the domain that Rabin (2014) labels "challenging assignments" and that we term experiential learning. This is where the transformation process that we discussed earlier takes place, or as Evans et al. (2017: p. 237) state:

> ... at the heart of development is the simple principle that people learn most by doing things they have not done before. People develop above all through challenge, by venturing outside their comfort zone. Test this yourself. Ask others to tell you about the experiences that were most valuable for their development. Surprisingly enough, people hardly ever mention training and education ... the vast majority will describe some stretching challenge that they worked through, often succeeding but sometimes failing, often in professional life but sometimes in private life, sometimes planned but equally often by chance.

Experiential learning involves learning from actual, real experience in global contexts. Often experiential learning is attempted through simulations of one sort or another, but there is no adequate substitute for engaging in tasks that are real and have real consequences. Obviously, the scope of possibilities for experiential learning are almost endless once a global leader is on the job and in the global context trying to successfully carry out initiatives. We are going to focus on three areas to illustrate how these can be productively leveraged to help people develop their global competencies via experiential learning by utilizing: 1) global business travel to strategically develop competencies associated with global leadership; 2) expatriate assignments to enhance global leadership competency development; and 3) international service learning programs to develop global leaders.

Leveraging Travel for GLD

International business travel tends to be very short-term (a few days to a couple of weeks) and can be very superficial in a cross-cultural learning sense because there is far less needed to learn the local language, learn the local customs, and understand more than superficially foreign counterparts and their national and organizational cultures. The international business traveler is often personally taken care of from arrival to departure without having to venture into the foreign culture and problem-solve on her/his own. Rarely do they need to learn the transportation system or where to shop for this or that. Quite often, they are little more than tourists in a business context. Many firms and many businesspersons, themselves, create these kinds of cultural bubbles and isolate themselves from having to encounter the local culture. There is no need to use their analytical abilities to figure things out, no need to ask or try to ask in the foreign language about directions or transportation, no need to translate signs directing them to certain places, no need to navigate traffic into the city, and so on. In other words, travelers may not be confronted with and therefore be forced to deal with any direct contrasts between themselves and the new culture. As such, without confrontation there is no real meaningful contrast, no unfreezing or change, and certainly no replacing of one's mental maps of how things are done, what is right and wrong, what works, and what doesn't work.

For traveling to be part of GLD, it must be designed strategically to do so. The company or traveler must build in time to the travel for mistakes and discoveries to be made. Travelers must be willing to take risks and to work at managing negative emotions or tensions that are created in trying to find their own way. They must be willing to try to observe carefully the actions and words of others and the effects they have on those around them. They have to experiment with ways to try to build trust quickly by being open, accepting, and appropriately appreciative. Recent research has found that business travelers who do these things significantly increase their global leadership competencies (Johnston, 2014). Damiran (1993: 29) speaks of this kind of traveler as a contrast to the tourist as follows:

> A traveler and a tourist can visit the same city, but experience it very differently. A tourist's goals are typically to see all the sights, learn their names, make and collect stunning pictures, eat the foods, and observe the rituals of the city. A traveler, on the other hand, seeks to understand the city, to know and live briefly among the people, to understand the languages, both verbal and nonverbal, and to participate in the rituals of the city. At the end of equally long visits, the tourist is likely to have seen more monuments, but the traveler is more likely to know how to use the public transportation.

J. Bonner Ritchie (Oddou, Mendenhall, & Ritchie, 2000) recounted an experience he had as a traveler that broadened his global mindset. While walking through the Muslim Quarter in the Old City of Jerusalem, he stopped to look at a brass vase. He asked the shopkeeper the price. Upon hearing the price, even though he wasn't seriously in the mood for buying, Bonner said "too much." The shopkeeper asked how much he would offer. He said he wasn't sure as he began walking down the street. The shopkeeper followed and threw out a lower figure: "60 shekels." Bonner, willing to play the game, responded "25 shekels." The merchant in turn said "40 shekels." They went through another round and settled at 35 shekels.

The important part of his experience was not the transaction, though without the transaction, no development would have occurred. After settling on a price, because the shopkeeper had noticed that Bonner seemed uncomfortable with the bidding negotiation, he asked Bonner why that was so. The merchant reminded Bonner that in the US, Americans do not buy homes or cars based on a fixed price, so why would negotiation be omitted from other transactions? He suggested it was not only more enjoyable to prolong the interaction but it was fairer to do so. Surprised, Bonner asked him why it is fairer. The merchant responded that this way the seller and buyer can arrive at a price that is mutually acceptable and that such a price is going to reflect the buyer's ability to buy and need to buy—it will likely be a higher price for someone who has more money and a greater need and a lower price for someone who is poorer or with less of a need. And so, the merchant reasoned, a lower price was not a better deal but a fairer deal.

Bonner had entered the negotiation with a sense of discomfort because doing business this way for this type of product was not his normal way. Though not a lot was at risk in this situation, Bonner had to confront the effectiveness of his usual way of buying such products with the local way of doing so and figure out what was equitable. Bonner's assumption that a fixed price meant a fair price is a cultural belief he had been accustomed to in the US. The fairness was in a reasonable profit margin the merchant determined and the clarity of the price so the buyer can make an "informed" decision. It gives all the responsibility to the buyer, in a sense, to determine fairness. Bonner didn't want to be taken advantage of by paying a higher price than he should, particularly because he was a foreigner and suspected the merchant might try to gouge him (a higher profit margin than should be expected). Bonner was assuming this way of doing business gave the merchant all the responsibility and power to determine what was fair. From this traveler transaction, Bonner learned that "fairness" was a clear factor embedded in negotiations in such contexts, that equity or fairness was best reached in a more flexible, fluid context where the needs and motivation of the two parties could be understood in a conversation. This cultural *contrast* resulted in Bonner's *confronting* his understanding of "fairness" and "responsibility" in reaching equitable transactions. He gained a better appreciation for cultures that are more flexible and allow individual circumstances to influence transactions to reach a greater sense of equity.

This change in Bonner's mental map (*replacement or remapping*) would never had occurred had Bonner not ventured beyond his hotel room and hotel restaurant or if he had allowed himself to always be "protected" by a host employee who could have intervened. Bonner never would have had learned another perspective. Johnston (2014: pp. 309–311) found in her research that international business travelers who used short-term assignments to successfully enhance their global leadership skills engaged in the following practices:

During and after their travel assignments they reflected on the experiences they had during their travel, especially regarding how they adapted their leadership styles to fit the culturally complex situations they had found themselves in and how their behavior reinforced business relationships.

Because their visits were so short in nature, they focused on having a constant realization that they had to maximize every opportunity that arose to successfully assess, adapt, and respond effectively with peer managers, local employees, clients, and other stakeholders.

