Developing Cross-Cultural Competencies in Management Education via Cognitive-Behavior Therapy

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Developing cross-cultural competencies associated with global leadership effectiveness in students has proven to be a difficult task for management educators. We delineate the primary cross-cultural competencies that influence effectiveness in global leadership and propose a pedagogical framework based on the principles of cognitive-behavior therapy to develop these competencies in traditional classroom settings. We conclude by discussing research implications of cognitive-behavior therapy for the fields of global leadership and management education.

Organizations have increasingly looked to business schools to inculcate global business knowledge, skills, and competencies in students. Recently, Datar, Garvin, and Cullen (2010) found that executives consider new hires' lack of a global perspective to be a primary weakness in business school graduates, and thus, an area where business schools should focus their pedagogical improvement efforts. While noting that progress has occurred since the Porter and McKibbin report of 1988, which found that business schools underperformed in educating students in global business skills, a recent AACSB International Globalization of Management Education Task Force concluded that global skills and competency development in current business students is inadequate (Ghemawat, 2011: 107–108). The report admonishes faculty and administrators to delineate the cross-cultural competencies that are important for success in the global context, develop them in students, create or locate measures of these skills so that competency development in students can be assessed, and encourage faculty to both teach and facilitate the development of cross-cultural competencies in students (Ghemawat, 2011: 232).

Here, we outline a pedagogical approach for cross-cultural competency development in the traditional classroom, using established principles from cognitive-behavior therapy (CBT). Specifically, we propose a 4-phased CBT-based approach that faculty can use to help students develop their

cross-cultural competencies in a self-directed fashion, all without requiring significant geographic relocation or additional financial resources. As such, we believe our approach is practical and usable across business schools for developing global business leaders. Because current theorizing in the field of global leadership generally holds that cross-cultural competencies, which operate at the interpersonal or small-group level, are fundamental to the effective deployment of higher order competencies in global business (Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou, 2010; Bird & Osland, 2004; Bird & Stevens, 2013; Jokinen, 2005), our focus is at the interpersonal level, and on developing cross-cultural competencies in students enrolled in management, organizational behavior, and human resource management courses.

THE CROSS-CULTURAL COMPETENCIES OF GLOBAL LEADERSHIP

A plethora of prior research has identified cross-cultural competencies that relate to global leadership effectiveness (e.g., Jokinen, 2005; Levy, Beechler, Taylor, & Boyacigiller, 2007; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002; Mendenhall & Osland, 2002; Osland, 2008; Osland, Bird, Mendenhall, & Osland, 2006; Suutari, 2002). By reviewing the global leadership and expatriate literatures, Bird et al. (2010) undertook the critical task of delineating the most important competencies that influence effective global leadership. Their assessment of "preeminent competencies" that are consistent across empirical studies for influencing interpersonal processes important to global leadership, includes cosmopolitanism, emotional resilience, emotional sensitivity, inquisitiveness, interest flexibility, interpersonal engagement, nonjudgmentalness, nonstress tendency, optimism, relationship interest, self-awareness, self-confidence, self-identity, social flexibility, stress management, and tolerance of ambiguity.

These 16 dimensions are categorized into three major competency domains by Bird et al. (2010): *Perception management* (cosmopolitanism, inquisitiveness, interest flexibility, nonjudgmentalness, and tolerance of ambiguity); *Relationship management* (emotional sensitivity, interpersonal engagement, relationship interest, self-awareness, and social flexibility); and *Self-management* (emotional resilience, nonstress tendency, optimism, self-confidence, self-identity, and stress management). Similarly, Lloyd and Härtel (2010) classify intercultural competencies associated with work effectiveness in culturally diverse teams into three domains: cognitive (competencies that relate to a person's ability to perceive and interpret information); affective (competencies that relate to a person's emotional responses); and behavioral (competencies that relate to a person's behavioral actions). Bird et al.'s (2010) competencies of cosmopolitanism, inquisitiveness, relationship interest, self-awareness, self-identity, optimism, self-confidence, and nonjudgmentalness fit within Lloyd and Härtel's cognitive domain. Competencies from Bird et al. (2010) that fit within the affective domain of Lloyd and Härtel's review include emotional sensitivity, emotional resilience, nonstress tendency, and tolerance of ambiguity. The competencies of social flexibility, interest flexibility, interpersonal engagement, and stress management (Bird et al., 2010) reside within the behavioral domain of Lloyd and Härtel's (2010) framework. Regardless of the specific way these competencies might be grouped, there is clear agreement that these types of competencies are germane to managerial effectiveness in a global environment. We suggest that they can be used in management education to constitute the domain of cross-cultural competencies associated with global leadership effectiveness.

Regarding cross-cultural competency development, researchers tend to agree that it is a nonlinear process that involves triggering within individuals *cognitive* elements (i.e., intellectual awareness and knowledge); *affective* elements (i.e., emotional awareness and affective growth); and last, *behavioral* components (i.e., skill-building and behavior change; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Lloyd & Härtel, 2010; Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013; Pless, Maak, & Stahl, 2011). Thus, in order to develop any type of cross-cultural competency, it is necessary that individuals experience change at the cognitive, affective, and behavioral levels. For example, Pless et al. (2011) studied high-potential managers in a large, multinational firm who went to developing countries for 2 months to do service-learning work with nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), social entrepreneurs, and other charitable organizations in order to build their global leadership skills. Results from this experience showed these managers enhanced several cross-cultural competencies (cultural empathy and sensitivity, nonjudgmentalness, cosmopolitan thinking, managing complexity, self-awareness, ethical literacy, interpersonal skills, and relation-

ship management). They found that the cognitive, affective, and behavioral modes of learning were all necessary for this development. Having to construct a new perspective of self and the world to make sense of their daily experiences in their challenging cross-cultural context (cognitive), resolve cultural and ethical paradoxes (affective), and cope with the adversity and strong emotions that were kindled as they confronted new realities (behavioral) were the triggers for the development of their cross-cultural competencies (Pless et al., 2011).

