

DEVELOPING GLOBAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES: A PROCESS MODEL

Authors

Mark E. Mendenhall
The University of Tennessee at Chattanooga

Todd J. Weber
Central Washington University

Audur Arna Arnardottir
Reykjavik University

Gary Oddou
The Kozai Group and California State University, San Marcos

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Abstract

The process of global leadership development remains a challenging theoretical problem in the field of global leadership. To help address this issue, we develop a theoretically grounded process model of global leadership competency development that addresses the dynamics involved in the adoption and enhancement of intercultural competencies associated with global leadership. We do this by integrating theoretical constructs associated with competency development from the adult learning and development, cognitive-behavior therapy, global leadership development, leadership development, organizational development, and social learning theory literatures. The resulting model includes testable propositions – a critical feature that existing global leadership development process models currently lack. Our paper concludes with a discussion of the implications of the model for future research and practice.

Keywords

Global Leadership, global leadership process model, global leadership competencies, global leadership development, cognitive-behavioral therapy, developmental readiness, intercultural competencies, intercultural competency development

DEVELOPING GLOBAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES: A PROCESS MODEL

The globalization of business has challenged organizations to find or develop leaders who possess the competencies necessary to operate successfully within the complexity, ambiguity, and flux that is inherent in the global context (Lane, Maznevski, & Mendenhall, 2004). Indeed, the lack of leaders with global leadership competencies has been identified as being one of the critical concerns of top management since the turn of the century (Maznevski, Stahl & Mendenhall, 2013). Organizations have largely responded to this leadership deficit by first creating global leadership competency models and then developing training programs that are based upon them. Companies have approached their design of these training programs in a wide variety of ways, such as international service learning programs (Caligiuri & Thoroughgood, 2015), company-wide developmental programs (White & Rosamilia, 2010), action learning in multicultural teams in foreign countries (Grundling, Grant, & Everhart, 2014) and traditional seminar-based learning in all its varieties. The results of these developmental endeavors have been mixed due to inadequate development of competencies, use of invalid competency models, poor fit between organizational culture and training paradigm, and lack of focus on direct experience in developing global competencies (Leung, Ang & Tan, 2014; Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013; Stensaker & Gooderham, 2015; Von Glinow, 2001). Some scholars have argued that many of these programs failed because their competency models were based upon program designers' personal experiences, biases of top management, and advice of consultants rather than the research literature wherein competencies empirically associated with effective global leadership could be discovered (Mendenhall, 2006; Morrison, 2000).

Since the late 1990s the majority of scholars who have studied global leadership tended to focus their efforts on the competency domain of global leadership (Jokinen, 2005). This focus has led to the creation of a variety of global leadership competency models along with measurement instruments to assess them. While much work remains to be done in the area of global leadership competencies (e.g., understanding better how the valence of individual competencies shift depending on variation of context), there is general agreement across these models regarding the types of competencies that global leadership development programs should focus on to develop global leaders. However, to date, few scholars have focused on *how* leaders develop these competencies. Even in global leadership development programs where successes have been reported, it is unclear, beyond correlational musings, why the successes occurred (Leung, Ang, & Tan, 2014).

Few process models of global leadership competency development exist; however, their heuristic value has been minimal as they do not ground their premises in theory or generate testable propositions and hypotheses (Osland, Taylor, & Mendenhall, 2009); thus their value is mostly descriptive in nature, at best providing human resource directors with general frameworks to guide their training program design efforts. There is a need in the field for the creation of global leadership competency development process models that are theoretically grounded and provide scholars with the opportunity to test propositions and/or hypotheses to enable a more refined understanding of how and why some individuals develop global leadership competencies while others do not. We believe a better theoretical understanding of the process that individuals undergo in global leadership competency development will aid in the design of more sophisticated and nuanced global leadership development programs and

increase the potential for wider success in these efforts. To address this gap in the field of global leadership, we develop a theoretically grounded process model of global leadership competency development that addresses the dynamics involved in the adoption and enhancement of competencies associated with global leadership.

We contribute to the extant theory by integrating theoretical constructs associated with competency development from the adult learning and development, cognitive-behavior therapy, global leadership development, leadership development, organizational development, and social learning theory literatures from which we derive a model with testable propositions -- a critical feature that existing global leadership development models currently lack. In sum, we seek to broaden the scholarly conversation about the processes associated with global leadership competency development and the application of a deepened understanding of these processes for global leadership development program training design. The explanation of our model ensues in the following stages: first, we review the construct of competency by tracing its origins and then summarize the evolution of the role of competencies in global leadership research. We then review the current process models of global leadership competency development and isolate the common, foundational elements of those models for use as a platform for our model building efforts. Next, we integrate relevant theoretical constructs from theories from the fields of adult learning and development, cognitive-behavior therapy (CBT), global leadership development, leadership development, organizational development, and social learning theory, deriving propositions for each element of the model.

THE NATURE OF COMPETENCIES

The construct of competency was initially formulated by David McClelland (1973) as an alternative to the use of intelligence and aptitude tests for the measurement and prediction of scholastic and other types of behavioral performance. McClelland's alternative proposal to the use of intelligence and aptitude tests was to assess characteristics "that are more generally useful in clusters of life outcomes, including not only occupational outcomes but social ones as well, such as leadership, interpersonal skills, etc." (1973: 9). These characteristics he referred to as 'competencies,' and asserted that the construct included cognitive skills and personality variables, and he proposed that communication skills, nonverbal communication skills, patience, moderate goal setting, and ego development were all examples of competencies that were essential for successfully negotiating a wide variety of work-related outcomes and thus should be used for assessment, selection, and training purposes (McClelland, 1973).

Scholars and consultants applied the construct of competency to managerial development and have studied its utility via the use of competency models (Bradley, Unal, Pinto & Cavin, 2015). Competency models are collections of KSAOs (knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics) that are viewed as being requisite for success in specific jobs, occupations, or roles (Campion, Fink, Ruggeberg, Carr, Phillips, & Odman, 2011; Shippmann, et. al., 2000; Stevens, 2012). Firms use competency modeling as a guide for distinguishing between high, average and low performers, hiring, training and developing employees, and for promoting high potentials, among other functions (Bradley, et. al., 2015; Campion, et. al., 2011). Multinational firms have also commonly used competency modeling as a way to frame their approach to developing global leaders, albeit, as noted previously, with mixed success. Since the early 1990s

the use of competency models has exponentially increased to be almost ubiquitous in North American corporations (Campion, et. al., 2011; Rothwell & Lindholm, 1999).

A core assumption held by the majority of scholars who work in the competency literature, and one supported by research findings (Boyatzis, 2009; McClelland, 1973; Morrow, Jarrett, & Rupinski, 1997) is that competencies are malleable and can be increased with effort and training. Indeed, McClelland was the first to explicitly assert this assumption:

It is difficult, if not impossible, to find a human characteristic that cannot be modified by training or experience . . . One of the hidden prejudices of psychology, borrowed from the notion of fixed inherited aptitudes, is that any trait, like racial prejudice, is unmodifiable by training. Once a bigot, always a bigot. There is no solid evidence that this trait or any other human trait cannot be changed (1973:8).