They used their short-term travel assignments to augment their "natural interest in history or learning about global cultures, including reinforcement of deep affection for regional cultures, as well as an increased sense of responsibility to live as a global citizen" (p. 310).

They gained in-depth knowledge about the nature of the workforce in their companies in various countries, which in turn positively influenced their perspective and desire to develop global leadership talent from managers based in multiple countries.

They reached the conclusion that global business cannot be conducted mainly via technological communication; rather, "all participants questioned if virtual technologies could ever fully replace the need for in-person face-to-face communication ... Among this group of leaders there was a clear business orientation for results. Yet leader narratives reflected the recognition of the necessity to blend results with strong enduring relationships and the active commitment to build those relationships" in order produce positive business results (p. 311).

International Assignments

On the other side of the spectrum from international travel is an international assignment. It is commonly agreed upon that international assignments are the best proving grounds for developing global management competencies (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002) as they are the longest type of exposure to foreign business and culture (1–3 years usually), and when strategically designed, require a tremendous amount of interaction and integration into all aspects of the culture. Still, as we have noted in the previous section, an international business traveler on a short-term assignment who is curious and motivated to learn can have an experiential learning experience that goes well beyond that of a tourist.

It is the necessity of integration into the host culture that causes the greatest degree of culture shock, and culture shock is the absence of familiar "markers" in a person's environment. This causes a disorientation and inability to perform according to habitual expectations. In the *general* culture, an expatriate must normally deal with differences in language, rules of the road, shopping, on down to such mundane but essential things as differences in car insurance and the payment of utility bills and more. Within the *work environment*, the expatriate might also deal with language differences, but he or she more certainly deals with differences in work culture, performance appraisal systems, meeting behavior norms, and so forth. The expatriate might or might not have family members with him or her, and those family members each will be dealing with another subset of the culture and will bring additional and supplementary contrasts to the expatriate's cross-cultural learning experience.

When one of the authors of this chapter was in France with his family, they moved into the home they were to be in for six months while on an assignment there. The washing machine had just broken down. They were given a phone number of the repairman to call by the previous family. He called, and the repairman said he would be out within a couple of days. The repairman never came. He called again after a few more days and the repairman said he'd be out right away, but that it was taking longer because the washing machine was German and he had to order the part from Germany. (He had never even come out to the house to see what was wrong to even know what part might have to be ordered!) Either way, he never came. The author's wife began to complain and was getting upset with him from having to do so much wash by hand (because they didn't know where to go to wash or if there were any public washing machines even available). He called the repairman again and told him (in good French) that the repairman was unprofessional. With that, the repairman got upset, and both of us hung up our phones, mutually dissatisfied.

One day, about two weeks later, while eating at the parents' home of the people whose house they lived in, the mother asked how everything was and he told her except for the problem with the washing machine, things were great. She asked what was wrong, and they explained what had transpired. She immediately said not to worry, that the repairman had been a previous employee of theirs for many years in their import-export firm, and that she would call him. He came out the next day with a replacement washer.

There was a lesson to be learned there. But the lesson wouldn't have been learned had the author not had to personally *confront* the *contrast* in the "repair process" in France and the US. In the US, he was used to a repairman making an appointment and usually coming approximately when the appointment was made. When that didn't happen in France, he had to confront the difference but without any explanation for why the repairman behaved this way. When he saw how quickly his previous employer got him to come, he began to realize that this is a country where relationships could mean everything. The author had no relationship with the repairman, and so there was apparently no obligation—he could take as long as he wanted and it was acceptable. The mother of the people whose house they lived in had a long relationship with him. That previous relationship apparently was enough to motivate the repairman to do something even though he was no longer in their employ.

The author now had to modify his understanding of how things can get done (*replacement*). In the US, the relationship between repairman and the customer is a neutral one. However, because customer service is a competitive advantage for business survival in the US, a deep relationship is not needed. The required relationship is established simply by being a customer—business is business. This notion was in stark contrast to his experience in France where the relationship is established over years of familiarity, and not by virtue of being classified as a customer over a phone conversation. And so to get things done in a country like France, the author realized he had to establish and maintain relationships. He had to replace his mental model of supplier-customer relationships to fit a broader definition. As an expatriate, this was just one of the many "maps" that was altered during his time in France.

International Service Learning

International corporate-sponsored volunteer (ICV) or sometimes referred to as corporate international service learning programs are "pro bono advisor programs" that "provide opportunities for a firm's skilled employees to go 'on loan' as pro bono advisors to nongovernmental organizations (NGO) in developing countries. The participating employees provide short-term, project-based technical expertise for projects identified by the NGO, the deliverables of which are aimed at NGO capacity-building" (Caligiuri, 2015: p. 226). There has been a fourfold increase in the use of ICVs by firms over the past decade, with firms such as Becton Dickinson, Cargill, Credit Suisse, Dow Chemical, EY, GlaxoSmithKline, IBM, Intel, Microsoft, Novartis, Pepsico, Pfizer, and PricewaterhouseCoopers prominent adopters of this approach to GLD (Bhasin, 2016; Caligiuri, 2015; Maak, Pless, & Borecká, 2014; Pless & Borecká, 2014).

ICV programs are most often limited to high-potential managers (who are either selected via an open application process or by top management) and are commonly imbedded into rotational programs (Caligiuri, 2015). They are seen as creating significant benefits above and beyond the philanthropic outcomes associated with the programs, such as talent attraction, retention, and global leadership competency development. For example, a recent study (Emerging World, 2015) of five multinational organizations (Becton Dickinson, Credit Suisse, EY, GlaxoSmithKline, and Microsoft) that use ICVs, found that ICV programs:

Significantly advance careers: After their ICV experience, 66 percent of the managers moved on to roles with higher levels of scope or responsibility (p. 7).

Significantly advance high-potential retention: After their ICV experience, 82 percent of the managers "continue to work at the organization that supported their experience" (p. 7).

Significant advances in employee engagement: After their ICV experience, 87 percent of the managers have greater pride in their organization, 78 percent have greater loyalty toward their organization, and 75 percent have higher motivation to perform above and beyond standards required in their current positions (p. 8).

Significant increases in the development of global leadership competencies: After their ICV experience, participants reported powerful increases in cognitive complexity, tolerance of ambiguity, self-awareness, cross-cultural interaction skills, self-confidence, collaboration skills, and initiating new ways of doing things, among others (p. 6).

Similarly, other studies have found that ICVs produce increases in varying degrees in attendees' global leadership skills, some examples being cross-cultural awareness, inclusion, empathy, global mindset, cultural intelligence, and other leadership capabilities (Maak et al., 2014; Pless et al., 2011; Pless & Borecká, 2014).