Generally then, the global leadership literature suggests that (1) a set of preeminent cross-cultural competencies exists (Bird et al., 2010; Lloyd & Härtel, 2010); (2) cross-cultural competencies can be developed in conditions that challenge the existing abilities of an individual to make sense and appropriately act in a new cultural environment (Marquis & Kanter, 2009; Mendenhall & Stahl, 2000; Pless et al., 2011); and (3) cross-cultural competency development is a highly individualized and nonlinear process that occurs within conditions of high cultural novelty (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013; Pless et al., 2011). Given this state of affairs, we next discuss these conditions in relation to developing students' cross-cultural competencies in the traditional classroom setting.

DEVELOPING CROSS-CULTURAL COMPETENCIES IN MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

Placing students in highly novel contexts is possible through, for example, study abroad programs that are carefully designed to truly immerse students in new cultures (Shaftel, Shaftel, & Ahluwalia, 2007). However, for most students, participating in such programs is not viable due to financial costs, lack of incentives to participate (e.g., study abroad classes are not a graduation requirement), parental, peer, and extended family pressures against traveling abroad, or a low self-motivation to study and live abroad. Thus, for the lion's share of business students, both at the graduate and the undergraduate levels, developing cross-cultural competencies via rigorous study abroad programs is not a reasonable option (Fernandes, 2011). The hard reality we must acknowledge is that "the rest" will either develop or not develop cross-cultural competencies within the traditional classroom setting. Based on what is known from the literature on cross-cultural competency development, we contend that to facilitate the development of these competencies in management edu-

cation, a practical yet effective instructional approach should:

1. Assess students' current levels of cross-cultural competencies.
2. Utilize pedagogical methods that do not rely upon long-term immersion in a foreign context (e.g., working and living overseas).
3. Elicit competency development within the time-limited span of a typical academic period (e.g., semester, quarter, or academic year).
4. Allow for individualized, self-directed competency development in students within traditional classroom settings that may have large student enrollments.

We also propose that cross-cultural competency development in the traditional business classroom necessitates that students accept primary responsibility for their own competency development. That is, students must consciously analyze and examine their assumptions and thought patterns so that a discernible increase in their cross-cultural competencies and skills is achieved. Providing students with a framework by which they can accomplish this, within the context of a traditional classroom, is the challenge that must be met if we are to matriculate students who possess cross-cultural competencies that are associated with global managerial effectiveness.

To develop a usable pedagogical approach that addresses these requirements, we draw from a well-established theoretical framework from the psychology literature, cognitive-behavior therapy (CBT). We argue that CBT adequately addresses the programmatic constraints outlined above and can be used by both faculty and students as a practical tool in an individualized way to enhance students' cross-cultural competencies.

THE RELEVANCE OF CBT IN CROSS-CULTURAL MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

Cognitive-behavioral therapy is not a unitary model; rather, CBT is an umbrella term that houses a wide variety of approaches to personal change that rely on an integration of cognitive and behavioral change techniques (Butler, Chapman, Forman, & Beck, 2006; Meichenbaum, 1986). Cognitive-behavioral therapy is one of the most extensively researched forms of psychotherapy (Butler et al., 2006; Chambless, Baker, Baucom, Beutler, Calhoun, & Crits-Christoph, 1998), and in many countries it is now the leading clinical approach in individual and group therapy (Macrodimitris, Hamilton,

Backs-Dermott, & Mothersill, 2010). Several approaches associated with CBT include applied behavior analysis (Baer, Wolf, & Risley, 1968), cognitive therapy (Beck, 1976), dialectical behavior therapy (Linehan, 1987), systematic rational restructuring (Goldfried, Decenteceo, & Weinberg, 1974), self-instructional training (Meichenbaum & Goodman, 1971), and mindfulness-based cognitive therapy (Zindel, Segal, Williams, & Teasdale, 2002). These methods differ in terms of the aspect of the cognitive process focused on, the point in the "cognition-affect-behavior-consequences chain" emphasized, and the strategy used to promote cognitive and behavioral changes (Meichenbaum, 1986: 347).

Despite this diversity, each method shares core features that place it under the conceptual canopy of CBT, and thus is a viable theoretically conceived approach for helping management educators develop students' cross-cultural competencies. Specifically, as summarized in Table 1, CBT methods (Meichenbaum, 1986: 347–349):

1. Assist people to become self-aware of the beliefs, assumptions, and cognitions "that influence how they appraise and process events" (349).
2. Are "active, time-limited, and clearly structured" (347).
3. Are designed to enlist individuals in a process where they become their own "personal scientist," discovering for themselves means by which they can create cognitive and behavioral changes (347).

4. Assist people to "view their cognitions and accompanying feelings as hypotheses worthy of testing rather than as facts or truth" (347).
5. Encourage individuals to "perform "personal experiments" and review the consequences of their action" (347).
6. Encourage individuals to "learn new behavioral, interpersonal, cognitive and emotional-regulation skills" (347).