Perhaps the most widely accepted definition of the construct of competency is that it is “an underlying characteristic of an employee (i.e., motive, trait, skill, aspects of one’s self image, social role, or a body of knowledge) which results in effective and/or superior performance in a job” (Boyatzis, 1982: 20). Spencer and Spencer (1993) later added the element of causality that was implicit in Boyatzis’ 1982 definition, stating that a competency is an “underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to criterion referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation” (1993: 9). As more scholars undertook the study of competencies, and as the application of the construct to competency modeling in organizations exploded, variations of its definition evolved as well (Shippmann, et. al., 2000; Stevens, 2012). Definitional differences were reflected in whether or not KSAOs were considered to be competencies versus limiting competencies to consist solely of KSAs

(knowledge, skills, and abilities), thus excluding motives, traits, self-concepts, attitudes and values from the construct (Shippmann, et. al., 2000; Stevens, 2012). A second difference involved the degree of focus on the potential for competencies to elicit high levels of performance versus centering solely on the prediction of adequate work performance (Shippmann, et. al., 2000; Stevens, 2012). From their review of the competency modeling literature, Shippmann and his colleagues (2000) concluded that even above and beyond these two issues there was a broad, lack of consensus regarding how competencies should be defined and operationalized (Shippmann, et. al., 2000). After reviewing the subsequent competency literature from 2000 to 2011, Stevens (2012) reported that the field seemed to have largely resolved the above issues by accepting a compromise that both KSAOs and KSAs can be seen to exist within the construct's domain.

Additionally, competencies have been conceptualized as differing in levels or types (Hay Group, 2003). The competencies of 'skill' and 'knowledge' reflect one's ability to perform a specific task ('skills') while 'knowledge' reflects the information and learning about a task that one has internalized (Vazirani, 2010). More complex types of competencies are, in order of intrapersonal depth of complexity: 'self-conceptions,' then 'traits,' and finally, 'motives' (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Self-conceptions include an individual's values, self-schema, and self-image; traits are consistent responses to situations or information that are seen as habitual behaviors; and motives consist of thoughts, preferences, emotions, and desires that prompt one to action (Hay Group, 2003; Vazirani, 2010). Some scholars (Hay Group, 2003; McClelland, 1973, 1998; Spencer and Spencer, 1993) argue that competencies that are at the deeper levels of intrapersonal dynamics (self-conceptions, traits, motives) are more effective

predictors of performance than those that are less complex (knowledge and skills). These scholars' arguments are aptly summarized in the following statement from Spencer and Spencer (1993: 12):

In complex jobs, competencies are relatively more important in predicting superior performance than are task-related skills, intelligence, or credentials. This is due to a 'restricted range effect.' In higher level technical, marketing, professional and managerial jobs, almost everyone has an I.Q. of 120 or above and an advanced degree from a good university. What distinguishes superior performers in these jobs are motivation, interpersonal skills, and political skills, all of which are competencies.

Despite their higher potential for predictability, competencies at deeper levels of the intrapersonal spectrum are viewed by most current scholars as being less malleable than skills and knowledge; that is, these types of competencies (self-conception, traits, motives) are argued to be more difficult to train and develop because they are more enduring in nature and more centrally held in the human psyche (Hay Group, 2003; Spencer & Spencer, 1993; U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 2011: 15).

Competencies have also been stratified based on their inherent constitution. It has been argued (Soderquist, Papalexandris, Ioannou, & Prastacos, 2010) that competencies can be differentiated according to the degree they are related to: 1) performance in a specific job within an organization (organization-specific competencies) vs. performance in a specific job across organizations and industries (generic competencies), 2) operational tasks vs. managerial actions (operational vs. managerial competencies), and 3) learned characteristics that describe what people actually do in a job (competencies as skills) vs. fundamental characteristics that describe

how people enact job behavior (competencies as behaviors). This results in a total of eight combinations, and one way to visualize them is shown in Figure 1.

Insert Figure 1 about here

To summarize, competencies are widely viewed in the field as KSAOs, or in competency models as sets of KSAOs that have differing levels of malleability and predictability in future job performance, depending on their psychic depth and the degree of job complexity. Competencies can further be classified based on dimensions of generalizability across organization/industry domain, managerial relevance, and behavior/skill differentiation.

Global Leadership Competency Models

The first empirical studies of global leaders occurred in the mid-1990s (Osland, 2013), and since that time the field has burgeoned (Mendenhall, Li, & Osland, 2016). A systematic and comprehensive review of the global leadership competency literature is beyond the scope of this paper, which instead focuses on how individuals develop global leadership competencies. We summarize briefly the current state of the field in order to provide an overview of the nature of the competencies our global leadership competency development model addresses (for reviews of the global competency literature please see: Bird, 2013; Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou, 2010; Cumberland, Herd, Alagaraja, & Kerrick, 2016; Jokinen, 2005; Osland, et. al., 2009).

Early scholars investigating global leadership competencies have generally followed the same pattern that others have undertaken in other fields; namely, the development of competency models that were aimed at differentiating characteristics that distinguished high performers from average to low performers (Osland, 2013). These early studies generated a variety of global leadership competency models with many conceptually overlapping

competencies and with variation in their definitions (Osland & Bird, 2008). This trend has continued to date, with a variety of global leadership competency models appearing yearly (Mendenhall, et. al., 2016). Various scholars have attempted with some success to derive from extant models the most critical competencies associated with global leadership (Bird., et. al., 2010; Black, Morrison & Gregerson, 1999; Jokinen, 2005). Our purpose here is not to identify and discuss global leadership competencies per se, but rather to specify their nature in order to better understand how they can be developed.

Mendenhall and Osland (2002) were the first to attempt to conceptually categorize the plethora of global leadership competencies that appeared in the literature up to that time. Their review of the literature found 56 competencies to be associated with effective global leadership. They categorized these competencies into six conceptual domains: cross-cultural relationship skills, traits and values, cognition, global business expertise, global organizing expertise, and visioning. Jokinen (2005) reorganized these categories into three layers of global leadership competencies: behavioral skills (e.g., social skills, networking skills), mental characteristics (e.g., optimism, empathy), and ‘the fundamental core’ consisting of three competencies she felt were foundational to all of the others: self-awareness, engagement in personal transformation, and inquisitiveness. More recently, after reviewing the literature from 1993–2012, Bird (2013: 87-92) proposed that the 160 competencies he found that were associated with effective global leadership could be categorized into three broad domains: 1) business and organizational savvy (composed of 55 competencies that are associated with “a practical understanding of business and organizational realities and how to get things done efficiently and effectively”;; 2) managing people and relationships (composed of 47 competencies that are “directed toward people and

relationships; and 3) managing self (composed of 58 competencies that are related “inward to the pre-dispositional, cognitive, and attitudinal processes...that involves aspects of personal management”). Further analysis rendered the global leadership competency domain into fifteen core competencies within these three broad categories (Bird, 2013). The first domain includes vision and strategic thinking, leading change, business savvy, organizational savvy & managing communities. The second consists of valuing people, cross-cultural communication, interpersonal skills, teaming skills & empowering others. The third domain contain inquisitiveness, global mindset, flexibility, characters & resilience

Bird (2013) notes that many of the studies he reviewed “delineate relationships among the competencies that cannot be displayed in a table format (p. 87), and that is the case with his global competency model as well. For example, he notes that:

Each of the fifteen competencies reflects a complex, multifaceted construct. For example, inquisitiveness includes facets related to [the competencies of] curiosity, openness to experience, and humility... the multifaceted aspect of each [of the fifteen competencies] encompasses significant complexity. Moreover, the various facets of a given competency span pre-dispositional, attitudinal, cognitive, behavioral, and knowledge aspects (p. 95).