ICV Case Example: PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC)

PwC is a global firm, made up of legally independent firms in over 100 countries. Co-owners of each firm are designated as partners, and they constitute 5 percent of the more than 200,000 people PwC employs worldwide. PwC has been running their GLD program named Project Ulysses, and from 2001 to the present over a hundred partners have gone through the program (Pless, Maak, & Stahl, 2011). PwC runs a variety of global leadership competency development training programs, but for the purposes of this chapter, we will focus only on Project Ulysses, which is designed to enhance the global leadership competencies of their partner-level executives. Pless et al. (2011) state that

> The overarching goal of the Ulysses program is to promote responsible leadership within PwC's global network of firms and to develop partners of the firm into well-rounded leaders who are aware of their responsibilities in society and capable of interacting effectively and ethically with various stakeholders in the global marketplace.
>
> (pp. 240–241)

The core concept of Project Ulysses is simple and straightforward: form partners into teams of 3 or 4 and send them to developing countries for two months to work on challenging assignments with local and international organizations. For example, in Africa, partner teams have worked in Cameroon, Eritrea, Ghana, Kenya, Madagascar, Namibia, South Africa, Uganda, and Zambia on projects that involved combating HIV/AIDS, enhancing agriculture production, growing rural electricity, facilitating landmine removal, mental health development, providing ongoing clean drinking water, and institutionalizing women and children protection services, eye care, rural development, and more. Partner teams have carried out similar types of projects in Cambodia, China, East Timor, India, Belize, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, and Moldova (Pless et al., 2011). After partners are nominated and selected to participate in this program, there are five phases or stages to the Project Ulysses program; they are summarized in Figure 8.2 below.

Each phase is designed to prepare participants for challenges faced in later phases of the developmental process. For example, in the induction phase, yoga training is given to prepare the participants to relieve the intense stress that they will face working 24–7 in their service-learning environment. Also, they receive individualized coaching to help them strategize how they will approach, cope, deploy their expertise, and learn global leadership skills during their time overseas. After their assignment ends, during the debriefing stage, the focus is on learning activities that help the participants in individual and collective sense-making of their experience in order to "lock in" their learning and to be cognitively, affectively, and behaviorally aware of the degree to which they have developed and expanded their global leadership competencies (Pless et al., 2011).

Pless and her colleagues studied the impact of the Project Ulysses program on its participants, and their findings indicate that the program produced heightened levels of global leadership skills. As the Mezirow (1978) and Kozai Learning and Transformation Model shows, they found that global leadership skills occurred because of the operation of "triggering mechanisms," and that these mechanisms were three fold in nature; namely, 1) being forced to resolve tensions and paradoxes in the new, unfamiliar environment; 2) having to construct a new "life-world" in order to make sense of the new environment in order to successfully achieve their project task; and 3) being forced to cope with adversity and the attendant strong emotions that were triggered by that adversity (Pless et al., 2011). Their findings support the notion that crucible experiences are powerful vehicles for the development of global leadership competencies (for a more in-depth discussion of the role of crucible experiences in GLD, see Chapter 6). More specifically, Pless and her colleagues found that: 1) significant learning took place in the areas of cultural intelligence and intercultural competence development; 2) participants had heightened levels of tolerance, openness to different cultural norms and perspectives, and nonjudgmentalness; 3) significant increases occurred in the areas of cosmopolitan thinking and the ability to grasp and manage complexity; and 4) participants showed heightened abilities to reconcile global and local imperatives, as well as evidencing significant learning gains in moral reflection, self-awareness, and the role of leaders as global citizens. (Pless et al., 2011: p. 249): From their study, they concluded the following:

Phase	*Focus*	*Length*
Preparation	360 Feedback, team formation, team project assigned, team coaching	8 weeks
Induction	Project briefing, yoga training, personal coaching, personal development plan, team building, project planning	7 days
Field Assignment	Teams implement plan in field, coaches visit in field	8 weeks
Debriefing	Celebrate and report results to other teams, learn through debriefing with coaches, record team-learning narratives, develop individual vision statements, engage in yoga and meditation	8 days
Alumni Networking	Regional alumni meetings, global alumni meetings bi-yearly, alumni special interest groups, follow-up visits, surveys, and events	Ongoing

Figure 8.2 Design of PwC's Project Ulysses Program

> ... international service-learning programs that involve cultural immersion at a relatively deep level through daily interaction and collaboration with local stakeholders can help managers ... Experiencing the heightened ambiguity, challenging ethical dilemmas, and cultural paradoxes associated with working in a developing country can trigger a transformational experience and produce new mental models in managers—new world-views, mind-sets, and perspectives ... A substantial portion of Ulysses participants reported that the program helped them to broaden their horizons, learn more about themselves, adapt to a new culture, learn how to perceive the world through the eyes of people who are different, and work effectively with a diverse range of stakeholders—qualities which are essential for leading responsibly in a global and interconnected world.
>
> (Pless et al., 2011: p. 252)

PwC is also an example of the difficulty in institutionalizing "best practice" HR programs over long time horizons. Due to a combination of factors, PwC decided to discontinue the Project Ulysses program in 2008. Ralf Schneider, who was Global Head of Talent at PwC, had championed the program from its inception through 2008. He left PwC in 2008 and turned the program over to his successor. Simultaneous to this handover, the program was going through a review at PwC headquarters to assess its value-added yield for the firm when the global financial crisis occurred. The decision was made to discontinue it as a key global talent program, but to leverage development lessons learned from it and spin those elements off into other developmental programs at PwC that were less costly in nature. An example of such spin-offs is the Oasis Program, where high-potential managers spend ten days in developing countries going through a similar process as that of Project Ulysses (Schneider, 2016).

Another example of Project Ulysses's contribution to global leadership development at PwC is the year-long My Way program. It involves European managers who are being prepared for partnership status, and requires them to engage in three modules that involves collaboration and coaching between residential periods. It is estimated that almost half of the PwC partners in Europe have participated in the My Way program. Schneider observed that Project Ulysses, from its beginnings, was an "experimentation space" that acted as an incubator for talent development ideas to be tested out, and that each year it was evaluated, tweaked, and it evolved accordingly—it was never intended to be scalable, but to be a "hothouse" for learning principles and techniques that could be applied to all types of talent development initiatives at PwC (Schneider, 2016). From that standpoint, it served its purpose, and continues to infuse talent development philosophy and practice at PwC. Conversely, however, the unfortunate fact remains that PwC no longer deploys an empirically proven, comprehensive, and immersive program for developing global leadership competencies like it had in Project Ulysses.