Fortunately for management educators, application of CBT methods is not limited to licensed psychologists due to the transparency, behavioral, and results-oriented nature of the framework (Ducharme, 2004). Indeed, there are established programs that have taught CBT techniques to nurses, teachers, sports coaches, and even executive coaches, who, in turn, utilize the techniques in their professional endeavors. For example, utilizing CBT in executive coaching is efficacious because CBT is a results-driven, microfocused approach that fits well with executive coaching's focus on the manager's specific developmental needs (Ducharme, 2004).

Many CBT models are based on assumptions that rely in large measure on Beck's 1976 cognitive theory, which proposes that individuals' physiological, affective, and behavioral responses are mediated by cognitive interpretations (Beck, 2005; Beck, Rush, Shaw, & Emery, 1979; Blagys & Hilsenroth, 2002). There are two central dimensions to this overall framework, the *cognitive* and the *behavioral*.

TABLE 1
Rationale for Using CBT (Cognitive-Behavior Therapy) in Management Education to Develop Cross-Cultural Competencies That Are Associated With Leadership

Pedagogical requirements for developing students' cross-cultural competencies	Primary CBT principles
Assessment of students' cross-cultural competencies.	Assists people to become self-aware of the beliefs, assumptions, and cognitions "that influence how they appraise and process events."
Facilitation of cross-cultural competency development with the time-limited span of a typical academic term.	CBT is an active, goal-oriented, time-limited, and structured process that focuses on the here-and-now.
Long-term immersion in a novel foreign context is not required (e.g., study abroad, working overseas).	Does not require a change take place in an individual's geographic location or circumstances.
Necessity for individualized competency development within traditional classroom settings that may have large enrollments.	Individuals become their own "personal scientist, discovering for themselves means by which they can create cognitive and behavioral changes that enhance their well-being." Strong focus on individual accountability to change rather than on external authority figures to ensure that change occurs.

The Cognitive Dimension of CBT

A foundational assumption of the cognitive dimension is that an individual's thoughts mediate between stimuli or events and the individual's emotions. In other words, it is not the external event that determines one's emotional response, but one's interpretation of the event (Beck, 1976; Dobson & Dozois, 2001). Individuals' cognitive interpretation of an event determines the emotional response they will evince. Put simply, events in and of themselves do not matter—what is critical is the meaning of these events to the individual (Westbrook, Kennerley, & Kirk, 2007). For example, upon losing a job, some people may cognitively interpret the event via personalization ("I am a failure"), evoking emotions related to depression. Alternatively, if this event is cognitively interpreted as a new beginning ("This is a chance to start again"), emotions of anxiety and nervousness tinged with an underlying optimism ensue. Or, if the event is interpreted as an unjust action ("How dare they fire me"), the resultant emotion would be one of anger and outrage. The subsequent behavior of the individual will flow from, and be congruent with, the person's dominant cognitions and their associated emotions.

This core tenet of the cognitive dimension of CBT accurately reflects the challenges global managers face on a daily basis. In global work, managers face a nonstop flow of events and encounters that are novel and must be cognitively responded to in ways that do not negatively impair the business operation or the global manager's psychological and emotional needs. Being able to interpret events in global settings in ways that do not produce dysfunctional emotions is, therefore, a critical skill for global leaders (Jokinen, 2005; Osland, Bird, Delano, & Jacob, 2000). Cognition can be assessed at three different levels that vary in depth, specificity, and the degree to which cognitions are accessible and changeable (Beck, 1995; Westbrook et al., 2007). These three *cognitive* levels are (1) core beliefs or schemas, (2) assumptions, and (3) automatic thoughts.
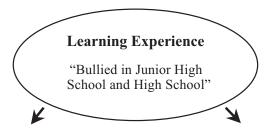
Core Beliefs or Schemas

The deepest, most general, and least accessible cognitive level is that of a person's core beliefs or schemas (Beck, 1995). As Figure 1 shows, learning experiences—positive or negative in nature—create core beliefs or schemas within individuals.

Core beliefs are absolute statements that reflect an individual's perspective, which in turn determine one's self-worth in a given life situation. The example in Figure 1 illustrates how an individual, who we will call Fred, was bullied for years in school and formed the core belief or schema of "I don't belong." Such core beliefs or schemas influence individuals not just in their domestic managerial roles, but when they travel, live, and work globally as well. For example, "I don't belong" can turn into a lack of interest in other people, a lack of motivation to interact with others, decreased self-confidence, or other outcomes that relate to cross-cultural competencies. And given that global managers find themselves in cultural contexts different from what they are used to, the valence of their core beliefs or schemas increases, producing more exaggerated behavioral outcomes than would be manifested in their home culture. For example, a lack of motivation to interact with others that is generated by the core belief or schema of "I don't belong" within the home culture may be reflected by behaviors at work, such as not joining others for lunch, low levels of delegation, or failure to provide timely feedback to employees regarding the quality of their work. However, in a new, unfamiliar cultural context, behaviors will likely be more extreme in nature, such as becoming a recluse by remaining in the office behind closed doors, consistently avoiding the workplace by going on phantom client calls, or refusing to respond to subordinates' requests for assistance. These are symptoms of what is termed, "culture shock" or "disintegration," which leads to the inability to deal effectively with the culturally novel environment and the people within it (Furnham, 2010).
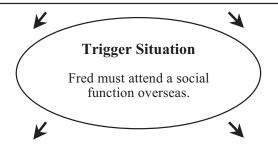
Assumptions