Utilizing Bird’s 2013 global competency model as a representation of the types of competencies our development model must address, it is critical that our model aligns with the inherent developmental necessities associated with these types of competencies. An application of Soderquist et. al.’s 2010 typology is helpful in this regard. The lion’s share of Bird’s (2013) fifteen competencies are in low alignment with the organization-specific competency dimension,

with the likely exception of some sub-facets of the business savvy and organizational savvy competency dimensions. The other twelve competencies seem to be highly aligned with the generic competencies dimension as they are competencies that generalize across organizations and contexts as well as job roles in the global context. Similarly, the fifteen competencies seem to fit squarely into the managerial competencies dimension in that they cover all managerial functions, again with possible exceptions within some sub-facets of the business savvy and organizational savvy competencies of Bird's 2013 model. Finally, all of the fifteen competencies are reflective of how leaders go about doing their job versus what specific behaviors leaders engage in to do their job. In sum, within Soderquist, et. al.'s (2010: 333) typology, global leadership competencies fit within the type they label as "Generic Management Behaviors." Thus, any theorizing about global leadership competency development out of necessity must address the developmental dynamics associated with competencies of this sort, which are characterized by *self-conceptions*, *traits*, and *motives* that are enduring in nature and thus less malleable and more difficult to develop (Hay Group, 2003; Soderquist, et. al. 2010; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). In the next section of the paper we review the extant global leadership development models, exploring their limitations and theoretical gaps in the field.

REVIEW OF THE MODELS OF GLOBAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

While global competency models have proliferated since the 1990s, the creation of global leadership competency *development* models has received less attention (Osland, 2013). Extant competency models of global leadership development share strong conceptual commonalities, and their differentiation is often mainly in the degree to which the models privilege specific variables over others. (for a review of the models, see Osland & Bird, 2013).

To illustrate these commonalities we integrate their core elements into a summary framework in Figure 2. As illustrated therein, current global leadership competency development models focus on stage-based perspectives of the competency development process and view it as idiosyncratically transformational in nature at the individual level of analysis.

Insert Figure 2 about here

The core assumption in most of the models is that individuals bring to a global leadership context pre-existing levels of expertise in the competencies associated with global leadership effectiveness (Osland, 2013). We label this the *antecedents* stage, and Figure 2 illustrates the range of competencies that individuals are theorized to enter the development process. The models highlight different competencies in this stage as being more critical than others, and some models view the same competencies as being antecedents while others view them as moderating variables. For example, in the Chattanooga Model of Global Leadership Development (Chattanooga Model, 2001; Osland, Bird, Mendenhall, & Osland, 2006), individuals are held to enter global work settings with varying levels of competencies that are associated with global leadership, personality traits, general self-efficacy, and a “sense of calling” – an internal motivation to work internationally and/or to see oneself as a “global citizen”(Chattanooga Model, 2001). Osland and Bird (2008) formulated four categories of antecedents (individual characteristics, cultural exposure, global education, and job novelty) whereas others characterized antecedents under the construct of “talent” that is comprised of global leaders’ career histories, their existing levels of KSAOs that influence global leadership effectiveness, and their ability to learn from experience (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002).

Few of the models specify the nature of antecedent competencies by type. Lokkesmoe (2009) is an exception to this trend, specifying the different types of competencies that exist within each of four competency domains (professional, personal, intercultural and interpersonal) that she found were associated with global leadership competency development. Current models do not explore relationships between competencies they house in the antecedent realm, but rather seem to view them as being independent in nature without relationship to each other. For example, KSA types of competencies included in the antecedent stage include, among others, foreign language fluency, global knowledge, and past education (Osland & Bird, 2008), but how these KSAs may influence Other-type competencies (e.g., nonjudgmentalness) remain unexplored. Additionally, how these various competencies operate forward and specifically influence future competency development is not explored in any fine-grained way by the models. The antecedent dimension is assumed to be important to future competency development, but exactly how it is crucial remains largely theoretically unexplored.

The second general stage that is common to the global leadership development models we label “transformational processes.” The models generally agree that global leadership competencies are best developed experientially; that is, there is an assumption that one's worldview must be challenged by encountering novel experiences in a global context over a lengthy period of time in order for global leadership competencies to be developed. The inexorable repetition of these types of experiences constitute the “transformational process.” Thus, global leadership development is *sui generis* in nature, an individualized, emergent process that can be moderated by a variety of variables (e.g., spouse/family adjustment, culture novelty, job novelty) and that is inherently nonlinear in nature (Chattanooga Model, 2001). The

models generally contend that individuals who are not able to successfully resolve the paradoxes and challenges inherent in their global assignments will not successfully develop global leadership competencies and in fact may develop skewed competencies that are constitutionally dysfunctional (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013).

Black and Gregersen (2000) proposed a model based upon the theories of Lewin (1947) and Kazdin (1994), conceptualizing global leadership competency development as essentially a remaking of mental maps. Based upon Lewin's concept of unfreezing, they argued that before competency development can occur individuals must be exposed to contrasts in their worldviews; that is, before people build new competencies they must first observe a gap between their worldview and behavior and perspectives of people who differ culturally from them within a global context. If individuals choose to confront the contrast and redraw their mental maps in order to account for the increased complexity they've been exposed to, then competency development is likely to occur (Black & Gregersen, 2000).

Other models have focused on barriers that impede the redrawing of mental maps via the defensive use of cognitive buffers and cognitive, affective, behavioral and values processes geared to preserve familiar mental maps (Stevens, Fox-Kirk, Thompson, Fawcett, & Fawcett, 2015). These processes function to defend and preserve a sense of self and identity by using cognitive buffers that range in degree from rigid (exaggerated buffers) to flexible (normal buffers). Exaggerated buffering produces stereotyping and other evaluative judgments while normal buffering involves protecting the self while simultaneously allowing for curiosity to understand paradoxical events. The employment of normal buffers facilitates behavior that confronts the contrast (e.g., sensemaking), and it is in the process of sensemaking (Osland &

Bird, 2000) that competencies are improved and developed; conversely, deployment of exaggerated buffers aborts learning and reinforces existing levels of competencies and perhaps even diminishes existing competencies (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013).

The events that produce these types of contrast-inducing challenges are termed, “trigger events” (The Kozai Group, 2008), “experience” (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002), or “transformational processes” (Osland, et. al., 2006), among others. The domestic leadership literature sometimes refers to these defining moments as "crucible experiences" (Bennis & Thomas, 2002). The degree to which these experiences are high in complexity, affect, intensity, and relevance to one's reputation and performance they act as catalysts to force individuals to confront new realities that contrast with their traditional worldviews (Osland, et. al., 2006; Paige, 2015). How one responds to these contrasts (by either confronting them or denying them), causes either aborted learning or increased sense making that in turn produces heightened and more nuanced levels of the competencies associated with global leadership (Kozai Group, 2008). Thus, the degree to which an individual negotiates these experiences, and is able to learn from them rather than be broken by them, produces the subsequent levels of competency development illustrated in the outcomes portion of the summary model in Figure 2. There is general agreement in the models that global leadership competency development is catalyzed by crucible experiences that may induce a transformational process over time within individuals. However, beyond some models' descriptions of general stages within this process and general characteristics that must inherently exist within events to induce it, none of the models have formulated specific relationships among the variables assumed to be operating within the transformational process.