Strategies for Globalizing Personnel and General Leadership Development

It has been noted that "the primary objective of global leadership training is stretching someone's mind past narrow domestic borders and creating a mental map of the entire world" (Black and Gregersen, 2000). To accomplish this, most GLD programs take an eclectic approach to the challenge of developing global leaders, with an emphasis on classroom and information exchange types of approaches. As was discussed earlier, Dodge (1993) found that 20 percent of managerial learning is best suited for classroom-type scenarios, and 30 percent involves exchanging information with others, and learning from them (with the 70–20–10 framework reflecting a similar categorization of learning modes). Both frameworks contend that more in-depth learning occurs from actual, personal work experiences—if they are facilitated in productive ways.

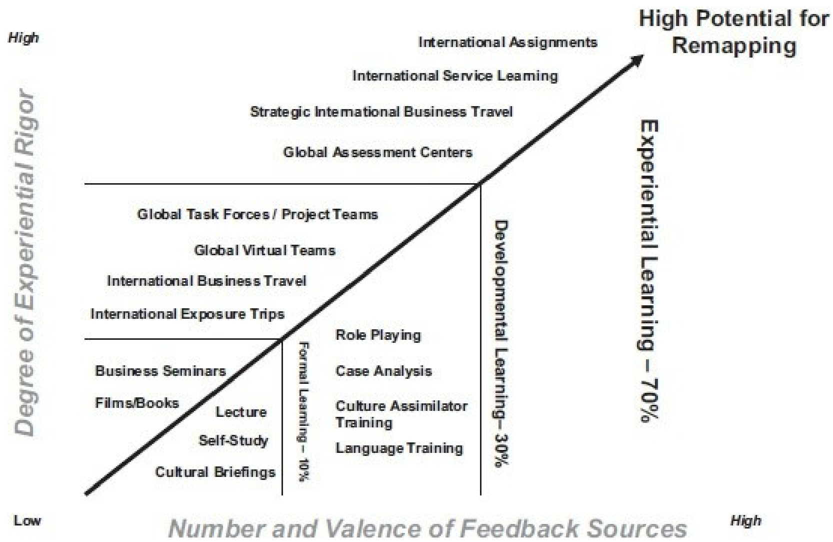

Figure 8.3 The Relationship of Experiential Rigor and Feedback on Global Leadership Competency Development

The more *experiential* or more *holistic* (emotional + behavioral + intellectual) the experience or contrast that characterizes the experience, the greater the potential impact or development. In addition, the greater the number of *sources* of feedback that tells the manager his or her behavior or decision was or was not appropriate, the more impact the contrast will have on development. These contrasts cause us to reflect and possibly seek out perspectives from mentors or coaches to help us understand the contrast and how to manage it. All this can more easily lead to the unfreezing and changing of our mental maps. Of course, in the process of working with foreign counterparts in job assignments (e.g., international assignments, task forces, virtual teams, negotiations, etc.), the manager is also building global networks, another important common component of general leadership models. Figure 8.3 illustrates these relationships.

Recent research on global leaders bears out the notion that developmental activities at the higher-end of the continuum in Figure 8.3 facilitate global leadership development. Caligiuri and Tarique (2011) studied 420 global leaders, and among other findings, reported that "high-contact" experiences that were initiated by the organization such as lengthy expatriate assignments, work as a global team members, mentoring by people from another culture, etc., helped managers develop critical global leadership competencies. Thus, the careful structuring of developmental experiences that have embedded within them the key learning triggering mechanisms that have been previously discussed are critical to GLD.

Company-wide GLD

While international corporate volunteering (ICV) is solidly based on practices in the higher end of the continuum in Figure 8.3 and engages in processes that are ideally designed to foster the development of global leadership competencies, ICVs are almost always limited to high potentials and are not available company-wide to all employees. It would be almost impossible to rotate all employees that work for a large multinational corporation through ICVs. However, it can be argued that global organizations should require all their employees to have global knowledge and skills. However, few companies have tried to address implementing company-wide GLD programs with all their employees. Next, we provide a case study that we began with the previous edition of this book, and here we update its evolution to its current state at the time of publication of this new edition.

IBM's GIE Leadership Development Program

In 2008, IBM launched their flagship Corporate Service Corps (CSC) program to give its future leaders the kind of experience they needed to develop skills and perspectives to effectively address the challenges it faces in the global marketplace. This was part of an effort to become a truly globally integrated enterprise (GIE) and nurture a cadre of employees to be more collaborative, more attuned to a multiplicity of cultural differences, and far more fluid and globally networked (IBM, 2008).

As a precursor to the development of CSC, IBM consulted with numerous constituencies to create a model of what skills different employees need to be GIE-type leaders. They spoke with and listened to hundreds of IBM employees in more than 30 countries, their clients and business partners, academic scholars, university students who were potential future hires at IBM, and government leaders. The GLD model that was created from this approach focuses on two primary factors: 1) providing more employees with enhanced global skills; and 2) offering more varied global experiences earlier in careers (White & Rosamilia, 2010).

The desire is to "embed cultural intelligence and adaptability throughout IBM" according to the job roles that employees hold. IBM employees are expected to identify their own global skill gaps and to develop them with assistance from IBM support personnel, and tracking measures have been implemented for accountability purposes; for example, IBM is trying to track global skill development by: 1) measuring improvements in global competencies over time; 2) assessing employee satisfaction based on employee feedback; and 3) assessing increases in availability in their workforce of global skills to meet business needs (White & Rosamilia, 2010: p. 7). The overall program is designed to develop the degree of global competencies necessary for each IBM manager and employee in relation to the degree to which their role requires basic, intermediate, or advanced intercultural competencies.

As part of this global initiative, the Corporate Service Corps began in 2008 and has since involved nearly 3,000 of IBMs best employees in programs that have positively impacted 41 million people across 37 countries (IBM, 2016). IBM employees have worked in a variety of countries all over the world—India, Romania, Argentina, Mexico, Ethiopia, Vietnam, South Africa, and many others. Projects have included such varied initiatives as developing an educational training program for healthcare volunteers in Peru, creating a social media strategy to help promote gender equality and women's rights in India, implementing entrepreneurial training for women in Africa, and developing programs to aid people with disabilities in Africa, Asia, Central and Eastern Europe, Latin America, and the Middle East. Most of the projects are related to strategy and roadmap development, with a good number also involving general consulting with existing business, educational, health, agricultural, and financial institutions (IBM, 2016).

The original 2008 plan involved a six-month total program span: Phase 1 involved three months of self and team preparation; Phase 2 involved one month working in the country; and Phase 3 involved two months of post-country work. Assessments of the first CSC program launched in 2008 found that participants showed strong increases in the following competencies: appreciation of differences in the world, value of working cross-culturally, enhanced leadership skills, and emotional resilience (Marquis & Kanter, 2010). IBM reported in 2010 the following general results of the overall GIE initiative (White & Rosamilia, 2010: p. 12), which have continued to the present:

1. an increase of global leaders have emerged throughout IBM;
2. an increase of collaboration at the country level between senior leaders and local leaders in effective execution of corporate strategy;
3. an expansion and deepening of global client relationships;
4. an increase in the creativity of client solutions around the world;
5. an increase in understanding in employees of IBM's global strategy, their role as global citizens, and how they fit into IBM's global strategy; and
6. an increase in the degree to which employees collaborate with peers.