The second level of cognition is assumptions, which operate as rules that guide our daily actions or expectations (Padesky, 1993). They are often not obvious and must be inferred from observed actions, and they often take the form of conditional statements, such as: "If . . . then" or "I must/should . . . otherwise" (Beck, 1995; Westbrook et al., 2007). For example, a person that was bullied in school as a child and has a core belief or schema of "I don't belong" might overcompensate and develop assumptions such as, "I must be engaging and interesting at all times—otherwise I will be rejected." This assumption can result in less than

Learning Experience

"Bullied in Junior High School and High School"

Core Beliefs and Schemas formed and Assumptions Created

- *Core Belief / Schema*: "I am useless and don't belong."
- *Assumption*: "If people get to know me, then they will find out how useless I am and they will reject me."

Trigger Situation

Fred must attend a social function overseas.

Core Beliefs and Schemas and Assumptions are Activated

- "I don't belong here!"
- "I am out of place — I don't fit in!"
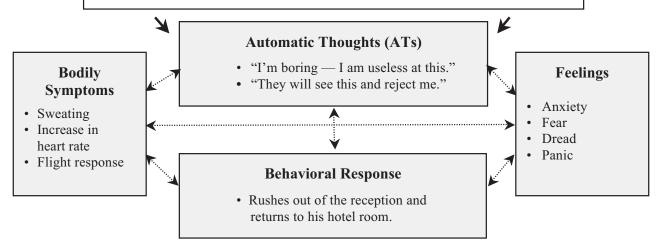- "I will be rejected because I don't belong"

Automatic Thoughts (ATs)

- "I'm boring — I am useless at this."
- "They will see this and reject me."

Bodily Symptoms

- Sweating
- Increase in heart rate
- Flight response

Feelings

- Anxiety
- Fear
- Dread
- Panic

Behavioral Response

- Rushes out of the reception and returns to his hotel room.

FIGURE 1
Three Levels of Cognition in CBT Applied to Cross-Cultural Competency Development

genuine relationships in the workplace and lead to mistrust or reduced information sharing, both very critical to being an effective leader in the global business context.

Automatic Thoughts

At various times in their lives, individuals will encounter stressful situations that activate their original core beliefs or schemas and their related

assumptions, which then lead to automatic thoughts (ATs). Automatic thoughts are automatic streams of thoughts about events, appraisals, and interpretations (Beck, 1995; Westbrook et al., 2007). They are automatic in the sense that they are not intentional and are often not cognitively "heard," since they are out of one's focus of awareness. Automatic thoughts are habitual cognitive processes that are unconsciously plausible to the person and are accepted as being "obviously true" due to the fact that strong emotions almost always accompany them. Working again from our example in Figure 1, Fred must attend a client-sponsored social event during an international business trip where he must engage in small talk with colleagues from different cultures. Because this is out of Fred's emotional comfort zone, this stressful situation likely will activate ATs such as, "I'm boring—I am useless at this, and they will see this and reject me." This causes feelings of anxiety, and Fred will experience physical symptoms, such as an increase in heart rate or sweating, which in turn will produce a strong flight response. Given Fred is now in a cross-cultural context versus a domestic one, this flight response may manifest itself in enhanced ways compared to domestic settings. For example, in a similar domestic setting, Fred may have chosen to simply strategically isolate himself from engaging in some conversations during the event, while in the overseas setting he may choose to immediately exit the social event and escape to his hotel room. Again, these ATs are formed from experiences that occur earlier in the person's life, even pre-university.

The Behavioral Dimension of CBT

The *behavioral* dimension of CBT holds that changing an individual's behavior is often a powerful way of changing the individual's thoughts, feelings, and physical reactions which flow from core beliefs or schemas and assumptions. At the bottom of Figure 1, four boxes illustrate the integration of the cognitive and behavioral dimensions, highlighting the interconnections between individuals' thoughts, behaviors, feelings, and behavioral responses (the model also acknowledges these interactions occur in the context of environmental, financial, social, economic, and cultural influences). The interconnecting lines between the four components illustrate how each system affects and influences each other system (Greenberg & Padesky, 1995). Understanding how these sys-

tems interact can greatly aid individuals, including global managers and students, in understanding and managing their own behavior because a positive change in any dimension can bring about improvement in each of the other dimensions (Greenberg & Padesky, 1995).

In summary, the goal of CBT is for individuals to apply the CBT framework to their personal and work-life situations so that any dysfunctional appraisals of events are replaced with new cognitive appraisals that are more functional and behaviors that are more socially productive. Most CBT approaches also involve the design of individualized plans that help people monitor negative ATs; recognize the relationships between cognition, affect, and behavior; test the validity of internal ATs; substitute more realistic cognitions for dysfunctional ATs; and learn to identify and alter underlying assumptions that predispose one to engage in faulty thinking patterns (Dobson & Block, 1988: 18). Next, we discuss how major CBT principles can be used by management educators to develop business students' cross-cultural competencies.

A 4-PHASED APPROACH FOR DEVELOPING STUDENTS' CROSS-CULTURAL COMPETENCIES

A CBT-based framework must meet the following needs of management educators: (1) assessment of students' current levels of cross-cultural competencies; (2) pedagogical methods that facilitate cross-cultural competency development that do not rely upon long-term immersion in a foreign context (e.g., working and living overseas); (3) the ability to elicit competency development within the time-limited span of a typical academic period (e.g., semester, quarter, or academic year); and (4) provision for individualized, self-directed competency development in students within traditional classroom settings that may have large student enrollments.