Most of the models also inserted moderating variables that influence global leadership competency development. These range from the degree of challenge the global context offers (Lokkesmoe, 2009) to the degree of novelty associated with the leader's role (Osland & Bird, 2008) to the degree to which the spouse and family have adjusted to the individual's global assignment (Chattanooga Model, 2001). The classificatory dimensions in the models can theoretically hold a plethora of variables that can potentially influence competency development processes, and none of the models explore these relationships in any fine-grained depth. For example, moderating variables in the 2002 model of McCall & Hollenbeck are labeled, "mechanisms" and "business strategy." Mechanisms refers to the selection, succession, development, discovery, and recovery policies within the institutional organization that have the potential to facilitate or inhibit global leadership competency development. The "business strategy" variable addresses aspects of the strategy and structure of the firm that promote assignments and job opportunities that are global in nature, thus increasing the potential for managers to have global experiences, which in turn, will increase the possibilities for global leadership competency development. A third moderating variable (which conceptually seems to be collapsible into the mechanisms dimension) they term "catalysts." Within this variable are organizational supports such as improving information, providing incentives and resources, and supporting change (McCall and Hollenbeck, 2002). The authors further argue that the greater the degree these types of activities exist within a firm the greater the potential for managers to enhance their global leadership competencies.

Finally, each model characterizes the dependent variable of global leadership competency development in very general terms, ranging from a focus on degree of functionality

versus dysfunctionality (Chattanooga Model, 2001), its multidimensional nature – but without an in-depth analysis of its various dimensions (Osland & Bird, 2008) – and a general description of development outcomes (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). In summary, extant global leadership development models tend to describe a similar process by which individuals develop global leadership competencies. While they delineate important variables that influence the process, the nature of the process is not specified in the form of theoretical propositions but instead is summarized by describing general relationships. These models were useful in the nascent stage of global leadership. However, we now have a fuller understanding of global leadership development, which allows us to propose a more comprehensive, dynamic model rooted in theory. Our process model of global leadership competency development is illustrated in Figure 3.

Insert Figure 3 about here

THEORY DEVELOPMENT

Our process model begins with a trigger event that leads to self-commitment and a cycle of reflection, learning strategy focus, and learning strategy implementation. This process cycle in turn influences the degree of GL competency development. The initial trigger event is influenced by the developmental readiness of the individual, and the process cycle is influenced by a number of internal and external factors. We examine each aspect of the model below.

Trigger Events

A common theoretical claim across the adult development and CBT literatures, as well as in the global leadership literature, is that adults do not alter their cognitive and behavioral habits unless those predispositions are challenged in a fundamental way. In the adult education and

development literature, transformative learning theory “attempts to explain how our expectations, framed within cultural assumptions and presuppositions, directly influence the meaning we derive from our experiences (Taylor, 1998: 6).” Taylor, operating from the lens of transformative learning theory, holds that “when an individual has an experience that cannot be assimilated into his or her meaning perspective, either the experience is rejected or the perspective changes to accommodate the new experience (Taylor, 1994: 158).” Such experiences usually come in the form of an event that calls into question the adequacy and legitimacy of one’s current operating paradigm or frame of reference regarding how the world works and one’s place in the world (Kitchenham, 2008). Such intrapersonal challenges have been labeled, “trigger events,” or “disorienting dilemmas” among others (Kitchenham, 2008). Such disruptions, referred to hereafter as trigger events, produce an internal awareness of a competency deficit or a deficit in multiple competencies within an individual.

Developmental Readiness and Self-Commitment

Current global leadership competency development models hold that individuals vary in their responses to trigger events – ranging from denial to open affirmation of the event and its implications. However, extant models fail to adequately account for possible reasons for this disparity in reaction to trigger events. Drawing from the leadership development literature, we propose that an individual’s level of developmental readiness (DR) at the time a trigger event is experienced explains the subsequent efficacy levels of GL competency development. Hannah and Lester (2009: 37) define DR as “both the ability and motivation to attend to, make meaning of, and appropriate new knowledge into one’s long-term memory structures.” Hannah & Avolio (2010: 1182) hold that DR is a multidimensional construct, comprising two main dimensions:

ability and motivation: “leaders’ motivation to develop is promoted through interest and goals, learning goal orientation, and developmental efficacy; while ability to develop is promoted through leaders’ self-awareness, self-complexity, and meta-cognitive ability.” They contend the greater the degree of DR in individuals, the greater they will, in reaction to trigger events that bring their existing levels of cognitive, behavioral, and emotional competencies into question, “attend to, make meaning of, and appropriate new leader KSAs (knowledge, skills, abilities, and attributes) into knowledge structures along with concomitant changes in identity to employ those KSAs” (Hannah & Avolio, 2010: 1182). Similarly, Björkman & Mäkelä (2013) found that DR manifested itself in their study in the form of self-motivation to engage in experiential learning. DR influenced their subjects willingness to accept international assignments, which in turn was positively related to their subjects’ perceptions of the positive developmental potential embedded within the international assignments.

Proposition 1: Developmental readiness increases the likelihood that individuals will respond to trigger events with high levels of self-commitment to develop and/or enhance deficient global leadership competencies exposed by the trigger event.

Premise Reflection

Mezirow’s work (1978a; 1978b) found that individuals, after experiencing disorienting dilemmas (trigger events), engaged in self-examination of “meaning schemes.” Meaning schemes are constellations of concepts, beliefs, judgements, and feelings that shape how we interpret life events (Mezirow, 1995: 21), and a “meaning perspective” is a grouping of a series of meaning schemes that form a dimensional aspect of one’s worldview, “a general frame of reference comprising a series of specific meaning schemes” that are reflected in “habits of mind”

and our points of view (Kitchenham, 2008: 110). Meaning perspectives can be incomplete in nature, and thus cause a view of reality “that arbitrarily limits what is included, impedes differentiation, lacks permeability or openness to other ways of seeing” (Mezirow, 1991: 188). During self-examination of meaning schemes, individuals tend to focus on one of three types of reflection: content, process, or premise (Mezirow, 1995).

Content reflection involves attempting to learn within one's current meaning scheme -- that is, thinking back to what was done considering how to change one's existing meaning scheme to adequately handle similar situations in the future (Kitchenham, 2008: 114). In process reflection individuals "consider the aetiology of actions and whether there are other factors yet to be unveiled; this form of reflection might also transform meaning schemes” (Kitchenham, 2008: 114). In transformative learning theory both of these forms of reflection lead to “straightforward transformation” of meaning schemes -- in other words, an assessment of "the nature and consequences of one's actions" that leads to an alteration and expansion of meaning schemes (Kitchenham, 2008: 114). The third type of reflection, premise reflection, in addition to assessing the nature and consequences of actions also involves assessing the circumstances, causes, and provenance of the actions. "Premise reflection requires the person to see the larger view of what is operating within his or her value system [and] could transform a meaning perspective rather than a meaning scheme” (Kitchenham, 2008: 114).