Since its inception, IBM has partnered with other firms to combine expertise and solve specific problems in these foreign countries. Client firms that IBM has teamed with on projects include Beckton Dickinson, Cairn India, CMEX Foundation, Dow Chemical, FedEx, GSK, John Deere, JP Morgan Chase, and Unilever. More recently, IBM has joined forces with the Peace Corps to work collaboratively on projects in Ghana, the Philippines, and Mexico in 2016. This year alone, "IBM will send nearly 400 more IBMers on 28 teams to 19 countries" (IBM, 2016a). The capstones of the broader GLD programs of PwC and IBM clearly create contexts where their employees must engage in the contrast, confrontation, and replacement process in a deep and meaningful way.

Not only do IBM employees acquire more relevant business knowledge from engaging in these projects (e.g., cloud, analytics, mobile and security), but they also report improving significantly their communication skills, and over 90 percent of participants report they acquire these essential leadership skills (IBM, 2016a): 1) the ability to effectively lead a global team (96 percent), 2) the ability to effectively collaborate to work effectively in teams (95 percent), and 3) the ability to better understand other cultures (91 percent).

In addition to the highly effective CSC program IBM has initiated, it also has developed its Global Enablement Teams (GET) program to help execute the GIE model at local levels and to encourage the development of global mindsets and capabilities (IBM, 2016b). Country General Managers (CGMs) identify the areas of expertise most needed in their country to further that country's business growth, and then four or five senior executives from multiple geographies and disciplines are assigned to work with the CGM. They make a commitment of three to four years, and visit the foreign country at least twice a year as a team as well as engage in multiple other visits as individual team members. Outside of the country visits, team members maintain contact and continue to make progress on the project through one-on-one mentoring relationships with in-country leaders. The GET initiative is designed to create a win-win situation. The CGM and in-country IBM senior leadership get expertise from outside their country while the GET members broaden their leadership and cultural adaptability skills and knowledge of local perspectives about existing priorities and economic, political, regulatory and social conditions in a foreign country. Finally, GET teams partner with CSC and other IBM-designated program participants to increase each other's effectiveness and develop networking and additional team skills (IBM, 2016b).

Developing Global Leaders in Domestic Contexts

But unlike PwC and IBM, what if a company is not able to spend the resources and time and intensity on their GLD efforts? In contrast to programs like PwC's Project Ulysses and IBM's CSC where managers are sent overseas for experiential learning, the Seitenwechsel ("perspective change") program was run by the Union Bank of Switzerland (UBS) in the late 1990s to achieve the same outcomes (Mendenhall & Stahl, 2000: p. 258). Part of the ongoing management development efforts of this firm was to broaden and expand the perspectives of their managers so as to better understand people who were different from them. USB managers were assigned to work for one week, full-time, with not-for-profit agencies that dealt with various social problems; for example, some managers were assigned to work with terminally ill HIV patients while others were required to care for the homeless at government-sponsored shelters. In other cases, managers were assigned to work with juvenile delinquents or with immigrants from war-ravaged countries who were seeking asylum.

Though often painful and challenging, this experience provided powerful contrasts to the managers, and challenged them to expand their perspectives and worldviews. The results indicated that this intensive simulation experience helped the USB managers to significantly "reduce subjective barriers and prejudices, learn more about themselves, broaden their horizons, and increase their interpersonal skills—all of which are competencies associated with global leadership" (Mendenhall & Stahl, 2000: p. 258). Interestingly, 60 percent of the managers who participated in the Seitenwechsel program continued to support the institution that they served in after the program finished (Mendenhall & Stahl, 2000).

The Seitenwechsel program is an excellent example of a GLD technique that can be classified in the "personal work experience" dimension of managerial learning. Managers were placed in situations where they had to extend the reach of their existing competencies to handle, cope, and be productive in milieus that were alien to them. Thus, it is possible to develop global leadership competencies without sending people overseas per se. Also, such in-depth simulations can be used to increase the number of managers who are trained to develop global competencies, as this type of global leadership competency training does not require managers to be sent overseas on either long- or short-term assignments, which can be quite expensive and budget-prohibitive.

The programs developed by IBM, PwC, and UBS have created assignments that are based on the conditions most important for global leadership development (Thorn, 2012) where significant differences in conditions and approaches are common and new solutions must be found through collaboration with people who do not share the same cultural perspectives or values. A final important element in all these programs and firms is that the leadership development programs initiated were consistent with the organization's culture (Bjarn et al., 2013; Espedal et al., 2013). In an in-depth case analysis of the Finnish firm, Wärtsilä, and then after combining their findings with studies of GLD best practices in 18 other large firms (Ameritech, BP, Boeing, Cisco, Citibank, Colgate-Palmolive, Dell, Ericsson, FedEx, GE, HP, IBM, Johnson's, Motorola, Pepsico, Prudential, Shell, and Vodafone), Salicru and his associates (2016: pp. 14–17) derived the following 14 principles they deemed necessary for GLD programs to merit being of the "best practices" level:

1. CEO total commitment to GLD
2. Alignment of GLD with firm's global strategy and goals
3. Involvement of senior leaders and managers in the GLD program
4. GLD program goals must be clear and relevant
5. Careful participant selection for admittance into the GLD program
6. Comprehensive and integrated assessment of the GLD program
7. Personal goal setting and action plan implementation requirements for participants
8. Pre-entry feedback and coaching
9. In-program and post-program coaching and peer coaching
10. Rigorous experiential learning during the GLD program
11. Reflective learning exercises

12. Building social capital through networking with peer participants and others
13. Online follow up work along with one-one-one follow-up
14. 14. Comprehensive evaluation of the total GLD program

New Directions and Unanswered Questions

We now turn to the future of GLD research and practice and will discuss briefly some of the conundrums and trends in the GLD field, the purpose being to alert young scholars to potentially fruitful areas of research focus.

Can All Managers Learn Global Leadership Competencies?