As discussed, CBT is an active, goal-oriented, time-limited, and structured process that focuses on the here-and-now with a primary focus on accountability on the part of the individual versus some external agent, such as an instructor (Beck et al., 1979; Westbrook et al., 2007). The aim of CBT in a business classroom is therefore to equip students with more effective thinking and behavioral skills, thereby providing them with self-management tools needed for cross-cultural competency development (Hawton, Salkovskis, Kirk, & Clark, 1989).

Fortunately for management educators, CBT has

been shown to be effective as a self-directed individual change methodology and has proven effective when addressing multiple individuals' self-directed learning in a group setting, such as a classroom (Brown, Elliott, Boardman, Andiappan, Landau, & Howay, 2008; Cash & Lavallee, 1997; Cuijpers, Donker, Johansson, Mohr, van Straten, & Andersson, 2011; Macrodimitris, et. al., 2010). Another advantage of utilizing CBT for cross-cultural competency development in the traditional classroom is its pedagogical flexibility, as there is no one best model under its conceptual tent that ought to be recommended for use in management education. Consequently, faculty members essentially have the freedom to design their own instructional approach based on the undergirding principles associated with CBT.

To support such efforts, we propose a 4-phased approach, which can serve as a guiding framework that faculty can use when creating CBT-based course assignments to build students' cross-cultural competencies. Along with grounded theoretical and empirical support from the CBT literature, each of the four phases is supported by lessons learned from three of the present authors' instructional experiences in their undergraduate- and graduate-level management courses over the course of the last 3 years.

Phase 1: Conceptualize the Problem

Meichenbaum (1986) observed that "conceptualization of the problem" is an often underutilized step in the personal development process, and in fact is critical to competency development. He argued that the first step in assisting individuals in a personal development process is to help them perceive and reconceptualize the dynamics of their challenge (i.e., cross-cultural effectiveness as a global business leader). To do this, he suggests using interviews with the person and significant others, questionnaires, tests, and homework assignments as means of data collection. Consequently, students can collect information that will help them redefine the problem in terms that yield a sense of control and responsibility and feelings of hope that will lead to specific behavioral interventions; thus, the conceptualization phase provides the basis for behavior change (Meichenbaum, 1986: 366).

Without a doubt, simply providing students with definitions of cross-cultural competencies associated with effective global leadership, and then testing them on their retention of those definitions in a traditional exam format is not sufficient to assist students to develop those competencies. Students' conceptualization of the degree to which they currently possess various cross-cultural competencies is paramount. The ability to conceptualize the reality of their own competencies, as noted by Meichenbaum, provides the foundation for students' willingness to pursue further development efforts. Perhaps the most pragmatic and straightforward way to accomplish this first phase is through the use of cross-cultural competency inventories and direct feedback of those results to the students (for a review of existing cross-cultural competency assessments and inventories, see Bird & Stevens, 2013). Through the use of such inventories students' competencies can be measured, and students can receive feedback that informs them of their levels of expertise in cross-cultural competencies that are associated with effective global leadership. Feedback reports associated with these inventories contain discrete results for each competency so that students can easily discover how they scored and what those scores mean for them. These inventories are also affordable for schools or students, ranging in price from U.S. $9–$20 (Bird & Stevens, 2013).

Ideally, competency assessments would be given early in the semester; instructors who have prior knowledge of their student enrollments could even have the students complete the inventories before the semester begins. If this is not feasible, or if any cost is impractical, students could do a "self-assessment" of their own cross-cultural competency levels. While such self-assessments will likely lack the accuracy that would be associated with assessments from validated inventories, this approach nevertheless provides students with a starting point of self-awareness. It is critical to spend adequate time debriefing the students on the meaning of their inventory scores to ensure that they have a good understanding of the competencies and how their habitual cognitive processes may inhibit or enhance their ability to deploy the competencies. To appropriately explore relevant cognitive processes, homework and clear in-class instruction about the CBT framework and its basic tenets is important. More specifically, to integrate CBT with students' developmental needs, CBT training can be done directly after the instructor debriefs students on their feedback reports. When teaching the CBT framework, it is critical to introduce what Meichenbaum (1986) terms,

"the therapy rationale," unfolding for the students the likelihood that:

> . . . because of the habitual nature of [their] expectations or beliefs, it is likely that [competency-related] thinking processes [have] become automatic and seemingly involuntary, like most overlearned acts. [Their]. . . self-statements become a habitual style of thinking, in many ways similar to automatization of thought that accompanies the mastery of a motor skill such as driving a car or skiing (1986: 368).

Put another way, it is important to get "buy in" from students that CBT is relevant and of personal benefit to them (Meichenbaum, 1986). The key in this phase is to ensure that students understand basic CBT tenets and know that it is a practical tool they can and should apply when faced with challenges associated with personal change (e.g., improving their cross-cultural competencies). As mentioned earlier, scholars working in the field of global leadership development argue that the development of cross-cultural competencies is idiosyncratic and nonlinear in nature (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013), meaning that the learning process is not smooth and predictable for students. In the real world, when students work in managerial capacities, they will have to take on the responsibility to develop themselves, and CBT is designed for just such self-development. In sum, attention to pedagogical techniques that help students "conceptualize the problem" is the foundation for developing students' cross-cultural competencies.