Within transformative learning theory there are two types of reflection-based transformations (Kitchenham, 2008): “straightforward transformation” (involving the transformation of a single or small set of meaning schemes through content and process reflection) and “profound transformation” (involving the transformation of a meaning

perspective through the critical examination of action premises). While transformation of single or small sets of meaning schemes via content or process reflection regarding specific intercultural events is productive, it is limited in nature. For example, being unsure how to bow when greeting everyone in a large-group business setting in Japan will produce different action strategies depending on which of the three types of reflection one engages in afterwards. Content and process reflection will likely create motivation to expand one's existing meaning scheme of "salutation norms" to include those of Japan and will then produce action strategies focused on norm learning and subsequent compliance. Premise reflection will likely create motivation to not only expand one's meaning scheme of salutation norms to include those of Japan, but also to reorient one's understanding of salutation processes in human relations generally as well as in Japan. Subsequent personal learning strategies will include norm learning and compliance but will extend to comprehending the values, meaning, purpose, historical evolution, and interdependencies with multiple relationship factors of salutation processes in one's native culture, the Japanese culture, and other cultures as well.

Proposition 2: Individuals who are self-committed to the development of their global leadership competencies who engage in premise reflection will create more rigorous personal learning strategies with higher-order learning goals than those who engage in content and process reflection.

Learning Strategy Focus

It is almost an article of faith in the global leadership development literature that global leadership competency development is most effectively accomplished through rigorous, experiential experiences and activities than through any other means (Oddou & Mendenhall,

2013). Dodge (1993) found that for managerial work, learning is best achieved through on-the-job or personal experience and that exchanging information with others (mentoring, coaching) while helpful, is less effective in nature. Least effective of all is learning via classroom/seminar scenarios. The importance of developing competencies and skills via implementing concrete, behavioral learning strategies is borne out from the cognitive-behavior therapy (CBT) literature (Butler, Chapman, Forman, & Beck, 2006; Macrodimitris, Hamilton, Backs-Dermott, & Mothersill, 2010).

Based on the assumption that “the way individuals perceive a situation is more closely connected to their reaction than the situation itself” (Beck Institute, 2016), CBT is a therapy that is time-sensitive, structured, present-oriented in nature. Its aim is to assist individuals to solve life challenges by teaching them ways they can modify dysfunctional cognitive and behavioral habits (Beck Institute, 2016). Learning strategies utilized in CBT are based on the following components: 1) enhancing individuals’ self-awareness of how their implicit cognitions influence their behavior; 2) in their design being “active, time-limited, and clearly structured” as well as being measurable; 3) requiring individuals to act as their own “personal scientist” in a process of discovery of how to create cognitive and behavioral changes within themselves; and 4) having the expectation that individuals exhibit personal accountability by proactively assessing the outcomes and consequences of their implementation of their strategies (Meichenbaum, 1986: 347-349). CBT techniques are fully anchored in rigorous, experiential learning processes, and initial findings suggest CBT-related approaches are effective in developing intercultural competencies associated with global leadership effectiveness

(Mendenhall, Arnardottir, Oddou, & Burke-Smalley, 2013; Mendenhall, Burke-Smalley, Arnardottir, Oddou, & Osland, in press).

Proposition 3: Personal learning strategies will be efficacious to the degree they are structured, based on developing self-awareness of cognition-behavior relationships, focused on emphasizing self-discovery of competency development processes, and based on personal accountability.

Learning Strategy Implementation

While the quality of personal learning strategies impinges on the degree of development of global leadership competencies, the valence of strategy quality is moot without effective implementation of the strategy. Drawing from social learning theory, we argue that the notion of reproduction, “the translation of symbolic representations of modeled stimuli into overt actions” (Black & Mendenhall, 1989: 519) is conceptually akin to the implementation of personal learning strategies for global leadership competency development. Personal learning strategies are symbolic representations of overt behavior that is necessary to learn, and without engaging in the overt behavior, subsequent competency development is aborted. Research findings in the field of global leadership competency development clearly indicate that the implementation of personal and team learning strategies in intercultural contexts lead to the development of global leadership competencies (Caligiuri, 2015; Pless, Maak & Stahl, 2011), but that they require adequate time horizons in order to be effective. In completely immersive contexts, for example, in addition to pre-training, a full two-months is necessary (Pless, et. al., 2011). In less immersive contexts, longer time frames will be needed. Similarly, in the CBT literature, the findings are clear that if individuals do not proactively engage in “homework” (consistent application of

clinical techniques they are assigned to carry out daily by their counselor) over adequate time periods, then little, if any, change occurs in the cognitive, emotional, or psychological skill they are undertaking to change (Beck, Rush, Shaw, & Emery, 1979; D’Zurilla, 1988; MacLaren & Freeman, 2007; Mason, 2007). Also, the implementation of personal learning strategies, like the carrying out of CBT “homework processes” or the reproduction of new behaviors in social learning theory, is largely dependent on the self-commitment of the individual to do so. As aforementioned, this self-commitment is based on the level of developmental readiness in the individual. Thus, we theorize that effective implementation of personal learning strategy hinges on both self-commitment of the learner and the provision of adequate time horizons for implementation to occur.

Proposition 4: Learning strategy implementations will be efficacious to the degree they are consistently deployed across adequate time horizons by individuals who are self-committed to developing their global leadership competencies.

Post-Implementation Reflection

In the adult education literature (Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1984), the therapist training and supervision literature (Milne, 2009; Skovholt, 2001), and the CBT literature (Haarhoff & Thwaites, 2014). Within CBT approaches, in particular, “reflection appears to be central to the enhancement of skill development” (Bennett-Levy & Padesky, 2014: 13). Reflection on outcomes associated with trial CBT behaviors facilitates ongoing skill development across time, especially when an agreed upon structure for self-reflection exists (Bennett-Levy, McManus, Westling, & Fennell, 2009; Bennett-Levy & Padesky, 2014; Farrand, Perry, & Linsley, 2010). For example, personal learning strategies combined with reflective practice enhance procedural

skill development, improve interpersonal skills, and enhance reflective capacity (Bennett-Levy, et. al., 2009). Consistent reflection upon personal strategy implementation across time has “increased awareness of the learning and utilization of skills” (Bennett-Levy & Padesky, 2014), and consistent journaling acts as a powerful mode for self-reflection and subsequent development of competencies (e.g, self-efficacy, locus of control) associated with global leadership effectiveness (Fritson, 2008; O’Connel & Dymment, 2006). Thus, experimentation with new behaviors that are calculated to enhance skills and competencies associated with quality of life seem to be “baked in” more effectively across time if combined with self-reflection.

Proposition 5: Reflecting, in a structured manner, on the process and outcomes of learning strategy implementations will lead to greater growth in the development of global leadership competencies.

The reflection-strategy-implementation-reflection cycle is an ongoing process in global leadership competency development. The individual, once committed, will repeat this cycle numerous times. Personal strategies are not set in stone once and then implemented once; they are constantly recalibrated as their implementation produces reflection, which in turn produces new adjustments to strategies, etc. The cycle never stops, though it can be slowed or disjointed or exited completely if the individual decides to do so. There are factors that are internal to the individual and external to the individual that can influence the efficacy of the cycle (see Figure 3) and the individual’s persistence in continually putting forth the cognitive, psychological, and emotional labor to continue in the cycle across time.