The answer to the above question would seem to be a straightforward, “Yes!” based on the findings of the studies we have cited to this point. As Caligiuri & De Santo (2001) and others note, the undergirding assumption or raison d’être of GLD programs is that global leadership competencies can be developed through rigorous, experiential development processes (Caligiuri & Thoroughgood, 2015; Terrell & Rosenbusch, 2013a). However, Debrah and Rees (2011) observed that

> Perhaps the most contentious aspect of the literature on the development of global leaders/managers is the issue of whether all managers can be trained and developed to acquire global perspectives.
>
> (pp. 389–390)

The key issue here is the term “*all managers*.” Research clearly shows that rigorous experiential experiences that international volunteers undergo generate increased levels of competencies associated with effective global leadership (e.g., Fee & Gray, 2011; Pless et al., 2011). However, these types of individuals often self-select for these types of opportunities—would *anyone* who is placed into these types of contexts develop global leadership competencies? This debate stems from the same disagreement that exists among some scholars and practitioners in the general field of leadership, that is, the notion that some people simply will never be able to become leaders no matter how devoted an organization is to try and develop them into leaders.

Caligiuri (2006) has contended that it is likely that individuals’ abilities to develop global leadership competencies are dependent upon their aptitude, knowledge, skills, abilities, and personality traits. Personality traits that may influence competency development are viewed by most scholars as being immutable, and do not change much over time (Caligiuri, 2006; Furuya, Stevens, Bird, Oddou, & Mendenhall, 2009). If this is so, then the implication for firms is to carefully select employees to enter GLD programs based on their “developmental readiness factors,” and to exclude employees from working globally who are less suited to do so (Caligiuri, 2006; Debrah & Rees, 2011; Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998; Ng, Van Dyke, & Ang, 2009). Earlier we reported that Caligiuri and Tarique (2011) found that “high-contact” programs produced global leadership competencies in the global leaders in their sample; however, there is a caveat to that general finding —“certain experiences are better than others (i.e., those that are high-contact) and that certain people benefit more from those experiences (i.e., those with extraversion, emotional stability, and openness)” (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2011: p. 1). Interestingly, they found that there is a “dynamic interplay” between personality traits and activities that are high-contact in nature and that this interplay allows for global leadership competencies to be developed and for global leadership outcomes to take place. That is, individuals who were high in certain types of personality traits were more likely to develop global leadership competencies in “high-contact” or experiential learning contexts. They argue that:

> GLD programs should identify those individuals with the requisite individual characteristics (e.g., personality) and then offer high-contact cross-cultural experiences to those identified. Multinational organizations (MNCs) are encouraged to (1) assess their potential global leaders for personality characteristics and, having selected carefully, (2) promote high-contact culturally oriented experiences.

Furuya et al. (2009) reported similar findings. Expatriates in their sample who had higher levels of intercultural competencies associated with global leadership before they began their overseas assignments were significantly more likely to enhance those competencies during their international experience than were their associates who had lower levels of those competencies before departure. After a review of related research, Thorn (2012) stated that conditions which are optimal for global leadership development include:

- International assignments with responsibility and authority
- Assignments and travel to different countries
- Broad leadership education and training outside the organizational context (e.g., other disciplines, other sectors)

Rotational assignments to other organizations

Sabbaticals for continuous learning and perspective

Opportunities to work with and "shadow leaders"

Assignments to action learning/risk-taking teams

Similarly, and after reviewing the relevant literature, Caligiuri and Tarique (2014: p. 254) propose that experiential learning experiences "provide opportunities for global business leaders to engage in significant and meaningful interactions with people from different cultures ... and identify, learn, and apply diverse culturally appropriate business behaviors," what they term, "treatment." Certain types of personality characteristics, language skills, motivation to engage in GLD, and prior cross-cultural experience form a separate construct that they label "aptitude." They propose that there is an "aptitude x treatment" interaction effect in GLD, and that aptitude "should be related to accelerated development from high-quality [experiential learning] experiences in the cross-national context" (p. 255).

Future research is required to fruitfully unpack each of the dimensions in the aptitude construct; for example, no doubt the "motivation" component is multidimensional in nature. Björkman and Mäkelä (2013) found in their study of 427 individuals from 14 different multinational companies that willingness to accept on-the-job challenges (i.e., motivation to engage in experiential learning) in the form of an international assignment was positively associated with an awareness that they had been identified as a high-potential talent in the firm, the degree to which they identified with corporate values, their perceived effectiveness of the developmental potential of the international assignment, and previous experience in studying abroad.

So, were the employees of PwC in the Ulysses Project or those in the IBM CSC and GET programs simply people who were more predisposed to develop global competencies than their counterparts due to their personality make-up and/or because they already possessed those competencies to a high degree? Do these types of people tend to apply for or be nominated by their superiors to be admitted into GLD programs more often than those who are not predisposed for global competency development? Is that why the best practices are best practices—because inadvertently these companies tended to select participants who were predisposed to be more likely to succeed? Similarly, does this apply to the success that leaders had in developing their global leadership competencies via the use of short-term international travel assignments (Johnston, 2014)? Did they have preexisting high levels of global leadership competencies, which in turn caused them to engage in behaviors that created an increased enhancement of their global leadership competencies during their short-term international travel assignments?

Or did the design of these GLD programs (or the unique nature of the short-term international travel assignments) elicit competency-triggering processes within people *despite* their developmental predispositions? A moderation of this stance would be that well-designed programs have the capability to facilitate improvement in any or most individuals—but at varying levels. That is, predisposed individuals may reach higher global competency levels, but less-predisposed people may nevertheless improve their global competency levels as well—just not to the same heights as those who were highly predisposed. In the end, this is an empirical question, and a gap in the literature exists on this issue that needs filling by future research studies. To date, studies have not tended to measure predisposition levels for global competency development in participants and then tracked their *pre-*, *during-*, and *post-*global leadership competency development processes and the outcomes of those processes.

Do National/Regional Cultures Influence Preferred Modes of GLD?

Exploratory research indicates the possibility that global leadership may be conceptualized differently depending on one's national cultural perspective (Lokkesmoe, 2009), and that GLD may be influenced by the degree of fit between "national culture" and "leadership competency development method" (Wilson & Yip, 2010; Yip & Wilson, 2008; 2010). Though some leadership development processes are universal across cultures (Mendenhall, 2011), such as challenging assignments, developmental relationships, hardships, coursework and training, and personal experience (Wilson & Yip, 2010), other variables likely come into play differentially across cultures in leadership development processes. Thus, depending on the culture in question, some of the five processes above may move from figure to ground, and vice versa, in their preference and importance to participants in terms of GLD. For example:

> Hardships include crisis, work-related mistakes, career setbacks, and ethical dilemmas. The types of experiences categorized as "hardships" are cited less frequently in India and Singapore than in the United States. Do managers genuinely experience fewer hardships in some countries? Does that mean that leaders from those countries are less likely to learn the unique lessons produced by hardships?
>
> (Wilson & Yip, 2010: p. 53)

Also, leadership development processes beyond the universal types mentioned above exist in some cultures and not in others; thus, the way an individual would most likely go about trying to develop global competencies may differ significantly across national cultures. For example, in the case of Indian executives, "familial relationships—such as with parents, uncles, and cousins—are cited more frequently as sources of leadership learning than is the case with executives from other countries" (Wilson & Yip, 2010: p. 53). Kwantes & Chung-Yan (2012) analyzed the Canadian culture to ascertain the degree to which Canadian values related to individualism and collectivism, egalitarianism, caution, consensus building, regionalism, multiculturalism, tolerance, and deference to authority influence the potential for Canadian leaders to develop global mindsets. They concluded that the national Canadian orientation toward these cultural constructs "uniquely situates Canada as a place for developing leaders with a global mindset" (p. 315). These exploratory studies point to a potential new stream of research in the field; namely, the degree to which national and regional cultures facilitate global leadership development in leaders and people generally within those cultures, and privilege specific developmental methods over others due to a "culture-method" fit.