Phase 2: Move From "Knowing" To "Doing" Via Personal Development Planning

In the next phase, students will move from knowing to doing by creating their own personal development plan. Unfortunately, too many business courses "tend to be abstract and void of concrete, actionable dimensions for response" (Ghemawat, 2011: 109); thus, utilizing a personal development plan based on CBT principles can address this concern in a pragmatic fashion, and from a foundation of well-established theory and practice. These plans are based on the concept of "homework" in CBT methods and are viewed as being critical to personal development processes in CBT research (Beck et al., 1979; D'Zurilla, 1988; MacLaren & Freeman, 2007; Mason, 2007). Mason states

this tenet of CBT thusly: "Homework is an essential component of CBT treatment. It develops the skills taught in session, provides an opportunity for practical application of skills in real-life situations, and affords a basis for evaluation of how useful the skills are to the [individual]" (2007: 251).

Again, CBT assumes that changing the behavior of an individual is often a powerful way of changing the individual's cognitions, emotions, and physical reactions and vice versa. Consistent with CBT methods, we propose that a personal development plan assignment be designed to (1) focus on incremental behavioral change associated with a particular cross-cultural competency and, (2) use the student's behavior changes to encourage self-reflection regarding the core beliefs or schema, assumptions, and automatic thoughts pervading the competency. In other words, while students are practicing new behaviors, they simultaneously are also reflecting on how their cognitions influence their ability to progress, and this mutual interplay between behavior and cognition allows for progress to occur in both realms, further spurring progress in competency development. Personal development plans thus should be an integral and foundational aspect of a course, and should be worked on by students throughout the entire semester so that they proactively strive to strengthen a specific cross-cultural competency on a weekly basis.

As we have applied this principle in our courses we have found that concentrating on more than one competency, although possible, is difficult for most students. We thus now limit the personal development plan assignment to focus on only one competency per semester. The specific competency chosen by students could be one that they are fairly proficient in and desire to learn how to deploy more effectively, one that they are personally motivated to build upon, or think they have a reasonable chance to alter, or one that is relevant for an anticipated or desired future global work assignment. The personal development plan should be concrete and measurable in nature, and focused on incremental progress rather than on vague, grandiose, or overly optimistic goals. We allow students to create their own plans with minimal interference from us as instructors; that is, as long as the plan is concrete and incremental, we allow students to deploy it. To aid the reader, Table 2 shows an example of a CBT-based personal development plan, which incorporates both incremental behavioral change and initial practice at

TABLE 2
Sample Student Personal Development Plan

Analysis	Personal development plan
Assessment: What cross-cultural competency will you focus on?	I have room for growth in "Relationship Interest" so that is the area I am going to work on.
General plan: List at least two broad objectives to help you focus your improvement efforts.	Develop the ability to meet new people who are different from me in some way culturally and to build ongoing relationships with some of those that I meet.
Tactics: These are the concrete "how-to's" that help you achieve your general plan. Tactics need to be measurable. Be sure to pick tactics you can actually accomplish—not too easy, but not too hard.	I will introduce myself to one person I don't know every day either at work or at the university. To help me actually do this, when I start to feel anxious, I will say to myself —"the world won't come to an end if the person doesn't talk to me and the probability is really low that something bad will happen after I say hello to them." After each introduction I will decide whether I want to follow up with them. If I want to follow up with them I will create a specific plan for each person and do it. I will also join LinkedIn and will have a goal to have 25 connections by the end of the semester. I will join two LinkedIn groups and participate two times a week with posts.
Reporting results: Results are better when we tell others about our plan. Without this accountability, it is too easy to fail to follow through. Find someone who will hold you accountable in a positive way, and decide when and how you will report to them.	I will report my efforts at implementing my plan to Dr. Smith every week on Monday morning in an e-mail. I will tell her what I did and what the outcomes were. In the e-mails I will not just report what I did but will also reflect on and analyze my experiences to learn from them.

Adapted with permission from: *The Intercultural Effectiveness Scale Feedback Report*. 2009. St. Louis, MO: The Kozai Group: 19–20.

buffering negative automatic thoughts. Last, the student's plan must be seen as flexible and adjustable throughout the semester because as students undertake to "work their plan" unforeseen obstacles and learning opportunities usually occur. Thus, if students desire to adjust their plan accordingly, we encourage and support them in doing this, providing input and direction to them if needed.

Phase 3: Strengthen Commitment by Enhancing Accountability

We base the third step of our 4-phase approach for developing students' cross-cultural competencies on the construct of commitment from Kanfer's feedback loop model of self-management in the CBT literature (Kanfer, 1970; Kanfer & Karoly, 1972). Rehm and Rokke (1988) summarize the necessity of commitment in personal development as follows:

After perceiving the desirability of change, the [individual] must make a commitment to continue engaging in the self-control process to accomplish such a change . . . Commitment may be made easier by discomfort, by fear of social disapproval over inaction, by the presence of others making similar commitments, or by the encouragement and support of relevant others (145).

Put simply, commitment must be built into the personal development plan; otherwise, students may stop trying to develop their competency. There are a variety of ways to ensure commitment; for example, one of the authors requires students to send brief e-mails every Monday reporting what they did the previous week to enact their personal development plan, describing the outcomes of their efforts and how they will proceed in the upcoming week, and reflecting upon what they experienced. These weekly e-mails act as "accountability reports" and are part of course requirements—if students fail to submit them, they are penalized.