Internal Factors

Aptitude. There is initial evidence in the global leadership literature that existing levels of global leadership competencies in individuals influence the degree to which they can further develop those same competencies or develop new ones (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013). Caligiuri (2006) argues that the development of global leadership competencies is largely dependent upon individuals' extant aptitude, KSAs and personality traits. Caligiuri and Tarique (2011:1) studied effective global leadership development programs and found that "certain people benefit more from those experiences (i.e., those with extraversion, emotional stability, and openness)" compared to others in the programs. Caligiuri and Tarique (2014) examined the role of context, proposing an interaction effect in global leadership development between "aptitude" (a construct combining current levels of global leadership competencies, personality characteristics, and motivation to engage in global leadership development) and the learning context (referred to by the authors as the "treatment"). Similarly, Furuya, Stevens, Bird, Oddou, & Mendenhall (2009), found in their sample of expatriates that those who exhibited high levels of global leadership competencies prior to their overseas assignment developed higher levels of global leadership competencies during their overseas assignment compared to peers who entered their overseas assignments with lower levels of global leadership competencies. Aptitude plays an important role in the developmental experience of global leaders as they try to make sense of complex and challenging learning contexts.

Proposition 6: Self-committed individuals who enter the "reflection-strategy-implementation" cycle with high aptitude will be able to leverage the cycle over time to either increase their existing competency levels or develop new global competencies

more significantly than individuals who enter the cycle with lower levels of extant global leadership competencies.

Perceived Difficulty. A second internal factor that influences the cycle is how difficult the individual perceives the development of global competencies to be. High perceived difficulty of the venture to develop one's global leadership competencies functions as "pull" factor, negatively impinging leveraging the cycle. Despite being self-committed, once individuals begin engaging in the cycle, if progress is slower than they expected, resources needed to continue to refine personal learning strategies are unavailable or lack of support exists for the venture, then persistence of effort may decline despite the best of intentions. This is akin to what Bandura (1977) refers to as "outcome expectations." In other words, "people's beliefs that the execution of certain behaviors will lead to desired outcomes...and outcome expectations influence what learned behaviors are emitted" (Black and Mendenhall, 1990: 520).

Proposition 7: The level of perceived difficulty will moderate, at any given point in time in a cycle, the efficacy levels of reflection, strategy, and implementation at that given point in time within the cycle, as well as persistence in the cycle.

Perceived Magnitude. We label a second "pull" factor that influences the virtue of the cycle as "perceived magnitude." Perceived magnitude is based on Bandura's notion of "efficacy expectation," which is the "degree to which the individual believes he or she can successfully execute a particular behavior" or venture (Black & Mendenhall, 1989: 520). Low levels of efficacy expectations result in lack of persistence. We extend the notion of efficacy expectation to the internal belief that one can reach one's individualized ideal of global leadership competency development. In other words, it is possible to begin the competency development

cycle with a low level of perceived magnitude but have that level increase over time. For example, self-committed individuals may be making positive progress week by week, have the needed resources to continue to refine and implement their personal learning strategies, and even receive meaningful rewards for engaging in the process. But when they serially contemplate the gap between their current levels of global leadership competencies versus the ideal level they feel they need or desire to attain, discouragement can easily hold sway.

Proposition 8: The level of perceived magnitude will moderate, at any point in the cycle, the efficacy levels of reflection, strategy, and implementation as well as persistence in the cycle.

External Factors

Learning Context. There is wide agreement in the literature that the nature of the context in which individuals attempt to develop global leadership competencies plays an important role in the success of such efforts (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2011; Pless, et. al., 2011). Extant global leadership development models all focus on this contextual dimension as being critical to global leadership competency development (Osland & Bird, 2008), based on the research literatures of expatriation, study abroad, and cross-psychology wherein rigorous, experiential interaction was found to promote development of intercultural skills to a greater degree than training programs conducted in traditional formats. Caligiuri and Tarique (2014: 254) term this contextual dimension, “treatment” and define it as a learning context that provides “opportunities for global business leaders to engage in significant and meaningful interactions with people from different cultures [where they must] identify, learn, and apply diverse culturally appropriate business behaviors.” We use the broader term of learning contexts to refer

to situations that are amenable to the development of global leadership competencies. These can take on many forms, such as an expatriate assignment, an international service learning program (e.g., IBM Corporate Service Corps) or volunteer missions for a religious organization.

Regardless of the form, for a sojourn experience to be facilitative of significant potential to foster global leadership competency development, the learning context must have high levels of “intensity factors” (Paige, 2015). Paige (2015: 444) defines intensity factors as a “set of characteristics related to the person and the context that can intensify the experience of living and working in cultures other than one’s own”. Intensity factors specifically related to the learning context include: 1) *cultural difference*: the degree of difference between one’s native culture and the new culture one is operating in, sometimes termed “*cultural toughness*” (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985); 2) *powerlessness*: the degree to which one feels low power and control in the intercultural context; 3) *cultural immersion*: the degree to which one is immersed in a new cultural context; 4) *cultural isolation*: the degree to which one is isolated from members of one’s own culture; and 5) *Visibility*: the degree to which one is physically different from those in the new culture (Paige, 1993).

Proposition 9: Learning contexts that exhibit high levels of intensity factors (cultural toughness, powerlessness, cultural immersion, cultural isolation, and visibility) will facilitate the development of global leadership competencies compared to learning contexts with low or moderate levels of intensity factors.

Company Context

Time Constraints. As noted previously, global leadership competencies largely fall into the following categories within the competency domain: self-conceptions (values, self-schema,

self-image), traits (consistent responses to situations or information that form as habitual behaviors) and motives (thoughts, preferences, emotions, and desires that prompt one to action). These types of global leadership competencies can be developed in a relatively short-time period if they are designed to be culturally challenging in nature (e.g., full cultural immersion, such as international service learning programs) with rigorous pre- and post- support systems in place (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; 2011). However, without this type of focused approach, developing global leadership competencies will require longer time spans on the part of individuals due to the fact that they will essentially be learning them on their own through trial and error, without coaching, and via traditional training regimens. In these latter cases, which represent the normative condition for most organizations (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013), if there is an expectation by the organization that an individual “ramp up” these competencies quickly in preparation for an upcoming assignment, new role, or business initiative, the potential for failure in global leadership competency development is increased.

Proposition 10: Time constraints that are short-term in nature that are placed upon self-committed individuals to develop global leadership competencies in learning contexts that are not conducive to rapid development will inhibit the efficacy levels of reflection, strategy, and implementation as well as persistence in the cycle.

Institutionalized Accountability Mechanisms. CBT methods and attendant outcomes harmonize around the criticality of accountability processes for behavior change (Lam, 2005; Mendenhall, et. al., 2013). The CBT process is in itself an accountability process, as the major goal of CBT is to encourage individuals to take self-responsibility by putting into practice new skills “in a variety of personal, social, and interpersonal settings and to bring his or her

experiences (positive and negative) into sessions for evaluation, reflection, refinement and consolidation. This partnership approach [emphasizes] shared responsibility [and is] essential to an effective and sustainable therapeutic change” (Lam, 2005: 34).