For most global organizations, GLD programs tend to take on a "one-size- fits-all" paradigm—even in the case of the best practices firms we highlighted in this chapter. And this may be efficacious for employees who have internalized the global work culture and values of the organization in which they work. However, the work of Wilson and Yip suggest that employees may also have deeper, emotionally preferred ways of developing leadership competencies that may or may not be congruent with the organization's GLD program. Paying close attention to these cultural preferences may be important—even critical—to developing global competencies across a global workforce. Wilson and Yip (2010) observed that:

> Our current models of leader development draw primarily on the experiences of senior executives from United States and Western European corporations. Does the use of individualism as a tacit frame of reference for current research truncate a more complete understanding of leader development?
>
> (p. 53)

Which Competencies Are the Most Important?

The above question is a common one that many participants ask in GLD programs. They want to know which global leadership competencies they should concentrate on the most. Some experts suggest that inquisitiveness is the most important global leadership competency because it is foundational in nature, acting as the "glue" that holds the other competencies together (Black et al., 1999). However, the field has not progressed to the point where this question can be answered with any sense of certainty from an empirical basis. It is likely that global leadership competencies may vary in their valence of importance depending upon the various contextual factors at play in each setting. For example, Terrell and Rosenbusch (2013b: p. 1073) argue that different global job roles come with unique and varied competency requirements. We agree with the conclusion of Cumberland et al. (2016: pp. 312–313), who, upon reviewing the GLD literature, stated that "one of the gaps in the literature we found is the need for a more coherent understanding of what global leadership competencies are needed in different contexts. We urge HRD researchers to begin studying and mapping global competencies across these various spectrums, as it is unlikely organizations will be able to find employees who can successfully master all of the competencies that have been associated with global leadership."

To provide an initial framework for conceptualizing the variations inherent across global leadership roles, Reiche and his associates recently proposed a typology of global leadership roles that focuses on context as being critical to assessing the nature of contingency in global leadership roles (Reiche, Bird, Mendenhall, & Osland, 2015; 2017). This typology is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 13. They propose four ideal-types of global leadership roles: 1) incremental, 2) operational, 3) connective, and 4) integrative, and that vary along two dimensions: 1) task complexity (the variety and flux inherent in the task context in the specific role situation global leaders find themselves in), and 2) relationship complexity (the degree to which global leaders must engage in boundary spanning and manage relationship interdependencies in the specific role situation global leaders find themselves in). By applying this typology of global leadership roles to their samples in their research studies, scholars will be better able to differentiate between different types of global leadership activities and be able to more accurately study the degree of influence that specific global leadership competencies have in various global leadership role settings. In turn, this more nuanced understanding of the relationship between global roles and global leadership competencies will allow practitioners to develop more finely tuned, role-relevant GLD programs.

Developing Global Leadership Competencies in Academia

Multinational companies are increasingly expecting the university graduates they hire to come equipped with international business skills, and in fact note that the lack of global mindsets and skills in university graduates from North American universities is a strong concern of top management (Datar, Garvin, & Cullen, 2010; Ghemawat, 2011).

Probably the most common approach to attempt to expose students to international business and to teach them international business skills is through traditional classroom instruction. It would be rare, indeed, to find a business school in developed countries that does not require students to have matriculated a course in international business. However, it seems that simply learning content and passing exams based on this content has not been enough to develop global leadership competencies in business school students (Ghemawat, 2011). A 2011 report sponsored by AACSB-International concluded that curriculum in business schools was inadequate in developing global competencies in business school students, and charged business schools to develop strategies to develop them in their students (Ghemawat, 2011: p. 232). This drive toward not just learning *about* competencies associated with global leadership, but to *develop* them in students most commonly has been attempted by utilizing one or a combination of the following approaches: 1) study abroad/short-term international business trips; 2) redesigning classroom instruction; and 3) focused global leadership training.

Study Abroad and Short-term International Business Trips

To increase experiential learning in relation to global leadership competency development, many business schools have begun to either support university- wide study abroad programs and/or design specialized international business trips that require learning deliverables from the business school students that participate in them. Study abroad programs have been reported to engender numerous positive outcomes in students in terms of awareness of global issues, intercultural communication skill enhancement, and intercultural development (Soria & Troisi, 2014). However, these outcomes can be variable in nature as "all study abroad programs are not created equal" in terms of rigor associated with degree of immersion, language learning expectations, time spent overseas, intensity of experiential learning, and quality of program intervention (Paige, Fry, Stallman, Jon, & Josić, 2010). That said, study abroad experiences generally have positive effects on the development of global skills and global mindset in students (Paige et al., 2010), and even short-term trips of four weeks or less have shown to produce positive global engagement outcomes (Perry, Stoner, Stoner, Wadsworth, Page, & Tarrant, 2016: p. 761). The larger problem, however, is that for many university students, study abroad programs are not feasible due to financial costs, negative biases and fears about international travel on the part of parents, friends, and extended family, or lack of interest in living and studying abroad (Mendenhall, Arnardottir, Oddou, & Burke, 2013). How can business schools meet the competency developmental needs of these students?

Redesigning Classroom Instruction

Some research indicates that well-designed on-campus learning methods can develop intercultural competencies as effectively as study abroad programs (Soria & Troisi, 2014). Mark Mendenhall (the second author of this chapter) has developed an approach to insert experiential learning into the traditional classroom based on principles from cognitive behavior therapy (Mendenhall, Burke-Smalley, Arnardottir, Oddou, & Osland, in press; Mendenhall et al., 2013). The vast majority of students at his university are not able to take advantage of the international business study abroad courses that his institution offers, so he developed this approach to give all students in his courses the opportunity to experience the process of developing global leadership competencies without going overseas.

At the beginning of the semester, students are taught about the global leadership competencies needed to be a successful global leader, and each student then chooses one competency that they desire to develop throughout the semester. With the assistance of the instructor, students develop individualized personal development plans that are based upon principles of cognitive behavioral therapy to help them strengthen the competency they select. Students are then required to implement their plans daily throughout the semester, and every Monday report via email to the instructor on the following issues: 1) how well they implemented their plan during the previous week, 2) insights they gained from their implementation efforts, and 3) how they will adjust their plan for the upcoming week based on the outcomes of the previous week. Then, "each week after reading their reports, the instructor gives them feedback to encourage and aid them in their efforts in the upcoming week. At the end of the semester the students are required to write an in-depth reflection analysis of their experience that helps to "bake-in" the competency development achieved throughout the semester. This process of combining cognitive behavioral therapy practice with intercultural competency development has produced outstanding results" (Bird, 2016: p. 1; Mendenhall et al., in press; Mendenhall et al., 2013).

Institutionalized Global Leadership Development

Some business schools are taking a more comprehensive approach to developing global leadership competencies in their students, going beyond a single-class focus to a more integrative approach that focuses on all the learning domains in the 70–20–10 learning framework. For example, while at CSU-San Marcos, Gary (first author of this chapter) was the director of the Global Business Management (GBM) curriculum. He built the Global Competencies Inventory (see Chapter 5) into the curriculum to ensure students could gain an awareness of their current strengths and weaknesses in intercultural competencies related to global leadership. The GBM students took the GCI in the "Leadership in a Global Context" course, and it became part of the analysis of their major leadership project in the course, which involved either creating a new but small organization of people quite different from the student or working within an existing one but with a new objective. The learning project involved a careful analysis of the success of the project and an explanation of why the results, which entailed a detailed analysis of their competencies and relationships with the others involved. Second, all GBM students are required to complete a foreign residency experience of at least two months. Some students do that via traditional study abroad courses, but most do a foreign work internship. As part of their foreign residency analysis (an in-depth report of their experiences in the residency), they are required to integrate their personal GCI results into their analysis of their experience to reflect upon and explain the challenges they had in adapting to the new culture and how their GCI results might help them to interpret and internalize the outcomes of their various learning experiences abroad.

The Bachelor of Science in International Business (BSIB) program at Northeastern University incorporates a comprehensive, multimethod approach to global leadership competency development that focuses on rigorous experiential learning. Students must meet the requirements of the undergraduate business curriculum but are also required to take traditional courses in foreign languages, history, economics and political science, all of which addresses the formal learning realm of the 70–20–10 framework. They also complete at least two 6-month, full-time, paid cooperative work experiences where they gain experience by taking on substantial work responsibilities. These "co-ops" help students build competitive resumes and establish a network of professional contacts (in essence, meeting the developmental learning needs in the 20 percent realm of the 70–20–10 learning framework). However, "the cornerstone of the BSIB Program features a one-year overseas immersion, referred to as the "international assignment" or "expatriate year," during which students complete one semester of study at a local university and a 6-month cooperative work experience, also in the host country. While overseas, course-work is conducted in the language of the host country (except for China and Japan, where the foreign language course is optional based on ability). This immersion experience fosters deep integration into the host country's culture and offers the opportunity of enhancing language fluency" (Northeastern, 2016). Prior to departure on their one-year international assignment, they are assessed on their intercultural competencies via use of the Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES), and results from the IES are used later to aid students' pre-departure preparation and are the basis of some of their personalized developmental goals during their international assignment as well. When they return to campus after their overseas stint, they re-take the IES to identify areas of growth gained from their international assignment. Evaluation of IES pre- and post-results by Northeastern faculty over the past six years shows this curriculum produces significant improvement in students' overall intercultural capability (Bird, 2016).

Another example of a comprehensive strategy for the development of global leadership in a business school is the Global Leadership Advancement Center (GLAC) at San Jose State University. There are three general domains with in its umbrella of operations: 1) knowledge creation and dissemination, 2) development and training, and 3) social innovation initiatives. GLAC developed curricula in the form of an Interdisciplinary Global Leadership & Innovation minor for undergraduates and a 3-course Advanced Global Leadership Certificate at the graduate level. One of the primary tools in the development and training area of the center is the GL Lab, an assessment center that serves students enrolled in global leadership courses, visiting groups of students from foreign universities, and SJSU undergraduates who participate in other GLAC programs. The first global leadership assessment center of its kind, the GL Lab has educated over 1000 students in formal courses since its inception in Fall 2008. Evaluation data show that because of participation in the assessment center, students showed an increase in their global leadership competencies and intercultural expertise (Global Leadership Advancement Center, 2016: p. 1).

In addition to rigorous assessment center training, other experiential learning activities that take place under the auspices of GLAC include the Global Leadership Passport Program, Gateway Workshops that onboard passport students and serve as pre-departure training for study abroad students, and participation in social innovation challenge contests. For example, in the Global Leadership Passport Program students are able to "take advantage of San Jose State University's global and cross-cultural co-curricular activities and courses to develop a global mindset and global leadership skills. After participating in courses or workshops that help students assess their skill level, they design a personal development plan. Students earn required passport stamps in global leadership competencies for approved courses, programs, experiences, projects, and e-portfolio reflections. Once they earn the requisite number and combination of stamps and complete the post-test assessments, they are awarded a stamped passport that explains the program requirements and benefits to prospective employers. The passport demonstrates that students enter the workplace with a solid foundation that prepares them for global work" (Global Leadership Advancement Center, 2016: p. 1).

Space restrictions limit reporting the various measures many business schools around the world are taking to enhance the global leadership skills of their students. Suffice it say that there has been a sea change in business schools in terms of focus on developing future business leaders to work globally compared to just five years ago.

Conclusion

As the world becomes increasingly interdependent, complex, uncertain, and dynamic, the challenge to understand and operate within that world will become ever so difficult. Firms typically have responded to this environment by creating strategic allies in foreign countries to operate more easily in global markets. However, creating strategic foreign allies also increases the need to interact effectively on an operational basis with foreign counterparts in the strategic alliance. This requires managers who can understand and work with people who are different from them and who must work in a cultural milieu that is also different. Simultaneously, forging alliances with foreign firms can decrease the need to develop a keen understanding of that foreign culture, itself, because the strategic ally is better positioned to do so. This might only postpone or inhibit the probable necessity of mutual understanding.

Thus, global leadership training is essential. Unfortunately, the recognition of the need to train more global leaders far exceeds firms' current ability to identify and develop them. As more entrants come into the marketplace, we will need increasing numbers of global leaders. The more global leadership development training creates contrasts by confronting managers with different ways of being and doing, the more they will likely change and evolve to have a greater mental map of the world to achieve greater effectiveness and efficiency. This is consistent with the more recent trend highlighted by the examples of PWC and IBM in sending potential global leaders on short-term hardship assignments and McCall and Hollenbeck's (2002) finding that international assignments are the best ways to develop global leaders. This is a tough world in which only well-developed, global leaders will survive.