Whichever commitment approach an instructor decides to utilize, it is vitally important to stress to students that failures and setbacks are normal, and to reiterate that their personal progress

will not necessarily be smooth, or predictable. We also emphasize to the students that we are their "accountability person," not their therapist. As such, we do not give individualized weekly feedback to students, although other instructors may choose to do so, perhaps in an executive coaching fashion (see Ducharme, 2004). Rather, we emphasize that the responsibility for applying CBT principles lies in their hands, again a self-learning stance that is congruent with CBT assumptions and practices.

One of the primary attributes of the development of cross-cultural competencies is that of confrontation with events in a novel context, which has the effect of triggering the need to learn, think, and behave in new ways in order to adapt and thrive in the new context (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013; Pless et al., 2011). One way to simulate this condition in a classroom setting is to require students to execute their weekly personal development plan at least once or twice in the semester in a context that is unusual for them. This requirement can usually be met by allowing the student to authentically engage (Burke & Moore, 2003) in a service-learning, volunteer, or participant-observer event or experience of some kind. For example, the students could volunteer for a day at an AIDS clinic, meet with senior citizens, or attend the services of a religion that is outside the domain of their personal belief systems. One of the authors requires his students to identify such groups and then to identify the cultural gap between themselves and the group using a cultural framework learned in class. The students then are assigned to enter that group and directly interact with its members. Using their competency feedback reports from a cross-cultural inventory, they then are assigned to reflect on how they deployed the various competencies that enabled them to manage the challenging aspects of their cross-cultural experience. The importance of this aspect of Phase 3 is that at times it forces students to deploy their plan in a context that is novel to them, thus enhancing the potentiality for significant competency enhancement to take place.

Phase 4: Celebrate and Cement Gains Via Self-Reflection

At the end of the semester students are required to submit a self-reflection of the overall outcome of their personal development plan. In this self-analysis document, students consider issues such as how effective they were in implementing their plan, what they learned about "how to learn on my own," what their next steps will be in their future personal development after the course is over, and any other important personal learning insights they gained from the semester-long assignment. Obviously, there are many ways instructors can craft this assignment in terms of students' analyses of their learning outcomes, but the important principle is that students be required to reflect upon their progress and their learning in order to solidify lessons learned.

Another option to help students in their reflection process is to use the original cross-cultural inventory that assessed their competencies at the beginning of the course and give it to the students at the end of the semester as a posttest to chart progress made since the beginning of the term. In addition to its value for individual student feedback, this can also be used for AACSB assurance-of-learning purposes. The overarching goal of Phase 4 is for students to end the semester with the ability to see CBT as a competency development tool that they can use beyond the course, indeed for the rest of their lives—the entire classroom experience thus becomes a model for how they can go about self-development after graduation.

The assumptions undergirding CBT approaches—that is, a focus on helping students find their own solutions to personal challenges, an orientation toward tools and techniques that fit individual students' distinct personalities versus a "one-size-fits-all" personal development plan, and a strong emphasis on individual accountability for personal competency development—fits well within the approach we have proposed. Notably, of interest to business school administrators, our framework can be employed without undue financial burdens on students or on college or departmental budgets.

We should note that additional resources are available for faculty and students who want to pursue an enhanced understanding of CBT principles and tactics. For example, in addition to the background on CBT provided here, faculty and students can reference a variety of widely available contemporary learning aids on the topic, including DVD-based videos, tables, charts, learning exercises, examples, and guidebooks (Wright & Basco, 2006). Williams and Morrison (2010) provide good ideas for helping people use CBT interventions and to learn and practice CBT skills in easy-to-understand and accessible ways, as well as dis-

cussing the role of the teacher and learner in the CBT process. We contend that faculty and students do not have to reach therapist-level expertise on CBT in order to help students develop cross-cultural competencies—a sufficient understanding of basic CBT principles is the main prerequisite. To this end, a recent book by Beck (2011) is written specifically for those at any stage of experience, skill level, or mastery level of CBT. We conclude with a discussion of research implications that can be derived from integrating CBT into the field of global leadership.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Applying CBT to management education raises some potentially fruitful streams of research for the fields of both management pedagogy and global leadership. There are at least four potential avenues of such research for scholars working in these fields to pursue.

The first research avenue involves exploring the nature of the relationship between aspects of the CBT process and their differential effects on the acquisition process of cross-cultural competencies. The classification framework of Lloyd and Härtel (2010) provides a useful heuristic in this regard. For example, in the initial phase of the CBT model (*Conceptualize the Problem*), more increases in levels of cross-cultural competencies that are classified as being primarily "cognitive" in nature by Lloyd and Härtel (2010) may occur due to their "fit" with the inherent nature of the first CBT phase (which requires mostly cognitive analysis on the part of the student or manager). The development of other types of cross-cultural competencies may be amplified in stages that fit their natures more closely, such as the behavioral type of cross-cultural competencies in Phase 3 of the model (*Strengthening Commitment by Enhancing Accountability*). In this stage, the focus is strongly on implementing one's personal development plan, which is decidedly behavioral in orientation. In sum, although all CBT principles (i.e., cognitive, behavioral, affective) are involved in each phase of our model, some principles may be more salient than others in certain phases of development for any given cross-cultural competency.

The second avenue of research involves the relationship between variables associated with CBT and global leadership development processes. Initial research on global leadership development indicates that managers who already possess high

levels of cross-cultural competencies are more likely to learn to develop higher levels of competencies in training programs than peers with lower levels of cross-cultural competencies (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2011; Furuya, Stevens, Oddou, Bird, & Mendenhall, 2009). Alternatively, there is also evidence that supports the general efficacy of global leadership development programs that require managers to work overseas in extended "crucible experience" environments, where they perform tasks unrelated to their prior work experience, in developing cross-cultural competencies (Marquis & Kanter, 2009; Mendenhall & Stahl, 2000; Pless et al., 2011; White & Rosamilia, 2010).

More research needs to be done to understand the dynamics behind the outcomes of these programs, along with their possible implications for developing students' cross-cultural competencies. For example, were the participants in these successful programs predisposed for global leadership competency development because they were already high in these competencies? Did the program selection process inadvertently select these types of managers in these firms? The successful outcomes of many of these programs come from self-report measures and company white papers, and since no empirical pre- and postintervention evaluations were conducted, these findings are potentially susceptible to person response bias. Rigorous pre- and postevaluations conducted on individuals as they progress through cross-cultural development programs, in comparison with a control group, need to be conducted in order to verify these initial findings in the field.

From a CBT perspective, researchers could examine whether participants in these studies develop cross-cultural competencies through specific mediating processes. For example, to what degree do "crucible experiences" impact participants similarly or differently based upon their core beliefs or schemas? We propose that a greater understanding of the processes that underlie cross-cultural competency development would be enhanced if scholars engaged in clinical studies of multiple individuals who were able to increase their levels of cross-cultural competencies within the same training program. Indeed, CBT provides a useful framework to analyze developmental processes by guiding scholars to explore the dynamics behind how changes in self-assumptions and core beliefs or schemas influence competency shifts. Because each developmental experience may be unique, using a clinical lens informed by CBT may reveal

dynamics that can later be clearly measured across groups.

The third research avenue involves comparing the efficacy of differing combinations of training interventions with CBT; for example, is there a significant difference between utilizing CBT versus short-term immersive methods (such as PwC's Project Ulysses or IBM's Corporate Service Corps) in resiliency of global leadership competency development across time? Does CBT produce weaker levels of initial competency enhancement compared to immersive methods, but are the outcomes derived from CBT longer lasting in nature? Is a combination of CBT and immersive training the most ideal form of global leadership competency development, or is CBT just as effective as, and less costly than, immersive training? The cross-cultural training literature shows that important effects exist around sequencing of varying training methods; similarly, the field should begin to follow this research perspective to gain a better view of not just what the best methods are, but also to understand under what conditions each method may have positive effects.

The fourth avenue for future research addresses the cross-cultural generalizability of CBT as a developmental paradigm. A paucity of research examines the generalizability and effectiveness of CBT across cultures (Alvidrez, Azocar, & Miranda, 1996; Jackson, Schmutzer, Wenzel, & Tyler, 2006; Voss Horrell, 2008). Some suggest because CBT focuses on cognitive attributions from a Western cultural perspective, that this approach is not as effective in non-Western cultures and university settings (Hodges & Oei, 2007; Schieffelin, 1985; Voss Horrell, 2008). Padesky and Greenberg (1995) noted that national culture plays a powerful role in shaping the automatic thoughts, underlying assumptions, and schema of individuals, and offered several guidelines for adapting CBT for use with multicultural populations. Conversely, Hodges and Oei (2007) concluded that there is a strong degree of conceptual compatibility between CBT and the common values of Chinese culture, and that with few structural changes to the process of CBT, it can be effectively applied within the Chinese cultural context. Potential differences in using CBT for cross-cultural competency development in students across universities in different countries therefore merit future investigation.

Some research suggests that cross-cultural competencies associated with global leadership effectiveness seem to be transcultural in nature, albeit their behavioral manifestations differ due to individual and cultural differences (Bird et al., 2010; Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, Maznevski, Stevens, & Stahl, 2013). Thus, CBT may be efficacious within any cultural confine due to the fact that it addresses a fundamentally human process. Humans react to events by interpreting them, and culture—combined with individual experiences within that culture—provides the lens by which humans interpret what happens to them. Cognitive-behavoir therapy may therefore be a valuable aid for people in any culture to explore their interpretations and decide what to do about them in order to bring them to functional alignment in their quest to develop their cross-cultural leadership competencies. In sum, the preliminary consensus at present from the CBT literature seems to be that its methods are likely applicable across cultures, although care must be taken to appropriately adjust methods to the norms of the culture in question.

CONCLUSIONS

John Fernandes, president and CEO of AACSB International, recently posed the following questions to business school deans and administrators: "How will we prepare our faculty to be more effective in leading global skills development [in] their students? Are there pedagogical enhancements that can be made within financial limitations?" (Fernandes et al., 2011: 2). We have proposed a way forward for business schools that either do not have sufficient endowment funds to offer study abroad scholarships to the majority of their students or do not have a majority of students who can personally afford the financial costs of enrolling in a study abroad program themselves. Using widely accepted CBT tenets, we proposed a pedagogically flexible, 4-phased approach for developing students' cross-cultural competencies in the traditional "bricks-and-mortar" classroom setting. Using the framework we have proposed, management faculty can design, implement, and evaluate their own CBT-based cross-cultural competency development modules for use in their courses. In the spirit of "first responders" to this emergency in management education, we have attempted to provide a foundation upon which future pedagogical innovation on cross-cultural competency development in business schools can be built.

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