While it is possible for individuals to engage in self-accountability during the competency development cycle, having ongoing accountability to report one’s efforts to a coach, mentor, or counselor, and work as team with them, has been found to be an important element in developing competencies associated with quality of life (Lam, 2005: 34-35). The essential structure of CBT involves repeated cycles of joint agenda setting between client and therapist, identification and development of personal action plans to address problems, periodic feedback and discussion between client and therapist, homework assignments where new skills are practiced, and a summary session where progress is assessed and, if needed, the cycle is initiated again (Lam, 2005: 35). This accountability process serves to instill hope about the possibility of change, motivates individuals to take responsibility for their own development, and fosters a collaborative relationship with the coach, therapist or counselor as a valued partner in the individual’s development process (Lam, 2005: 35).

Proposition 11: The existence of a formal, structured accountability mechanism involving skilled coaches will significantly enhance the efficacy levels of reflection, strategy, and implementation compared to individuals who attempt to develop global leadership competencies on their own volition.

Degree of Culture–Program Fit. The development of global leadership competencies is often an ancillary objective in the strategy of organizations, even in multinational corporations where the need for them seems self-evident. However, increasing numbers of large organizations

have come to understand the need for enhancing global leadership competencies within their managerial cadres and are actively engaged in doing so (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013). Initial research in the field has found that when global leadership development programs are adapted to the organization's culture positive outcomes occur, such as the formation of cross-divisional networks of global leaders as they engage in global leadership development together as a cohort, and increases in social capital and knowledge sharing (Espedal, Gooderham, & Stensaker, 2013; Stensaker & Gooderham, 2015). As in any managerial development initiative, however, if global leadership development efforts are not aligned with both formal and informal reward systems within the organizational culture, well-intentioned initiatives will fail (Kerr, 1975).

Proposition 12: Global leadership competency development initiatives will increase individuals' effectiveness and persistence in deploying the reflection, strategy, and implementation cycle to the degree that formal and informal reward systems are aligned with the global leadership competency development initiatives.

Degree of Global Leadership Competency Development

We conclude the description of our model by delineating the core elements associated with the outcome it produces – the development of global leadership competencies. In concert with extant global leadership development competency models, we theorize that the outcome variable of our model, the “degree of global leadership competency development” is a dynamic phenomenon. However, previous models have not explicated the nature of its dynamics, leaving “degree of global leadership competency development” essentially a “black box.” We propose that this variable is constituted of at least two core dimensions: dynamism and directionality. Dynamism reflects the assumption that global leadership competency development outcomes are

never fixed, but constantly shift in degree due to the reflection - strategy - implementation cycle that is ongoing and self-organizing in nature. Thus, there is never a point in time when an individual has “locked in” a high, medium or low level of a specific competency – the competency level will be fluid based upon subsequent iterations of the model’s cycle. The dynamism inherent in global leadership competency development thus reflects an organic phenomenon. Just as the reflection-strategy-implementation cycle is ongoing and dynamic and susceptible to multiple external and internal influences, so we aver is the outcome of the cycle of global leadership competency development.

The second element of the variable of degree of global leadership competency development we term directionality, and define it as the trending course of a given competency within an individual across a given time period. To date, there is a dearth of longitudinal studies in the field, and subjects in empirical studies tend to be assessed at fixed points in time without reference to the past directionality of their competency development (Mendenhall, et. al., 2016). For example, if a competency has been increasing in degree and valence within an individual, is a current downward shift in that pattern reflective of a short-term downward “blip” in an otherwise upward trend? Or, is the competency in a free-fall due to extreme, unforeseen external conditions? Measuring the competency at this point in time, like a photograph, freezes the moment, but does not capture a sense of directionality or proportionality in competency development. Like the stock market, where individual stocks are measured and constellation of stocks are indexed, it may be fruitful to view global leadership competency development similarly, where both an individual competency as well as an “index” or “constellation” of competencies are assessed over lengthy time periods.

Discussion

The model we have proposed seeks to help scholars and practitioners better understand the process of global leadership competency development. To date, global leadership development process models have been descriptive and prescriptive in nature, but they have not specifically delineated theoretical relationships amenable to empirical testing. Drawing upon relevant theoretical principles from diverse literatures (adult learning and development, CBT, global leadership development, leadership development, organizational development, intercultural communication, and social learning theory), we propose a model of global leadership development that employs testable propositions.

Research on this model could take a number of different forms. Propositions can easily be examined independently of the larger model though a full testing of the model would be ideal; for example, scholars have already examined the idea of trigger events (Avolio & Luthans, 2006) or crucible events (Bennis & Thomas, 2002) through interviews with leaders, but a more rigorous and formal qualitative approach could be used to examine the mediating role of developmental readiness in the trigger event–self-commitment relationship. Longitudinal studies of global leadership competency development using quantitative or qualitative approaches could be used to rigorously explore various elements of the model, such as the relationship between the central “reflection-strategy-implementation” cycle and the development of global leadership competencies. Also, initial research has found a relationship between some global leadership competencies and an orientation towards ethical or “responsible” leadership (Miska, Stahl, & Mendenhall, 2013). A potential fruitful stream of research would be to investigate whether the development of certain global leadership competencies also influence the development of other

types of leadership competencies associated with ethical/responsible leadership, shared leadership, or expert cognition (Osland, Oddou, Bird, & Osland, 2013), to name just a few possibilities.

We believe this process model is an important step forward in the nascent field of global leadership as it is important to move from description and observation to theory and prediction. To date there has been a strong tendency in the field to focus on conceptual, practitioner, and essay-focused writing compared to empirical research (Mendenhall, et. al., 2016). Before empirical research can be deployed, theory must exist, and we offer this theory as a first step towards that end in the field of global leadership competency development.

In addition to the research implications of this model, there are a number of practical implications that can be drawn from the model as well. One major implication is the role of developmental readiness to the process of developing global leadership competencies. It has long been recognized that individuals who share similar triggering events can have dramatically different responses, and developmental readiness helps explain why such differences occur. For example, having an embarrassing moment during exposure to a new and unfamiliar culture may result in one person developing a tremendous resolve to improve in order to handle such situations in the future, while another person exposed to the identical situation may either move to limit future exposure to that culture or attribute the incident to a specific set of circumstances that will be unlikely to be seen again. Elements of ability and motivation contained within the developmental readiness construct can partially explain why the two individuals respond so differently.

Another implication of this model for practice is the “reflection-strategy-implementation” cycle. Recognizing the role of each step of this cycle as well as the fact that it is an ongoing process can help individuals and their support team (e.g., mentors, coaches, trainers) to remain committed to developing global leadership competencies. The identification of internal and external factors can also prove particularly helpful for people who are committed to make changes but have found such efforts in the past to get derailed. Learning to adjust policies and practices related to variables within the internal and external factors of the model in ways that support individuals’ development goals and reduce potential obstacles can greatly facilitate the developmental of global leadership competencies.

Finally, this model highlights the need for self-awareness and reflection in many of its stages. Developing the capability to recognize trigger events for what they are and to interpret them in a way that facilitates growth can be of tremendous help to an individual when undergoing competency development. Being self-aware is fundamental to the concept of developmental readiness and is explicitly built into two of the three stages in the “reflection-strategy-implementation” cycle. While it is hardly a new insight, the central role of reflection and self-awareness in our model helps emphasize the importance of these concepts to the development of global leadership competencies. In conclusion, we hope our theorizing efforts in the creation of this process model will have a heuristic effect on future research in the field in terms of guiding future empirical research, and will result in the design of more effective and efficient global leadership development programs.

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FIGURE 1
A VISUALIZATION OF SODERQUIST'S 2010 COMPETENCY TYPOLOGY

(Adapted from Soderquist, et. al., 2010)

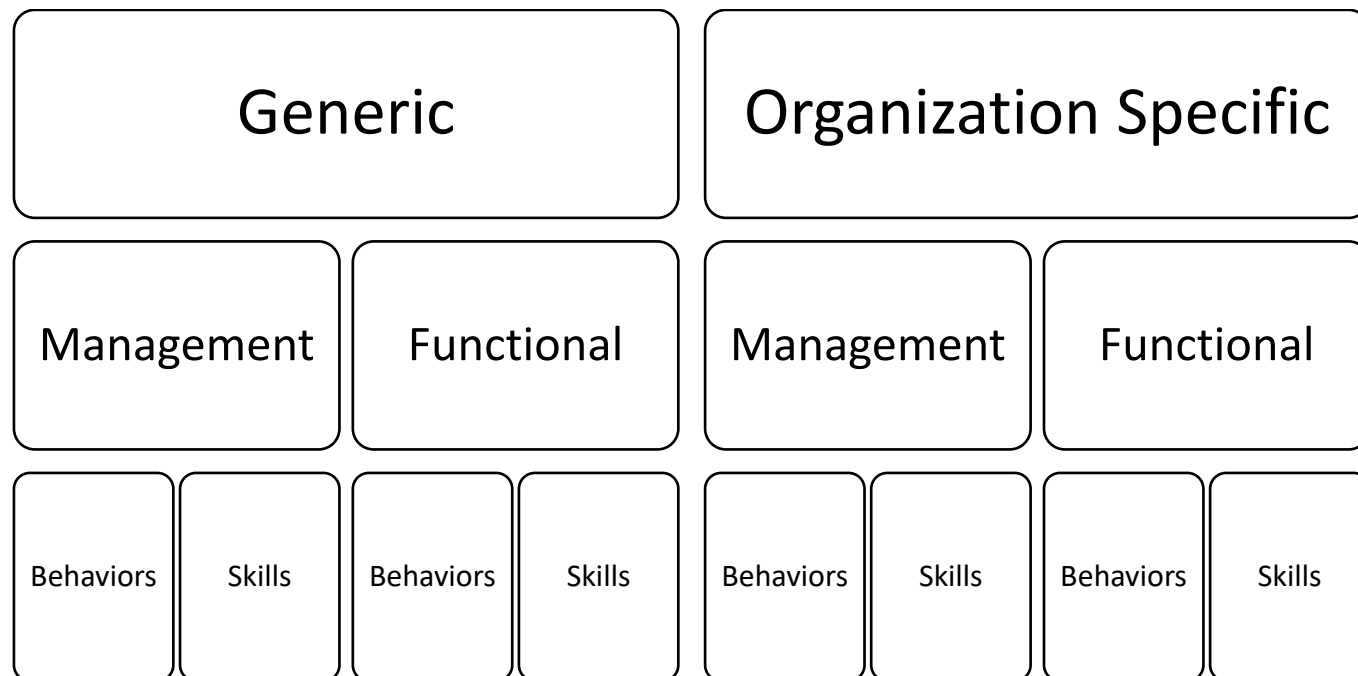


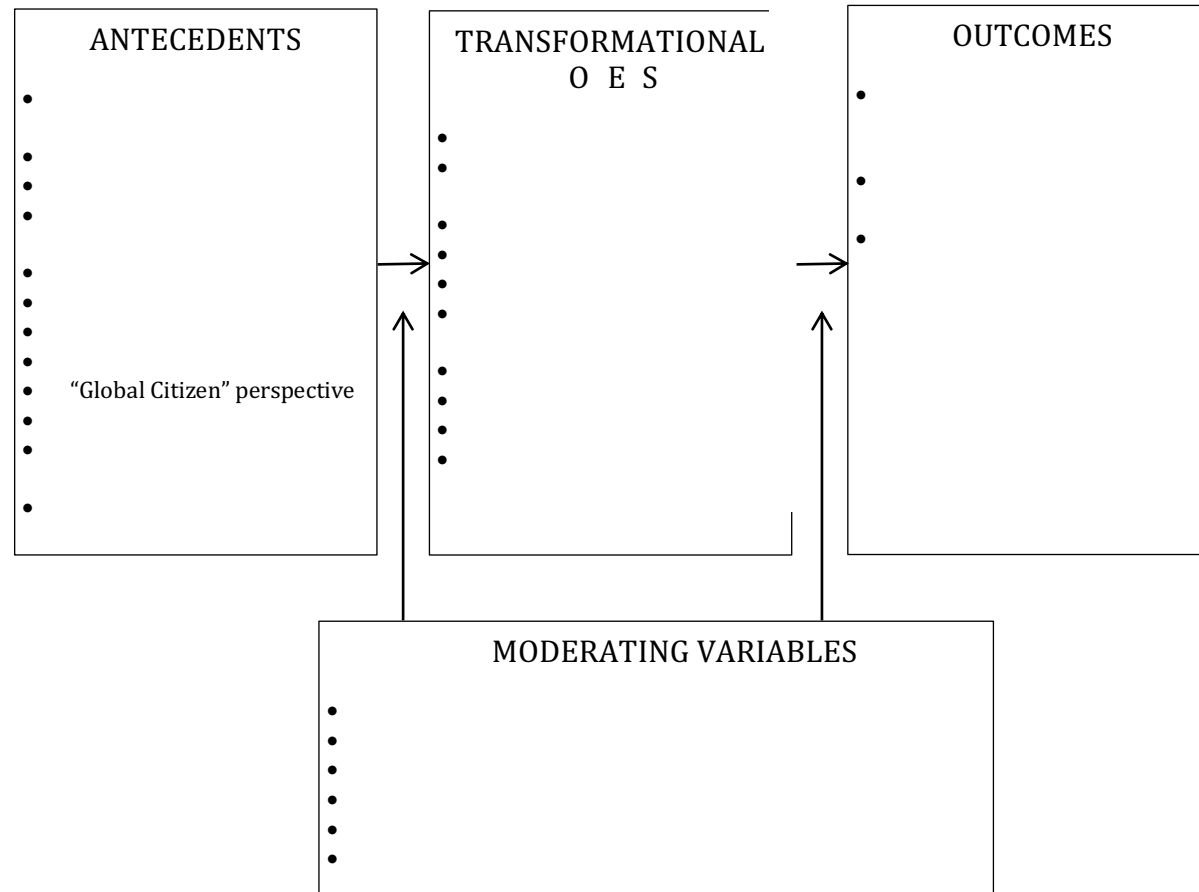
FIGURE 2**SUMMARY OF CORE ELEMENTS OF EXTANT GLOBAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT MODELS**

FIGURE 3

PROCESS MODEL OF GLOBAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT

