

CALIFORNIA BAPTIST UNIVERSITY

Riverside, California

Global Mindset Development: Qualitative Research of Japanese Business Leaders

Based on the Global Mindset Inventory

A Dissertation Submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
Requirements for the degree  
Doctor of Business Administration

Yasunari Matsuura

Dr. Robert K. Jabs School of Business

September 2023

Global Mindset Development: Qualitative Research of Japanese Business Leaders

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September 2023

DocuSigned by:  
Henry L Petersen  
3456409E30B347E

Henry L. Petersen Ph.D., Committee Chair

DocuSigned by:  
Kenny George Ph.D.  
18405F6570E94251

Kenny George Ph.D., Committee Member

DocuSigned by:  
Scott Dunbar  
BC071F75821566A

Scott Dunbar, D.B.A., Committee Member

DocuSigned by:  
Dean Tim Gramling  
CA2D63A8550845F

Tim Gramling, LPD., FACHE, Dean, Jabs School of Business

## ABSTRACT

Japanese multinational enterprises (MNEs) have been expanding globally since the 1990s, seeking new markets around the world that may compensate for shrinking domestic markets. They have always been in need of global leaders who drive global expansion but have failed to develop them successfully. The purpose of this study was to find out which competencies of the global mindset Japanese business leaders find challenging to develop and explore how such competencies can be acquired or developed. The conceptual frameworks used for this study were the global mindset inventory (GMI), which outlays nine major global leadership competencies, and the global leadership development ecosystem (GLDE), which connects the constructs of the GMI and learning methodologies to develop them. These models were tested on a sample of 13 Japanese participants with rich international experience. The results of the qualitative analysis revealed that (a) seven out of nine GMI factors were supported, but the remaining two received mixed views; (b) humility was suggested as a critical factor of global leadership, which is not included in the GMI; (c) local language and business customs were the most challenging expertise to develop; and (d) the top method the Japanese leaders used to develop the global leadership was work experience. Implications of this study include (a) it is important to distinguish competencies that are essential in the Western leadership style and those in the Japanese leadership style; (b) humility is regarded as critical for global leadership not only in the Japanese but also in the Western realm; and (c) leadership competencies required in the local workplace are the combination of leadership competencies viable universally and those unique to the local

environment. Recommendations are made on practical approaches to global leadership development, and areas of further research are suggested.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my wife, Mayumi, who is my best friend in life, a great partner in raising our family, and a compatriot in the Christian faith. I couldn't have done this without her constant encouragement and strong belief in my success. My purpose in pursuing a doctoral degree was to be a role model for my beloved children, Ray and Hannah. Their being around has always been the biggest energy source that drove me to work harder. I hope they've learned something from their dad, who was trying to accomplish something with blood, sweat, and tears.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my dissertation committee members, Dr. Petersen, Dr. George, and Dr. Dunbar, for their incisive opinions and sympathetic guidance. In particular, Dr. Petersen led me out of the deadlock I was in and guided me through to the finish line with Christ-like love. He is a great role model for me as an academic and teacher.

Most of all, I would like to thank my Lord Jesus Christ for leading me to my wonderful alma mater, California Baptist University. Before I started, I had no idea what was waiting for me at the other end of the long tunnel of the doctoral program, but deep down, I felt I must take the leap of faith. My faith has been strengthened during this long journey. CBU was the right place for me. Praise the Lord!

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## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Japanese multinational enterprises (MNEs) have been expanding globally and rapidly since the 1990s (Japan External Trade Organization [JETRO], 2020). Japan was the biggest provider of foreign direct investment (FDI) outside the country in 2019, with a net FDI of \$227 billion, which was nearly double the amount generated by the United States (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development [UNCTAD], 2020). Moreover, Japan's FDI has more than doubled from \$122 billion in 2012 to \$249 billion in 2019 (JETRO, 2020), which is an astonishing level given the fact that Japan's gross domestic product (GDP) is only 24% of that of the United States (World Bank, 2020). Despite the COVID-19 pandemic that started in early 2020 and all the adversities that resulted from it, Japanese corporations still have to expand globally by investing in overseas markets. Motivation factors behind FDI are as follows:

- seeking markets to enable scale and scope of business,
- seeking natural resources,
- seeking assets to enhance domestic employment,
- seeking markets as the domestic market declines, and
- seeking employees as domestic labor force declines (Hong et al., 2019).

Japan's case would be seeking markets and employees. These are related to the shrinking domestic market because of Japan's rapidly declining and aging population. It is projected that Japan's population will decrease from the current 127 million to 99 million in 2053, and 38% of it will be 65 years of age and over (National Institute of Population and Social Security Research in Japan, 2017). Japanese companies will have to seek markets outside the country to compensate for the lost domestic market. And to

support its global expansion, it needs leaders at the forefront of its expansion and headquarters for strategic command and control of its international growth.

Global business leaders are expected to perform exceedingly well in overseas subsidiaries or at the global headquarters in the home country (Javidan & Bowen, 2013; Reiche et al., 2017; Seemiller & Whitney, 2020). To do so, they require specific leadership skills that are different from those required of leaders who operate only in domestic markets (Azeredo & Henriqson, 2023; Castaño et al., 2015; Gordon & Martin, 2019; Kim & McLean, 2015; Mathews, 2016). Japanese companies are well aware of this fact, and they train their future global leaders by sending them to overseas business schools and assigning them to international projects (Japan Overseas Enterprises Association, 2019; Mitsubishi UFJ, 2018). Despite such efforts, however, many studies have indicated that Japanese companies operating abroad often face cultural clashes with local employees and find it difficult to replicate the business efficiency they have built over the years in Japan (Bader et al., 2021; Crossman & Noma, 2013; Diefenbach, 2015; Fukushige & Spicer, 2007, 2011; Oudhuis & Olsson, 2015; Popa et al., 2020; Witt & Stahl, 2016). Sonoda and Nakamura (2019) found that 62.3% of 171 multinational enterprises (MNEs) that responded to their survey said their top priority is recruitment and development of human resources at their overseas subsidiaries. However, more than 70% of Japanese companies say they do not think their attempts are producing sufficient global leaders (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication, 2017; Mitsubishi UFJ, 2018; RareJob, 2020).

### **Background of the Problem**

The notion of global leadership development (GLD) has three elements:

- identifying the competencies required for global leadership,
- deciding the methods to develop such competencies, and
- executing the global leadership competencies (GLCs) development.

There is a plethora of literature by academia and practitioners on what kind of competencies are required of a global leader (Anderson-Meger & Dixon, 2019; Azeredo & Henriqson, 2023; Herd et al., 2016; Parish, 2016; Reiche et al., 2017; Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017). In terms of GLD methodologies, a large body of literature has also been presented (Jörg et al., 2022; Herd et al., 2016; Lyubovnikova et al., 2015; Parish, 2016; Passarelli et al., 2018; Sroufe et al., 2015; Walker, 2018; Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017; Zimmerman, 2015). However, there are very few scholarly articles focused on Japanese global leadership or its development (Hirai & Suzuki, 2016).

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) study, in which about 17,000 managers from 951 organizations from 62 societies participated to analyze the cultural impact on effective leadership styles, concluded, “Leadership is culturally contingent. That is, views of the importance and value of leadership vary across cultures” (House et al., 2004, p. 5). Altogether, the leadership skills and styles Japanese professionals develop in Japan may not work outside the home country. The findings of the conventional, or Western-culture-based research works, do not seem to have been applied sufficiently to Japanese professionals, judging from the studies that indicate that the difference in management styles between Japan and local communities is causing cultural clashes and ineffective management in local subsidiaries and factories (Diefenbach, 2015; Fukushige & Spicer, 2007, 2011; Ge et al., 2022; Oudhuis & Olsson, 2015; Witt & Stahl, 2016).

## **Problem Statement**

The competencies required for global leadership have been categorized, and the methods to develop them have also been suggested by many researchers (Anderson-Meger & Dixon, 2019; Azeredo & Henriqson, 2023; Herd et al., 2016; Jörg et al., 2022; Lyubovnikova et al., 2015; Parish, 2016; Passarelli et al., 2018; Reiche et al., 2017; Sroufe et al., 2015; Walker, 2018; Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017; Zimmerman, 2015). However, it is not known which competencies of global leadership Japanese business leaders find difficult to develop or which approaches are suited to them (Lilleboe, 2022). By clarifying the gap in GLD between the Western-based approaches and those more preferred by the Japanese, Japanese corporations may be able to develop their global leaders more effectively and efficiently and satisfy their requirements for conducting global business.

## **Purpose of Research**

The purpose of this study was to find out which competencies of the global mindset Japanese business leaders find challenging to develop and explore how such competencies can be acquired or developed. Consideration of the background factors unique to Japanese business cultures and comparing them with Western approaches was done by examining the experience of globally minded Japanese business leaders in the acquisition of their GLCs. The findings of this study may be replicated for developing future global business leaders of Japanese corporations.

## **Theoretical Framework**

A theoretical framework is “the foundation from which all knowledge is constructed, (metaphorically and literally) for a research study. It serves as the structure



and support for the rationale for the study, the problem statement, the purpose, the significance, and the research questions” (Grant & Osanloo, 2014, p. 12). Theoretical frameworks are used for both quantitative and qualitative studies, and for a qualitative research study such as this study that attempts to gather detailed information through interviews and develop certain patterns or generalizations through an inductive process, a theoretical framework works as a guide to compare and contrast the outcome of the research with existing understanding of the field (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The inductive logic of research in a qualitative study works as follows:

- Researcher gathers information through interviews and observations;
- Researcher asks open-ended questions of participants or records field notes;
- Researcher analyzes data to form themes or categories;
- Researcher looks for broad patterns, generalizations, or theories from themes or categories; and
- Researcher poses generalizations or theories from past experiences and literature (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

The scope of this research was limited to the development of the global mindset defined by Javidan and Bowen (2013) among the many GLCs identified and categorized by scholars (Bird, 2018; Cumberland et al., 2016; Kim & McLean, 2015). Table 1 shows the framework of GLCs by Bird (2018). Global mindset is one of the two dimensions of the 15 competencies that are unique to global leadership; the other one is cross-cultural communication, which includes foreign language proficiencies and would require a totally different research argument. Therefore, this study focused on the development of the global mindset.

**Table 1***Framework of Nested Global Leadership Competencies*

| <i>Business &amp; Organizational Acumen</i> | <i>Managing People &amp; Relationships</i> | <i>Managing Self</i> |
|---|--|----------------------|
| Vision & Strategic Thinking                 | Valuing People                             | Inquisitiveness      |
| Leading Change                              | Cross-cultural Communication               | Global Mindset       |
| Business Savvy                              | Interpersonal Skills                       | Flexibility          |
| Organizational Savvy                        | Teaming Skills                             | Character            |
| Managing Communities                        | Empowering Others                          | Resilience           |

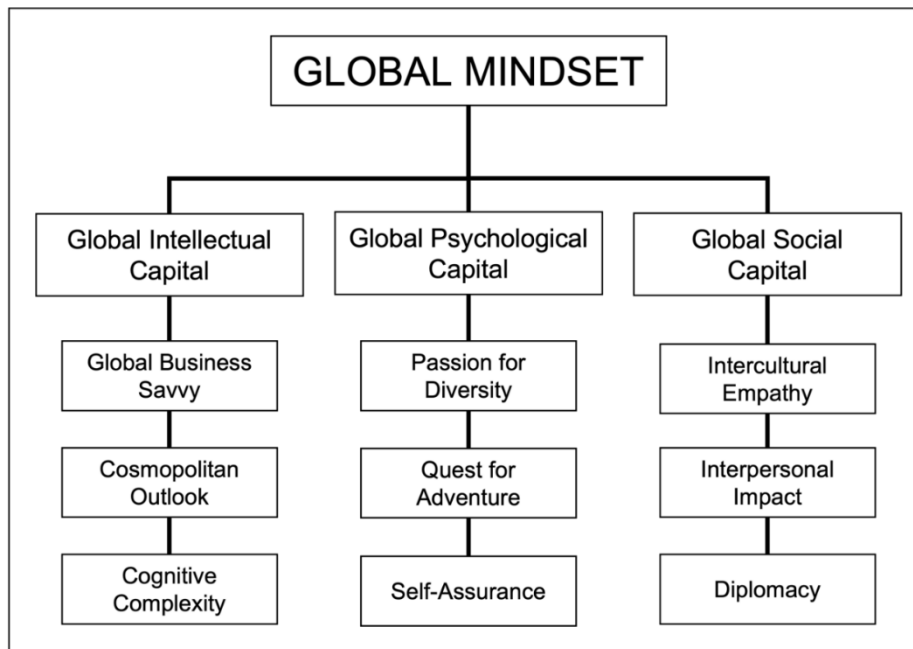
*Note.* From “Mapping the Content Domain of Global Leadership Competencies,” by A. Bird, 2018, p. 139, in *Global Leadership: Research, Practice, and Development* (3rd ed.), Routledge.

Figure 1 shows the structure of the global mindset by Javidan and Bowen (2013). This model is a product of the research project carried out at Thunderbird School of Global Management, Arizona State University, from 2004 to 2010. The model defines a global mindset using three core *capitals*, or metacompetencies: global intellectual capital, global psychological capital, and global social capital. Each capital comprises three competencies. Global intellectual capital consists of cosmopolitan outlook, global business savvy, and cognitive complexity. Global psychological capital consists of passion for diversity, quest for adventure, and self-assurance. Global social capital consists of intercultural empathy, interpersonal impact, and diplomacy. The definitions and details of each capital and competency are explained in Chapter 2.

The other theoretical framework used in this work of research is the global leadership development ecosystem (GLDE) model by Walker (2018), as shown in Figure 2. The GLDE model was developed on the foundation of Javidan and Bowen’s (2013) structure of global mindset and three learning methodology theories: cognitive learning, social learning, and humanist learning, which in a broad sense is experiential learning.

**Figure 1**

*The Structure of Global Mindset*



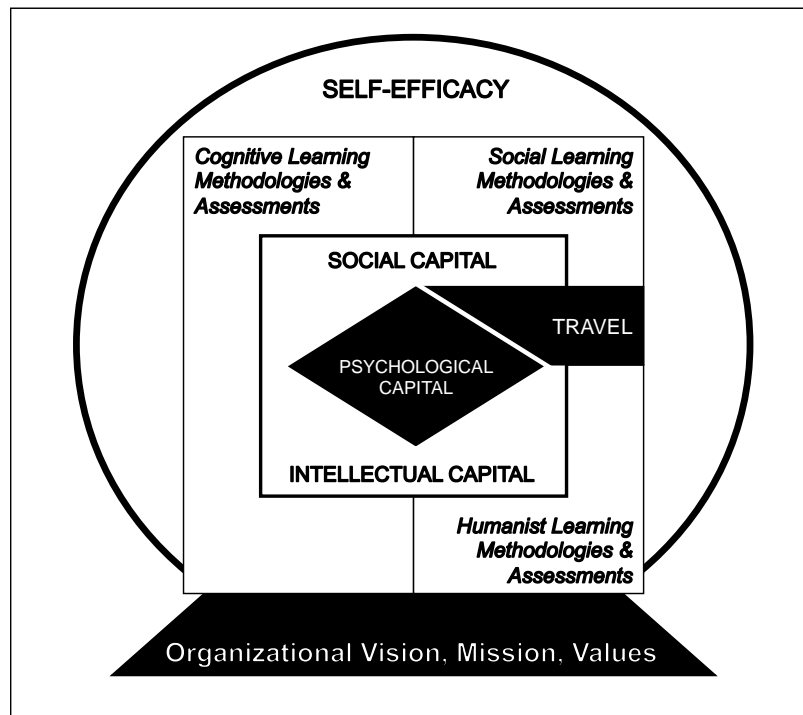
*Note.* From “The ‘Global Mindset’ of Managers: What It Is, Why It Matters, and How to Develop It,” by M. Javidan and D. Bowen, 2013, *Organizational Dynamics*, 42(2), p. 147 (<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2013.03.008>).

Walker (2018) identified self-efficacy as the factor that encompasses the entire model because it “has strong positive correlations with all elements of the model; it is the glue that makes the model cohesive” (p. 259). Walker even asserted that it is how to develop self-efficacy in global leadership that really matters rather than how to develop competencies of global leadership. Travel represents a bridge between self-efficacy and both social capital and psychological capital. It is positioned between the humanist (or experiential) and social learning methodologies as the element that connects the two. Finally, the model is supported by organizational vision, mission, and values based on the findings by Development Dimensions International (2009), the professional training organization, that when a leadership skill development program is aligned with the

organization's business priorities, it can be twice as effective as those that are designed without alignment. The GLDE model was used as the link between the GLCs described by the structure of global mindset and learning methods and approaches that would be suitable for Japanese GLD.

**Figure 2**

*Global Leadership Development Ecosystem Model*



*Note.* From “Do Methods Matter in Global Leadership Development? Testing the Global Leadership Development Ecosystem Conceptual Model,” by J. L. Walker, 2018, *Journal of Management Education*, 42(2), p. 261 (<https://doi.org/10.1177/1052562917734891>).

## Research Questions

Corbin and Strauss (2015) stated that research questions in a qualitative study should be broad enough to allow a researcher to explore the issues related to the problem with sufficient flexibility and freedom. The authors also suggested that the research questions should not be too broad so that the risk of seeking unlimited possibilities can be

minimized. This is due to the nature of a qualitative study being to generate a hypothesis, but that of a quantitative study is to test a hypothesis.

In line with the purpose of this qualitative study, the research questions were formulated as follows:

1. Which competencies of the structure of global mindset do Japanese business leaders find indispensable when they work outside Japan?
2. Which competencies of the structure of global mindset do Japanese business leaders find challenging to develop?
3. How did the Japanese business leaders with a high level of global mindset develop such competencies?
4. How can the findings of this research be implemented in GLD programs for Japanese MNEs?

### **Definitions of Key Terms**

Key terms and concepts used in this study, which provide the scope of the research, are as follows.

**Competency.** Specific knowledge, skills, and characteristics an employee must have to be effective on the job. Competency includes observable components such as abilities and skills, as well as less observable ones such as aptitudes and values (Lucia & Lepsinger, 1999). Different sets of competencies are required for different types of jobs, and competencies for global jobs are also different from those for domestic positions (Kim & McLean, 2015).

**Cross-cultural communication.** An individual's effectiveness in drawing upon a set of knowledge, skills, and personal attributes to work successfully with people from

different national cultural backgrounds at home or abroad (Johnson et al., 2006). Cross-cultural communication naturally involves using foreign languages as a medium for exchanging ideas. Communicating in English is a major struggle for Japanese business leaders, which stems from Japan's historical isolationism, education system, and English educational policies and classroom teaching practices that eventually resulting in poor speakers of English (Nuttall, 2019).

**Cultural intelligence.** A framework that is used to view and understand people from different cultures. It is a type of competency that gives a person perspectives to be mindful of cultural diversity, paradigms, and assumptions behind their thoughts and behaviors (Masakowski, 2018). Moreover, cultural intelligence allows one to understand and adjust to new cultures that are not their own (Peng, 2018). Cultural intelligence is often expressed in the acronym CQ, which stands for cultural quotient.

**Experiential learning.** Experiential learning, often interchangeably referred to as humanist learning, is the process of learning through experience; more precisely, it places emphasis on reflection at the point of experiential stages. A person's learning occurs through four distinctive, circular modes: (a) feeling, (b) watching, (c) thinking, and (d) doing. When the person experiences something new, unlearning occurs to change their paradigm and their behaviors (Kolb, 1984; Peterson et al., 2015).

**Formal learning.** Formal learning, which is also called cognitive learning, is a traditional style of teaching that includes reading, lectures, and analyzing case studies and research materials for discussion (Walker, 2018). The formal learning style of pedagogy is rapidly changing by incorporating new methods and technologies, which include

design thinking, action learning, internal and external collaborative projects, cotaught classes, online teaching, and classes using virtual reality.

**Global mindset.** According to Javidan and Bowen (2013), “The set of individual qualities and attributes that help a manager influence individuals, groups and organizations who are from other parts of the world” (p. 147). Global mindset and cultural intelligence are similar concepts, but they have different notions in application. Cultural intelligence is a competency of understanding others from different cultures, and a global mindset denotes how one views the world from strategic and managerial points of view (Andresen & Bergdolt, 2017).

**Global Mindset Inventory (GMI).** A psychometric assessment tool invented by Thunderbird School of Global Management, Arizona State University (TSGM). The GMI is a 10-min web-based survey with 82 questions that measure the level of the global mindset of individuals and groups to predict their performance in global leadership. It was developed by eight Thunderbird professors, in collaboration with other eminent scholars in the global leadership field, by interviewing over 200 global executives and rigorously testing the pilot program with over 1,000 global managers (TSGM, n.d.).

**Multinational enterprise (MNE).** Corporations that operate in a number of countries and regions in which both the headquarter and international subsidiaries play an equally important role in management and operations (Dymitrowski & Ratajczak-Mrozek, 2019). MNEs, which are also called multinational corporations (MNCs), engage in FDI by directly investing in other countries and managing business activities there. Corporations that only export products without setting up local subsidiaries are engaged in international business, but they are not considered MNEs (Peng, 2018).

**Social learning.** Social learning theory, based on the social cognitive theory advocated by Bandura (1986), posits that learning occurs as a consequence of dynamic and bidirectional influences through interactions with persons, behavior, and the environment (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

### **Significance of Study**

I am a management consultant specializing in the development of global business leaders. My clientele includes many of Japan's blue-chip MNEs, and I am also engaged in a GLD program of a graduate school of management in Japan. The outcome of this study would provide guidance and methodologies not only to my clients and students but also to other Japanese MNEs in reconsidering and improving their GLD policies and approaches. By doing so, their investments in learning and education would be better utilized at the time of the economic difficulty caused by the COVID-19 pandemic.

### **Summary**

The need for global leadership to drive the business of Japanese corporations is very high (JETRO, 2020). This study explored what competencies of the global mindset Japanese business leaders should develop and how it can be done by looking at the past approaches and the future requirements of GLD. To compare and contrast the research outcome based on the past Western GLD models and this study based on the Japanese samples, a review of literature is conducted in the next chapter.



## CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this study was to find out which competencies of the global mindset Japanese business leaders find challenging to develop and explore how such competencies can be acquired or developed. The discussion of GLD has to be placed within the large body of literature on global leadership competencies (GLCs) and how they can be developed (Anderson-Meger & Dixon, 2019; Azeredo & Henriqson, 2023; Herd et al., 2016; Jörg et al., 2022; Kossek et al., 2017; Parish, 2016; Reiche et al., 2017; Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017). GLD is not a distinctly independent field of research, but it consists of several different concepts in the field of human resources development (HRD). They are

- definitions of global leadership,
- competencies of leadership in general,
- competencies unique to global leadership, and
- GLD methodology and practice (Mendenhall et al., 2017).

This literature review delineates the progression of studies of GLD in each component in an attempt to identify concepts of GLD, followed by factors unique to Japanese business leadership.

### **Global Leadership as an Emergent Concept**

Global leadership is a combined concept of global business and leadership; however, these research fields developed independently until the late 1980s. Scholars were studying leadership from different perspectives, but their research remained predominantly domestic; American scholars studied American leaders, and British scholars studied British leaders (Mendenhall, 2018). In the 1980s, when European and

Japanese researchers started to contribute to this academic research field as businesses from these regions emerged with a greater impact on the world economy, the study of global leadership as a unified term spread across the world. Contributions to academic journals today include many by Chinese and Middle Eastern scholars as well (Mendenhall, 2018).

As the field of study of leadership developed internationally, it became apparent that conventional leadership models, that is, Anglo-Saxon leadership approaches, cannot necessarily be applied to other parts of the world, nor can the nature of global leaders' work be regarded as the same as that of domestic leaders (Huesing & Ludema, 2017; Jörg et al., 2022; Osland, 2018). Hence, it became imperative to distinguish the concept of global leadership from conventional Anglo-Saxon models and to redefine a new model applicable to organizations with different cultural backgrounds. Scholars did exactly that, and conventional leadership theories developed into global leadership theories. Such leadership theories include the following:

- the trait theory, which states that leaders are different from nonleaders by nature in terms of their intelligence, integrity, and personality;
- the leadership style theory, which states that leadership is dependent on how leaders act, such as democratic, autocratic, task-oriented, or people-oriented;
- the contingency theory, which focuses on circumstances and states that effective leadership is dependent on the situation and not driven by a certain style or pattern of leadership;
- the leader-member exchange theory, which states that leadership is a result of the quality of the relationship between the leader and the follower; and

- the transformational leadership theory, which states that good leadership is determined by how followers are influenced and changed by placing trust in their leader (Bolman & Deal, 2017).

These theories emphasize a particular perspective of leadership, but altogether they indicate that there are three fundamental elements in leadership: characteristics of the leader, characteristics of the follower, and characteristics of the situation (Yukl & Uppal, 2017). These fundamental elements—the leader, the follower, and the situation—are significantly different in the context of global business or global management (House et al., 2004; Jörg et al., 2022; Yukl & Uppal, 2017). Therefore, issues more pertinent to global leadership need to be discussed separately.

### **Concepts of Global Leadership**

In addition to the leader, the follower, and the situational factors of leadership, the concept of global leadership involves issues of different values, beliefs, and expectations that come from different backgrounds (Yukl & Uppal, 2017). The discussion of global leadership requires a distinct approach by taking those unique issues into consideration. In particular, it is critical to have a clear image of a global leader. Without it, it would be difficult to consider how such a person can be produced through education and training or by recruiting individuals who already possess the competencies required for effective global leadership.

### **Definitions of Global Leadership**

Many scholars have attempted to define global leadership over the years. One of the earliest studies was by Spreitzer et al. (1997), which defined an international executive as “an executive who is in a job with an international scope, whether in an

expatriate assignment or in a job dealing with international issues more generally” (p. 7). Petrick et al. (1999) stated, “Global strategic leadership ... consists of the individual and collective competence in style and substance to envision, formulate, and implement strategies that enhance global reputation and produce sustainable competitive advantage for the firm” (p. 58). Caligiuri (2006) defined global leaders as “executives who are in jobs with some international scope [and] must effectively manage through the complex, changing, and often ambiguous global environment” (p. 219). These descriptions were derived from either or both the state of leadership and the process of leadership. However, they were not rigorous enough to be used as a definition of global leadership (Osland, 2018). So scholars in later years paid more attention to the word global.

### **Complexity, Flow, and Presence of a Global Leader**

In their seminal article, Mendenhall et al. (2013) discussed the definition of global in global leadership. They posited that the preceding discussions of global leadership lacked a clear definition of the concept of global, which had led to producing many different images of a global leader. The article focused on the three unique dimensions of being global: complexity, flow, and presence.

Mendenhall et al. (2013) stated that complexity refers to the environment in which global leaders operate. They face factors such as geographically spread markets, multifunctional activities, and multiple product lines, targeted at different customer segments. Flow refers to the relational dimension of leadership in which global leaders are required to cross many boundaries of languages, cultures, religions, and political or legal systems. Last, presence refers to the geographical, cultural, and national boundaries

a leader is required to cross physically, not only by using telecommunication technologies.

Mendenhall et al. (2012) concluded by proposing the following definition of a global leader: “An individual who inspires a group of people to willingly pursue a positive vision in an effectively organized fashion while fostering individual and collective growth in a context characterized by significant levels of complexity, connectivity, and presence” (p. 500). This definition was more precise and concrete. However, it was still no more than a general statement, and a more practical approach was needed.

### **Typology of Global Leadership Roles**

Further analytical work was done by the same scholars 5 years later, proposing new definitions of a global leader in the form of typology (Reiche et al., 2017). The authors developed a matrix with two fundamental dimensions of task complexity and relationship complexity. In each quadrant sits a unique global leadership role with its typical role descriptions (Figure 3). The four types are all global leaders, but the scope of their tasks and the complexity of their relationship-building are very different.

This conceptual model by Reiche et al. (2017) effectively describes the images of global leaders in different positions. However, definitions and descriptions of global leadership do not indicate how one might be able to become such a global leader. The next section discusses what kind of mindsets and skills, or competencies, need to be developed to make one a competent global leader.

**Figure 3**

*A Typology of Global Leadership Roles*

|      |  |  |      |
|------|--|--|------|
| High | <b>CONNECTIVE global leadership</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• <i>Task</i>: Low levels of variety and flux</li><li>• <i>Relationship</i>: High number &amp; variation of boundaries and high levels of interdependence</li></ul> <i>Example role:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Leader of globally distributed team that handles firm's back office</li></ul>     | <b>INTEGRATIVE global leadership</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• <i>Task</i>: High levels of variety and flux</li><li>• <i>Relationship</i>: High number &amp; variation of boundaries and high levels of interdependence</li></ul> <i>Example role:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Senior executive of global multi-unit firm</li></ul>  |      |
|      | <b>INCREMENTAL global leadership</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• <i>Task</i>: Low levels of variety and flux</li><li>• <i>Relationship</i>: Low number &amp; variation of boundaries, and low levels of interdependence</li></ul> <i>Example role:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Export director in firm that operates internationally through licensing</li></ul> | <b>OPERATIONAL global leadership</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• <i>Task</i>: High levels of variety and flux</li><li>• <i>Relationship</i>: Low number &amp; variation of boundaries, and low levels of interdependence</li></ul> <i>Example role:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Leader of product development in firm that provides financial services to global customers</li></ul> |      |
| Low  | Task Complexity  |  | High |

*Note.* From “Contextualizing Leadership: A Typology of Global Leadership Roles,” by B. S. Reiche, A. Bird, M. E. Mendenhall, and J. S. Osland, 2017, *Journal of International Business Studies*, 48(5), p. 560 (<https://doi.org/10.1057/s41267-016-0030-3>).

### **Competencies of Global Leadership**

The research field of global leadership is relatively new. Numerous lists of competencies required of a global leader have been proposed, and the number of competencies has grown to be as many as 200 (Bird, 2018). Competency models had been well established for conventional leaders, but to produce a competency list for global leaders, many schools of thought had to contribute (Bird & Stevens, 2018). Over the years, efforts have been made to narrow the widely overlapping and semantically

separated competency elements. Alongside the increasingly refined definition of global leadership, competencies of global leadership have also been more clearly defined to date (Bird & Stevens, 2018).

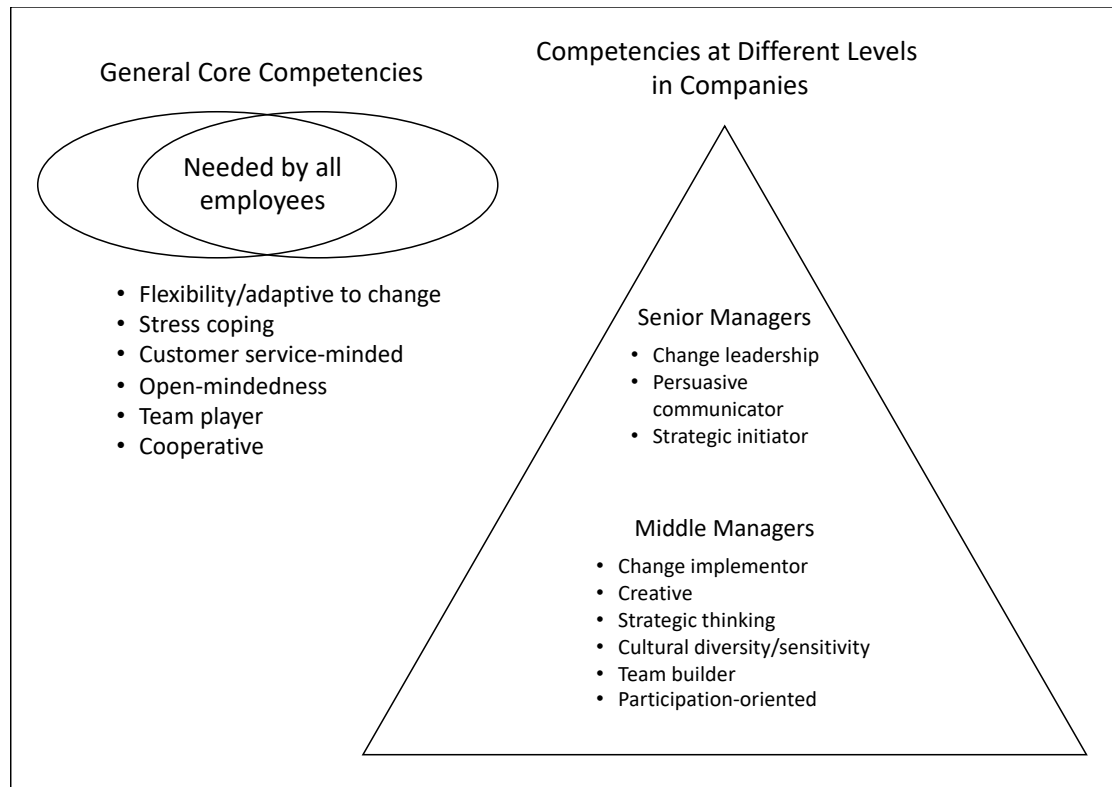
### **Competencies of General Leadership**

The competency theory was initially conceptualized by McClelland (1973) with his assertion against evaluating individual capabilities and emphasis on intelligence (Chow et al., 2017; McClelland, 1973; Winter, 1998). The significant contribution of the competency theory was that it made it clear that leadership capabilities can be developed through learning. By identifying a particular set of competencies, individuals or their employers can determine exactly what skills need to be developed or strengthened by training and education. Companies can also tailor their HRD requirements to align their employees' capabilities with their strategic goals. The competency theory drove the concept of leadership away from the conventional trait theory, which asserted that leaders were born to be leaders because they possess distinctive personal characteristics that make them leaders by nature (Bolman & Deal, 2017; Chow et al., 2017).

Many models have proposed diverse patterns of competencies applicable to different types of industries, jobs, and positions (Burack et al., 1997; Mello, 2015; Seemiller & Whitney, 2020). One of the classical studies was by Burack et al. (1997), and it presented a multilevel corporate competency model, as shown in Figure 4. The authors divided competencies into three levels: general core competencies, middle manager competencies, and senior manager competencies. This division was done by aligning core factors of human resources with the strategic objectives of an organization (Burack et al., 1997).

**Figure 4**

*Multilevel Corporate Competency Model*



*Note.* From “The New Management Development Paradigm,” E. H. Burack, W. Hochwarter, and N. J. Mathys, 1997, *Human Resource Planning*, 20(1), p. 19.

Further development was based on relatively simple models, like the one by Burack et al. (1997), to more complex ones with long lists of competency dimensions. One of the most recent works by Seemiller and Whitney (2020) categorized 60 leadership competencies in a five-tier taxonomy based on the level of complexity. The authors were concerned that there were too many models of leadership competencies, such as those for military leadership, student leadership, service leadership, and global leadership. Competencies for industries, on the other hand, included those for nursing, library science, information systems consulting, and higher education authorities (Seemiller & Whitney, 2020). The authors categorized 60 leadership competencies by using two



categorizations: the level of complexity and the nature of competency. Table 2 shows the result of their work, in which the level of complexity increases from Tier 1 (somewhat simple) to Tier 5 (considerably complex). The list is still extensive, but it would provide good guidance as to which tier future leaders should focus on for their self-training in light of their current capabilities and future development targets.

**Table 2**

*Competency Tiers and Categories*

|        | Intrapersonal Competencies  | Interpersonal Competencies  | Societal Competencies                                       | Strategic Competencies                                       |
|--------|---|---|---|--|
| Tier 5 | Responding to ambiguity<br>Responding to change<br>Resiliency   | Creating change<br>Power dynamics<br>Conflict negotiation<br>Supervision  | Social justice  | Systems thinking<br>Synthesis<br>Research<br>Decision making |
| Tier 4 | Ethics  | Organizational behavior<br>Facilitation<br>Providing feedback   | Inclusion   | Problem solving<br>Reflections and application               |
| Tier 3 | Receiving feedback<br>Scope of competence<br>Initiative<br>Self-understanding<br>Functioning independently<br>Personal values | Motivation<br>Group development<br>Others' contributions<br>Empowerment<br>Advocating for a point of view<br>Productive relationships<br>Empathy<br>Appropriate interaction<br>Mentoring<br>Writing | Social responsibility<br>Diversity<br>Others' circumstances | Analysis<br>Evaluation<br>Other perspectives                 |
| Tier 2 | Responsibility for personal behavior<br>Confidence  | Collaboration   |   | Vision   |
| Tier 1 | Follow-through<br>Personal contributions<br>Self-development<br>Positive attitude<br>Excellence                               | Verbal communication<br>Nonverbal communication<br>Listening<br>Helping others  | Service   | Mission<br>Idea generation<br>Plan<br>Organization<br>Goals  |

*Note.* From “Creating a Taxonomy of Leadership Competency Development,” by C. Seemiller and R. Whitney, 2020, *Journal of Leadership Education*, 19(1), p. 127.

### Competencies Unique to Global Leadership

Researchers and practitioners alike studied and proposed their own sets of leadership competencies, but they were mostly for leadership in general, or domestic leadership, because many did not necessarily take global into consideration (Caligiuri &

Tarique, 2009; Kim & McLean, 2015; Mendenhall & Bird, 2013; Park et al., 2017). As models of global leadership became more acknowledged, competencies uniquely pertinent to such roles have been developed and proposed. The typology of global leaders (Figure 4) by Reiche et al. (2017) was a prominent conceptual model that focused on the complexities that global leaders of multinational corporations (MNCs) face. As for those in the integrative global leadership category in the typology with high complexities of task and relationship, Reiche et al. (2017) emphasized

[they] need to reconcile and actively deal with potential trade-offs between maintaining legitimacy with an MNC's respective external constituents, including customers, governments and other constituents, and internal legitimacy in terms of the acceptance and approval of an organizational unit by specific constituents in other parts of the organization. (p. 563)

Therefore, such leaders must have competencies to cope with such a high demand for leadership effectiveness in the realm of global business.

Reiche et al. (2017), however, did not provide any competency requirements for their global leadership models. Discussed in the following subsections are three competency models pertinent to global leadership. They are global leadership traits (Cumberland et al., 2016), integrative framework for global leadership competency (Kim & McLean, 2015), and framework of nested global leadership competencies (Bird, 2018). They are works of compilation or categorization and not empirical studies, but they indicate how complex the realm of GLC is.

### ***Global Leadership Traits***

Cumberland et al. (2016), based on preceding studies by Kowske and Anthony (2007) and Agrawal and Rook (2014), compiled a list of 17 GLCs. Figure 5 shows them in alphabetical order because the authors did not list them in categories. Moreover, many traits overlap with those listed for domestic leadership competencies.

**Figure 5**

#### ***Global Leadership Traits***

| Global Leadership Traits     |   |  |
|------------------------------|---|--|
| Adaptability;<br>Flexibility | Inquisitiveness;<br>Curiosity   | Self-efficacy;<br>Self-confidence                  |
| Agreeableness                | Open-mindedness;<br>Nonjudgementalness;<br>Low ethnocentric attitudes | Stability;<br>Stress tolerance;<br>Low neuroticism |
| Conscientiousness            | Openness to experience  | Tolerance for ambiguity                            |
| Cultural sensitivity         | Optimism  | Tenacity   |
| Emotional intelligence       | Resilience  | Values;<br>Integrity;<br>Character                 |
| Extroversion;<br>Sociability | Self-awareness  |  |

*Note.* Adapted from “Assessment and Development of Global Leadership Competencies in the Workplace: A Review of Literature,” by D. M. Cumberland, D. M., Herd, A. M., Alagaraja, M., and Kerrick, S., 2016, *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 18(3), 301–317 (<https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422316645883>).

### ***Integrative Framework for Global Leadership Competency***

Kim and McLean (2015) undertook a study to analyze GLC models in the peer-reviewed literature from 2000 to 2014. The authors categorized diverse competencies into three levels and four clusters of dimensions based on theoretical foundations. The three

levels are core traits, personal character; and ability. The four dimension clusters are intercultural, interpersonal, global business, and global organizational, and the fifth cluster was designated other for residual items that could not be categorized in any of the four major clusters. Table 3 shows the results of their analysis (without the other cluster they omitted). The Big Five temperaments in the core traits level consist of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness (Caligiuri, 2006).

**Table 3**

*Integrative Framework for Global Leadership Competency*

|        | Global Leadership Competency | Dimensions  |                                    |                                      |  |
|--------|------------------------------|---|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
|        |                              | Intercultural   | Interpersonal                      | Global Business                      | Global Organizational                      |
| Levels | Core Traits                  | Personality traits including motivation and the Big Five temperaments |                                    |                                      |  |
|        | Personal Character           | Self-concept, attitudes, values, and global perspectives/mindsets     |                                    |                                      |  |
|        | Ability                      | Intercultural knowledge and skills                                    | Interpersonal knowledge and skills | Global business knowledge and skills | Global organizational knowledge and skills |

*Note.* From “An integrative Framework for Global Leadership Competency: Levels and Dimensions,” by J. Kim and G. N. McLean, 2015, *Human Resource Development International*, 18(3), p. 250 (<https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2014.1003721>).

***Framework of Nested Global Leadership Competencies***

The third major compilation work of GLCs was by Bird (2018). He analyzed theoretical and empirical studies published from 1993 to 2016 and aggregated the original set of 200 competencies into 15 concepts, five each in three broad categories: business and organizational acumen, managing people and relationships, and managing self. Table 1 (repeated here for ease of reference) shows the results of Bird’s aggregation.

**Table 1***Framework of Nested Global Leadership Competencies*

| <i>Business &amp; Organizational Acumen</i> | <i>Managing People &amp; Relationships</i> | <i>Managing Self</i> |
|---|--|----------------------|
| Vision & Strategic Thinking                 | Valuing People                             | Inquisitiveness      |
| Leading Change                              | Cross-cultural Communication               | Global Mindset       |
| Business Savvy                              | Interpersonal Skills                       | Flexibility          |
| Organizational Savvy                        | Teaming Skills                             | Character            |
| Managing Communities                        | Empowering Others                          | Resilience           |

*Note.* From “Mapping the Content Domain of Global Leadership Competencies,” by A. Bird, 2018, p. 139, in *Global Leadership: Research, Practice, and Development* (3rd ed.), Routledge.

Different sets of competencies are required for leadership in general, or domestic leadership, and global leadership (Bird & Stevens, 2018; Kim & McLean, 2015; Mendenhall, 2018; Walker, 2018). The aforementioned three conceptual models propose diversified sets of competencies, but many are also applicable to domestic leaders. Categories or competencies that are distinctively applicable to the global setting are cultural sensitivity, intercultural dimension, global business dimension, global organizational dimension, cross-cultural communication, and global mindset (Bird & Stevens, 2018; Kim & McLean, 2015). The next section discusses the main construct of global leadership: the global mindset.

### **Global Mindset**

Based on the framework of nested GLCs (Bird, 2018), a global mindset is one of the two major components unique to global leadership, the other being cross-cultural communication. Javidan and Bowen (2013) defined a global mindset as “the set of individual qualities and attributes that help managers influence individuals, groups and organizations who are from other parts of the world” (p. 147). This mindset is critically

indispensable for managers, as well as entrepreneurs, in order for them to perform well in international businesses (Azeredo & Henriqson, 2023, Felício et al., 2016; Goxe & Belhoste, 2019; Javidan & Bowen, 2013; Jiang et al., 2018; Kyvik, 2018; Lazaris & Freeman, 2018). The construct of a global mindset and its application, however, varies depending on the situation. Discussed in the following section are notions similar to the global mindset, which may distinctively illustrate the concept of a global mindset, and also how the global mindset impacts different types of organizations in global business.

### **Global Mindset: What It Is**

One of the early and seminal studies of the global mindset was by Levy et al. (2007). It provided the definition of the global mindset in two primary dimensions: cosmopolitanism and cognitive complexity. Cosmopolitanism is a cultural dimension, and it is “a state of mind that is manifested as an orientation toward the outside, the Other, which seeks to reconcile the global and the local and mediate between the familiar and the foreign” (Levy et al., 2007, p. 240). The other element, cognitive complexity, is a strategic dimension that signifies “the degree of differentiation, articulation, and integration within a cognitive structure ... to simultaneously balance the often contradictory demands of global integration with local responsiveness” (pp. 242–243). The authors, however, did not address issues such as the difference between a global mindset and cultural intelligence (CQ) and how a global mindset may be developed. Cosmopolitanism and cognitive complexity did not describe the concept of a global mindset, nor was it used as a basis for developing this concept.

In terms of the difference between a global mindset and CQ, which are different in nature but often used interchangeably, Andresen and Bergdolt (2017) undertook a

systematic literature review by addressing and differentiating the components that form these near-identical concepts. The authors concluded that a global mindset is a competency required in highly cultural situations in which managers have to make well-founded, strategic decisions to cope with such complex environments. CQ, on the other hand, is a competency required in simpler cross-cultural situations in which an understanding of a culturally complex environment and the cross-cultural skills to cope with it are required. A global mindset is a prerequisite for senior global managers who make corporate- and strategic-level cross-border decisions based on a worldwide view. This is not necessarily the case for those at the operations level who are only required to satisfactorily cope with individual situations they face using their CQ such as speaking a foreign language (Andresen & Bergdolt, 2017).

Goxe and Belhoste (2019) proposed the notion of a global mindset from a different perspective. The authors defined a global mindset not only as a state of mind but also as a process of recognition, and they assert that the latter can be used as an instrument of discrimination. A global mindset as a state of mind is a traditional concept, which is explained as one of the attributes of global leaders. On the other hand, a global mindset can trigger actions to demonstrate the balance of power among actors from different cultures. Thus, the authors described the global mindset as “a double-edged concept: it is not solely an instrument for achieving integration but also one used to discriminate against and reject newcomers to an international business community” ( p. 618). Their research revealed that whereas respondents acknowledged the importance of uniting people of different cultures, they also showed stereotypes of foreign cultures as undesirable environments; for example, “Americans are always like that; there’s no way

we can persuade them” or “Chinese people are so different; we can’t make true partnership with them.” This type of global mindset, which is seen as a competency to understand people from other cultures and make well-founded strategic decisions to cope with complex situations, is contrary to the way it was described in earlier studies.

The research by Stürmer et al. (2013) may support the notion that a global mindset can have a favorable or unfavorable impact on one’s cross-cultural paradigm. The authors studied xenophilia, or love of the stranger, and confirmed significant positive relationships between major personality traits, such as honesty, humility, emotionality, extraversion, and openness, and favorable attitudes toward contacting immigrants. There are people who feel less favorable or sometimes even afraid of foreign people and cultures, which is called xenophobia. Research has found that xenophobic persons tend to make a quick and less favorable judgment of others who do not belong to their ethnic group (Brandenstein et al., 2019; Peterie & Neil, 2020). Xenophobic experiences at any stage of life can remain for a very long time unless the person is given well-organized and affectionate support to minimize the impact of such experiences (Humpage, 2020; McCorkle, 2018; Miklikowska et al., 2019; Peterie & Neil, 2020). A global mindset is indeed a “double-edged concept” (Goxe & Belhoste, 2019, p. 618), but what is required for global leadership is a positive state of mind that recognizes cultural differences without bias and willingly embraces people and actions with different cultural backgrounds.

A global mindset, as a tool to coordinate and balance different cultures for better strategic decision making, is regarded as an indispensable element for managers not only of multinational enterprises (MNEs) but also of small- and medium-sized enterprises



(SMEs) although in different ways (Felício et al., 2016; Goxe & Belhoste, 2019; Lazaris & Freeman, 2018; Walker, 2018). Felício et al. (2016) studied the relationship between global mindset at the individual level and the corporate level. The authors found that in SMEs, individual and corporate global mindsets are more strongly tied to each other than they are in MNEs. Lazaris and Freeman (2018) perused the notions of cosmopolitanism and cognitive complexity of the global mindset that had been proposed by Levy et al. (2007). The authors found that the two dimensions play distinctive roles in SMEs, as opposed to the cases of MNEs discussed by preceding literature (Andresen & Bergdolt, 2017; Bird, 2018; Javidan & Bowen, 2013; Levy et al., 2007). In line with the research by Felício et al. (2016), the global mindset at the individual level has more impact on the global mindset at the corporate level in SMEs. Lazaris and Freeman (2018) found that it is cosmopolitanism rather than cognitive complexity that plays a much bigger role in the internationalization of SMEs.

Leaders of SMEs who eagerly pursue internationalization of their business, particularly in an early stage of growth, do so mostly out of pure curiosity and passion for overseas opportunities and not because they know how to manage cross-cultural issues (Andresen & Bergdolt, 2017; Lazaris & Freeman, 2018). Having the competency of cognitive complexity helps at a later stage of business expansion, but it is cosmopolitanism that saliently drives the timing and speed of their early internationalization. Such leaders are willing to take risks and are prepared to learn from experience by doing business in a foreign environment even though they may have limited knowledge of the international business. This is different from the cases of MNEs, in which globalization is managed more systematically, and global mindsets at

the corporate and individual levels do not necessarily integrate with each other (Andresen & Bergdolt, 2017; Lazaris & Freeman, 2018).

### **Global Mindset Inventory**

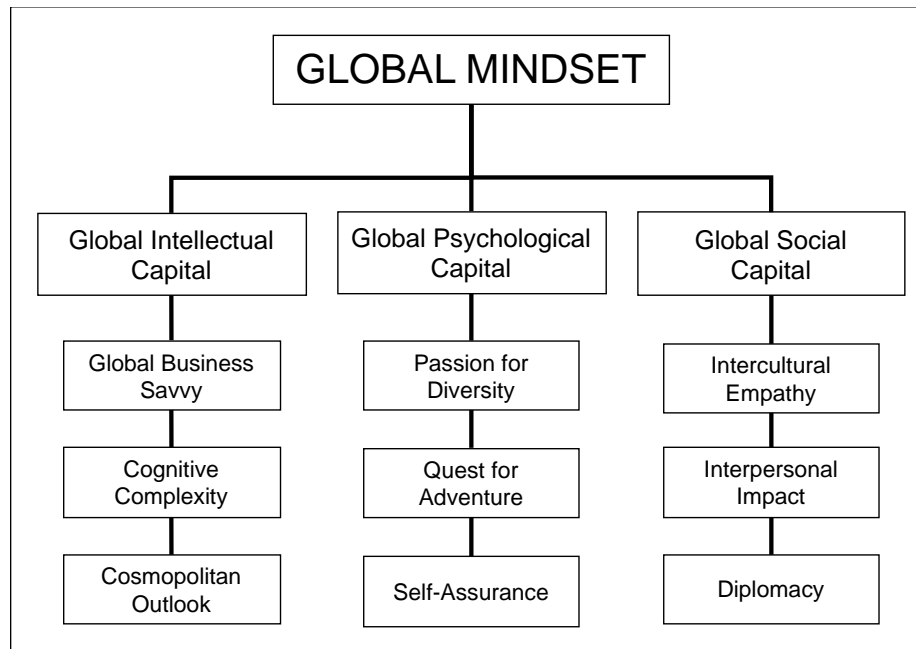
The most seminal work on global mindset is the global mindset inventory (GMI) advocated by Javidan and Bowen (2013). This significant and foundational piece of work was the product of the global mindset research project carried out at Thunderbird School of Global Management, Arizona State University (TSGM), from 2004 to 2010. The Thunderbird project team had six objectives to meet:

- Define *Global Mindset*,
- Identify the antecedents and consequences of Global Mindset,
- Develop metrics for measuring Global Mindset,
- Design scientifically based assessment tools for Global Mindset,
- Conduct large-scale validity studies of executives in large multinational corporations, and
- Design methodologies to enhance the Global Mindset of managers and executives. (Javidan et al., 2010, p. 8)

The GMI project researchers interviewed 217 senior international managers in over 20 cities around the world, analyzed data collected from over 6,000 respondents in 94 countries, and engaged in discussion with over 30 prominent scholars at an invitation-only special symposium. Pilot tests were conducted a number of times to screen and improve preliminary categorizations and definitions by scientific and rigorous approaches, which led to the creation of the GMI (Javidan et al., 2010). Figure 1 (repeated here for ease of reference) shows the structure of the GMI.

**Figure 1**

*The Structure of Global Mindset*



*Note.* From “The ‘Global Mindset’ of Managers: What It Is, Why It Matters, and How to Develop It,” by M. Javidan and D. Bowen, 2013, *Organizational Dynamics*, 42(2), p. 147 (<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2013.03.008>).

The GMI researchers defined global mindset using three core capitals, or metacompetencies: Global intellectual capital, global psychological capital, and global social capital. Three competencies are placed within each capital as subsets (Javidan & Bowen, 2013). Global intellectual capital is the cognitive component, which comprises three competencies: cosmopolitan outlook, global business savvy, and cognitive complexity. It identifies one’s “knowledge of and ability to understand international business, business processes, and the cultural underpinnings of multiple countries around the globe” (Javidan & Walker, 2013, p. 17). Global psychological capital is the affective component, which comprises passion for diversity, quest for adventure, and self-assurance. It refers to one’s “motives and values, and it reflects [their] willingness and

motivation to experience and to succeed in international settings” (p. 18). Global social capital is the behavioral component, which comprises intercultural empathy, interpersonal impact, and diplomacy. It reflects one’s “ability to interact appropriately in cultures around the world and affects [their] ability to build trusting relationships with individuals who are different from [them]” (p. 19). GMI is a robust model based on a global-wide sampling and rigorous analyses by prominent researchers of the field of GLD. Hence, it was used as a tool to screen the participants of this research study discussed in Chapter 3.

### **Culture And Leadership**

Culture, whether it be national or organizational, has a significant influence on the style and effectiveness of leadership (Bird, 2018; House et al., 2004; Javidan & Bowen, 2013; Mendenhall et al., 2017; Sadler & Hofstede, 1976; Walker, 2018). Good action of leadership in one culture may not be regarded as such in another, and even worse, it can be regarded as having an adverse effect. This section concisely reviews two prominent research works by Hofstede and the GLOBE project and discusses their implications for Japanese culture and leadership.

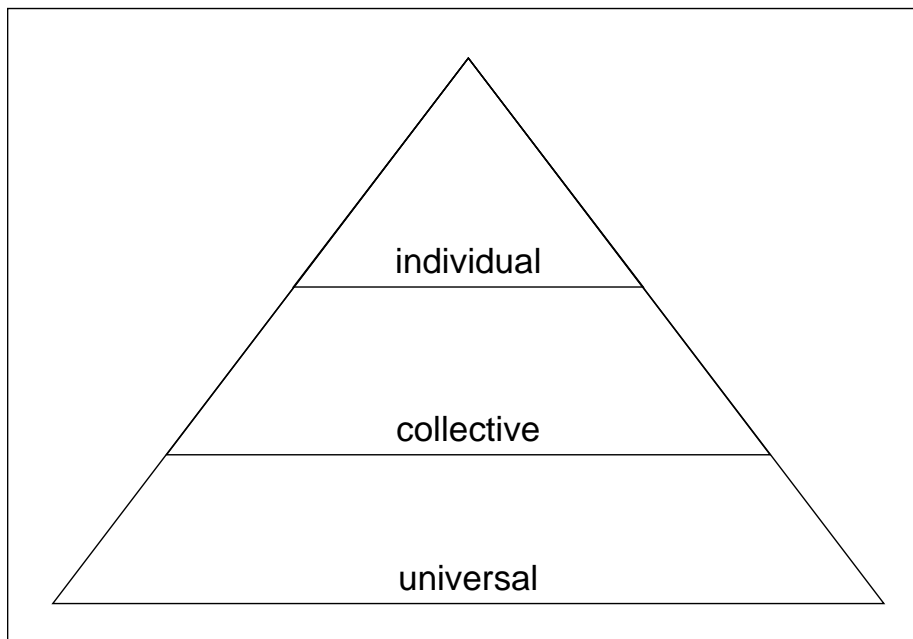
#### **Hofstede’s Cultural Dimension Theory**

Geert Hofstede is one of the earliest scholars who studied cross-cultural impacts on groups and organizations (de Mooij & Hofstede, 2010; Hofstede, 1980, 2004; Sadler & Hofstede, 1976). He applied a simple model shown in Figure 6 to explain that mental programming, or “software of the mind” as his book title indicates (Hofstede, 1991), is unique to individuals, but it also shares a lot of common ground within certain ethnicities or organizations. The universal level of mental programming is like an operating system

shared by most, if not all, humankind that includes behaviors such as laughing and weeping. The collective level is shared by those who belong to the same mental programming group, in which similar behaviors and attitudes can be observed toward the same human activities, such as communication and social affairs. The individual level of mental programming includes behaviors unique to each person, but whether a certain action is truly unique to the individual or it is heavily influenced by the culture they belong to is not always evident (Hofstede, 2001).

**Figure 6**

*Three Levels of Human Mental Programming*



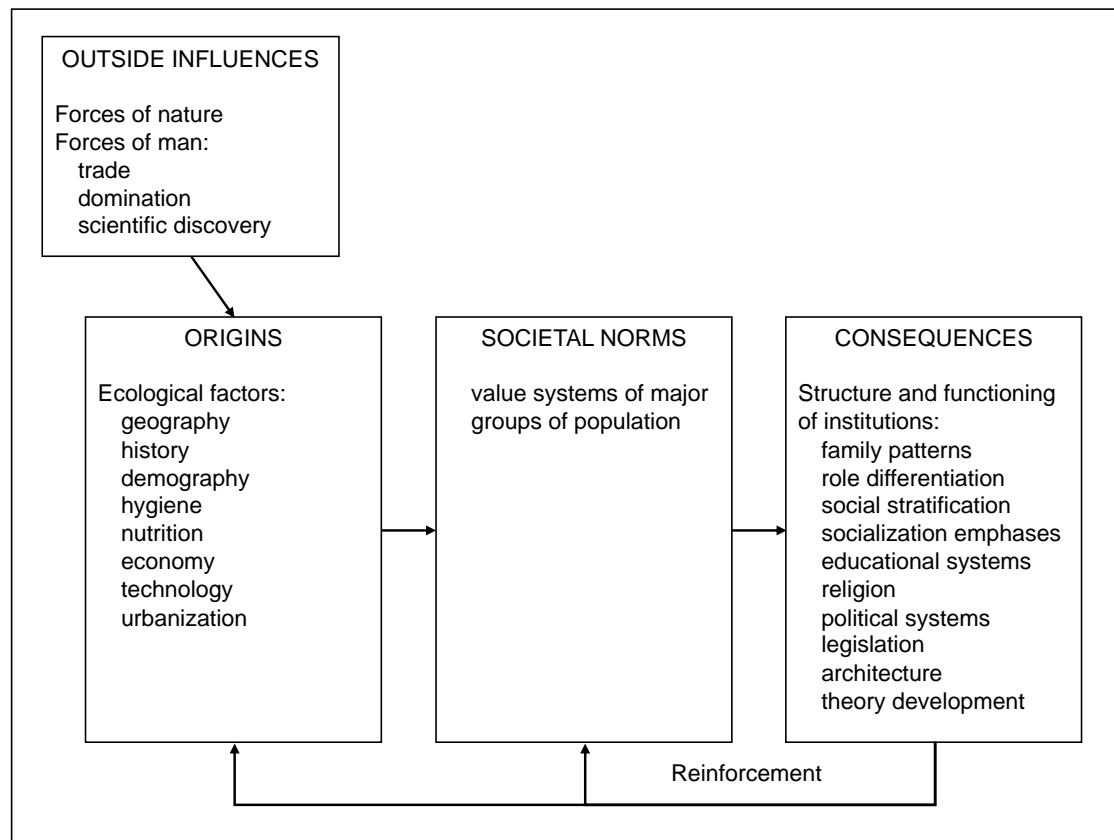
*Note.* From *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations* (2nd ed., p. 3), by G. Hofstede, 2001, Sage Publications.

The model in Figure 7 is Hofstede's (2001) description of how culture is transformed. Hofstede asserted that studying history is critical in understanding cultures because changes should come from outside in the form of forces of nature and forces of

human beings. Such changes have an impact on the origins first by shifting ecological factors and not directly on the societal norms. The consequences of such changes are the cultural patterns or unique behaviors within each culture.

**Figure 7**

*The Stabilizing of Culture Patterns*



*Note.* From *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations* (2nd ed., p. 12), by G. Hofstede, 2001, Sage Publications.

Hofstede (2001) subsequently undertook a research study on cultural dimensions based on the international employee attitude survey program at IBM between 1967 and 1973. More than 116,000 questionnaire answers were collected from 72 countries in 20 languages, and his statistical analysis focused on differences in employee values by

country. Hofstede's extensive research resulted in Hofstede's model, which comprises the five dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and collectivism, masculinity and femininity, and long- versus short-term orientation (Hofstede, 1980, 1991, 2001). Hofstede's model has been used widely as a basis for subsequent cross-cultural research studies, including the GLOBE study.

### **The GLOBE Study**

A monumental work of study was undertaken by leading researchers in the field of global leadership. It is called GLOBE, the acronym for Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness research program. The GLOBE study was a 10-year research project that analyzed quantitative data based on the sample of some 17,300 managers from 951 organizations working in 62 societies around the world (House et al., 2004). The purpose of the GLOBE study was to understand how culture influences leadership behaviors, attributes, and organizational practices. The project's findings were compiled into the 800-page book published in 2004, which was succeeded by two more volumes with different focus topics; the second publication focused on representative 25 societies for in-depth analyses (Chhokar et al., 2008), and the third one focused on CEO leadership behavior and effectiveness in 24 countries (House et al., 2014).

The GLOBE study team ran two pilot studies based on prior literature and a questionnaire with 735 items they developed. The project team then identified nine primary cultural attributes and six global leader behaviors of culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories through the analyses. The nine cultural attributes are uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation, and humane

orientation. Table 4 shows the definition of these cultural attributes or dimensions when they were used as independent variables in the quantitative research conducted by the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004). These cultural dimensions originate in those identified by Hofstede (1980), but the GLOBE team added or replaced certain concepts that would fit their new paradigm of analysis (House et al., 2004; Munley, 2011).

**Table 4**

*GLOBE Cultural Dimensions*

| <i>Dimension</i>           | <i>Definition</i>   |
|----------------------------|---|
| Uncertainty Avoidance      | The extent to which members of an organization or society strive to avoid uncertainty by relying on established social norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices.                                |
| Power Distance             | The degree to which members of an organization or society expect and agree that power should be stratified and concentrated at higher levels of an organization or government.                    |
| Institutional Collectivism | The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.  |
| In-Group Collectivism      | The degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families.  |
| Gender Egalitarianism      | The degree to which an organization or a society minimizes gender role differences while promoting gender equality.   |
| Assertiveness              | The degree to which individuals in organizations or societies are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in social relationships.   |
| Future Orientation         | The degree to which individuals in organizations or societies engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying individual or collective gratification. |
| Performance Orientation    | The degree to which an organization or a society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.   |
| Humane Orientation         | The degree to which individuals in organizations or societies encourage and reward individuals for being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring, and kind to others.                        |

*Note.* From *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies* (p. 30), by R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, and V. Gupta, 2004, Sage Publications.

The GLOBE team then identified 21 primary leader attributes or behaviors that were considered effective in leadership and eight factors as impediments to leader effectiveness (House et al., 2004). Thirty-five more attributes or behaviors were identified as culturally contingent factors, that is, contributors in some cultures but impediments in others. Finally, the six global leader behaviors were identified as the



cluster of leadership behaviors. They were charismatic/value-based leadership, team-oriented leadership, participative leadership, humane-oriented leadership, autonomous leadership, and self-protective leadership. Table 5 shows the descriptions and subscales that compose each dimension.

**Table 5**

*GLOBE Global Leader Behaviors*

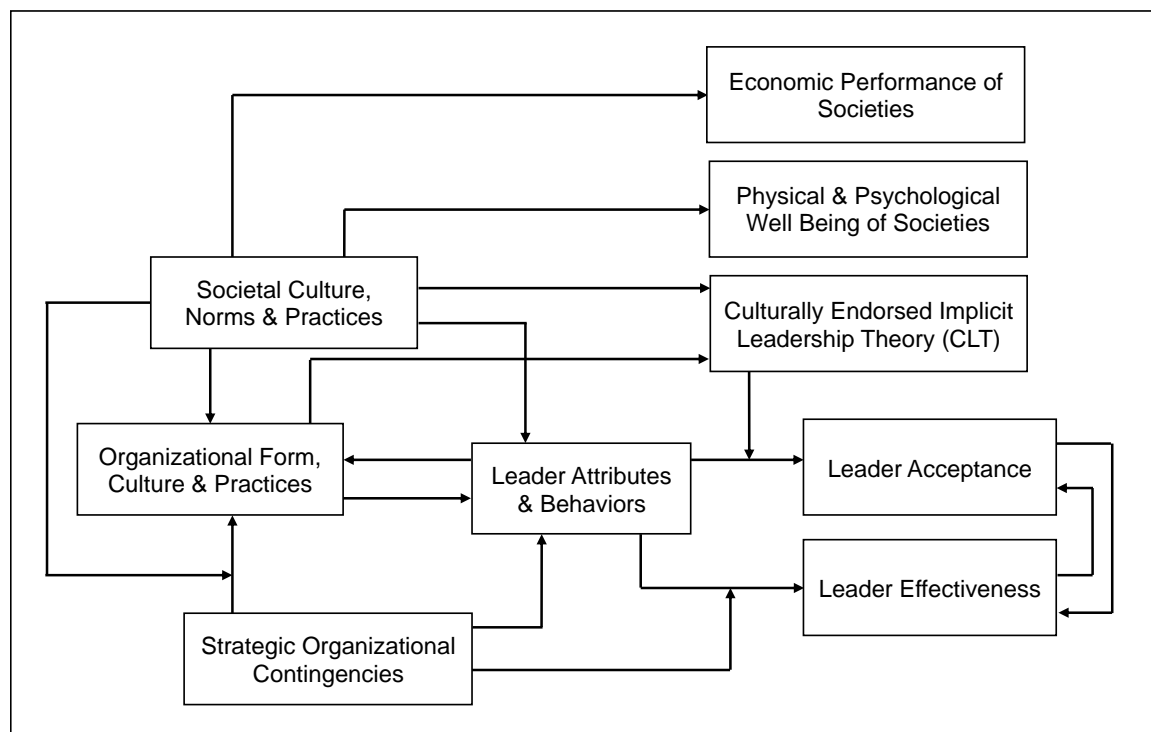
| Dimension                                 | Description  | Subscale  |
|---|--|---|
| Charismatic/<br>value-based<br>leadership | A broadly defined leadership dimension that reflects ability to inspire, to motivate, and to expect high performance outcomes based on firmly held core values | Visionary<br>Inspirational<br>Self-sacrifice<br>Integrity<br>Decisive<br>Performance oriented                                   |
| Team-oriented<br>leadership               | A leader's hip dimension that emphasizes effective team building and implementation of a common purpose of goal among team members                             | Collaborative team<br>orientation<br>Team integrator<br>Diplomatic<br>Malevolent (reverse scored)<br>Administratively competent |
| Participative<br>leadership               | A leader's hip dimension that reflects the degree to which managers involve others in making and implementing decisions  | Nonparticipative (reverse<br>scored)<br>Autocratic (reverse scored)   |
| Humane-<br>oriented<br>leadership         | A leader's hip dimension that reflects supportive and considerate leaders hip but also includes compassion and generosity                                      | Modesty<br>Humane orientation   |
| Autonomous<br>leadership                  | A newly defined leadership dimension that refers to independent and individualistic leadership attributes  | Autonomous leader's hip<br>(consisting of<br>individualistic,<br>independent,<br>autonomous, and unique<br>attributes)          |
| Self-protective<br>leadership             | A newly defined leadership behavior that focuses on ensuring the safety and security of the individual and group through status enhancement and face saving    | Self-centered<br>Status conscious<br>Conflict inducer<br>Face saver<br>Procedural   |

*Note.* Adapted from *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*, by R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, and V. Gupta, 2004, Sage Publications.

The GLOBE study team subsequently formed the integrated theory called GLOBE culturally endorsed implicit theory of leadership (CLT), which is an integration of implicit leadership theory, value-belief theory of culture, implicit motivation theory, and structural contingency theory of organizational form and effectiveness (House et al., 2004). Figure 8 shows the dynamics of CLT, which depicts how unique attributes and entities to a particular culture predict the characteristics and behaviors of leaders that are most frequently practiced and perceived to be effective in that culture (House et al., 2004).

**Figure 8**

*GLOBE Theoretical Model*



*Note.* From *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies* (p. 18), by R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, and V. Gupta, 2004, Sage Publications.

In effect, Figure 8 is an amplified version of Hofstede's (2001) model of stabilizing of culture patterns (Figure 7) with a focus on impacts on leadership. It starts from societal culture, norms & practices and explains how they impact factors such as leader attributes and behaviors, organizational form, culture, and practices, and eventually leader acceptance and leader effectiveness (House et al., 2004).

The objective of the GLOBE study was to identify relationships between the nine societal cultural dimensions and the societal and organizational leadership effectiveness of the participating cultures. The uniqueness of the GLOBE study was that it measured both cultural practices, which is the way things actually are, and values, which is the way respondents think things should be, in societies and organizations (House et al., 2004).

The GLOBE study's (House et al., 2004) empirical findings concluded that, out of the six global leader behaviors or dimensions, those that scored relatively higher were charismatic/value-based leadership (culture score of 4.5–6.5 on the 7-point response scale), team-oriented leadership (4.7–6.2 points), and participative leadership (4.5–6.1 points). The GLOBE team concluded that all cultures positively endorse these attributes. On the other hand, humane-oriented leadership (3.8–5.6 points), self-protective leadership (2.5–4.6 points), and autonomous leadership (2.3–4.7 points) are regarded as more culturally contingent (House et al., 2004).

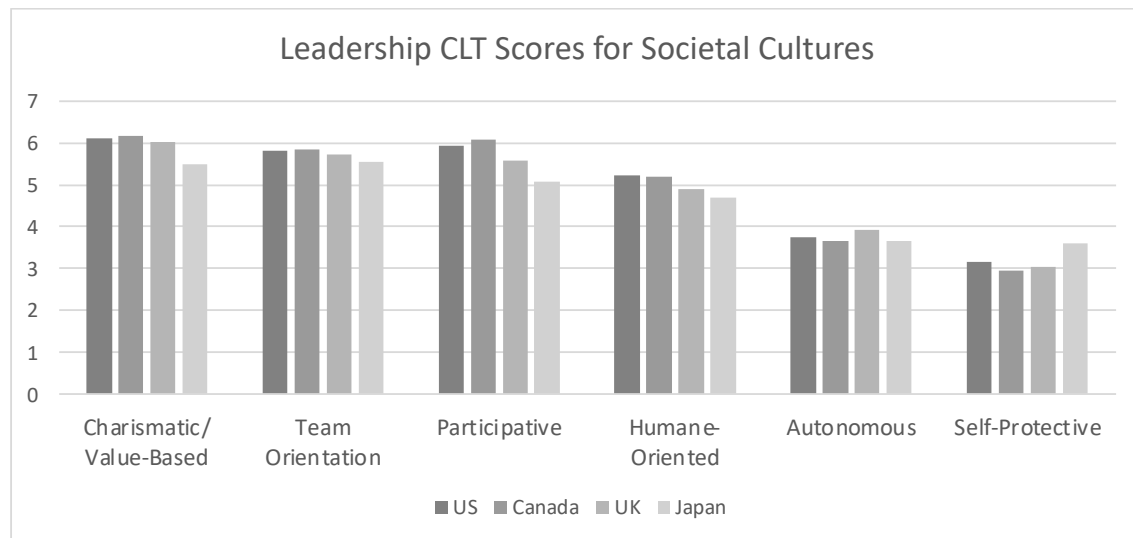
### **Characteristics of Japanese Leadership**

The GLOBE study (House et al., 2004) found different levels of Leadership CLT scores depending on the culture. Figure 9 shows a comparison of the scores of the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada, which are in the “Anglo” culture cluster, and Japan, which is in the “Confucian Asia” culture cluster. Japan shows relatively lower

scores in charismatic/value-based leadership, participative leadership, and humane oriented leadership. Japan scores in self-protective leadership.

**Figure 9**

*Leadership CLT Scores for Societal Cultures*



*Note.* Adapted from *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*, by R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, and V. Gupta, 2004, Sage Publications.

According to the findings of the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004), charismatic/value-based leadership requires a leader to inspire, motivate, and expect high-performance outcomes based on firmly held core values. Participative leadership requires a leader to build effective teams that move toward common goals. Humane-oriented leadership expects a leader to show support, consideration, compassion, and generosity. Self-protective leadership expects a leader to focus on status enhancement and face-saving. Japanese business leaders raised in a culture with different leadership values from Anglo culture cluster nations may face difficulty acting as a leader in the North American or British business scenes.

Fukushige and Spicer (2007) studied the leadership preferences of Japanese followers by comparing them with those in the full-range leadership model by Bass and Avolio (1997). Bass and Avolio's (1997) full-range leadership model has three leadership levels: transformational, transactional, and nonleadership. The transformational level consists of five scales: idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The transactional level consists of three scales: contingent reward, management by exception active, and management by exception passive. The nonleadership level consists of one scale: laissez-faire, which means leave things as they are. Table 6 shows the definitions of Bass and Avolio's leadership scales.

Fukushige and Spicer (2007) found that contrary to the claim by Bass and Avolio (1997), their full-range leadership model would fit universally in any culture, and two scales of transformational leadership—idealized influence attributed and inspirational stimulation—were not endorsed by Japanese followers. Besides, contingent reward, a scale of transactional leadership, was highly supported by Japanese followers. Fukushige and Spicer concluded that although the preference for the business leadership style in Japan is moving gradually toward Western values, the followers still prefer the transactional leadership style to the transformational style. They also indicated values such as liberal, trust, punctual, network, protective, and after-five leadership as potential factors uniquely preferred in the Japanese business culture, and they suggested “a new Japanese leadership model which particularly suits Japanese followers' leadership preferences, reflecting the contemporary Japanese culture, should be developed” (Fukushige & Spicer, 2007, p. 525).

**Table 6***Definitions of Bass and Avolio's Nine Leadership Scales*

| <i>Leadership Forms</i>     | <i>Scales</i>                   | <i>Definition</i>   |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|---|
| Transformational leadership | Idealized influence attributed  | These leaders have the socialized charisma. They are perceived as being confident and powerful, and viewed as focusing on higher-order ideals and ethics. Followers admire, respect, and trust these leaders as a role model and want to emulate leaders.   |
|                             | Idealized influence behaviors   | These leaders behave in ways that their actions are centered on values, beliefs, and a sense of mission. The leaders consider the needs of others over their own personal needs, and share risks with followers. They are consistent rather than arbitrary.   |
|                             | Inspirational stimulation       | These leaders motivate and inspire followers by providing meaning and challenge to work. Team spirit is aroused. Enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. These leaders get followers involved in envisioning attractive future states and create communicated expectations that followers want to meet and demonstrate commitment to goals and shared visions. |
|                             | Individualized consideration    | These leaders pay special attention to the needs of each individual follower for achievement and growth. Followers are developed to successively higher levels of potential. A two-way communication is encouraged and 'management by walking around' is practiced.   |
| Transactional leadership    | Contingent reward               | These leaders are found to be reasonably effective, although not as much as the five 'Is' in motivating others to achieve higher levels of performance. These leaders assign agreements on what needs to be done and promise rewards or actually reward followers in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment.                                 |
|                             | Management by exception active  | These leaders are found to be less effective than 'Contingent Reward', but still required in certain situations. They arrange to actively monitor deviances from standards, mistakes, and errors in the followers' assignments and take corrective action as necessary.   |
|                             | Management by exception passive | These leaders wait passively for deviances, mistakes, and errors to occur, and then take corrective action.   |
| Non-leadership              | Laissez-faire                   | These leaders represent avoidance of absence of leadership. They avoid making decisions, abandon responsibility, and do not use authority. This is considered the most inactive, as well as ineffective approach to leadership by almost all research on leadership style.  |

*Note.* From "Leadership Preferences in Japan: An Exploratory Study," by A. Fukushige and D. P. Spicer, 2007, *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 28(6), p. 510, (<https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730710780967>).

Fukushige and Spicer (2011) carried out another research a few years later on the same subject by comparing British and Japanese followers' leadership preferences. This

time Fukushima and Spicer used the eight scales of the full-range leadership model of Bass and Avolio (1997) and the four leadership styles advocated by House (1971) to conduct a quantitative study as opposed to the qualitative one they ran in 2007. The four leadership styles by House are the following:

- Directive leadership, which provides specific guidance to their subordinates in order that the subordinates may execute their jobs in accordance with the organization's directions and rules;
- Supportive leadership, which is represented by a leader who is friendly, approachable, and caring about their subordinates' needs and well-being;
- Participating leadership, which involves subordinates for their suggestions that are taken seriously when the leader makes the decision; and
- Achievement-oriented leadership, where a leader sets challenging goals and expects their subordinates to continuously meet them by showing them a high degree of confidence in the subordinates' efforts, responsibility, and improvement.

As a result of the study, Fukushima and Spicer found that Japanese and British followers show statistically significant differences with respect to their leadership preferences in all 12 leadership scales except for two. Both Japanese and British followers showed negative endorsement of Bass and Avolio's "management by exception passive," and they also showed moderate preferences for House's "directive leadership." Apart from those similarities, the British followers preferred the transformational leadership style, and the Japanese highly preferred the transactional leadership approaches (Fukushima & Spicer, 2011).

Oudhuis and Olsson (2015) studied the implementation process of lean production by a Japanese company in its Swedish subsidiary and how cultures clash around the assembly lines. Based on the Hofstede's (1980) model, the authors identified a significant gap between Japanese and Swedish mindsets in terms of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and collectivism, and long- versus short-term orientation. The Japanese mindset behind production approaches is rooted in perfection, obedience, and respect for authorities, which are demonstrated by notions and actions such as uncertainty avoidance, standardization, learning by heart, fear of losing face, improvements, long-term view, and focus on details. On the other hand, the Swedish mindset is characterized by participation, self-government, and equality, which comprises thoughts and behaviors such as creativity, innovation, trust, questioning, self-control, and doing in one's own way. Because of those different mindsets, the Japanese expatriate managers who naturally aim at reaching perfect quality at all costs were faced with discomfort, reluctance, and collision from their Swedish colleagues. The authors concluded that "such different mindsets cannot be ignored, but still can be handled through mutual understanding and by taking them into careful consideration" (Oudhuis & Olsson, 2015, p. 279).

The study by Hirai and Suzuki (2016) was the only research that directly dealt with the global leadership of the Japanese and its development. They interviewed eight Japanese participants from various fields of global profession and qualitatively analyzed the interview contents. The authors identified three domains that Japanese global leaders valued most: self-management competence at the personal level, relationship-building



competence at the organizational level, and intercultural competence at the world level.

Each domain consists of its subcategories:

- self-management competence comprises self-assurance and problem solving,
- relationship-building competence comprises understanding others and relationship management, and
- intercultural competence comprises multicultural acumen, multilanguage proficiency, diversity receptiveness, and cross-cultural action.

Also mentioned as indispensable for Japanese global leadership were open flexibility to accept antinomies and resilience to learn from setbacks (Hirai & Suzuki, 2016).

In terms of the GLD for the Japanese, Hirai and Suzuki (2016) asserted that open flexibility and resilience are indispensable factors that reciprocally fortify each other toward global leadership in a cross-cultural environment. The authors also found that Japanese global leaders see utilizing strengths as a Japanese as a foundation of Japanese GLD. As the Japanese leaders were exposed to foreign cultures, many realized that the natural characteristics that they had taken for granted were, in fact, unique in the foreign environment, and they were convinced that such traits should be utilized intentionally in executing leadership in a multicultural environment. Such characters are

- respecting others and naturally providing delicate consideration,
- ability to promote peace and harmony,
- responsibility as a team,
- accurate time management and attention to detail,
- pursuit of a higher level of service, and

- a relentless attitude of improving their skills to enhance such abilities (Hirai & Suzuki, 2016).

As observed previously, leadership approaches that derive from Japanese business culture are quite different from those practiced in the Western business scenes. As Hofstede's (2001) model in Figure 7 and the GLOBE theoretical model (House et al., 2004) in Figure 8 describe, business culture is formed on top of ethnic culture. Japan's 1,300-plus years of political, legal, social, religious, commercial, educational, and cultural systems and trends have formed the basis of today's business cultures and practices (Agekyan & Shaposhnikov, 2019; Crossman & Noma, 2013; Rutkiewicz & Sobczak, 2021; Vogel, 1971; Wierzbicka, 1991). Some unique traits of the Japanese may work in preferable ways in a foreign environment (Hirai & Suzuki, 2016), but the gap between the leadership approaches Japanese leaders naturally exercise and those that local followers prefer must be filled so that the Japanese leaders may run the organizations under their control more effectively and efficiently.

### **Development of Global Leadership Competencies**

This section reviews studies of competency development for global leadership. The development of global leadership is reviewed first, followed by the development of the global mindset through different methodologies. Last, the development of the competencies of the GMI is discussed.

#### **Global Leadership Development Models**

Studies covering the aforementioned GLCs present GLD methodologies based on conventional human resources training theories, including cognitive learning, experiential learning, humanist learning, social learning, self-awareness development, didactic

training, experiential opportunities, immersion, coaching, CQ assessment, and multisource feedback systems (Kossek et al., 2017; Parish, 2016; Walker, 2018; Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017). Just like conventional HRD approaches, GLD approaches need to be discussed as a combination of required competencies and methods to develop such competencies.

To delineate approaches to GLD, the following conceptual models are used: global leadership development framework by competency domain components (Cumberland et al., 2016), and global leadership development ecosystem (Walker, 2018). The former depicts the combination of competency, assessment, and development methods. The latter depicts an overall environment of GLD in the corporate HRD system.

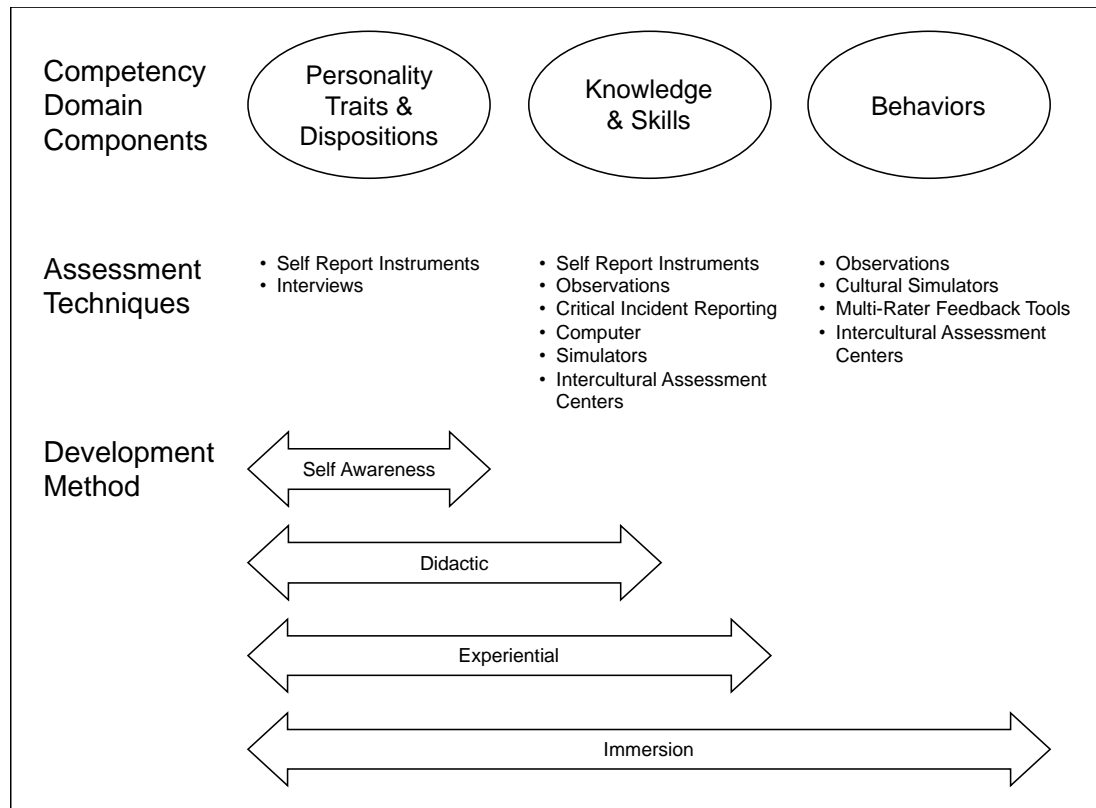
### **Global Leadership Development Framework by Competency Domain Components**

Cumberland et al. (2016) examined 98 articles and book chapters on GLCs, CQ, and GLD between 2000 and 2015. The authors then grouped global leadership competencies into three large domain categories: personality traits and dispositions, knowledge and skills, and behaviors. Furthermore, they matched assessment methodologies for each category and how skills in the three domains can be developed using conventional skill development methods (Figure 10).

Competencies in the personality traits and dispositions category are the 17 global leadership traits in Figure 5, which are often used as the basis for selecting candidates for global leadership positions (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009). However, certain traits seen as favorable in one culture are not necessarily accepted equally in other cultures. Global leaders need to learn to adapt themselves to the cultures they want to fit in and consider what traits or dispositions should be developed (Cumberland et al., 2016).

**Figure 10**

*Global Leadership Development Framework by Competency Domain Components*



*Note.* From “Assessment and Development of Global Leadership Competencies in the Workplace: A Review of Literature,” by D. M. Cumberland, A. M. Herd, M. Alagaraja, and S. Kerrick, 2016, *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 18(3), p. 305 (<https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422316645883>).

By knowledge and skill competencies, Cumberland et al. (2016) specifically meant global mindset and CQ. They used the definition of global mindset from Levy et al. (2007): “a highly complex cognitive structure characterized by an openness and articulation of multiple cultural and strategic realities on both global and local levels, and the cognitive ability to mediate and integrate across the multiplicity” (p. 244). Their definition for CQ was used as articulated by Earley and Peterson (2004): “a person’s capability to gather, interpret, and act upon radically different cues to function effectively across cultural settings or in a multicultural situation” (p. 105). Both global mindset and

CQ can be measured, and it should be assessed when selecting candidates for global leadership positions (Cumberland et al., 2016; TSGM, n.d.).

The third competency domain is behaviors. Cumberland et al. (2016) stressed the importance of assessment of global leadership candidates because behavioral competencies turn the traits and capabilities into appropriate actions effective in a foreign culture and environment. Other researchers of GLD also asserted the importance of assessment on CQ, particularly from the standpoint of self-efficacy, motivation, and effectiveness of leadership practiced in a multicultural environment (Herd et al., 2016; Kossek et al., 2017; McCann et al., 2023; Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017).

The development methods effective for each competency domain are indicated in Figure 10. Self-awareness is knowing oneself through identifying and reflecting on one's values via coaching and 360-degree feedback. Didactic training refers to formal methods such as classroom teaching and learning from books and the internet, and the experiential approach is a learn-by-doing method that includes traveling abroad and participating in projects in international projects (Cumberland et al., 2016). In their article, Cumberland et al. (2016) distinguished immersion from the experiential approach, defining immersion as long-term overseas assignments and foreign language training, by living in the country of the target language and culture. The authors stated that "international assignments have been lauded as the most useful developmental approach for enhancing all components of global leadership competencies" (p. 311), which would be true in the sense that immersion may include all other learning methods during the long immersive period.

## **Global Leadership Development Ecosystem**

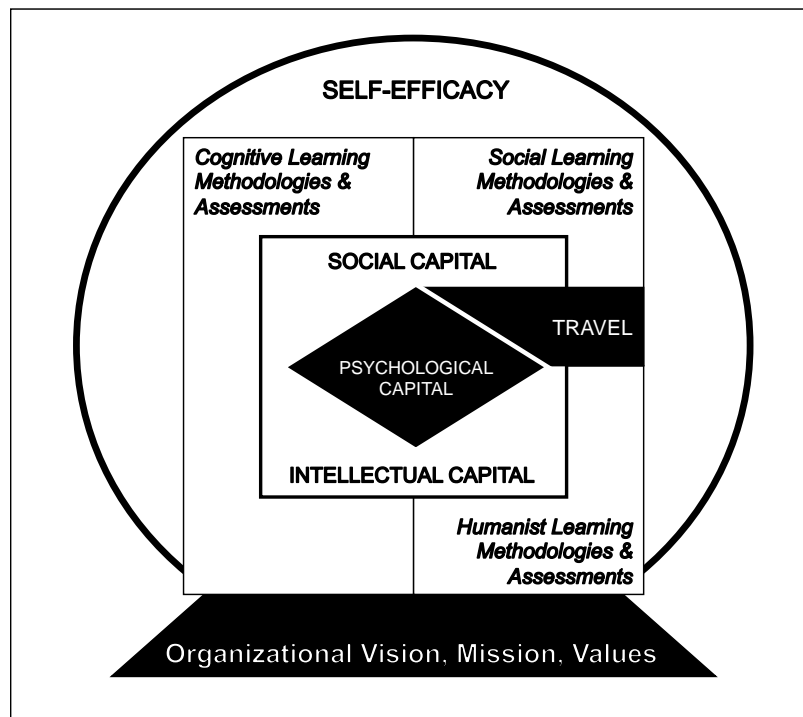
The other conceptual model of GLD is the global leadership development ecosystem (GLDE) proposed by Walker (2018). The GLDE model shown in Figure 2 (repeated here for ease of reference) was developed on the foundation of Javidan's (2007) global mindset and three learning methodology theories: cognitive learning, social learning, and humanist learning. Walker (2018) identified self-efficacy as the factor that encompasses the entire model because it "has strong positive correlations with all elements of the model; it is the glue that makes the model cohesive" (p. 259). Self-efficacy is a concept proposed by Bandura (1977), who stated that an individual's state of cognition or expectation of their capabilities determines their actions to reach specific goals. Self-efficacy is regarded to be one of the most essential elements of global leadership (Herd et al., 2016; Javidan et al., 2016; Kossek et al., 2017; Park et al., 2017; Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017, Yoon & Han, 2023). Walker (2018) even asserted that it is how to develop self-efficacy in global leadership that really matters, rather than how to develop competencies of global leadership.

Travel represents a bridge between self-efficacy and social and psychological capitals. It is positioned between the humanist, or experiential, learning and social learning methodologies as the element that connects the two. Finally, the model is supported by organizational vision, mission, and values based on the findings by Development Dimensions International (2009), the professional training organization, that when a leadership skill development program is aligned with the organization's business priorities, it can be twice as effective as those that are designed without alignment. Walker chose the word ecosystem because she saw GLD as a complex area

that is situated in both cognitive and affective domains and that a dynamic model that would deal with both domains was needed.

**Figure 2**

*Global Leadership Development Ecosystem Model*



*Note.* From “Do Methods Matter in Global Leadership Development? Testing the Global Leadership Development Ecosystem Conceptual Model,” by J. L. Walker, 2018, *Journal of Management Education*, 42(2), p. 261 (<https://doi.org/10.1177/1052562917734891>).

### **Global Leadership Development Methodology**

Both Cumberland et al. (2016) and Walker (2018) discussed the methodology to develop global leadership. The methods they proposed based on Walker’s categorization are the following:

- cognitive learning, which overlaps with didactic training by Cumberland et al.;
- experiential learning, which is equal to experiential opportunities and immersion by Cumberland et al.;

- humanist learning, which overlaps with self-awareness by Cumberland et al.; and
- social learning, which is not in the list of Cumberland et al. but can be included in self-awareness because it is a learning method by means of individual interactions such as coaching, mentoring, and group feedback (Walker, 2018).

The categorizations by Cumberland et al. (2016) and Walker (2018) are very similar in content, and they only differ in technical terms. Numerous other studies have discussed the development of cross-cultural competencies both in professional training and school education, including graduate schools (Anderson-Meger & Dixon, 2019; Herd et al., 2016; Noman et al., 2023; Parish, 2016; Sroufe et al., 2015; Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017; Zimmerman, 2015). The general consensus on methodology effectiveness by those scholars is that 70% of learning comes from experiences such as immersion, 20% from developmental relationships such as social connections, and 10% from formal learning, such as cognitive or didactic learning, which is known as “70-20-10 rule” (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2018).

### **Criticism of the 70-20-10 Learning Model**

The 70-20-10 learning effectiveness is not without criticism. Clardy (2018) critiqued that the 70-20-10 is only a rule of thumb, arguing that

- the 70% rule in many research works is incorrectly positioned as a primary fact in the field of study, which naturally misleads subsequent studies;
- empirical studies that assert the 70% rule often lack a clear definition of formal and informal learning, supporting literature, and rigor in discussion;
- many studies present an oversimplified, improperly generated, and distorted view of the process of learning;



- because all learning is dependent on an informal situation, there is a risk of poor transfer of knowledge and skills; and
- if informal learning is so important, and formal learning has only a fraction of the importance in one's learning process, it casts a big question on studying at schools and universities.

Clardy (2018) did not propose an alternative proportion that replaces the 70-20-10 rule, but he asserted that more research should be conducted to analyze whether actual learning occurs during an experience because the effect of experiential learning is yet to be verified.

In addition to the argument by Clardy (2018), the 70-20-10 rule may need to be carefully rebalanced in GLD because sending trainees abroad without preassignment training can be risky. Proper recognition of cross-cultural issues, which forms the basis of global mindset and CQ and self-efficacy that gives the person a certain level of self-confidence and motivation to thrive in a foreign environment, are critical in GLD. Simple immersion without the pertinent mindsets and skills could cause a risk of developing xenophobia (Maak et al., 2020; Mendenhall et al., 2017; Oddou & Mendenhall, 2018; Osland & Bird, 2018; Walker, 2018). Hence, Walker's (2018) GLDE seems to be the optimum approach to GLD, with the GLC items and learning methods well mixed together, reflecting the reality of individuals and organizations.

### **Development of a Global Mindset**

This section focuses on the development of a global mindset as one of the major constructs of global leadership. Javidan suggested various methods of global mindset development (GMD), which are largely divided into experiential learning, social

learning, and didactic learning (Javidan et al., 2020; Kubota, 2016; Le et al., 2018; Petrie-Wyman et al., 2020). The following subsections discuss studies in each methodology.

### **Experiential Learning Method for Global Mindset Development**

Experiential learning is the process of learning through experience; more precisely, it places emphasis on reflection at the point of the experiential stages (Peterson et al., 2015). Kolb (1984) advocated the experiential learning cycle, which theorizes that a person's learning occurs through four distinctive, circular modes: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. When people experience something new as a concrete experience, unlearning occurs to change their paradigm and change their behaviors. Experiential learning for GMD is represented by study abroad programs (Javidan et al., 2020; Kubota, 2016; Le et al., 2018; Petrie-Wyman et al., 2020).

Study abroad programs include structured learning experiences by going to school in a country away from home and cultural immersion by living in such a country. Both of these are often supported by mentorship and reflection exercises to increase the effectiveness in the development of global competency. Global competency includes the global mindset, self-awareness, open-mindedness, attentiveness to diversity, and collaboration across cultures (Petrie-Wyman et al., 2020). A number of studies indicate that studying abroad increases global competency, including a global mindset (Heinzmann et al., 2015; Hubbard & Rexeisen, 2020; Le et al., 2018; Petrie-Wyman et al., 2020; Stebleton et al., 2013; Stemler et al., 2014). Related to this indication, the number of American students who studied abroad increased from 154,168 in 2000–2001 to 347,099 in 2018–2019, and the number of students that came from abroad to the

United States increased from 547,867 to 1,095,299 respectively (Institute of International Education, 2020).

Study abroad programs can be divided into three models: island, full immersion, and hybrid (McCleary & Sol, 2020; Norris & Dwyer, 2005). Island model programs are produced by the home institution to run its courses, excursions, and housing in a foreign country. Its curriculum is typically run in the home language, the students stay at a dedicated accommodation like a hotel, and there is little exchange opportunity with local students or the community. Full immersion programs, which are also called direct enrollment (Norris & Dwyer, 2005), are quite the opposite of the island model. Students are enrolled in the host institution's classes filled with local students, live in the dormitory or with a local host family, and they are literally immersed in the local living styles, culture, and language during their stay. Hybrid programs are a combination of the island and full immersion models. Students are fully or partly enrolled with the local school, and they may or may not live with a local host family. However, at least they get exposed to the local culture to a considerable extent.

All three models have pros and cons (McCleary & Sol, 2020; Norris & Dwyer, 2005). With the island model, everything is controlled, so the home institution as well as the student's parents and guardians may feel comfortable in a secure environment in a country that they are unfamiliar with. The negative side is that students learn very little about the host country or culture. With the full immersion model, students are fully submerged in the local life and curriculum, using the local language. It often lacks sufficient support from the home institution, and the students are left alone to organize many things from scratch. The hybrid model can provide both: full immersion in the local

community and sufficient support from the home institution (McCleary & Sol, 2020; Norris & Dwyer, 2005).

Studying abroad as a means of experiential learning, whether it be the full immersion or hybrid model, is not without criticism. Kubota (2016) indicated how study abroad experiences can be more complex and contradictory than one might expect for reasons rooted in gender and racial, geographical, and socioeconomic factors. The author highlighted the following cases as discrepancies between an imaginary environment and reality:

- Home-staying students may expect an immersive experience of learning the local language and lifestyle by living with a local host family, but the host family may come from the wrong ethnic and linguistic background, like a Mexican family in Los Angeles or an Italian family in Chicago;
- Many host families nowadays host foreign students for economic reasons, that is, to gain extra income by renting a bedroom and providing the minimum level of meals, and they may not necessarily want to engage in cultural exchanges with the students they host;
- An anglophone student may expect to elevate their foreign language proficiency by going to an overseas college, but the host college may be enthusiastic about globalization by accepting foreign students from many countries. Consequently, it offers the majority of its classes in English, which is the common language of the world, and the anglophone students can end up not learning the local language; and

- Because of the gap between the preconception and the reality they face, some students may be discouraged from engaging with their host family members or classmates.

Their global mindset could be affected in a negative way, and their learning experiences may end up strengthening their cross-cultural prejudice and introverted attitudes (Goxe & Belhoste, 2019).

Le et al. (2018) indicated that short-term study programs of up to one semester have as much effect as long-term ones that are longer than one semester. In contrast, Heinzmann et al. (2015) found that the longer the students stay and get immersed in the target culture and the language, the more they develop their global mindset. The author indicated that such a phenomenon may have been caused not only by the length of the stay but also by how carefully the students choose the host country. Students who go on a short program tend to choose the target country at random out of pure interest, but those that go on a longer program tend to take more time and be more careful and considerate attention in selecting their destination.

To identify factors that affect the development of intercultural competence through study abroad, Heinzmann et al. (2015) carried out a longitudinal study. The authors found that

- students that had received stimulus and encouragement from parents and teachers prior to studying abroad showed a significantly higher willingness to engage in cross-cultural experiences than those that had not;

- students that had taken foreign language and cultural courses prior to studying abroad showed significantly more willingness to engage with people in local communities;
- the more the students used the target language, the language they had studied prior to attending the program, the more willingly they acted as representatives of the host culture after they returned home; and
- students who attended structured programs or had specific jobs to do, like working as an au pair during the study abroad, showed more positive intercultural attitudes than those that only did voluntary work with fewer duties or responsibilities to fulfill.

The authors concluded that it is not only the length of the study abroad that matters but also the content and the quality of the program.

### **Social Learning Method for Global Mindset Development**

Social learning theory is based on the social cognitive theory advocated by Bandura (1986). It posits that learning occurs as a consequence of dynamic and bidirectional influences through interactions with persons, behavior, and the environment. The central function of social learning is self-efficacy, or confidence in one's beliefs and capabilities, which controls motivation, cognitive processes, and courses of action, as a result of such a recognition process. For a person to learn successfully and produce renewed behavior, they must have not only skills but also an adequate level of self-efficacy as a foundation (Bandura 1986; Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Social learning theory is practiced by showing examples to learners at school and by coaching followers at work. For example, business school teachers' ethical leadership

demonstrated in class has a long-lasting impact on their students' moral identity and ethical behaviors (Arain et al., 2017; Wright, 2015). Servant leaders are capable of coaching their followers to demonstrate servant behaviors (Wu et al., 2020), and leaders can promote a climate in their team through interaction, in which followers acquire a sense of duty to develop themselves for the betterment of the team (Moss et al., 2020). Being a role model for followers and coaching them effectively change their perceptions and behaviors.

Coaching is “a process or set of behaviors that enable individuals to learn and develop as well as to improve their skills and enhance their performance” (Ellinger & Kim, 2014, p. 130). Coaching is a similar notion to mentoring and counseling, and these terms are tended to be used interchangeably. But technically, they are different concepts. Coaching is different from mentoring in the sense that a mentor is a role model with much experience and expertise that a learner may want to learn from, but a coach is an “expert partner and trusted advisor that encourages a learner to see the bigger picture, rethink a given assumption, or consider a new practice within the context of his particular school or context towards the accomplishment of clearly established goals” (Salavert, 2015, p. 8). In comparison to counseling, which focuses on an individual's past to assist them to recover from psychological damage, coaching focuses more on the present and the future goals of the individual to assist them to achieve specific goals (Ellinger & Kim, 2014).

According to Cox et al. (2014), there are four elements in coaching that are equally essential and must be well combined to make a coaching activity successful: the client as an individual, the coach as an individual, coaching relationships and processes,

and context. In this structure, the qualities, knowledge, and interpersonal skills of the coach are vital to assist their client in making progress toward their goals. A coaching relationship can play either a positive or negative role, depending on the fit between the client and the coach. Also, the style of coaching, that is, whether it is strongly purpose driven or a more nuanced and soft approach, should be thought out well. The context in which coaching is practiced, such as organizational missions and HRD agenda, must be well shared and understood so that coaching does not end up as no more than a series of general conversations (Cox et al., 2014).

Coaching can be an effective tool for developing a global mindset. Vogelgesang et al. (2014) studied the relationship between positive psychological capital and the global mindset. Positive psychological capital is a leadership trait that focuses on enhancing strengths rather than trying to fix weaknesses. Furthermore, positive psychological capital has a positive impact on one's job satisfaction, commitment, and performance (Avey et al., 2011). By studying the relationship, the authors concluded that positive psychological capital functions as a mediator between a global mindset and three relevant global leader competencies: nonjudgmentalness, inquisitiveness, and performance. Notably, psychological capital can be developed by coaching.

Parish (2016) studied so-called global nomads or those who frequently travel and work in multiple geographic and cultural locations throughout their life. She noted that they tend to have issues with self-identity, purpose in their career making, and belonging, and they oppose the traditional status quo. In other words, global nomads may have a global mindset and cross-cultural skills thanks to their lifestyle that exposes them to different cultures worldwide. However, they do not necessarily have good self-



consciousness or positive psychological capital. This phenomenon was also observed by Lazaris and Freeman (2018), who identified the drop in global nomads' self-confidence along with their effectiveness and performance. It occurs as the global nomads go through four transitional stages:

- moving from the nomads' native, or already familiar cultures, into other host cultures;
- adapting to and immersing themselves in the host cultures;
- moving back to their native cultures or moving on to other host cultures; and
- readjusting to their native cultures or new host cultures.

Parish (2016) and her five coresearchers, who had abundant coaching experiences and successfully managed to build deep, nurtured trust with their clients, coached their selected samples of global nomads. They concluded that coaching increases positive psychological capital, which is related to the global mindset, and works in strengthening global leader competencies (Avey et al., 2011; Freedman, 2018; Parish, 2016).

Another method of social learning in nurturing one's global mindset is mindfulness. Mindfulness is a state of mind in which one recognizes the surrounding environment without becoming judgmental or evaluative. A mindful person is present to reality, and they accept the facts observed as they are rather than processing them through conceptual filters and evaluating them as good or bad (Brown et al., 2007). The global mindset is "the set of individual qualities and attributes that help a manager influence individuals, groups and organizations who are from other parts of the world" (Javidan & Bowen, 2013, p. 147). This naturally requires initial observation of foreign factors, such

as different values and behaviors, and such observation should be done without prejudice . Hence, mindfulness may be used to develop one's global mindset.

Development of mindfulness can be provided as a course, such as in a master of business administration (MBA) program, by hosting course modules for understanding the background of mindfulness, meditation, and yoga practices in class to nurture mindfulness and discussions and reflections on the learning process to fixate mindfulness (Asthana, 2021; Kuechler & Stedham, 2018; Laeequddin et al., 2023). However, the focus of such study tends to be on the fundamental recognition of managerial values such as ethics, leadership, and strategic management, and not on the global mindset that involves distinct cultural issues.

Tuleja (2014) confirmed that the level of mindfulness of MBA students in her study increased after a 2-week immersion experience in China, but she concluded it was not possible to know what exactly was happening in the mind of the sample students. Chandwani et al. (2016) also asserted the importance of mindfulness in the global mindset, but their work was only a concept analysis by synthesizing the related literature. Asthana (2021) studied the effectiveness of mindfulness training in MBA programs, and it was verified that an increase in mindfulness increases proficiency in business analysis and decision making, and also it decreases stress.

Van der Horst and Albertyn (2018) provided a valuable theoretical approach for cross-cultural coaching, based on cross-CQ combined with theories of mindfulness and experiential learning. The authors asserted that coaching is a very effective tool to address cross-cultural issues and help develop CQ. They claimed that the role of the coach is to help their client to observe, explore, and learn from new, personal

experiences. Mindfulness in such a setting “draws together awareness and perspective-taking, attention on automatic thoughts and their effects, exploring instances where the client could have made a different or culturally appropriate choice and cultivating more deliberate and purposeful thought directed at the present” (van der Horst & Albertyn, 2018, p. 5). Furthermore, experiential learning occurs at every point of the learning cycle: experiencing, reflecting, thinking, and acting (Kolb, 1984; Peterson et al., 2015). A cross-cultural coach can assist their client in the following manner: (a) recognition of foreign and incomprehensible experiences through mindfulness, (b) reflecting the meaning of the experience by putting it in the cross-cultural context, (c) transformation of particular experiences into culturally appropriate behaviors, and (d) encouraging the client to act differently and more appropriately in the future by not only observing the event but also acting with more self-confidence (van der Horst & Albertyn, 2018).

### **Formal Learning Method for Global Mindset Development**

The third approach to GMD is formal learning, or cognitive learning, which is a traditional teaching style that includes reading, lectures, and analyzing case studies and research materials for discussion (Walker, 2018). For example, a typical MBA program teaches economics and sociology theories through lectures, and students analyze cases using quantitative and qualitative methods to discuss them in class to have simulative experiences of managerial decision making. However, this traditional pedagogy is questioned because students learn how to analyze but not how to act; most business school professors are academics of business studies, and they have little experience in business; the business world is constantly changing, but academic programs always fall behind because of their nature of a research-and-publish cycle; and business is a

multidisciplinary practice, but business fields in academia are divided into distinct disciplines, such as marketing, accounting, and human resources management that seldom overlap with one another (Walsh & Powell, 2020).

However, the formal learning style of pedagogy is rapidly changing by incorporating new methodologies and technologies, which include design thinking, action learning, internal and external collaborative projects, cotaught classes, online teaching, and classes using virtual reality (Bell et al., 2015; Çeviker-Çınar et al., 2017; Hernandez-Pozas & Carreon-Flores, 2019; Krivogorsky & Ballam, 2019; Tarabasz et al., 2018; Walsh & Powell, 2020; Woldeab et al., 2020). These approaches are used in business education and international education, which contributes to developing a global mindset. Chan et al. (2018), while admitting it is burdensome and time-consuming, introduced approaches to develop the global mindset of students in a business school setting. They are the following:

- invite CEOs of global corporations to meet and talk with students,
- invite alumni working for global organizations to class,
- organize student-led conferences with international topics, and
- develop a close network of international students within the school.

The authors also suggested organizing business internship opportunities with international organizations and organizing international business tours to gain experiences abroad although they are opportunities outside the school campus. Moreover, the authors suggested introducing international consulting projects for organizations in developing countries as a component of the teaching curriculum.

Haber-Curran and GuramatunhuCooper (2020) introduced the concept of emotional intelligence leadership (EIL) in the development of a global mindset. Emotional intelligence is about practicing effective leadership by focusing on and controlling one's emotions and those of others. EIL comprises three facets with 19 capacities that help individuals in achieving the following desired outcomes:

- consciousness of self, which comprises eight capacities: emotional self-perception, emotional self-control, authenticity, healthy self-esteem, flexibility, optimism, initiative, and achievement;
- consciousness of others, which comprises nine capacities: displaying empathy, inspiring others, coaching others, capitalizing on difference, developing relationships, building teams, demonstrating citizenship, managing conflict, and facilitating change; and
- consciousness of context, which comprises two capacities: analyzing the group, and assessing the environment (Allen et al., 2016).

Haber-Curran taught an Intercultural Competence course at Salzburg University, Austria, based on the EIL theory, and she gave the assignments shown in Table 7 to her students for class discussion (Haber-Curran & GuramatunhuCooper, 2020).

On the findings and effects of the course, Haber-Curran and GuramatunhuCooper (2020) reflected as follows:

- incorporation of the three facets of EIL: self, others, and context, was a precise and natural fit to intercultural competencies;
- a focus on the three facets helped students understand different levels and connection of cross-cultural factors, values, and their backgrounds;

- students who shared cultural artifacts such as photos, music CDs, and craft products demonstrated a high level of understanding of as well as personal pride in their own cultures, which became a solid foundation to build global mindset; and
- teaching topics of a global mindset, cross-cultural competencies, and intercultural leadership, requires educators to be mindful of knowing their home culture, humility, and orientation (Haber-Curran & GuramatunhuCooper, 2020).

**Table 7**

*Haber-Curran's Intercultural Competence Course: Assignments and EIL Connections*

| <i>Assignment</i>                      | <i>Description</i>  | <i>EIL Facet Connection</i> |
|--|---|-----------------------------|
| Cultural Self-Reflection Paper         | Explore one's own cultural values, traditions, and practices; Discuss experiences working with people from other cultures           | Self<br>Context             |
| Cultural Dimensions Presentation       | Group presentation exploring cultural values & dimensions of another country  | Others<br>Context           |
| Global & Multicultural Teams Interview | Interview professional who has been part of or led a global or multicultural team   | Others<br>Context           |
| Guest Speaker                          | Discussion with a guest speaker on leading an international team in Qatar with a focus on lessons learned and cultural intelligence | Others<br>Context           |
| Cultural Pairing                       | One-on-one video chat with a graduate student in the United States to discuss cultural values and differences                       | Self<br>Others<br>Context   |
| Cultural Self-Assessment & Action Plan | Complete self-assessment tools on cultural intelligence/intercultural competence, assess competencies, and develop action plan      | Self                        |

*Note.* From “Teaching Global Mindset and Intercultural Competence Through the Framework of Emotionally Intelligent Leadership,” by P. Haber-Curran and N. GuramatunhuCooper, 2020, *Journal of Leadership Education*, 19(2), p. 91 (<https://doi.org/10.12806/V19/I2/A1>).

Haber-Curran and GuramatunhuCooper (2020) also strongly advised that global leadership educators should “seek professional development, continuing education, and experiential opportunities that provide tools for understanding theories and frameworks that govern global mindset and intercultural competence, which are antecedents to understanding leadership in global spaces” (p. 93).

Bell et al. (2015) reported on their multiuniversity course titled *Globalization, Social Justice and Human Rights*. At the time of the article, the course had more than 150 graduate and undergraduate students from more than 13 colleges and institutions worldwide, including the United States, the United Kingdom, Russia, Turkey, Bangladesh, Italy, Canada, and West Indies. To design the course, the following four conditions were agreed upon: participating institutions would (a) mostly follow the same core curriculum, (b) assign core readings made readily available online, (c) have half of the class time in-person and the other half online, and (d) use English as the common language of the course. The NING internet platform (<https://www.ning.com>) was chosen for online communication and education as the shared space for course activities, group projects, and social conversations across the *global campus*. The authors observed the following effects of the program that students benefited from: (a) exposure to diverse worldviews and release from ethnocentric approaches, (b) increased curiosity in and willingness to learn different viewpoints, and (c) understanding of the complexity and difficulties of cross-cultural interactions through hands-on experience (Bell et al., 2015).

Krivogorsky and Ballam (2019) also reported on a similar type of internationally coordinated program for MBA students. Two universities in the United States and Germany developed an identical syllabus, which focused on developing students' cognitive, cultural, and behavioral skills. The course was geared toward completing team capstone projects. Classes and team communications were carried out mostly online using digital multimedia tools such as email, Skype, Facebook, and Dropbox, and the students had face-to-face meetings only toward the latter part of the 14-week course. The experiential side of training was highlighted during the program because the authors

acknowledged that it was particularly useful in developing intercultural intelligence. Unlike the course developed by Bell et al. (2015), the course run by Krivogorsky and Ballam (2019) emphasized the cultivation of the MBA students' business skills in an international environment rather than directly developing cross-cultural competencies. The course objectives were "(a) to accentuate a real-world illustration in decision-making practices and (b) to show how a firm's decisions and policies should be adjusted to create a competitive advantage for international firms" (p. 338). The course-end evaluation by the students was somewhat mixed. Students on the U.S. side showed a high level of satisfaction overall, but those on the German side rated the experience widely polarized from strongly positive to very negative. The authors interpreted the phenomenon as a unique and valuable reality that occurs in international collaboration projects, which turned out to be a good exposure to today's global business environment for their students (Krivogorsky & Ballam, 2019).

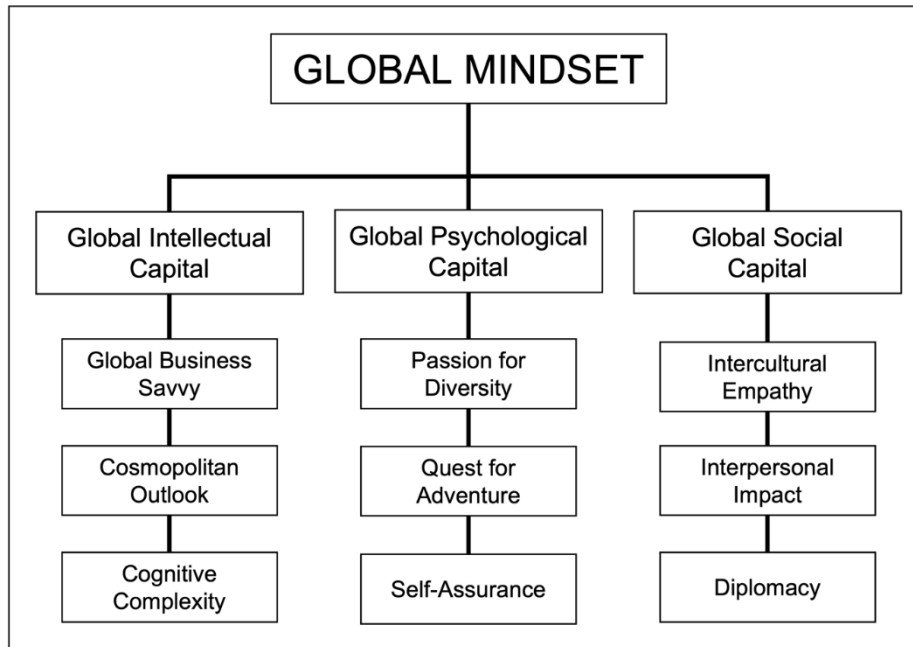
### **Development of Global Mindset Capitals**

Figure 1 (repeated here for ease of reference) shows the construct of the global mindset (Javidan & Bowen, 2013). Javidan and Walker (2013) introduced methods of GMD using three to four competencies for each subcomponent of the three global mindset capitals: global intellectual capital, global psychological capital, and global social capital. The next subsections delineate those competencies as approaches to GMD by Javidan and Walker (2013).



**Figure 1**

*The Structure of Global Mindset*



*Note.* From “The ‘Global Mindset’ of Managers: What It Is, why It Matters, and How to Develop It,” by M. Javidan and D. Bowen, 2013, *Organizational Dynamics*, 42(2), p. 147 (<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2013.03.008>).

### **Development of Global Intellectual Capital**

Global intellectual capital consists of business savvy, cosmopolitan outlook, and cognitive complexity (Javidan & Walker, 2013). Competencies to develop for higher business savvy are knowledge of the global industry, knowledge of globally competitive business and marketing strategies, knowledge of how to transact business and assess risks of doing business internationally, and knowledge of supplier options in other parts of the world. Competencies for cosmopolitan outlook are knowledge of cultures in different parts of the world, knowledge of geography, history, and important persons of several countries, knowledge of economic and political issues, concerns, and hot topics of major regions of the world, and up-to-date knowledge of important world events. Competencies

for cognitive complexity are the ability to grasp complex topics quickly, strong analytical and problem-solving skills, the ability to understand abstract ideas; and the ability to take complex issues and explain the main points simply and understandably.

### **Development of Global Psychological Capital**

Global psychological capital consists of passion for diversity, quest for adventure, and self-assurance (Javidan & Walker, 2013). Competencies to develop for higher passion for diversity are enjoying exploring other parts of the world, enjoying getting to know people from other parts of the world, enjoying living in another country, and enjoying traveling. Competencies for quest for adventure are interest in dealing with challenging situations, willingness to take risks, willingness to test one's abilities, and enjoying dealing with unpredictable situations. Competencies for self-assurance are being energetic, self-confident, comfortable in uncomfortable situations, and witty in tough situations.

### **Development of Global Social Capital**

Global social capital consists of intercultural empathy, interpersonal impact, and diplomacy (Javidan & Walker, 2013). Competencies to develop for higher intercultural empathy are the abilities to work with people from other parts of the world, understand nonverbal expressions of people from other cultures, connect emotionally with people from other cultures, and engage people from other parts of the world to work together. Competencies for interpersonal impact are experience in negotiating contracts or agreements in other cultures, strong networks with people from other cultures and with influential people, and reputation as a leader. Competencies for diplomacy are ease of

starting a conversation with a stranger, ability to integrate diverse perspectives, ability to listen to what others have to say, and willingness to collaborate.

### **Development of Global Mindset Capitals vis-à-vis Three Learning Methods**

The list of suggestions for GMD by Javidan and Walker (2013) as discussed in the preceding sections is extensive. Their suggestions sum up to 452 items, spread across 35 competencies in nine dimensions of the three capitals, and have a number of concrete learning tips and resources for each competency. Table 8 shows the aggregated numbers of GMD suggestions in each dimension by Javidan and Walker (2013). Connecting and coaching/contributing categories are combined into social learning.

Javidan and Walker (2013) suggested 115 ways to develop global mindset capitals through experiential learning, 177 ways through social learning, and 160 ways through cognitive learning. Javidan and Walker's calculations imply that only 26% of GMD is gained through hands-on experience, and the rest, 74%, can be done through coaching in the office and teaching in the classroom. Obviously, the magnitude of particular actions and their impact on GMD should be weighted differently. For example, volunteer to work on a project in a country of interest in passion for diversity of global psychological capital would require far more outreach, vigor, and financial commitment than read novels set in foreign locations in the same category. Similarly, take advantage of every opportunity to interact with your international colleagues as nonverbal behaviors will add richness to the communication in intercultural empathy of global social capital would be relatively easy for those working for an MNE, but not for others who are working in a domestic-oriented company. The criticism of the 70-20-10 rule by Clardy (2018) maintained again that there are formal learning opportunities in informal learning

and vice versa. Nevertheless, the sheer number of nonexperiential approaches suggested by the authors, in contrast to experiential learning methods, implies that GMD could be done without traveling afar, which corresponds to the studies that experiential learning does not necessarily benefit GMD (Goxe & Belhoste, 2019; Heinzmann et al., 2015; Kubota, 2016; Le et al., 2018), and social and cognitive learning methods can also be effective for GMD (Avey et al., 2011; Bell et al., 2015; Chan et al., 2018; Freedman, 2018; Haber-Curran & GuramatunhuCooper, 2020; Krivogorsky & Ballam, 2019; Parish, 2016; van der Horst & Albertyn, 2018).

**Table 8**

*Number of GMD Suggestions by Javidan and Walker (2013) per Learning Method*

| Capital                            | Dimension             | Experiential learning method | Social learning method | Cognitive learning method |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|
| Global intellectual capital        | Global business savvy | 11                           | 19                     | 27                        |
|                                    | Cosmopolitan outlook  | 9                            | 14                     | 21                        |
|                                    | Cognitive complexity  | 14                           | 24                     | 14                        |
| Global intellectual capital total  |                       | 34 (22%)                     | 57 (37%)               | 62 (41%)                  |
| Global psychological capital       | Passion for diversity | 20                           | 23                     | 11                        |
|                                    | Quest for adventure   | 11                           | 19                     | 19                        |
|                                    | Self-assurance        | 15                           | 19                     | 15                        |
| Global psychological capital total |                       | 46 (30%)                     | 61 (40%)               | 45 (30%)                  |
| Global social capital              | Intercultural empathy | 13                           | 24                     | 23                        |
|                                    | Interpersonal impact  | 10                           | 17                     | 14                        |
|                                    | Diplomacy             | 12                           | 18                     | 16                        |
| Global social capital total        |                       | 35 (24%)                     | 59 (40%)               | 53 (36%)                  |
| Grand total                        |                       | 115 (26%)                    | 177 (39%)              | 160 (35%)                 |

*Note.* Adapted from *Developing Your Global Mindset: The Handbook for Successful Global Leaders*, by M. Javidan and J. L. Walker, 2013, Beaver's Pond Press.

Whatever the learning method may be, the key to GLD is the model proposed by Black and Gregersen (2000): contrast, confrontation, and remapping. Contrast is noticing things that are uniquely different from the person's background and experiences. Confrontation is facing the contrasting phenomenon in front of them and redrawing their prior mental cognition. Last, remapping is redrawing the person's cultural understanding, or a culture map, by utilizing a conceptual framework that may explain the situation, for example, high-context culture versus low-context culture (Black & Gregersen, 2000). Oddou and Mendenhall (2018) explained the process of GLD in accordance with the contrast-confrontation-remapping process:

For us to learn, we must acquire new information and become able to see the same thing from a different perspective. As individuals with certain cultural maps about how the world works and how business operates, we need to experience contrasts to those views and confront our beliefs and assumptions. Without such contrasts that lead to confronting our traditional way of seeing or doing, there can be no change. (p. 234)

### **Assessment of Global Leadership**

The underlying assumption in GLD research is that anyone who receives GLD training can develop the competencies required for global leadership. Some researchers, however, are skeptical about the assumption that anyone can become a global leader. They asserted there are people who do not have the aptitude, ambition, or readiness to go and lead in the international environment (Caligiuri, 2006; Ng et al., 2009; Oddou & Mendenhall, 2018). Even if well-designed GLD programs and international assignments were provided, some people might end up reaching unsatisfactory levels in their GLCs.

Therefore, choosing the right people for the positions of global leadership would be critical not to falsely lead unfit candidates into unsuited jobs or waste GLD investments (Caligiuri, 2006; Ng et al., 2009; Oddou & Mendenhall, 2018).

### **Approaches of Global Leadership Assessment**

Selection of the right candidates for leadership training programs involves an issue of talent management that many corporations have strategically implemented lately (McDonnell et al., 2016; Tarique & Weisbord, 2018). There are two approaches of leadership talent identification: the exclusive (also called segmentation) approach, and the inclusive approach. The exclusive approach assumes that people have different sets of talents, and HRD should be exercised after careful assessment of their traits and competencies. The inclusive approach aims to provide everyone an opportunity to develop their abilities. There is much debate, however, as to the degree of inclusiveness, so corporations tend to use a combination of both exclusive and inclusive approaches (Tarique & Weisbord, 2018).

In terms of the selection of candidates for GLD, three approaches were identified in the literature. They are CQ assessment approach, assessment center methodology, and early career potential approach. These methods mix the exclusive and inclusive approaches discussed (Abe, 2018; Caligiuri & Bonache, 2016; Herd et al., 2016; Tarique & Weisbord, 2018; Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017).

### **Cultural Intelligence Assessment Approach**

CQ assessment was proposed by Whitaker and Greenleaf (2017). They used a proprietary assessment tool developed by the Cultural Intelligence Center (2021) and had 25 undergraduate students take the test. The students had been enrolled in leadership

classes and studied western leadership theories, but the great majority of them had limited exposure to other cultures and had little or no experience of traveling abroad.

The students not only took the test, but they were also taken through the CQ assessment process in the following manner:

1. A brief overview of CQ and the components of the assessment
2. Scoring on each of the four dimensions of CQ measured by the assessment (Drive, Knowledge, Strategy, and Action)
3. Detailed scoring on subdimensions within each of the four dimensions
4. Comparative data showing their scores relative to their peers and worldwide averages
5. A customized CQ development plan and reflective questions and prompts to help students think through interpretation of their scores and areas in which they may be able to improve. (Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017, p. 173)

The outcome of the assessment was favorable, not only in identifying potential talents for global leadership, but also in changing the paradigm of those who had not thought about their CQ and challenging them to learn to become a future global leader (Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017).

### **Assessment Center Methodology**

Herd et al. (2016) studied the use of assessment centers (AC) and proposed that they should be used as a tool to measure GLCs. The design of an AC for global leadership assessment was done in the following steps: global competency identification and definition, method choice and exercise design, behaviorally anchored rating scale development, and rater training. The authors focused on the competencies that they had

identified as emphasized by most competency models, and they proposed the tools to assess such competencies as listed in Table 9.

**Table 9**

*Competency x Dimension Matrix Example*

| Assessment tool/global leadership competency | Case study | Leaderless group discussion | Role play | Structured interview | Personality test |
|--|------------|-----------------------------|-----------|----------------------|------------------|
| Global flexibility/adaptability              |            | x                           | x         | x                    |                  |
| Cross-cultural awareness/sensitivity         | x          | x                           | x         | x                    | x                |
| Cross-cultural team influence                |            | x                           |           | x                    |                  |

*Note.* X denotes a competency measured by the assessment tool. From “Assessing Global Leadership Competencies: The Critical Role of Assessment Centre Methodology,” by A. M. Herd, M. Alagaraja, and D. M. Cumberland, 2016, *Human Resource Development International*, 19(1), p. 35 (<https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2015.1072125>).

Herd et al. (2016) admitted that the combination of GLCs and the use of AC methodology was not empirically tested. Although both concepts were already well researched independently, there had been little literature on the use or effect of using the two concepts combined. No literature has been identified on the subject after this article by Herd et al., so empirical studies are awaited.

### **Early Career Potential Approach**

Studies suggest an approach of identifying CQ talent early and developing it to prepare for global leadership in the adult career (Caligiuri & Bonache, 2016; Tarique & Weisbord, 2018). A child who has spent their early life in an international environment is called third culture kid (TCK), and when they grow up, they are called adult third culture kid (ATCK). ATCKs have already had cross-cultural experiences in life, and they tend to



possess principal competencies for expatriate positions, such as positive and flexible attitudes toward different cultures and tolerance for ambiguity, ability to speak multiple languages, family diversity experiences that led to cultural flexibility and negative attitude toward ethnocentricity; and a personality trait of openness toward cross-cultural expectations (Tarique & Weisbord, 2013, 2018).

On the other hand, research suggests mixed views on TCKs. In terms of competencies, they may look promising as future global leaders, but psychologically they “face a dilemma of contentment and wanderlust, ... [and ATCKs] yield the need for stability, belonging, direction, connectedness, and sense of community throughout their developmental stages of life” (Aldelina, 2018, p. 2). Another study by Abe (2018) on a sample of 782 ATCKs (58% female, 80% US, 10% Japanese, and 10% other nationalities) that had studied at an international school in Japan resulted in a different view:

[The] ATCKs showed normative changes in personality and well-being in the direction of greater maturity and adjustment during adulthood, with those reporting higher levels of multicultural engagement generally exhibiting a more resilient personality profile, higher levels of well-being, and more adaptive cognitive and affective styles. (p. 811)

How exactly corporations should target and develop ATCKs to be global leaders was not suggested by the articles identified for the topic. It remains a subject of further research.

### **Global Mindset Inventory as the Assessment Tool for Global Mindset Development**

Javidan et al. (2010) and Walker (2018) asserted the use of the GMI. Both Javidan and Walker were, at the time the articles were published, professors at the Global

Mindset Institute at TSGM. One of the six objectives of the Thunderbird GMI project team was to design tools to scientifically evaluate the level of the global mindset of individuals and organizations (Javidan et al., 2010). The 7-year project created the GMI, an internet-based psychometric survey to measure and predict performance in global leadership positions. The Thunderbird website introduced the GMI as follows (TSGM, n.d.):

The GMI

- is a web-based survey consisting of 82 questions
- takes an average of 10 min to complete
- measures your Global Mindset in three capitals and 9 competencies
- has three versions available for our clients in corporate/government/nonprofits and academic institutions
- is available for self-assessment or 360 peer feedback
- has more than 23,000 respondents from more than 70 countries
- is available in multiple languages
- was developed through a rigorous scientific process with pilot tests from 1,000+ global managers
- has been validated by the Dunnette Group.

The 82 questions of the GMI were not disclosed for the evident reason that it is an assessment test (TSGM, n.d.). Only examinees were allowed to view the questions, consisting of survey and multiple-choice questions. After taking the GMI, respondents receive a feedback report. It consisted of the following:

- general explanation of the global mindset and the GMI,

- report on their overall GMI scores, written feedback on the nine competencies of the GMI,
- detailed explanations of the three capitals of the GMI,
- spaces to write personal observations for self-reflection, and
- recommendations and suggestions on how to improve global mindset.

One concern about the GMI is that it is a self-assessment test, so the answers can be subjective and biased whether or not the respondent is intentional about it. However, based on the study by Zettler et al. (2015), high scores in self-assessment tests tend to reflect the respondent's honesty rather than dishonesty, which leads to answering the questionnaire more accurately. Such tests should be taken, however, in a low-demand situation in which there is no obvious reason for the respondents to disguise their traits excessively as more positive. The nature of the GMI does not require such a situation, so respondents should have no reason to fabricate their answers.

### **Summary**

Global business is a widespread practice with much complexity and dynamism, and so is the notion of global leadership. A plethora of academic literature over decades has developed the understanding of this field, and its focus has been moving from conventional and domestic leadership to contemporary and globally viable styles. The development of global leadership is also a field yet to be cultivated, but there are seminal and influential studies and models that are well worth applying for further empirical studies. One such fundamental piece of work is the GMI (Javidan & Bowen, 2013; Javidan et al., 2010; Javidan & Walker, 2013). I took the GMI assessment test, and I found it very convincing and intriguing. Taking all these into consideration, I decided to

use the GLDE (Walker, 2018) based on the GMI as the theoretical framework, to address the research questions of this study.

## CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to find out which competencies of the global mindset Japanese business leaders find challenging to develop and explore how such competencies can be acquired or developed. Because the concepts of leadership, culture, and being global are very complex, practical ways to develop global leadership would vary significantly from person to person (Agekyan & Shaposhnikov, 2019; Crossman & Noma, 2013; House et al., 2004; Rutkiewicz & Sobczak, 2021). Mainly because there is very little research done on the global leadership of the Japanese and its development (Hirai & Suzuki, 2016), it is imperative to study the details of the global leadership development (GLD) processes Japanese global leaders go through to reach the level viable in the realm of global business. This chapter discusses the research design of this study.

### **Research Design and Rationale**

The conceptual frameworks chosen for this research were global mindset inventory (GMI) by Javidan et al. (2010) and the global leadership development ecosystem (GLDE) by Walker (2018). Thirteen research participants of this study were first asked to take the GMI assessment test developed by Thunderbird School of Global Management (TSGM), and then they were interviewed with the GMI scores as a reference. Participants with different GMI scores had different stories explaining their test results. The reason participants were required to take the GMI before interviewing was that being an expatriate executive of a Japanese overseas subsidiary does not necessarily mean the person has sufficient global leadership competencies (GLCs). They may be working there because of periodic job rotation, training, or simply because they

scored well on an English test. If all the expatriates had sufficient GLCs, there would not have been so many problematic phenomena of the cultural clash as reported in the empirical studies (Diefenbach, 2015; Fukushige & Spicer, 2007, 2011; Oudhuis & Olsson, 2015; Witt & Stahl, 2016).

The aim of this research was to identify (a) which competencies of the global mindset Japanese business leaders find challenging to develop and (b) how such competencies can be developed by considering background factors unique to Japanese corporations. The scope of this research was limited to the global mindset development (GMD) defined by Javidan and Bowen (2013). However, data collection through interviews revealed other critical elements of Japanese GLCs and GLD approaches that still need to be dealt with by the previously set conceptual frameworks. So great care was taken not to neglect such vital clues.

A qualitative research approach was selected for this research. Qualitative research is an approach used to explore and understand the meaning of social or human problems, and quantitative research is used to test existing theories by examining the relationship among variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Because of the nature of this study, which required digging into the broad- and long-range personal experiences of Japanese research participants in developing their global mindset, qualitative analysis based on the GMI and the GLDE, rather than quantitative or mixed methods, was appropriate.

Ravitch and Carl (2021) listed 10 main approaches to qualitative research: action research, case study research, ethnography, critical ethnography, evaluation research, grounded theory research, narrative research, participatory action research,

phenomenology, and practitioner research. For this study, phenomenology was chosen for the following reasons:

- phenomenology is an approach to exploring individuals' lived experiences as a phenomenon;
- a phenomenological researcher employs the process of bracketing, which is setting aside their assumptions to understand the phenomenon of the sample without presuppositions or bias;
- I intended to look into the GMD experiences of the participants, but I intended to apply established theories of GMD to understand the phenomena and did not attempt to develop a theory from scratch like grounded theory approach.

In line with the purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study, which should have broadly-stated questions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), the research questions were formulated as follows:

1. Which competencies of the structure of global mindset do Japanese business leaders find indispensable when they work outside Japan?
2. Which competencies of the structure of global mindset do Japanese business leaders find challenging to develop?
3. How did the Japanese business leaders with a high level of global mindset develop such competencies?
4. How can the findings of this research be implemented in GLD programs for Japanese MNEs?

## **Instrumentation**

The first step of data collection for this study was done by the research participants taking the GMI assessment test. The participants were given the URL and the passcode to take the GMI assessment test and a questionnaire to collect the participants' demographic and experiential information. Each participant received a 20-page report of the GMI test results from TSGM. The content of the GMI report included the participant's overall profile of the global mindset, the complete structure of the global mindset, a detailed explanation of intellectual capital and the participant's profile of intellectual capital, a detailed explanation of psychological capital and the participant's profile of psychological capital, a detailed explanation of social capital and the participant's profile of social capital, the group profile, and the summary of the GMI scores. The report was detailed, and its contents were self-explanatory. The participants were asked to read the report before the interview.

The second step was interviewing. The participants were asked about their experiences and thoughts regarding their GMD following the interview questions listed in Appendix A. Although the GMI assessment is in English, the interview was conducted in Japanese to obtain the nuance of the participants' answers and remarks. The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim for data analysis. The interview dialogue was expected to evolve naturally, and associated subquestions emerged. Care was taken not to mention theories of GLD or the GLDE model because they might have biased the participant. The participants talked freely about their experiences, from which sets of factors regarding the central research questions of this phenomenological quality research were collected without presumptions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).



## **Population and Sampling**

Participant selection for this qualitative research was made by purposeful sampling, which is the method of selecting sample participants with unique abilities to answer specific questions for the research. The participants were purposefully chosen because they had specific experiences, knowledge, or residency in locations pertinent to the research theme. Purposeful sampling is “the primary sampling approach used in qualitative research” (Ravitch & Carl, 2021, p. 83). The aim of this study was to find optimum GMD approaches for the Japanese by studying the experience of those with sufficient global exposure demonstrated in the GMI scores, so random sampling was not appropriate.

Volunteer research participants were sourced from my personal and professional network using the invitation announcement shown in Appendix B. They were London MBA Club, the private study group that I founded in 1997 while working in London, my professional contacts at my client companies, and my personal contacts who fulfilled the research participant criteria. The participants signed the informed consent form shown in Appendix C before taking the GMI test.

## **Sample Size**

The target size of participants for this research was 12 or until saturation. The sample size for a qualitative study is not as important as those in quantitative research, which employs statistical analyses, as long as the rationale for the choice of the individuals for sampling is clear and reasoned (Bekele & Ago, 2022; Guest et al., 2006; Hennink & Kaiser, 2022; Ravitch & Carl, 2021; Sim et al., 2018). The participants for this research took the GMI test for screening, which should convincingly demonstrate

that they have unique and sufficient knowledge to explicate their GLD experiences. The target sample size was set at 12 because it would fit the findings of Guest et al. (2006), which suggests, though with much caution, that six to 12 interviews should be appropriate for a homogeneous population. Hennink and Kaiser (2022) stated, “Saturation can be achieved in a narrow range of interviews (9-17) or focus group discussions (4-8), particularly in studies with relatively homogeneous study populations and narrowly defined objectives” (p. 9). Creswell and Creswell (2018) stated that phenomenology involves three to 10 participants. Because the sample participants for this study were homogeneous and the scope of the study was much more focused, 12 was sufficient as the sample size. The actual number of research participants resulted in 13.

### **Data Analysis**

The interviews were recorded by an IC recorder and transcribed verbatim in Japanese. Having verbatim transcripts means maintaining “fidelity to participants’ experiences, words, and genuine articulation of their experiences” (Ravitch & Carl, 2021, p. 257). Interview transcripts were then coded using English words for data analysis.

Coding is a process of assigning meaning to data by labeling or tagging them, which prepares the collected data for detailed analysis. Two types of coding approaches are used in qualitative analysis: inductive and deductive. The inductive approach tries to use the participants’ words as much as possible to stay as close to the nuance of the participant as possible; for example, *in vivo coding* uses the participants’ words as labels. The other approach, deductive coding, is a top-down approach by which a researcher looks for specific words and concepts that may match existing theoretical models.

Inductive and deductive coding approaches are often used simultaneously rather than exclusively during the coding process (Ravitch & Carl, 2021).

This study used the inductive approach to stay close to the nuance of the participants. Then the coded concepts were categorized according to the GMI structure of three capitals and nine dimensions. The concepts that did not fit in the GMI structure were categorized as other.

### **Validity and Rigor**

Validity of qualitative research, or trustworthiness, refers to “the ways that researchers can affirm that their findings are faithful to participants’ experiences. Put another way, validity refers to the quality and rigor of a study” (Ravitch & Carl, 2021, p. 166). Qualitative researchers must adhere to four standards of validity: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility refers to the researcher’s ability to take all the complex issues of a study, extract, and present their meanings and implications as unique findings. Credibility in qualitative research is synonymous with internal validity, and it can be achieved through the research design process by ensuring that the research methods and findings are intact and logically connected. Transferability refers to the applicability of the findings of the qualitative research to other contexts. Qualitative research does not aim at finding a rule that can be directly applied to other contexts as quantitative research does, but its essential learning should not be distinctive to the study’s isolated context only, but it should also be applicable to other settings and contexts (Ravitch & Carl, 2021). Transferability of qualitative research can be ensured by thick description or describing the data and context in sufficient detail so that other researchers can fully understand the situation of the particular study and use its findings

and implications in their studies with confidence. The dependability of qualitative research refers to the consistency and reliability of data collected for the study. It can be achieved by making sure that the data collected for the study are pertinent to the research questions, supported by the well-constructed research design and confirmed by triangulation, or by examining the conclusion from more than one perspective.

Confirmability refers to the notion that qualitative researchers cannot be objective, and it is critical to accept that they are not free from biases and prejudices when interpreting the data. The researcher of a qualitative research study is the primary instrument of the research with a particular agenda in mind, which makes it difficult to be objective like the researcher of a quantitative study who uses statistical methods to scientifically interpret the collected data. Therefore, it is imperative to first acknowledge the positionality of the researcher in the particular study they are engaged in and then implement rigorous analytical methods such as triangulation strategies and third-party scrutinizing procedures (Ravitch & Carl, 2021).

The validity of a qualitative study can be achieved by the following means:

- triangulation, which is taking different viewpoints and perspectives to examine the results of the research;
- member checks, which is asking the research participants to give feedback on the interpretation of the qualitative data;
- strategic sequencing of methods, which refers to having a robust research design by employing sets of different research methods and sequential usage of them to validate the results through cross-examination;

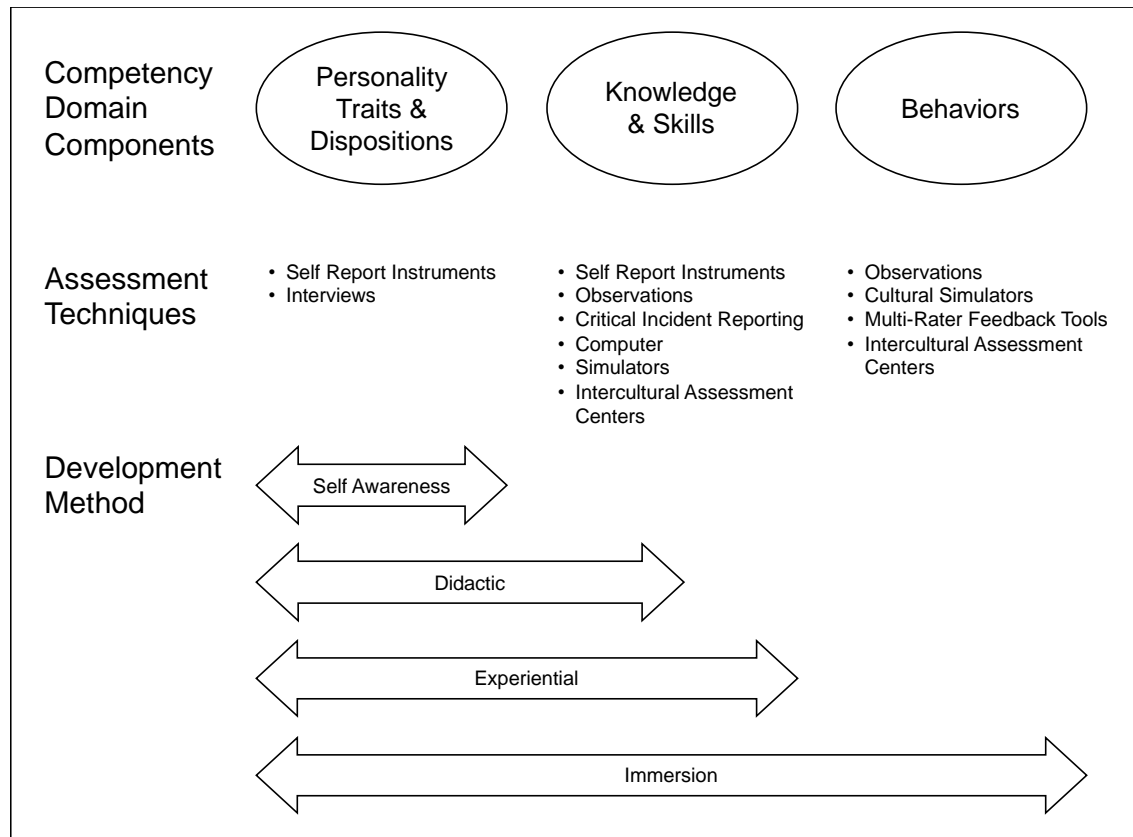
- thick description, which leaves checking the credibility of the research in the readers' hands by describing the study's contextual factors, participants, and experiences thoroughly and completely so that the readers may make their own interpretations based on the complex contexts;
- dialogic engagement, which is also known as peer debriefers, critical friends, or critical inquiry groups, involves other researchers to challenge the interpretations of the research at every phase of the research; and
- multiple coding, which is also known as interrater reliability, that involves other researchers like dialogic engagement but specifically at the data analysis and coding phase (Ravitch & Carl, 2021).

This study used theoretical triangulation. The conceptual frameworks chosen for this study were GMI by Javidan and Bowen (2013) and the GLDE by Walker (2018), and theoretical triangulation was done by comparing and cross-examining the findings against two other theoretical models. The first model was the global leadership development by competency domain components (GLD-CDC) by Cumberland et al. (2016) shown in Figure 10 (repeated here for ease of reference).

The second model was the contrast, confrontation, and remapping (CCR) model proposed by Black and Gregersen (2000). The GLD-CDD model was used to cross-check the process of the participants' global leader competencies (GLCs) and their development methods, and the CCR model was used to examine the GLD process by looking into the change process the participants had gone through. Great care was always taken to absorb the participants' experiences faithfully rather than trying to fit them into existing models because that is how validity of qualitative research should be (Ravitch & Carl, 2021).

**Figure 10**

*Global Leadership Development Framework by Competency Domain Components*



*Note.* From “Assessment and Development of Global Leadership Competencies in the Workplace: A Review of Literature,” by D. M. Cumberland, A. M. Herd, M. Alagaraja, and S. Kerrick, 2016, *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 18(3), p. 305 (<https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422316645883>).

### **Limitations**

There were several limitations in this study. First, the participants did not always remember clearly how they developed their GLCs, which may have resulted in an insufficiency of data. There were many “I don’t know” responses to the questions asked. Indeed, items such as quest for adventure and interpersonal impact are personality traits rather than specific skills, and it would have been difficult to explain why they have such traits clearly. To avoid data insufficiency resulting from it, many subsequent questions

were asked from various angles. Nevertheless, it was not possible to pin down all the causes of their personality traits, and they were coded as “naturally so.”

Second, the participants may have been biased. The participants have rich international business experience, many hold a master’s degree from a non-Japanese university, and some were born and raised outside Japan. Their upbringing may have resulted in their mindset not being typically Japanese, and their memories and opinions may have been inclined toward the western culture. To avoid such biases, subsequent questions were asked to clarify the roots of their thoughts and compare them with general tendencies of the Japanese business culture from the interviewer’s point of view.

Third, the reliability of the GMI test may be disputable. The GMI test is a computer-based self-assessment test, and whether an examinee ticks “4 = *large extent*” or “5 = *very large extent*” depends on their interpretation of the scale. Also, some questions were expressed in vague wording such as “several cultures,” “other parts of the world,” or “different country,” which also invited room for arbitrary presupposition, and they puzzled many participants of this study. However, the tendency of interpretation by a participant would have stayed within a certain range, and the interviewer’s asking detailed questions looking at each participant’s GMI test results together during the interview should have collected necessary qualitative data for this study regardless of the absolute scores of their GMI test.

Last, sampling of this study took a convenience sampling method. Convenience sampling is a nonprobability sampling by which samples are selected because they are the easiest for the researcher to access and they are willing to participate (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Certain criteria were applied to ensure that the participants would satisfy

the purpose of this study, but they were gathered through my personal network. The findings of this study, therefore, may not be generalized.

### **Role of the Researcher**

The researcher is “the primary instrument in qualitative research” and “can be considered both insider and outsider, scholar and practitioner” (Ravitch & Carl, 2021, p. 10). I have a good amount of cross-cultural experiences just like the research participants of this study. I lived in the United States for 1 year as a high school exchange student when I was 18 years old and also in Mexico for nearly 1 year as a research student at a university there while I was a 23-year-old college student in Japan majoring in Spanish language and Latin American economics. I also lived and worked in London, United Kingdom, for nearly 10 years in my 20s and 30s, not only as a secondee of a Japanese company but also as an employee of two British companies. In the middle of the 10-year period in the United Kingdom, I studied at a business school and earned my MBA before joining a consulting firm in London. I also took the GMI test and scored above the group mean in all the capitals and in all nine dimensions of GMI.

What I witnessed through my working experience in the United Kingdom was that Japanese managers were sent out to their subsidiaries not because they had demonstrated their abilities to manage their local teams but mainly because they had been good at executing their tasks in the domestic setting. Many of them did not even speak English well, and some were leading a quasi-Japan life by reading Japanese newspapers, watching Japanese programs on cable TV, and eating Japanese food at Japanese restaurants every day. Therefore, working at an overseas subsidiary of a Japanese company for a long time even at the executive level may not ascertain that the



businessperson has sufficient cross-cultural experiences or a plausible level of GLCs. That is why the GMI test was needed as a tool to screen research participants and I would feel confident about their views and opinions vis-a-vis my own experiences. Screening participants by the GMI test is also a good tool for minimizing the bias of the researcher who has a very similar experience of global business.

### **Ethical Issues**

There were very limited ethical issues in this study. In accordance with the research guidelines set by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of California Baptist University (CBU), every research participant had been fully informed of the purpose of this research and how the data obtained would be used (CBU, 2018). Their understanding of and consent to voluntary participation had been obtained before their participation in this study (Appendix C).

Both the recorded data and the transcripts were securely stored in my personal computer in my office, which is securely locked with a password. The same data were stored in the cloud storage that I subscribe to, which is also protected with a password.

The GMI test results were collected directly by the GMI team of TSGM because the GMI is a proprietary product of TSGM. TSGM forwarded all the reports to me on the condition that the data would be for the sole use of this study and that I would not use it for any other purposes without prior, written approval from TSGM and the research participants. In terms of sourcing participants from my client companies, prior understanding and consent in writing were provided to the clients contacted to protect the interests of each research participant by the CBU IRB guidelines, clearly pointing out that the GMI assessment results would not be disclosed to anyone else but the participants

unless the participants decided to do so by themselves. There was a very limited risk in data disclosure.

### **Summary**

This research work aimed at finding out approaches in GLD most pertinent to Japanese business leaders and their implications for future GLD programs of Japanese MNEs. Conventional, or Western, approaches and know-how of GLD would be viable, and yet, Japanese companies are still struggling to develop leaders in the global domain. Some sort of fundamental study was required to identify issues unique to Japanese GLD. I hope this research will contribute to filling the gap between theory and practice and provide academically robust guidance to Japanese corporations and their future leaders of global business.

## CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to find out which competencies of the global mindset Japanese business leaders find challenging to develop and explore how such competencies can be acquired or developed. A qualitative research approach was used to collect and analyze qualitative data, which turned out to be pertinent because all 13 participants had many background stories to tell, which would be very difficult to analyze if quantitative or mixed approaches had been applied. Those stories and episodes were rich sources for identifying essential GLCs that Japanese professionals think are indispensable and learning how they were developed to make the participants who they are today.

The research questions for this study were as follows:

1. Which competencies of the structure of global mindset do Japanese business leaders find indispensable when they work outside Japan?
2. Which competencies of the structure of global mindset do Japanese business leaders find challenging to develop?
3. How did the Japanese business leaders with a high level of global mindset develop such competencies?
4. How can the findings of this research be implemented in GLD programs for Japanese MNEs?

The conceptual frameworks chosen for this study were global mindset inventory (GMI) by Javidan and Bowen (2013) as a GLC model, and the global leadership development ecosystem (GLDE) by Walker (2018) as a global leadership development (GLD) model. Interviews were conducted with these models in mind, but great care was

taken so that collection and interpretation of the qualitative data would not be restrained too strongly by these models. The interview questions were as shown in Appendix A.

### **Demographics of the Participants**

The 13 participants were sourced through my personal and professional network. They are members of a study group, business partners, and long-time friends, so they were very open, frank, and honest about their remarks during the interview. The demographic descriptions of the participants are shown in Tables 10, 11, and 12.

**Table 10**

*Demographic Information of Participants*

| Age   | Number | Male | Female |
|-------|--------|------|--------|
| 30–39 | 3      | 1    | 2      |
| 40–49 | 3      | 2    | 1      |
| 50–60 | 7      | 3    | 4      |

*Note.*  $N = 13$ .

The age of the participants spread between the mid-30s and late 50s, and their gender was equally spread. Two thirds of them had a master’s degree or above, and their highest work positions were between middle manager and CEO, except for two who had not experienced a managerial role. The participants’ education levels do not align with their professional position level; two at the CEO/president/executive director level hold an undergraduate degree.

**Table 11***Educational Degree of Participants*

| Educational degree obtained      | Number |
|----------------------------------|--------|
| 4-year college degree (BA, BS)   | 5      |
| Master's degree (e.g., MA, MBA)  | 7      |
| Doctoral degree (e.g., PhD, DBA) | 1      |

*Note.*  $N = 13$ .

**Table 12***Highest Managerial Position Experienced by Participants*

| Highest managerial position experienced | Number |
|---|--------|
| Middle manager                          | 4      |
| CEO/president/executive director        | 7      |
| Other                                   | 2      |

*Note.*  $N = 13$ .

Table 13 shows the participants' experience of living outside Japan. Seven of them lived abroad at the college level or before, and four of them lived abroad at a very early stage of life. Those four can be defined as adult third culture kids (ATCKs), according to the study by Tarique and Weisbord (2013, 2018). Five participants lived abroad after they graduated from college. All of the participants have traveled in more than 10 countries; the fewest is 12, and the most is 130. Except for Participant 4, who is personally determined to visit all the countries on earth, the average number of countries the participants have traveled to is 24.

**Table 13***Participants' Experience of Living Outside Japan*

| Participant | Gender | Age | Years lived outside Japan | Age and foreign countries lived for more than 6 months |        |       |           |               |       |           | Countries lived in | Countries traveled |
|-------------|--------|-----|---------------------------|--|--------|-------|-----------|---------------|-------|-----------|--------------------|--------------------|
|             |        |     |                           | 0-6  | 7-12   | 13-18 | 19-22     | 23-29         | 30-39 | 40+       |                    |                    |
| 1           | F      | 50s | 9                         |  |        |       |           | UK            | UK    |           | 1                  | 25                 |
| 2           | F      | 30s | 6                         | USA  |        | USA   |           |               | UK    |           | 2                  | 23                 |
| 3           | M      | 50s | 4                         |  |        |       |           | UK            | UK    |           | 1                  | 40                 |
| 4           | F      | 50s | 28                        |  |        |       |           | UK            | UK    | UK        | 1                  | 130                |
| 5           | F      | 40s | 6                         |  |        |       | USA       |               | USA;  |           | 2                  | 28                 |
| 6           | M      | 40s | 5                         |  |        |       |           |               | India |           |                    |                    |
| 7           | F      | 50s | 8                         |  |        |       |           |               | USA   | USA       | 1                  | 20                 |
| 8           | M      | 50s | 25                        |  |        | USA   | USA       |               | USA   | USA       | 1                  | 17                 |
| 9           | F      | 30s | 25                        | USA  | USA    | USA   | USA;      | USA           | USA   | USA;      | 2                  | 23                 |
|             |        |     |                           |  |        |       | Singapore | Hong Kong; UK |       | Indonesia |                    |                    |
| 10          | F      | 30s | 25                        | USA  | USA    |       |           |               | UK    |           | 4                  | 37                 |
| 11          | M      | 30s | 13                        | USA  | USA    |       |           |               | UK    |           | 2                  | 30                 |
| 12          | M      | 40s | 14                        | France   | France | Spain | UK        |               |       |           | 3                  | 18                 |
| 13          | F      | 50s | 3                         |  |        | USA   | USA       |               |       |           | 1                  | 12                 |
| 14          | M      | 50s | 12                        |  |        |       |           | UK            | UK;   | China     | 2                  | 20                 |
|             |        |     |                           |  |        |       |           |               | China |           |                    |                    |

Note. N = 13.

<sup>a</sup>Number of foreign countries lived for more than 6 mo.

<sup>b</sup>Number of foreign countries traveled.

Some of the unique samples are

- Participant 4, who went to the United Kingdom at the age of 25 and has been living in London ever since for 28 years, now as the CEO of the company she founded,
- Participant 8, who studied in the United States at college for 1 year, then went back there to spend 20 years to earn an MBA and continued working as a secondee of the global financial company he had always worked for after college,

and after 2 years' secondment in Indonesia, he went back to New York City as the head of the company's U.S. operations. Now he is the executive vice president of the same financial multinational enterprise (MNE);

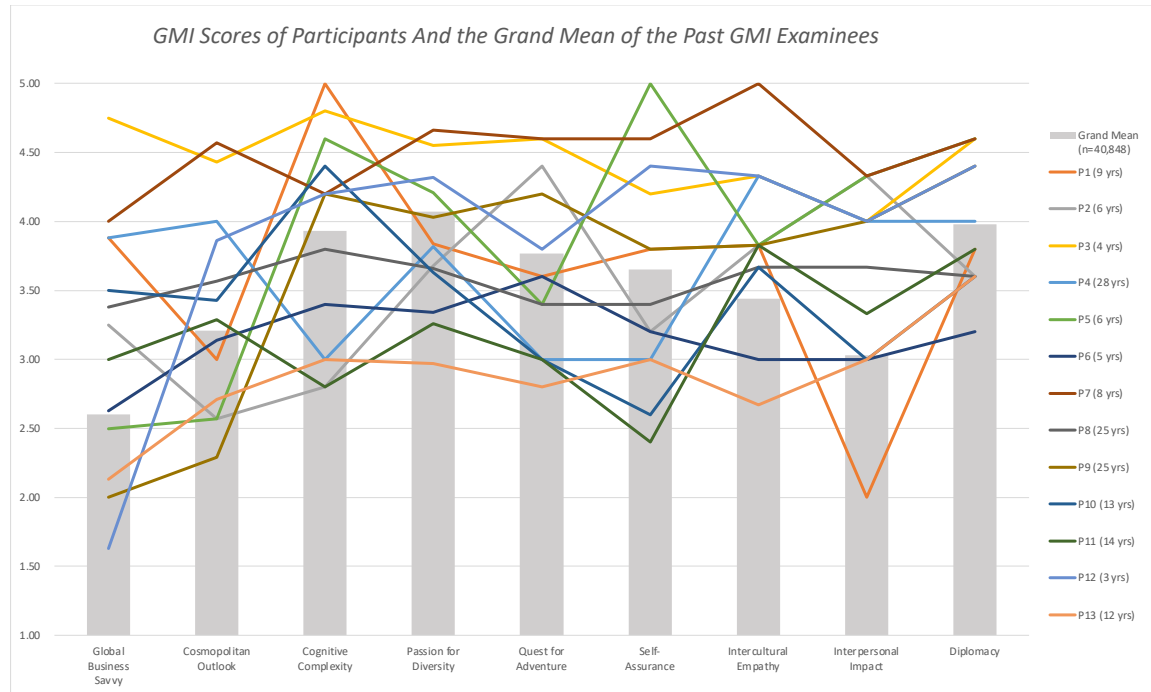
- Participant 9, who is in her mid-30s but has spent 25 years outside Japan. She is one of the three ATCKs in this study;
- Participant 11, who was educated in France, Spain, and the United Kingdom, where he went to college, and then he has remained in Japan ever since. His job is the training and development of global leadership, for which he said his cross-cultural experiences in youth are advantageous; and
- Participant 12, who attended high school in the United States for 3 years, then came back to Japan but has never left Japan ever since. She has been working in Japan, mainly as the CEO of the company she founded. Her main job does not require much English, but one part of her activities is exceptionally global working with people, online and offline, from all around the world.

### **GMI Results of the Study Participants**

Figure 11 shows the overall GMI test scores of the study participants in comparison with the grand mean of the past 40,848 GMI examinees. Shown in the brackets is the number of years the participant lived outside Japan for more than 6 months. Table 14 is from the same data, showing the deviation of each participant's GMI score from the grand mean.

**Figure 11**

*GMI Scores of Participants and the Grand Mean of the Past GMI Examinees*



Only two participants scored above the grand mean in all the dimensions of all three capitals. They were Participant 3, who had spent 4 years in one country and traveled to 40 countries, and Participant 7, who had spent 8 years in one country and traveled to 17 countries. On the other hand, Participant 13, who had spent 12 years in the United Kingdom and China and traveled to 20 countries, scored below the grand mean in all the dimensions in all three capitals. By taking a closer look, Participants 3 and 7 scored high in self-assurance; 4.2 and 4.6, respectively. Participant 13 scored 3.0 in self-assurance, one of the lowest in the group.



**Table 14**

*GMI Scores of Participants Compared to the Grand Mean of the Past GMI Examinees*

| Participant              | GMI capitals and participants' scores |                      |                      |                              |                     |                |                       |                      |           | Overall GMI score | Years lived outside Japan | <sup>a</sup> Countries lived in | <sup>b</sup> Countries traveled |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----------|-------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
|                          | Global intellectual capital           |                      |                      | Global psychological capital |                     |                | Global social capital |                      |           |                   |                           |                                 |                                 |
|                          | Global business savvy                 | Cosmopolitan outlook | Cognitive complexity | Passion for diversity        | Quest for adventure | Self-assurance | Intercultural empathy | Interpersonal impact | Diplomacy |                   |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Grand mean<br>n = 40,848 | 2.60                                  | 3.21                 | 3.93                 | 4.07                         | 3.77                | 3.65           | 3.44                  | 3.03                 | 3.98      | 3.52              |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 1            | 3.88                                  | 3.00                 | 5.00                 | 3.84                         | 3.60                | 3.80           | 3.83                  | 2.00                 | 3.80      | 3.64              | 9                         | 1                               | 25                              |
| Deviation from GM        | 1.28                                  | -0.21                | 1.07                 | -0.23                        | -0.17               | 0.15           | 0.39                  | -1.03                | -0.18     | 0.12              |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 2            | 3.25                                  | 2.57                 | 2.80                 | 3.68                         | 4.40                | 3.20           | 3.83                  | 4.33                 | 3.60      | 3.52              | 6                         | 2                               | 23                              |
| Deviation from GM        | 0.65                                  | -0.64                | -1.13                | -0.39                        | 0.63                | -0.45          | 0.39                  | 1.30                 | -0.38     | -0.00             |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 3            | 4.75                                  | 4.43                 | 4.80                 | 4.55                         | 4.60                | 4.20           | 4.33                  | 4.00                 | 4.60      | 4.47              | 4                         | 1                               | 40                              |
| Deviation from GM        | 2.15                                  | 1.22                 | 0.87                 | 0.48                         | 0.83                | 0.55           | 0.89                  | 0.97                 | 0.62      | 0.95              |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 4            | 3.88                                  | 4.00                 | 3.00                 | 3.82                         | 3.00                | 3.00           | 4.33                  | 4.00                 | 4.00      | 3.67              | 28                        | 1                               | 130                             |
| Deviation from GM        | 1.28                                  | 0.79                 | -0.93                | -0.25                        | -0.77               | -0.65          | 0.89                  | 0.97                 | 0.02      | 0.15              |                           |                                 |                                 |

Table 14 (continued)

| Participant       | GMI capitals and participants' scores |                      |                      |                              |                     |                |                       |                      |           | Overall GMI score | Years lived outside Japan | <sup>a</sup> Countries lived in | <sup>b</sup> Countries traveled |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----------|-------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
|                   | Global intellectual capital           |                      |                      | Global psychological capital |                     |                | Global social capital |                      |           |                   |                           |                                 |                                 |
|                   | Global business savvy                 | Cosmopolitan outlook | Cognitive complexity | Passion for diversity        | Quest for adventure | Self-assurance | Intercultural empathy | Interpersonal impact | Diplomacy |                   |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 5     | 2.50                                  | 2.57                 | 4.60                 | 4.21                         | 3.40                | 5.00           | 3.83                  | 4.33                 | 4.60      | 3.89              | 6                         | 2                               | 28                              |
| Deviation from GM | -0.10                                 | -0.64                | 0.67                 | 0.14                         | -0.37               | 1.35           | 0.39                  | 1.30                 | 0.62      | 0.37              |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 6     | 2.63                                  | 3.14                 | 3.40                 | 3.34                         | 3.60                | 3.20           | 3.00                  | 3.00                 | 3.20      | 3.17              | 5                         | 1                               | 20                              |
| Deviation from GM | 0.03                                  | -0.07                | -0.53                | -0.73                        | -0.17               | -0.45          | -0.44                 | -0.03                | -0.78     | -0.35             |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 7     | 4.00                                  | 4.57                 | 4.20                 | 4.66                         | 4.60                | 4.60           | 5.00                  | 4.33                 | 4.60      | 4.51              | 8                         | 1                               | 17                              |
| Deviation from GM | 1.40                                  | 1.36                 | 0.27                 | 0.59                         | 0.83                | 0.95           | 1.56                  | 1.30                 | 0.62      | 0.99              |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 8     | 3.38                                  | 3.57                 | 3.80                 | 3.66                         | 3.40                | 3.40           | 3.67                  | 3.67                 | 3.60      | 3.57              | 25                        | 2                               | 23                              |
| Deviation from GM | 0.78                                  | 0.36                 | -0.13                | -0.41                        | -0.37               | -0.25          | 0.23                  | 0.64                 | -0.38     | 0.05              |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 9     | 2.00                                  | 2.29                 | 4.20                 | 4.03                         | 4.20                | 3.80           | 3.83                  | 4.00                 | 4.40      | 3.64              | 25                        | 4                               | 37                              |
| Deviation from GM | -0.60                                 | -0.92                | 0.27                 | -0.04                        | 0.43                | 0.15           | 0.39                  | 0.97                 | 0.42      | 0.12              |                           |                                 |                                 |

Table 14 (continued)

| Participant       | GMI capitals and participants' scores |                      |                      |                              |                     |                |                       |                      |           | Overall GMI score | Years lived outside Japan | <sup>a</sup> Countries lived in | <sup>b</sup> Countries traveled |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----------|-------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
|                   | Global intellectual capital           |                      |                      | Global psychological capital |                     |                | Global social capital |                      |           |                   |                           |                                 |                                 |
|                   | Global business savvy                 | Cosmopolitan outlook | Cognitive complexity | Passion for diversity        | Quest for adventure | Self-assurance | Intercultural empathy | Interpersonal impact | Diplomacy |                   |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 10    | 3.50                                  | 3.43                 | 4.40                 | 3.63                         | 3.00                | 2.60           | 3.67                  | 3.00                 | 3.60      | 3.43              | 13                        | 2                               | 30                              |
| Deviation from GM | 0.90                                  | 0.22                 | 0.47                 | -0.44                        | -0.77               | -1.05          | 0.23                  | -0.03                | -0.38     | -0.09             |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 11    | 3.00                                  | 3.29                 | 2.80                 | 3.26                         | 3.00                | 2.40           | 3.83                  | 3.33                 | 3.80      | 3.19              | 14                        | 3                               | 18                              |
| Deviation from GM | 0.40                                  | 0.08                 | -1.13                | -0.81                        | -0.77               | -1.25          | 0.39                  | 0.30                 | -0.18     | -0.33             |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 12    | 1.63                                  | 3.86                 | 4.20                 | 4.32                         | 3.80                | 4.40           | 4.33                  | 4.00                 | 4.40      | 3.88              | 3                         | 1                               | 12                              |
| Deviation from GM | -0.97                                 | 0.65                 | 0.27                 | 0.25                         | 0.03                | 0.75           | 0.89                  | 0.97                 | 0.42      | 0.36              |                           |                                 |                                 |
| Participant 13    | 2.13                                  | 2.71                 | 3.00                 | 2.97                         | 2.80                | 3.00           | 2.67                  | 3.00                 | 3.60      | 2.88              | 12                        | 2                               | 20                              |
| Deviation from GM | -0.47                                 | -0.50                | -0.93                | -1.10                        | -0.97               | -0.65          | -0.77                 | -0.03                | -0.38     | -0.64             |                           |                                 |                                 |

<sup>a</sup>Number of foreign countries lived for more than 6 mo.<sup>b</sup>Number of foreign countries traveled.

Participant 3 lived in the United Kingdom only 4 years, three as a graduate student and one working in a UK company, and his experience of working abroad was on a frequent but short business-trip basis. Participant 7 lived in the United States for the first 4 years as a high school student, and she went back to the United States for another 4 years as a graduate student at 44 with her children. Although she has always worked in an international environment with many non-Japanese colleagues and business partners, she only has a little experience working outside Japan except for a part-time job on her college campus as a student. Yet she scored 4.2 or above in all the GMI dimensions.

### **Global Leadership Competencies That Participants Regard as Important**

Table 15 shows the competencies that the participants regard as essential for global leadership. I did not directly ask the participants which competencies they thought were essential for global leadership, but I asked about their experiences and episodes that may suggest what they believed to be critical in an international workplace or setting. Many short stories were told during the interviews, and similar competencies kept coming up, which gave me the impression that data collection had reached saturation by the time the 13th interview was over.

Fifty-two codes were identified from the interview transcripts and classified under the GMI categorization. Many codes would not fit straight into each dimension of the capitals according to the definition of the GMI dimensions (Javidan & Bowen, 2013), so a broader interpretation of the dimensions and identified competency codes was sought when necessary to match the GMI model and the codes. However, three competencies remained unfit in the GMI categorization. They were humble, philanthropic, and thankful, which were sorted into the other category.

**Table 15***Global Leadership Competencies That Participants Regard as Important*

| Global intellectual capital  |                      |                             |
|------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| Global business savvy        | Cosmopolitan outlook | Cognitive complexity        |
| Know business                | Global perspective   | Creativity                  |
| Know local market            | Know Japan           | Critical thinking           |
| Professionalism              |                      | Good learner                |
|                              |                      | Intelligent                 |
|                              |                      | Thoughtful                  |
| Global psychological capital |                      |                             |
| Passion for diversity        | Quest for adventure  | Self-assurance              |
| Aptitude for being global    | Adventurous          | Action-oriented             |
| Aptitude for diversity       | Ambitious            | Calm                        |
| Curiosity                    | Challenger's spirit  | Energetic                   |
| Desire to go abroad          | Goal-oriented        | Optimistic                  |
| Enjoy spirit                 | Hard-working         | Person of character         |
| Loves to travel              |                      | Philosophical               |
|                              |                      | Resilient                   |
|                              |                      | Self-confidence             |
|                              |                      | Sense of calling            |
|                              |                      | Successful experience       |
|                              |                      | Visionary                   |
| Global social capital        |                      |                             |
| Intercultural empathy        | Interpersonal impact | Diplomacy                   |
| CQ (cultural intelligence)   | Assertive            | Can sense the mood          |
| Foreign language proficiency | Can be a role model  | EQ (emotional intelligence) |
| International experience     | Communication skill  | Sociable                    |
| Unprejudiced                 | Leadership           | Strategic                   |
|                              | Negotiator           | Supportive leadership       |
|                              | Networking skill     | Work for others             |
|                              | Team player          |                             |
| Other                        |                      |                             |
| Humble                       |                      |                             |
| Philanthropic                |                      |                             |
| Thankful                     |                      |                             |

Eleven of 13 participants asserted humility is very important as a global leader. Participant 3, who scored 4.2 in self-assurance, which is a high number, but the second lowest in his GMI scores, said,

Through my work, I've seen many entrepreneurs and established leaders who badly failed because of their arrogance. Self-assurance is important, but one must be careful not to have too much self-confidence. ... I have learned through business the goodness of being humble and the downside of having too much confidence.

Participant 4, a CEO who has been living in the United Kingdom for 28 years working with many people with multicultural backgrounds and has traveled to more than 130 countries, scored 3.0 in self-assurance. She said, "I'm not energetic or self-confident by nature. I don't like to stand in front of people." Her way of running the company or organizations she actively engages in is empowerment. She continued, "The moment I start a new role, I start thinking who the successors of my job would be. There are many people who have more abilities than I do, so it doesn't have to be me to take the lead."

Participant 5, despite her score of 5.0 in self-assurance, said, "The biggest reason for a failure is overconfidence. Having self-respect is important, but the key to communication is to lower your pride level and try not to behave like someone you're not." Participant 8, who lived and worked in the United States and Indonesia for 25 years in total and is now the executive vice president of a global financial company, who scored 3.4 in self-assurance, said,

I don't know if I'm humble or not, but the truth is that I've learned so much in my life from people around me. I've had opportunities to work for great bosses with

multicultural backgrounds throughout my career, and that was critical for my personal growth.

Participant 12, a CEO who scored 4.4 in self-assurance, said,

I always try to start something new. As a CEO, it's easy for me to be egoistic because I can decide on anything as I please. But that's dangerous. So, I intentionally create as many opportunities as possible to try something new so that I can encounter moments like 'Wow! I didn't know that!' or 'How come I can't do something like this?'

Ten of 13 participants said they were sometimes hesitant to pick higher options when they took the multiple-choice GMI test, thinking, "I'm not at that level in the context of global business," or "I know someone who would be at level 5, so I must be at level 2." Participant 5 said, "The more I learn, the more I realize I don't know things."

Participant 9 said,

I can help a UK company to expand their business in continental Europe; that's no problem. But if they ask me for some advice on doing business in Singapore, I can't help them. So, do I have Global Business Savvy? I must say my knowledge is very limited.

Participant 10, who holds an undergraduate degree from a top university in Japan, said, "I may be regarded as an elite in Japan. Still, since coming to London, I've met many people with great talents. It makes me feel I'm nobody." Participant 13, who scored lower than the grand average in every dimension despite having 12 years of working experience in the United Kingdom and in China as a factory manager and now the CEO of his company's subsidiary in Japan, said,

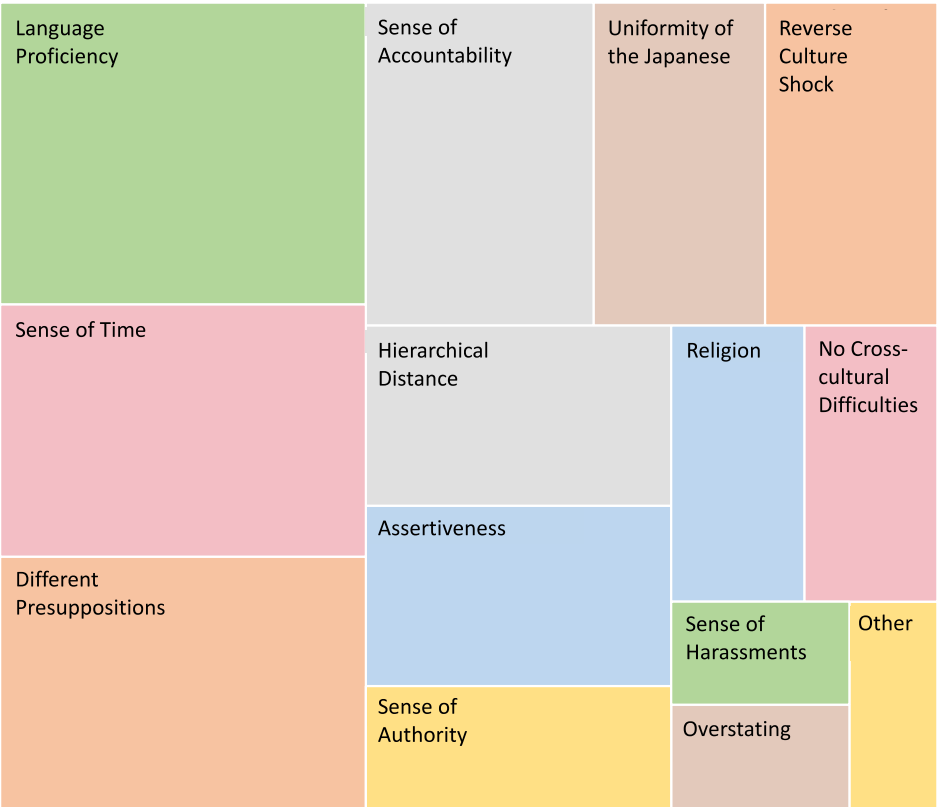
When I took the GMI test, I imagined other examinees taking the test would be established global leaders. I thought of particular individuals with global leadership who would be Level 3 or 4, and since I’m not at their level, I chose 2. I’m not surprised at the scores I got.

**Factors That Participants Found Challenging When Working Abroad**

The participants were asked what challenges they encountered while living or working abroad and whether such challenges derived from their being Japanese. Figure 12 shows the visualized chart of the results of coding by NVivo software. The larger the quadrangle is, the more participants talked about the same type of challenges and the bigger their impact had been.

**Figure 12**

*Cross-Cultural Challenges Participants Experienced When Living Outside Japan*





From Figure 12, the top challenges the participants experienced when working abroad were

- Language proficiency, which signifies the difficulty of communicating well in their nonnative language;
- Sense of time, in which the Japanese participants felt that the speed of action of individuals in the countries they worked was slower than what they had experienced in Japan;
- Different presuppositions, which includes understanding of societal rules and expected behaviors in the country they lived, historical and ethnical common sense that the Japanese in general are not exposed to or study at school in Japan, and varying expectations of different types of job roles in the overseas subsidiary; and
- Sense of accountability, which was experienced in two opposite ways. One is the lack of accountability of local people, for example, their failure to deliver what they had promised to do, acting unprofessionally when solving problems that originate from their faults, or not apologizing after suddenly canceling a meeting without explaining the reason. The other way was the lack of accountability on the Japanese side. Some participants learned that they had to be more explicit about their instructions than they would be in Japan. Because the nuance they naturally have in the Japanese workplace was not shared in the overseas subsidiary, the Japanese managers did not realize they would need to be more assertive. This made the local people feel that the Japanese expatriate managers were not accountable.

## **Global Mindset Development Approaches by the Participants**

This section delineates the participants' approaches to global mindset development (GMD) in the nine dimensions of the GMI capitals. Figures 13 to 21 show the visualized charts of the results of coding by NVivo software. The larger the quadrangle is, the more participants talked about the approach and stressed the importance of it.

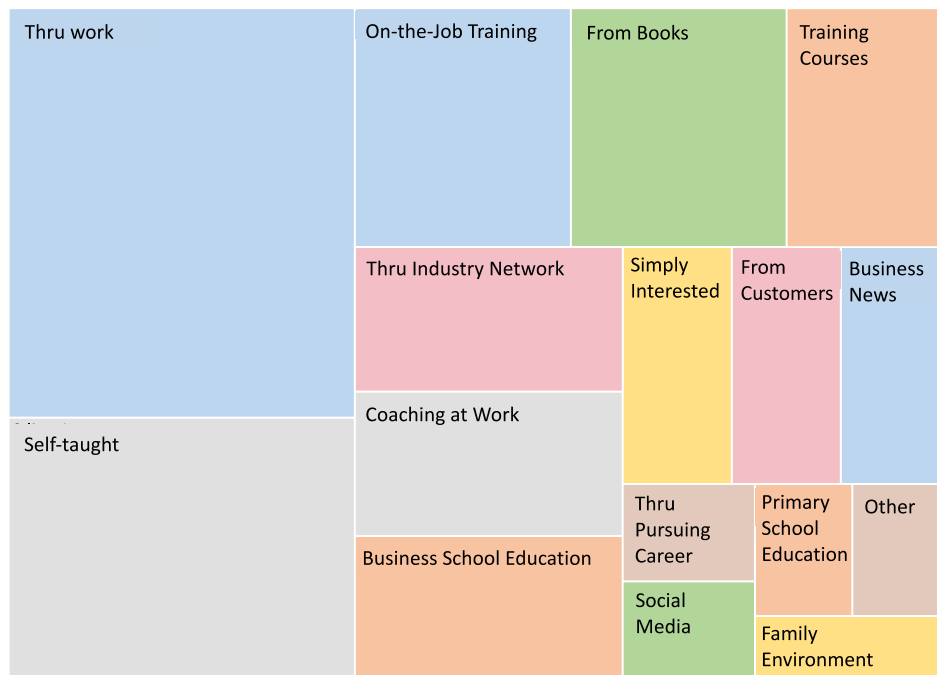
### **Development of Global Intellectual Capital**

As shown in Figures 13 to 15, the top approaches for developing global intellectual capital were as follows: (a) global business savvy: through work, self-taught, on-the-job training, through industry network, coaching at work, business school education, and from books; (b) cosmopolitan outlook: through work, parental or family influence, learned by the ear, by traveling, and by living abroad; and (c) cognitive complexity: through work, high school education, college education, and naturally so, which means the participant was unable to answer how they acquired the particular competency.

The participants consider that the best way to develop global intellectual capital is through work in all three dimensions. Understandably, the workplace is the best place to develop global business savvy, but it is interesting that they also developed cosmopolitan outlook through work rather than at school. A participant said, "I naturally learn those things because I am in such an environment," and another said, "I force myself to acquire the knowledge because it is common sense to my clients." Cognitive complexity is also developed through work. Logical thinking is not a subject in Japanese education, so those who learned it in school or college took a critical thinking course when they studied

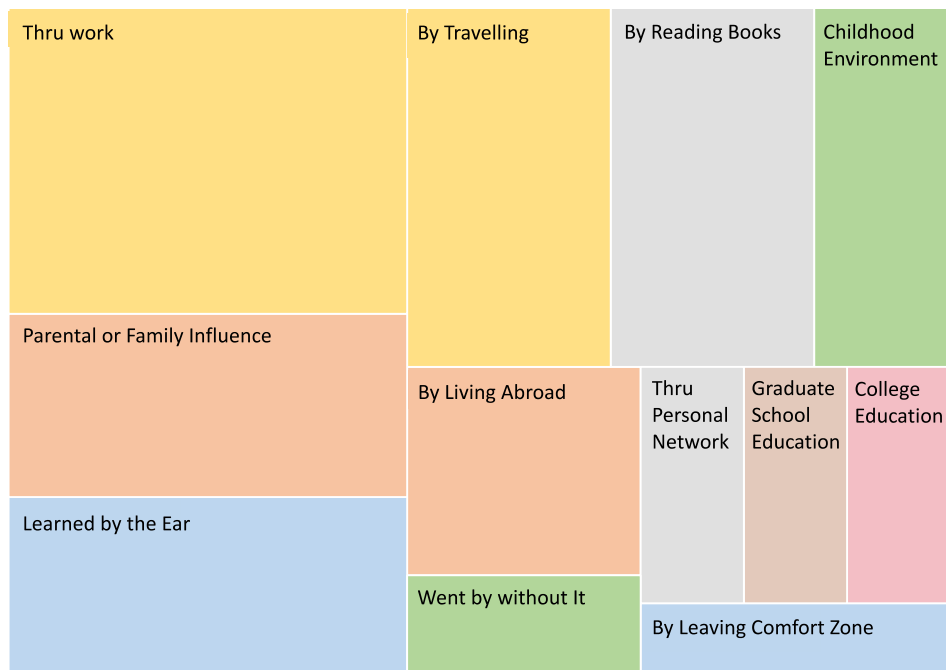
**Figure 13**

*Approaches Taken by Participants to Develop Global Business Savvy*



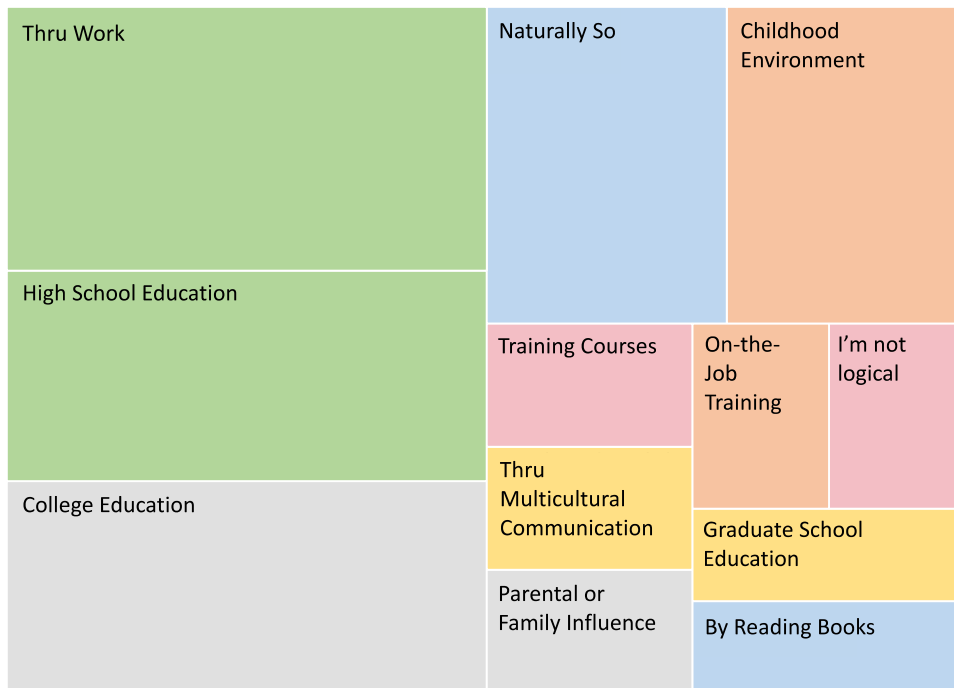
**Figure 14**

*Approaches Taken by Participants to Develop Cosmopolitan Outlook*



**Figure 15**

*Approaches Taken by Participants to Develop Cognitive Complexity*



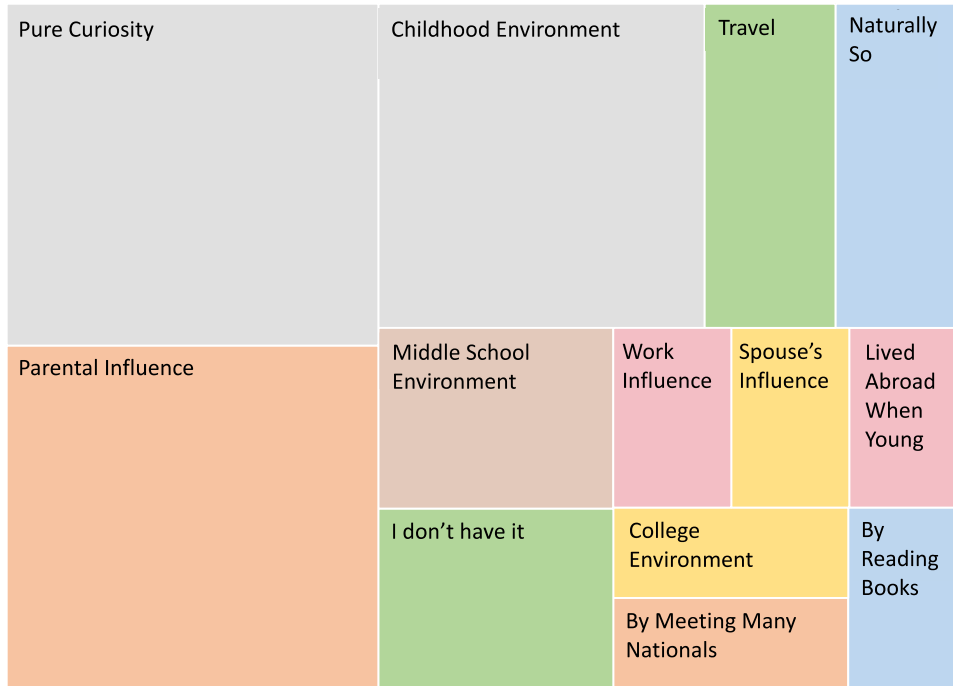
abroad or belonged to a debate club. Those who developed cognitive complexity at work said, “You must keep thinking at work,” “I must always produce evidence to support my assertion,” and “Clients often come up with vague ideas. It is my job to analyze them critically and bring their thoughts to life.”

### **Development of Global Psychological Capital**

Figures 16 to 18 show the participants’ approaches to developing global psychological capital. The top approaches were as follows: (a) passion for diversity: pure curiosity, parental influence, childhood environment, travel, and middle school education; (b) quest for adventure: naturally so, don’t like adventures, and parental or family influence; and (c) self-assurance: through work, parental influence, not so self-assured, and through pursuing a career.

**Figure 16**

*Approaches Taken by Participants to Develop Passion for Diversity*



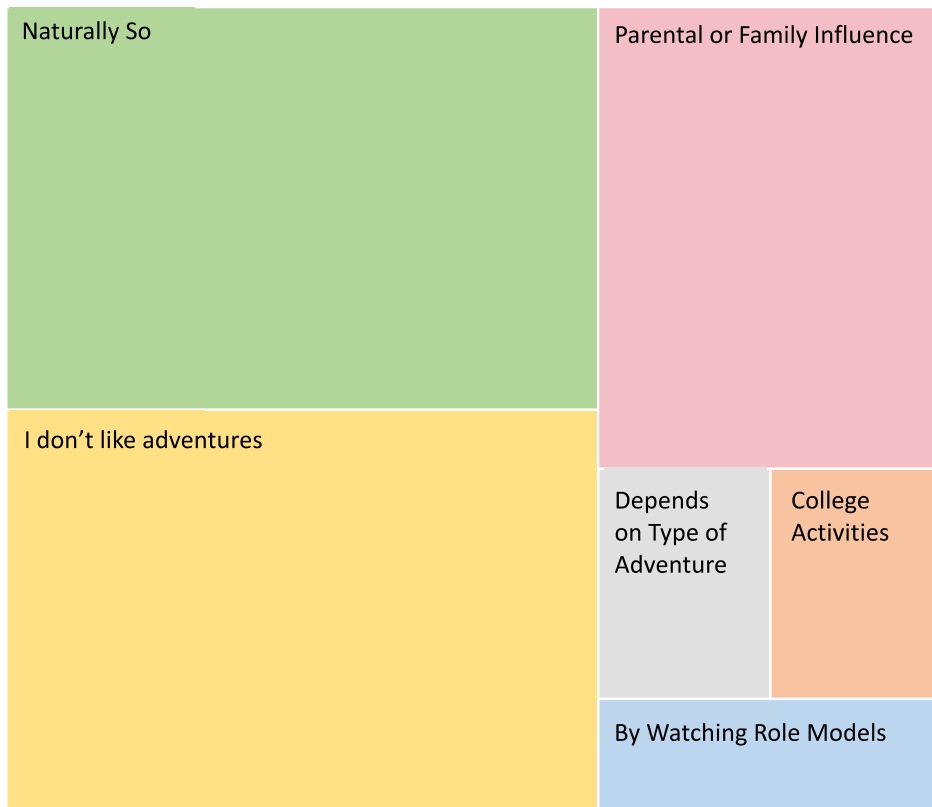
Psychological capital may not be something that can be developed. The most common answer for passion for diversity and quest for adventure was, “I don’t know how I developed it.” Some said their parents always played Western pop music at home, and others said their parents loved to travel domestically and internationally. Some said they met Western English teachers at school and became interested in foreign countries. However, some others did not have such a family background or environment, but they grew to be passionate about cultural diversity.

Quest for adventure saw two very different views. For the group that liked adventures, the top reason was “naturally so,” which, again, means “I don’t know how I developed it.” One participant said, “I don’t know why I want to keep trying new things. It’s just me. It’s my instinct.” Another said, “I’ve always had the character that makes me

want to go places and try something new since I was tiny.” The participant who had one of the lowest scores in quest for adventure said, “Basically, I’m not scared of anything. It’s probably because I have a feeling that things will always go as they should be, even in the matters or countries that I’m not familiar with.” The other major group was those who did not like adventures. One said, “I don’t want adventures at work. I must make everything work for my customers. My customers don’t need adventures,” and another said, “My job is based on risk management, so I became more risk-averse on top of my natural tendency of not wanting risks.” Another participant said, “I want to stretch my abilities to challenge in new fields, but I don’t think that’s taking a risk because I know what I’m doing.”

**Figure 17**

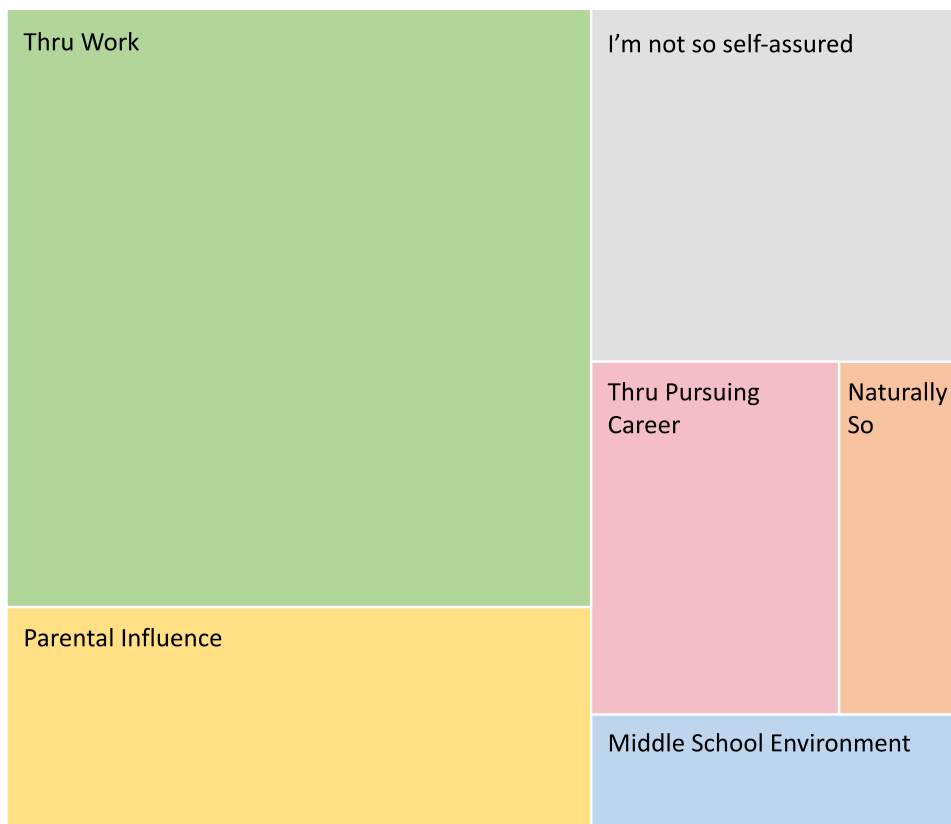
*Approaches Taken by Participants to Develop Quest for Adventure*



The top approach to developing self-assurance was through work. Getting trained and producing good results gradually increases the sense of self-confidence, which is totally understandable. However, several participants mentioned that having too much self-confidence could be detrimental. One participant, a former venture capitalist who scored one of the highest in self-assurance, said he had seen many entrepreneurs with too much self-confidence, leading to their failure. He is confident in who he is and what he does but he thinks being humble is very important at the same time.

**Figure 18**

*Approaches Taken by Participants to Develop Self-Assurance*

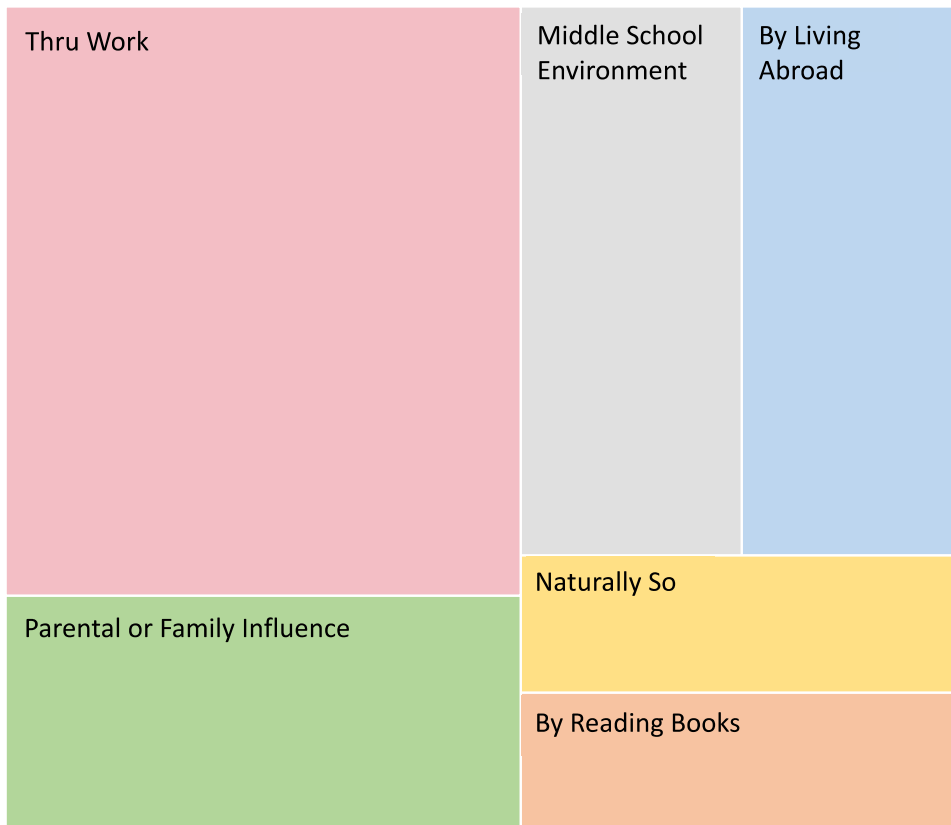


## Development of Global Social Capital

Figures 19 to 21 show the approaches to developing global social capital. The top approaches for developing global social capital were as follows: (a) intercultural empathy: through work, parental or family influence, middle school environment, and by living abroad; (b) interpersonal impact: through work, naturally so, through a mentor, parental or family influence, not good at giving interpersonal impact, and high school environment; (c) diplomacy: through work, not good at diplomacy, childhood environment, naturally so, through social activities, and middle school environment.

**Figure 19**

*Approaches Taken by Participants to Develop Intercultural Empathy*





The participants considered that the best way to develop global social capital is through work in all three dimensions. The development of intercultural empathy shows a similar tendency to that of cosmopolitan outlook; learning through work at the top, and parental or family influence the second. It may be so because one needs to appreciate different cultures as a basis for being empathetic to people with such backgrounds. Developing intercultural empathy through work came up naturally because the participants would spend a good part of the day working with their colleagues in the overseas workplace. They also mentioned influence by the family, where they became accustomed to foreign cultures and people since childhood.

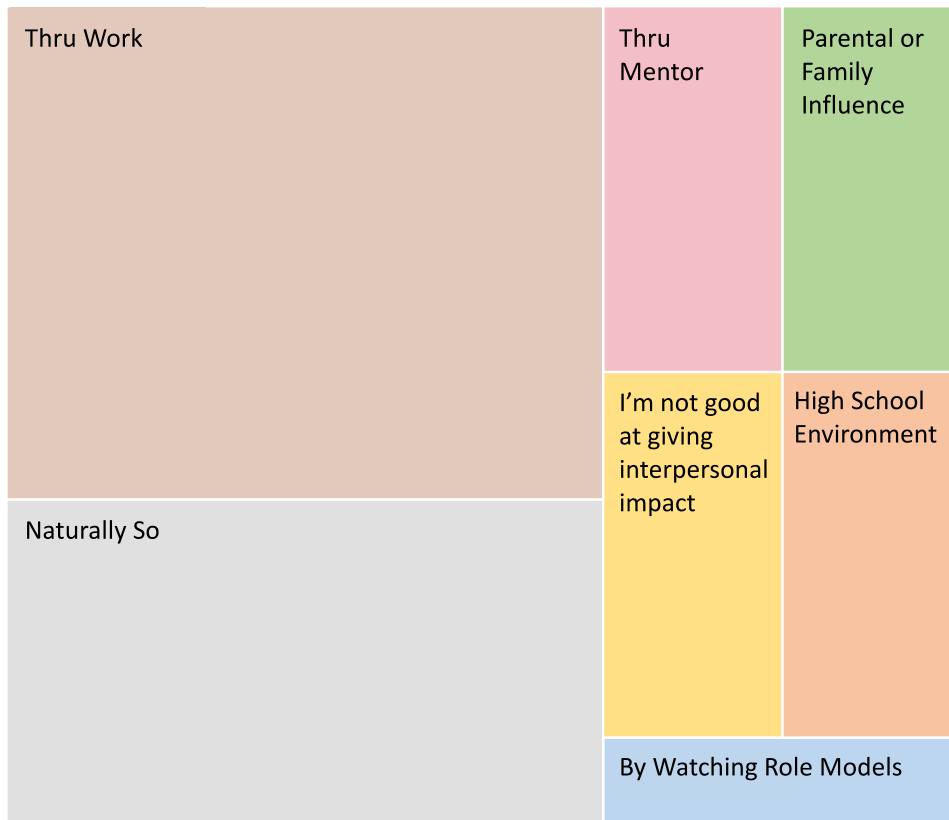
Interpersonal impact was again developed through work, which is understandable because it is about “experience in negotiating contracts in other cultures” and “reputation as a leader” (Javidan & Bowen, 2013, p. 150). Those who said, “naturally so” acknowledged that they are born leaders and that they can make an interpersonal impact by being themselves. They do not remember how such a personality was developed, as one participant’s comment may summarize: “I was always social since I was in primary school. I have always had many friends.”

Diplomacy was divided into two large groups, just like what happened to quest for adventure dimension. The examples of diplomacy by Javidan and Bowen (2013) include “ease of starting a conversation with a stranger,” “ability to integrate diverse perspectives,” “ability to listen to what others have to say,” and “willingness to collaborate” (p. 150). Those who said they like to talk to people around the world acknowledge that they have diplomacy, but those who focused on the “ease of starting a conversation with a stranger” explanation would not accept that they have high

diplomacy skills even though they scored high in the category and are prepared to “listen to what others have to say” and “willing to collaborate” at any time. Whichever the case, most of them admit that diplomacy is a requirement at work, and the development of it was done through work and other activities they were engaged in. The divided views may have come from different interpretations of the word “diplomacy.”

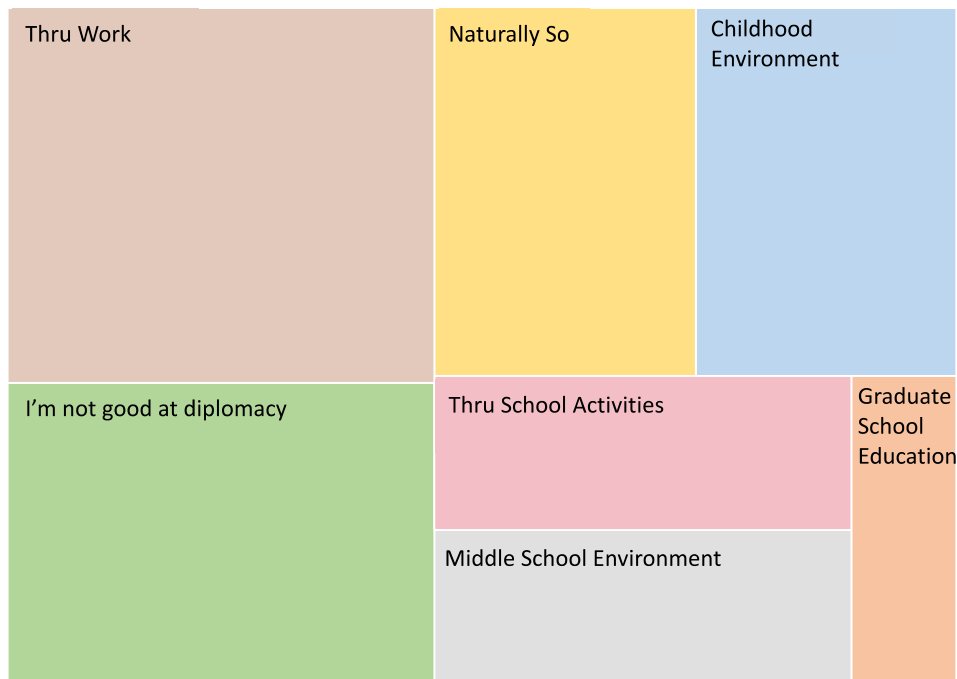
**Figure 20**

*Approaches Taken by Participants to Develop Interpersonal Impact*



**Figure 21**

*Approaches Taken by Participants to Develop Diplomacy*



### **Evaluation of the Findings**

This section evaluates and discusses the findings of the qualitative analysis. First, a comparison between the findings of this study and the suggested approaches to GMD by Javidan and Walker (2013) is presented. Second, the findings of this study are tested against Walker's (2018) GLDE model. Last, theoretical triangulation is carried out to examine the trustworthiness of the study.

### **Global Mindset Development Approaches of Japanese Global Leaders**

Table 16 shows the code distribution of GMD approaches of the participants by learning method—experiential, social, and cognitive. Overall, 80% of GMD was found to be done by the experiential learning method. Global intellectual capital was relatively more spread among the three methods; especially global business savvy was developed

equally by the experiential learning method and the cognitive learning method. The cognitive learning method was also used to some extent for cosmopolitan outlook and cognitive complexity; 100% of global psychological capital and 93% of global social capital were developed by the experiential learning method. The finding of this study shows a clear contrast to the GMD approaches suggested by Javidan and Walker (2013) shown in Table 8 (repeated here for ease of reference).

**Table 16**

*Number of GMD Approaches Taken by Study Participants per Learning Method*

| Capital                            | Dimension             | Experiential learning method | Social learning method | Cognitive learning method |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|
| Global intellectual capital        | Global business savvy | 18                           | 6                      | 18                        |
|                                    | Cosmopolitan outlook  | 20                           | 0                      | 4                         |
|                                    | Cognitive complexity  | 17                           | 1                      | 4                         |
| Global intellectual capital total  |                       | 55 ( 63%)                    | 7 (8%)                 | 26 (29%)                  |
| Global psychological capital       | Passion for diversity | 22                           | 0                      | 0                         |
|                                    | Quest for adventure   | 10                           | 0                      | 0                         |
|                                    | Self-assurance        | 13                           | 0                      | 0                         |
| Global psychological capital total |                       | 45 (100%)                    | 0 (0%)                 | 0 ( 0%)                   |
| Global social capital              | Intercultural empathy | 12                           | 0                      | 1                         |
|                                    | Interpersonal impact  | 17                           | 2                      | 0                         |
|                                    | Diplomacy             | 14                           | 0                      | 0                         |
| Global social capital total        |                       | 43 (93%)                     | 2 (4%)                 | 1 ( 2%)                   |
| Grand total                        |                       | 143 (80%)                    | 9 (5%)                 | 27 (15%)                  |

**Table 8**

*Number of GMD Suggestions by Javidan and Walker (2013) per Learning Method*

| Capital                            | Dimension             | Experiential learning method | Social learning method | Cognitive learning method |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|
| Global intellectual capital        | Global business savvy | 11                           | 19                     | 27                        |
|                                    | Cosmopolitan outlook  | 9                            | 14                     | 21                        |
|                                    | Cognitive complexity  | 14                           | 24                     | 14                        |
| Global intellectual capital total  |                       | 34 (22%)                     | 57 (37%)               | 62 (41%)                  |
| Global psychological capital       | Passion for diversity | 20                           | 23                     | 11                        |
|                                    | Quest for adventure   | 11                           | 19                     | 19                        |
|                                    | Self-assurance        | 15                           | 19                     | 15                        |
| Global psychological capital total |                       | 46 (30%)                     | 61 (40%)               | 45 (30%)                  |
| Global social capital              | Intercultural empathy | 13                           | 24                     | 23                        |
|                                    | Interpersonal impact  | 10                           | 17                     | 14                        |
|                                    | Diplomacy             | 12                           | 18                     | 16                        |
| Global social capital total        |                       | 35 (24%)                     | 59 (40%)               | 53 (36%)                  |
| Grand total                        |                       | 115 (26%)                    | 177 (39%)              | 160 (35%)                 |

*Note.* Adapted from *Developing Your Global Mindset: The Handbook for Successful Global Leaders*, by M. Javidan and J. L. Walker, 2013, Beaver's Pond Press.

Javidan and Walker (2013) suggested that GMD approaches should be equally spread among the three learning methods, but it does not seem to apply to Japanese GMD. The aim of this study was to explore how Japanese business leaders develop their GLCs. The literature has suggested that social and cognitive learning methods can be effective for GMD (Avey et al., 2011; Bell et al., 2015; Chan et al., 2018; Freedman, 2018; Haber-Curran & GuramatunhuCooper, 2020; Krivogorsky & Ballam, 2019; Parish, 2016; van der Horst & Albertyn, 2018), but the results of this study on Japanese GMD

approaches indicate that experiential learning is far more used than other methods, even more inclined to experiential learning than the widely renowned 70-20-10 rule.

### **Analysis Using the Global Leadership Development Ecosystem**

Walker (2018) developed the GLDE model, shown in Figure 2 (repeated here for ease of reference), which was used as the second conceptual framework to guide this study. The author suggested that two major factors have an influence on GMD: self-efficacy and travel; the former is the factor that encompasses the entire model because it “has strong positive correlations with all elements of the model” (Walker, 2018, p. 259), and the latter is the bridge between self-efficacy and social and psychological capitals.

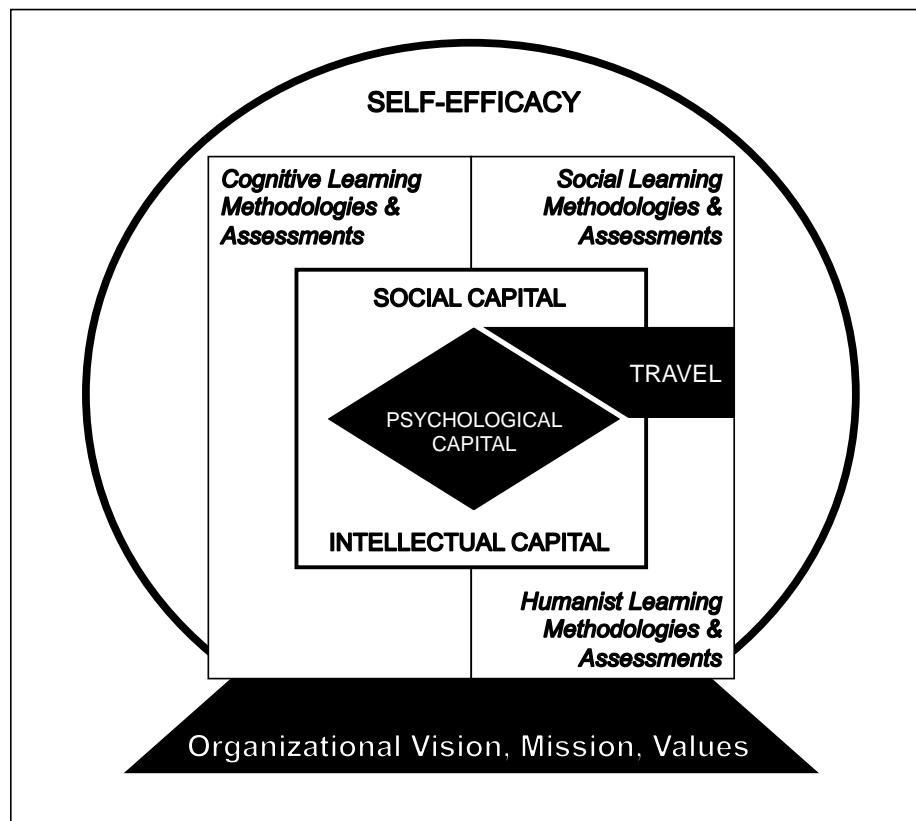
To check whether Walker’s (2018) model applies to Japanese GMD, two simple correlation analyses were carried out. First, to explore the correlation between GMD and self-efficacy, the overall GMI score of the participants was compared to their scores of self-assurance. Overall GMI score means the average score of all the nine dimensions of the GMI. Figure 22 shows the result, which indicates a positive correlation between the two variables, supporting Walker’s finding that self-efficacy is a vital factor for global leadership for the GMD of the Japanese.

Second, the correlation between the GMI test scores and the participants’ living and traveling abroad was explored. Figure 23 shows the GMI scores and the number of years each participant lived abroad, and Figure 24 shows the GMI scores and the number of countries they traveled to. The result is that there was no clear correlation between the overall GMI score and the number of years the participant lived outside Japan, but a positive correlation was observed between the GMI score and the number of countries they traveled to. Walker specifically made reference to the impact of travel on

psychological capital, saying, “Travel is represented as a pathway from self-efficacy into social capital, then into psychological capital” (Walker, 2018, p. 259). Therefore, the correlation was explored between the Social Capital score and the number of countries the participants traveled to. The result in Figure 25 shows the result that there is a strong correlation between the two variants, which supports that Walker’s assertion applies to the Japanese GMD.

**Figure 2**

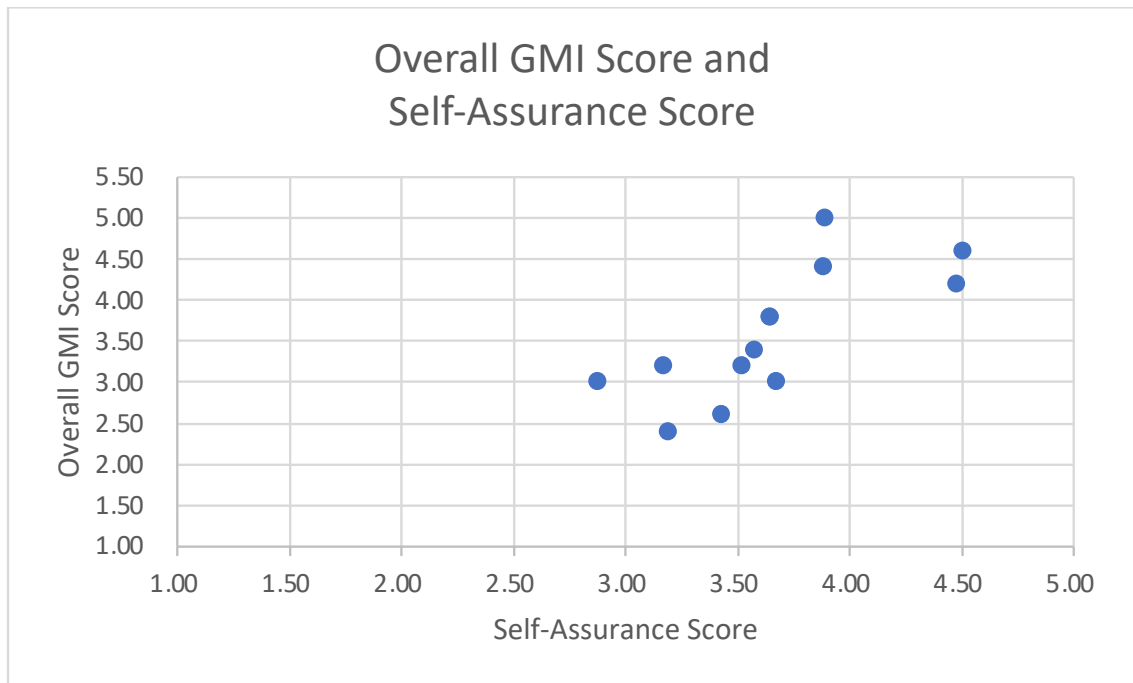
*Global Leadership Development Ecosystem Model*



*Note.* From “Do Methods Matter in Global Leadership Development? Testing the Global Leadership Development Ecosystem Conceptual Model,” by J. L. Walker, 2018, *Journal of Management Education*, 42(2), p. 261 (<https://doi.org/10.1177/1052562917734891>).

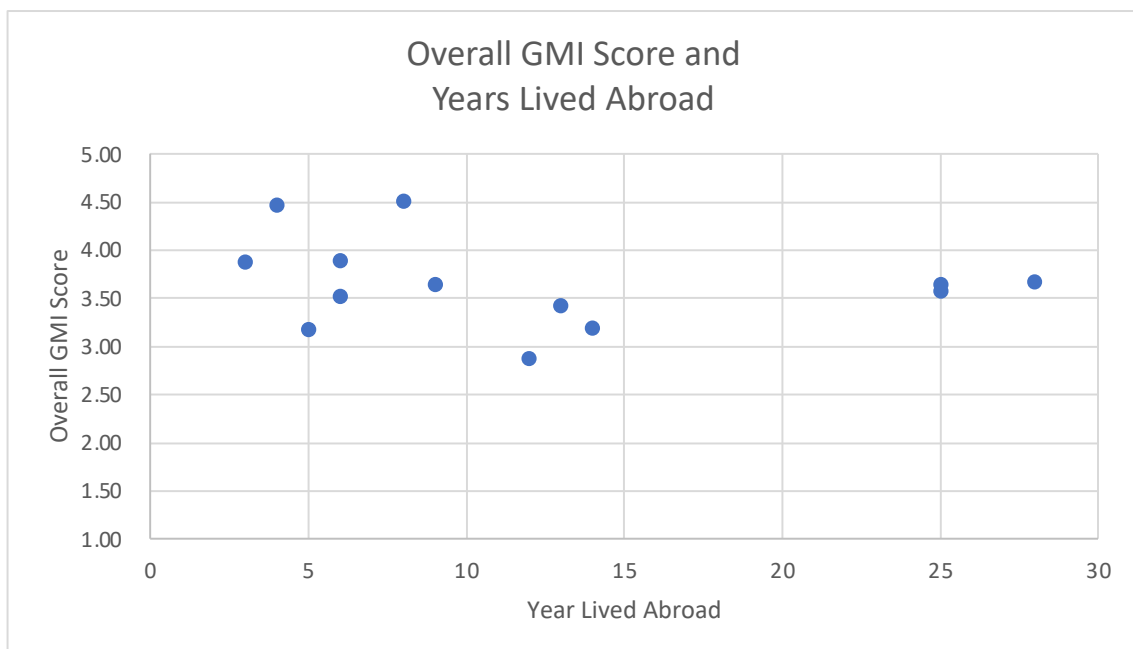
**Figure 22**

*Participants' Overall GMI Scores and Self-Assurance Score*



**Figure 23**

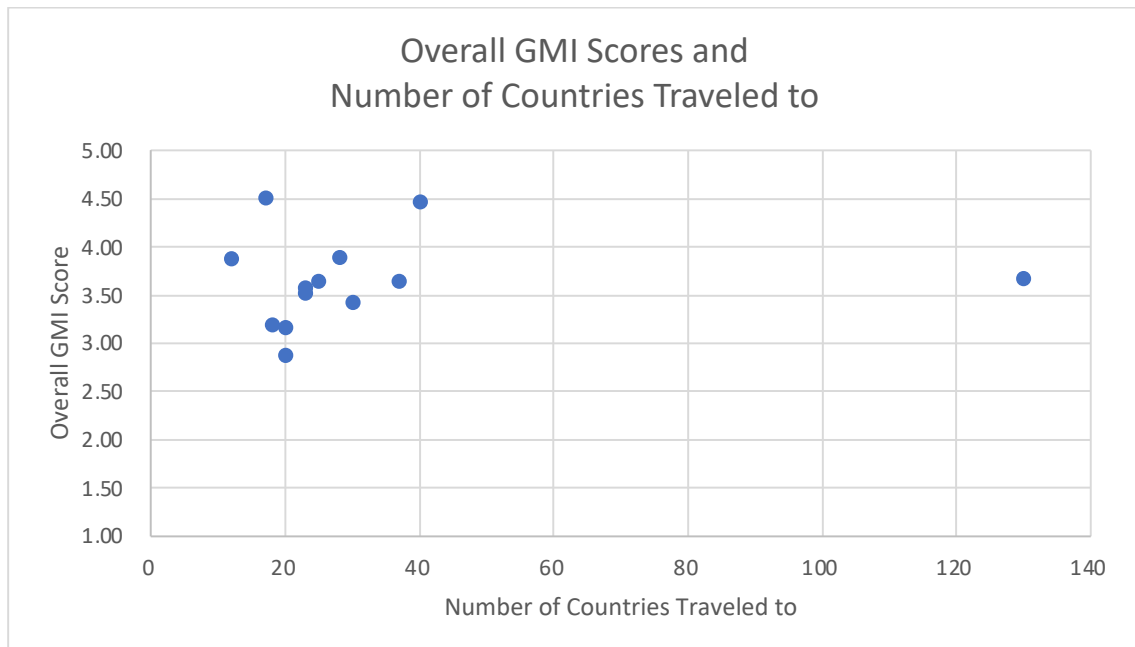
*Participants' Overall GMI Scores and the Number of Years They Lived Abroad*





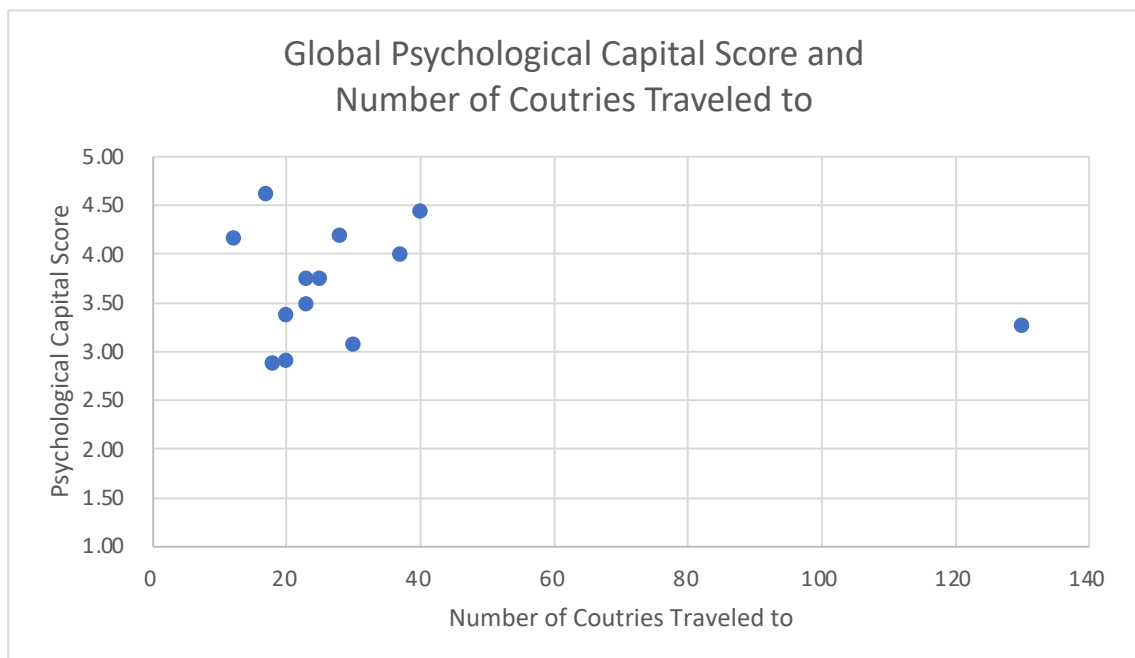
**Figure 24**

*Participants' Overall GMI Scores and the Number of Countries They Traveled to*



**Figure 25**

*Global Psychological Capital Scores and Number of Countries Traveled to*

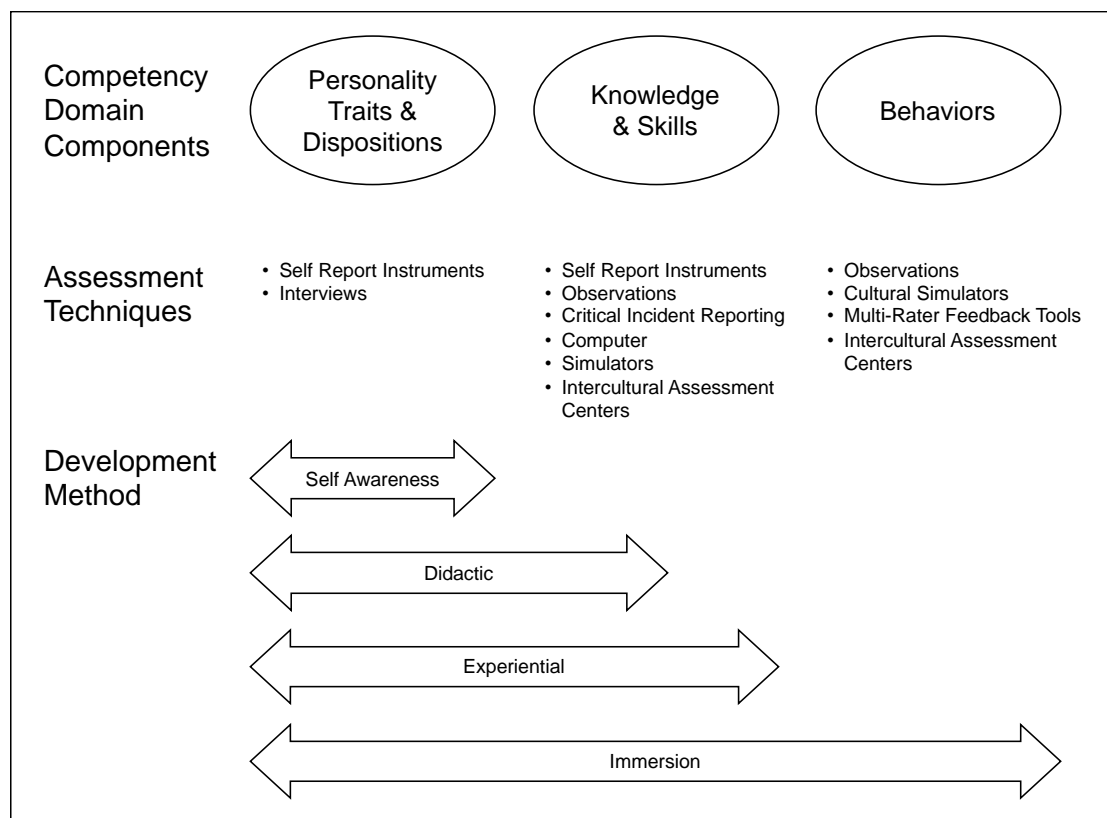


## Trustworthiness of the Study

To ensure the validity of this study, theoretical triangulation was carried out. The conceptual frameworks chosen for this study were GMI by Javidan and Bowen (2013) and the GLDE by Walker (2018). The findings based on these conceptual frameworks were cross-examined with two other models: the global leadership development by competency domain components (GLD-CDC) by Cumberland et al. (2016) shown in Figure 10 (repeated here for ease of reference), and the contrast, confrontation, and remapping (CCR) model by Black and Gregersen (2000).

**Figure 10**

*Global Leadership Development Framework by Competency Domain Components*



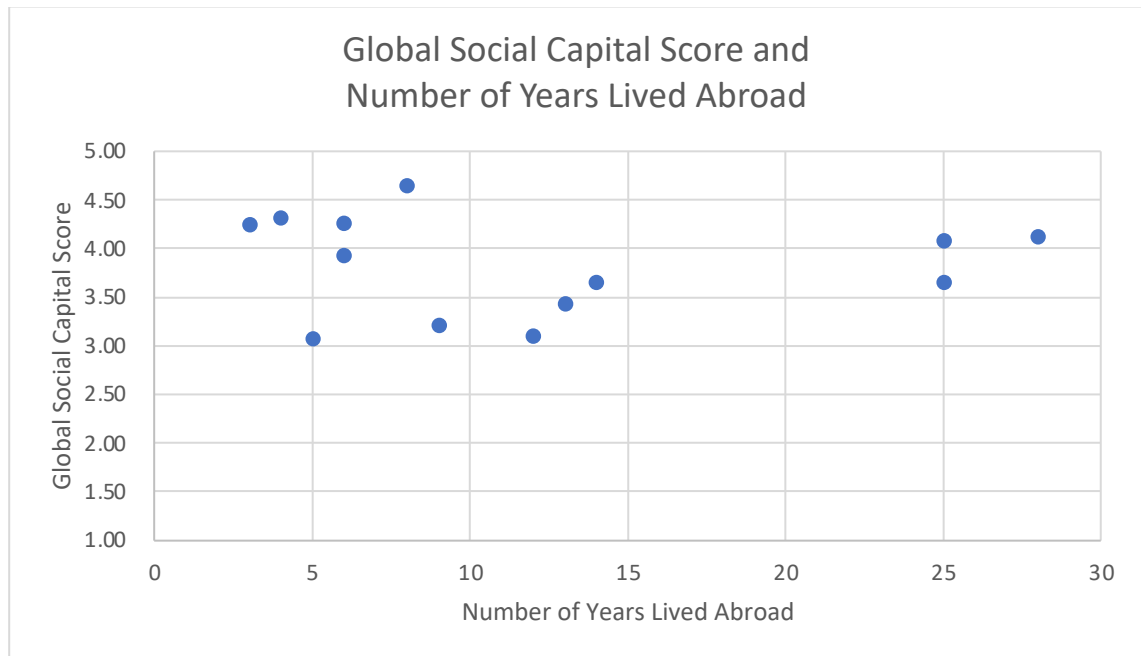
*Note.* From “Assessment and Development of Global Leadership Competencies in the Workplace: A Review of Literature,” by D. M. Cumberland, A. M. Herd, M. Alagaraja, and S. Kerrick, 2016, *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 18(3), p. 305 (<https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422316645883>).

The GLD-CDC model explains that personality traits and dispositions are developed through self-awareness, knowledge and skills through didactic and experiential learning in addition to self-awareness, and behaviors through immersion. This supports the findings of this study in which the component dimensions of global intellectual capital, or knowledge and skills, of the Japanese participants were mostly developed by cognitive and experiential learning approaches. In terms of behavior, which would have the most to do with global social capital, Figure 26 shows the correlation between global social capital and the number of years participants lived outside Japan. The result indicates that there is not much correlation between the two, which does not support the idea that living in foreign countries changes the behaviors of the Japanese into global leadership. The GLD-CDC model's immersion includes experiential, didactic, and self-awareness; therefore, it can be said that global intellectual capital of the participants would have been developed through didactic and experiential learning approaches.

The CCR model by Black and Gregersen (2000) describes the GLD process: contrast, confrontation, and remapping (CCR). Contrast is noticing things that are uniquely different from the person's background and experiences. Confrontation is facing the contrasting phenomenon in front of them and redrawing their prior mental cognition. Remapping is redrawing the person's cultural understanding by utilizing a conceptual framework that may explain the situation. This CCR process supports the finding of this study that experiential learning was the top approach of GMD of the participants, 63% in global intellectual capital, 100% of global psychological capital, and 93% in global social capital.

**Figure 26**

*Global Social Capital Score and Number of Years Lived Abroad*



### **Summary**

The aim of this study was to explore how Japanese business leaders develop their GLCs, in particular the global mindset, and this chapter presented the findings from the qualitative data analysis. The results revealed that, although the competencies suggested by Javidan and Bowen (2013) as the framework of GMI are still viable, there are some distinct factors that Japanese leaders regard as indispensable, namely, being humble. The analysis also revealed that Japanese leaders acquire necessary competencies mostly through work rather than through classroom learning or coaching. The next chapter discusses the implications and practical application of the findings in GLD programs for Japanese companies.

## CHAPTER 5: IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to find out which competencies of the global mindset Japanese business leaders find challenging to develop and explore how such competencies can be acquired or developed. If there is any difference from the Western approach to the development of leadership, ways to fill such a gap are suggested. This chapter discusses the implications learned from this study and recommends practical approaches to global leadership development (GLD) pertinent to Japanese MNEs.

### **Implications**

This study explored the following questions:

1. Which competencies of the structure of global mindset do Japanese business leaders find indispensable when they work outside Japan?
2. Which competencies of the structure of global mindset do Japanese business leaders find challenging to develop?
3. How did the Japanese business leaders with a high level of global mindset develop such competencies?
4. How can the findings of this research be implemented in GLD programs for Japanese MNEs?

### **Global Leadership Competencies from the Japanese Point of View**

It was found through this study that Japanese global leadership has many factors in common with Western global leadership competencies (GLCs), as described in the global mindset inventory (GMI) model. They are knowledge of business, knowledge of the markets, critical thinking skills, self-confidence, and people skills, including leadership and emotional intelligence. On the other hand, there are other factors about

which the participants of this study showed mixed views. They are quest for adventure and self-assurance of GMI.

As some participants indicated, quest for adventure would be preferable for global leadership as an individual, but it may not be necessarily good for a member of a company because taking a risk is not always appreciated in business. In particular, MNEs with a uniquely Japanese corporate culture would expect their employees to be not so adventurous even if they were outside Japan. This implication coincides with Oudhuis and Olsson (2015), who found that the Japanese mindset is rooted in perfection, obedience, and respect for authorities, which are demonstrated by notions and actions such as uncertainty avoidance, standardization, learning by heart, fear of losing face, improvements, long-term view, and focus on details. Those traits are not quest for adventure elements by any means.

Self-assurance was another dimension that many participants asserted should be treated with care. As discussed in Chapter 4, the participants stressed that being overconfident can lead to failure in business and organizational management. This supports the findings by Hirai and Suzuki (2016) that the unique characteristics of the Japanese culture are strengths in the international business scene. Those characteristics are

- respecting others and naturally providing delicate consideration,
- ability to promote peace and harmony,
- responsibility as a team,
- accurate time management and attention to detail,

- pursuit of a higher level of service, and
- a relentless attitude of improving their skills to enhance such abilities.

There are studies outside Japan that support leadership with honesty and humility, or humble leadership, as an essential element of leadership, which is effective for psychological safety, customer orientation, and promoting innovation (Maldonado et al., 2021; Ryan Kirkland et al., 2021; Zhang & Song, 2020). Humility is defined as “a recognition that something greater than the self exists” (Chandler et al., 2023, p. 2). This concurs with the comments the participants of this study repeatedly made, and as Hirai and Suzuki (2016) affirmed, humility should be regarded as a trait essential to global leadership.

### **Global Leadership Competencies Japanese Professionals Find Challenging to Develop**

As shown in Figure 11, the challenges the participants encountered were factors that are difficult to experience in Japan. They are

- the local language, including English,
- the customary behaviors in the workplace, and
- the common sense that only local people in the same culture share.

These factors can be learned in Japan by didactic approaches, but the effectiveness and efficiency of learning them would be much greater if it were done in the local environment using all three learning methods, especially experiential learning. This makes sense because the participants declared that learning through work was their top approach to acquiring the GMI competencies.

Every participant experienced some sort of cross-cultural gaps at work. Even the four adult third culture kids (ATCKs) in this study, Participants 2, 9, 10, and 11 had some level of difficulty in adjusting to the local business culture and in some cases, learning the Japanese business culture. As Hofstede's (2001) stabilizing of culture patterns (Figure 7) indicates, organizational culture derives from societal norms. One who goes to another country and works there would need to learn new societal norms and consequently new business cultures unless it is nearly equal to what they have lived in. Being an ATCK only means that they lived in a particular society outside Japan and learned the societal norms practiced in that particular society. It does not mean they do not have cross-cultural issues, so they must also learn new societal norms when they start in a new country, including Japan.

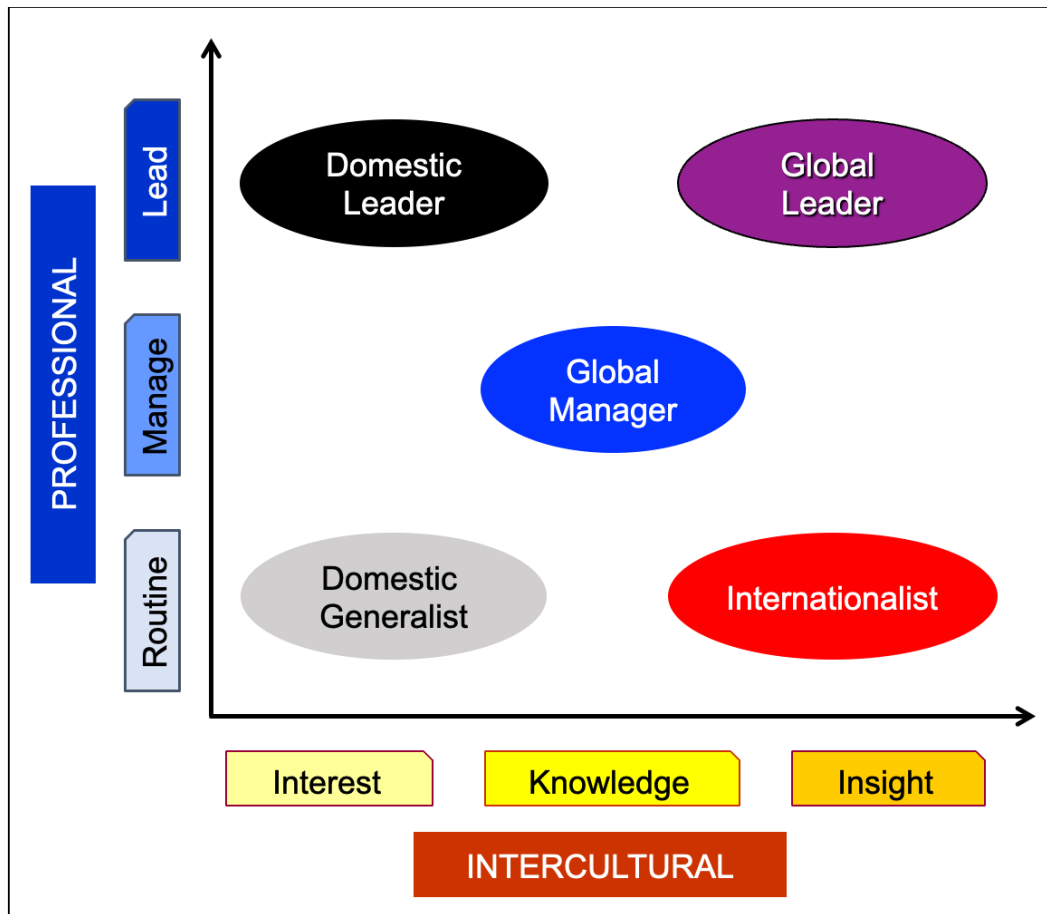
### **Global Leadership Matrix**

Based on the preceding research and discussions on global leadership (Bird, 2018; Bird & Stevens, 2018; Hirai & Suzuki, 2016; House et al., 2004; Javidan & Bowen, 2013; Kim & McLean, 2015; Mendenhall, 2018; Mendenhall et al., 2017; Sadler & Hofstede, 1976; Walker, 2018), I generated the global leadership matrix as shown in Figure 27. This is a simple matrix that has two axes: professional and intercultural. Depending on the location in each axis, the professional axis ascending from routine, manage, and lead, and the intercultural axis ascending from interest, knowledge, and insight, five models with a different level of global competency can be described.



**Figure 27**

*Global Leadership Matrix*



The five models of global leaders can be described as follows:

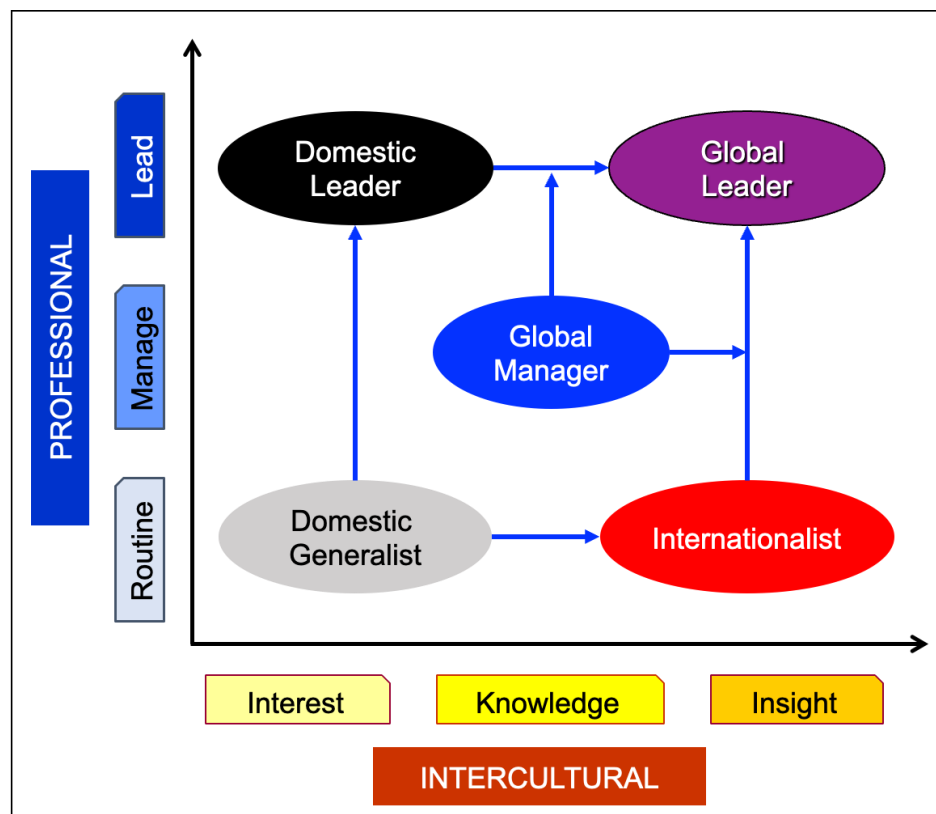
- Domestic generalist: Good command of executing their job but no more than a generalist in the domestic business domain,
- Internationalist: High command of foreign languages and very much accustomed to the international business domain but does not have sufficient management or leadership skills,
- Domestic leader: Capable of bringing out excellent results in required areas but only in their domestic market/context,

- Global manager: Good understanding of the global context and capable of producing required results in both domestic and international business domains, but the level in each is not particularly high, and
- Global leader: Among the global managers, one with particularly high management and leadership skills viable in the international /intercultural domain that are used to bring out excellent results continuously.

Using this global leadership matrix, one can roughly position them at the global leadership level and in which direction the person should develop their competencies. Corporate talent development approaches can also be structured following the matrix, as shown in Figure 28.

**Figure 28**

*Global Leadership Development Directions*



If the employee is a domestic generalist with a strong will to grow into a global leader, they must develop both professional and intercultural skills and mindsets. If the person already has relatively high skills in domestic business, intercultural training should be provided. If the person has much intercultural experience like an ATCK and they want to develop business skills, going to a business school may be an option. For a global manager, who has sufficiently high skills and mindsets in both axes, an executive MBA may be good.

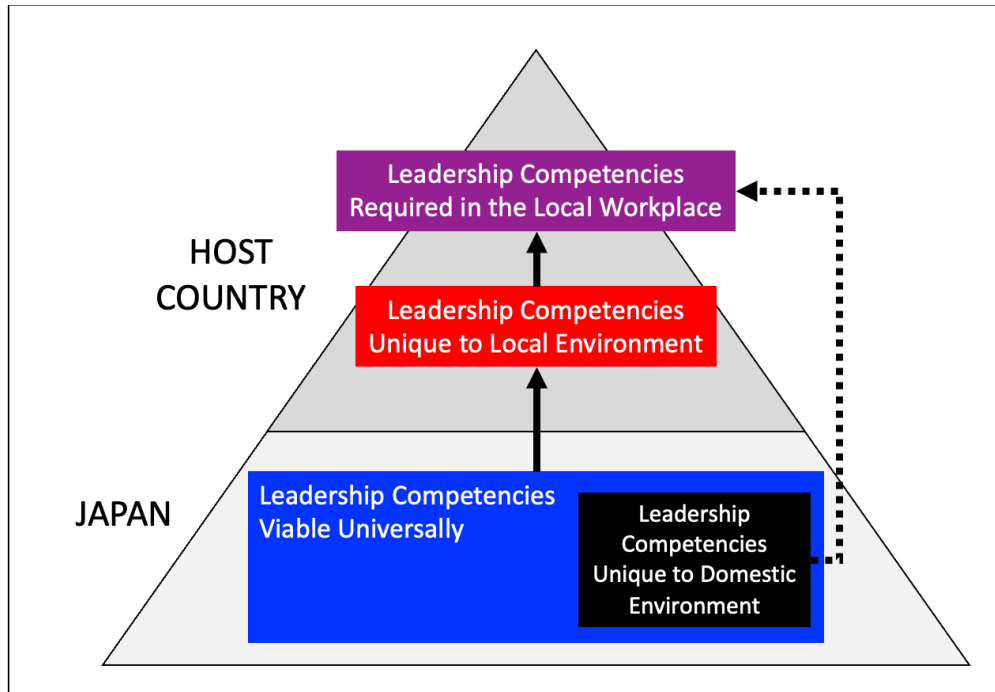
### **How Japanese MNEs Should Develop Their Employee's Global Leadership**

Through the preceding discussions, Japanese MNEs should take the following approaches to develop global competencies. Figure 29 describes the paths for developing global competencies from Japan to the local workplace. The steps are

1. Distinguish leadership competencies that are unique to Japan and those that are also viable universally;
2. Identify competencies practiced in Japan but can also be transferred to the host country to which the company's secondee will be positioned;
3. Also identify competencies unique to Japan but be practiced in the host country's local workplace for professional reasons such as production systems and *kaizen* (continuous improvement) activities of manufacturing excellence, which is indicated by the dotted line in Figure 29; and
4. Allow sufficient time for the new secondee to learn the societal norms or leadership competencies unique to the host country so that they may acquire competencies required in the local workplace and fit well in it.

**Figure 29**

*Global Leadership Competency Development Paths*



Leadership competencies of the Japanese culture that are universally viable would be those identified by Hirai and Suzuki (2016). They are

- respecting others and naturally providing delicate consideration,
- ability to promote peace and harmony,
- responsibility as a team,
- accurate time management and attention to detail,
- pursuit of a higher level of service, and
- a relentless attitude of improving their skills to enhance such abilities.

Leadership competencies unique to Japan are the ones identified by the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004) and Fukushige and Spicer (2007) as missing. The GLOBE study (House et al., 2004) indicated that Japanese leaders lack the following:

- charismatic/value-based leadership, which inspires, motivates, and leads based on core values;
- participative leadership, which builds effective teams that move toward common goals; and
- humane oriented leadership, which shows support, consideration, compassion, and generosity.

Fukushige and Spicer (2007) indicated two elements of the full-range leadership model by Bass and Avolio (1997) as not endorsed in Japanese leadership. They are

- idealized influence attributed, which requires a leader to be confident, powerful, highly ethical, and act as a role model; and
- inspirational stimulation, which requires a leader to motivate, inspire, and challenge followers through vision, team spirit, enthusiasm, and optimism.

Japanese MNEs must clarify what is common and what is not between Japan and the local workplace and take measures to fill the gap. Otherwise, the cultural clashes in local subsidiaries and factories caused by differences in management styles will continue, and they could be detrimental to Japanese MNE's global business (Fukushige & Spicer, 2007, 2011; Oudhuis & Olsson, 2015). The next section discusses practical recommendations based on this study.

### **Recommendations**

This section discusses recommendations in two approaches. One is the development of individuals, or global talent development, and the other is the development of the company as a whole, or organizational development. Finally, areas for future research are suggested.

## **Global Talent Development**

Talent development should be done by the following steps:

1. Define or describe an ideal image of a global leader with pertinent competencies,
2. Understand the current status of the person expected to be a global leader, and
3. Design the optimal methodologies that may fill the gap between (1) and (2).

This is a typical process of problem solving that can be applied to talent development planning.

The definition and description of an ideal global leader can be done in two categories. The first category is universally viable competencies, and it can be described using either the GMI model (Javidan & Bowen, 2013) with three capitals and nine dimensions of global mindset; or framework of nested GLCs by Bird (2018) as shown in Table 1 (repeated here for ease of reference). This compilation work of Bird (2018) is in line with the implications of this study described in Figure 27, which suggests that competencies viable universally and those unique to the domestic environment can be distinguished. Out of the 15 competencies that Bird (2018) listed, only two are required in the global setting: cross-cultural communication and global mindset. All others are more universal, and leaders who operate only in a domestic market would also need them at a high level.

The other category to describe ideal global leadership is locally unique competencies. They are culture-specific competencies, as delineated by Hofstede (2001) and the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004). Ideal global leadership consists of two sets of leadership competencies: universally viable and locally unique. Therefore, an ideal image of global leadership to reach should be described using the two approaches.

**Table 1***Framework of Nested Global Leadership Competencies*

| <i>Business &amp; Organizational Acumen</i> | <i>Managing People &amp; Relationships</i> | <i>Managing Self</i> |
|---|--|----------------------|
| Vision & Strategic Thinking                 | Valuing People                             | Inquisitiveness      |
| Leading Change                              | Cross-cultural Communication               | Global Mindset       |
| Business Savvy                              | Interpersonal Skills                       | Flexibility          |
| Organizational Savvy                        | Teaming Skills                             | Character            |
| Managing Communities                        | Empowering Others                          | Resilience           |

*Note.* From “Mapping the Content Domain of Global Leadership Competencies,” by A. Bird, 2018, p. 139, in *Global Leadership: Research, Practice, and Development* (3rd ed.), Routledge.

Understanding the current status of the person expected to become a global leader should be done by assessment. The review of the literature of this study identified four approaches:

- cultural intelligence assessment approach (Whitaker & Greenleaf, 2017),
- assessment center methodology (Herd et al., 2016),
- GMI test (Javidan & Bowen, 2013), and
- early career potential approach (Tarique & Weisbord, 2013, 2018).

The cultural intelligence (CQ) assessment approach would be the most practical one because the assessment center (AC) methodology is still only a hypothesis and has not been tested yet (Herd et al., 2016). The GMI approach is an online-based assessment test that has been running for some years now, but it is a self-assessment approach, and its absolute reliability needs to be validated. As exposed by the participants of this study, a high-level corporate executive with over 20 years of global experience can score lower in the GMI test than other participants with less experience working at a lower organizational level because of their belief in humble leadership. The early career

potential approach, represented by ATCKs, may suggest that the person is likely to react with flexibility in a cross-cultural environment, but this approach also needs caution because, as previously discussed, an ATCK is raised in a non-Japanese environment, but such experience may not be transferrable to other cultures that the ATCK is unfamiliar with.

Whether a person is willing or ready to become a global business person is not easy to determine. Japanese MNEs have recently started strategic talent management by making a pool of talents, intentionally appointing future leaders, and allocating them to challenging positions, including secondment to overseas subsidiaries (Ishiyama & Yamashita, 2017). The actual process of talent appointment varies from company to company, but introducing some sort of assessment tool or approach, including those just described, is critical. It is because talent management, employee training, and motivation have a close relationship with one another, and they must be managed carefully (Iacono et al., 2020; Naizm et al., 2021; Nzonzo & du Plessis, 2020; Poisat et al., 2018).

Global talent development should be carried out as a combination of experiential, social, and didactic learning methods. This study revealed that the participants developed their talents mostly through experiential learning, but it does not mean their approach was ideal. The problem with the experiential learning method is that the learning process is left in the hands of the learner, and the quantity or quality of the experience cannot be controlled. Therefore, more social and didactic learning approaches should be introduced in global talent development. Learning the gap between the universally viable and locally unique leadership styles can be taught as a course in a classroom setting. After the global leadership candidate is seconded abroad and has started experiencing local norms, it



would be effective to use a coaching method by their predecessor or someone who has cross-cultural learning expertise to make sure the experiential learning cycle—feeling, watching, thinking, and doing—is occurring within the person.

### **Organizational Development**

Global talent development is a corporate-wide issue, so it should not be left in the hands of the human resources department, but it should be planned and controlled from the top management level. Japanese MNE's GLD system should combine training and assignment, and they should be for both Japanese and non-Japanese future leaders.

Training for global leadership was discussed in the previous section. In order not to make it ad hoc trials, a pool of future global talents must be made, and their training must be planned in the span of, say, 10 to 15 years, starting as early as mid-20s. The global leader candidates in the pool of talents should be notified that they are in the pool as a future prospect, which does not guarantee their future positions, but it would give them a wide career path they can pursue.

Assignments of global leader prospects should be regarded as a training opportunity, especially when they are at an early stage of their career. They should be well aware that they are not going to an overseas subsidiary to control it but to be trained through work. Their main task should be to develop their global mindset and sharpen their global leadership skills through living and working in that country and not to act as a catalyst between the local subsidiary and the headquarters in Japan. Without fully understanding the purpose of their assignment, doing can come before learning. Learning does not mean one does not need to produce the required results, and working hard to produce results would be a great learning process, but if doing comes first, learning can

be easily left behind. So the top management must be in control of the whole process of global talent management through training and assignment.

### **Suggestions for Future Research**

There are several suggestions for future researchers of this topic. First, this study was based on the participants who met the criteria of being a Japanese national, 10 years or more of working experience, and 3 years or more of experience total in living, working, or studying outside Japan. These conditions were intentionally set because from my experience, being an executive of a Japanese MNE's overseas subsidiary does not necessarily mean the person has the necessary GLCs. Whether it is true or not should be tested. A study using a sample group of executives only may present a contrasting result.

Second, this study was based on Japanese professionals. As the result of this study showed, there are certain competencies that the Japanese participants regard as highly important but not particularly mentioned as a GLC in the previous research (Bird, 2018; Fukushige & Spicer, 2007, 2011; Hirai & Suzuki, 2016; House et al., 2004; Javidan & Bowen, 2013; Mendenhall et al., 2017; Sadler & Hofstede, 1976; Walker, 2018). If the same study is done using a sample group of different nationalities, it may present a contrasting result based on contrasting cultures (House et al., 2014; House et al., 2004). A study on expatriates working in Japan would also be intriguing.

Third, more empirical research is needed on Japanese GLD. There are very few studies on this topic, not only in English but also in Japanese literature (Hirai & Suzuki, 2016). With so much economic impact of the Japanese industry on the world (JETRO, 2020; UNCTAD, 2020; World Bank, 2020), Japanese corporations should do better to avoid conflicts at local subsidiaries and become more productive as they are in the

domestic market (Fukushige & Spicer, 2007, 2017; Oudhuis & Olsson, 2015). More academic work is necessary.

### **Conclusion**

The aim of this study was to explore approaches of GLD for Japanese professionals. There was a plethora of literature on GLD from the Western point of view, but not all of them seemed applicable to the Japanese cases in which the language, culture, and career-making are relatively unique. The findings of this study endorsed many of the conventional GLD approaches but shed light on those that should be emphasized when they are considered for Japanese MNEs. They are recognizing the difference, treasuring Japan's good traits that are universally viable, learning locally unique traits, and developing talents systematically.

The participants of this study developed their GLCs mostly through work without being on a global talent development system because they were well aware that they were learners, and they still are. Japanese MNEs must make sure that the talent development system they build functions well and produces future global leaders because they are the ones who build the future of the company.

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A

### Interview Questions for Research Participants

1. When you work/worked in a foreign country or working with non-Japanese people, what aspects of taking leadership do/did you find most challenging??
2. Do you think the challenges you experienced derive from Japanese cultural styles? If so, what are they?
3. What do you think of the results of the GMI? Which items did you find contrary to your expectations?
4. Please tell me how you developed each item of the GMI. Any particular methods or experiences that you think contributed to its development?
  1. How do you think you acquired your “Global Business Savvy”?
    - ※ Global Business Savvy: Your understanding of the consumers, markets, and competitors in your industry in different parts of the world.
  2. How do you think you acquired your “Cognitive Complexity”?
    - ※ Cognitive Complexity: Your understanding that there are many more variables to consider in decision-making when working across cultures and global markets.
  3. How do you think you acquired your “Cosmopolitan Outlook”?
    - ※ Cosmopolitan Outlook: Your understanding that the world is full of diversity.
  4. How do you think you acquired your “Passion for Diversity”?
    - ※ Passion for Diversity: Your interest in traveling, trying new foods and cultures, and getting to know diverse peoples.
  5. How do you think you acquired your “Quest for Adventure”?
    - ※ Quest for Adventure: Your willingness to test yourself and try new things.
  6. How do you think you acquired your “Self-Assurance”?
    - ※ Self-Assurance: Your self-confidence and high energy level as a leader.
  7. How do you think you acquired your “Intercultural Empathy”?
    - ※ Intercultural Empathy: Your ability to emotionally connect with someone who comes from another part of the world.



8. How do you think you acquired your “Interpersonal Impact”?
  - ※ Interpersonal Impact: Your skills as a leader to influence others and bring out differences.
9. How do you think you acquired your “Diplomacy”?
  - ※ Diplomacy: Your being a good conversation starter, good listener, good integrator of diverse perspectives, and a good collaborator.

## APPENDIX B

### **Invitation to Participate in Research**

This is an announcement to be posted on the researcher's Facebook group sites to recruit survey participants. This announcement will be in Japanese; this is its English translation.

#### **Assess your Global Mindset level Seeking research participants for my doctoral dissertation**

I'm studying for a DBA (Doctor of Business Administration) degree at California Baptist University, and I'm currently writing a doctoral dissertation. The theme of my paper is "Global Mindset Development: Qualitative Research of Japanese Business leaders based on the Global Mindset Inventory." The research aims to learn how a person may acquire a global mindset.

- Global mindset: An individual's capability to influence others who are unlike themselves.

For my research, I'm looking for around 15 participants who can help me study how one may develop a global mindset by taking a 15-minute, multiple-choice online assessment test called The Global Mindset Inventory (GMI), and by having an interview with me for 30 minutes. The GMI was developed by the Thunderbird School of Global Management at Arizona State University. Ordinarily, it costs \$150 to take the GMI, but you can take it and receive the scoring and feedback report free of charge because it is for my research project.

Below are the preconditions to participate in my research. The GMI test has 82 questions, and the additional questionnaire has nine questions. Both the GMI and the questionnaire will be in plain English.

1. You are a Japanese national
2. Ten years or more of working experience
3. Three years or more of experience in total in living, working, or studying outside Japan.

If you can help me with my research by taking the GMI assessment, please send me a direct message via Messenger with your email address. I will send you the URL and the passcode to log in to take the test. After the test result is produced, I will contact you to arrange a time to interview you online.

The results of the assessment and the questionnaire will be treated as strictly confidential, and they will be used solely to write my doctoral dissertation. No data or information about you or your assessment results will be disclosed to any third party. You will be given an Informed Consent Form before participating in the research, per the Institutional Review Board at California Baptist University, Riverside, California, USA.

Yasunari Matsuura

DBA Candidate (ABD)

Dr. Robert K. Jabs School of Business  
California Baptist University

## APPENDIX C

### Informed Consent Form

Dear Research Participant,

The purpose of this form is to let you know and understand the relevant elements of my (Yasunari Matsuura's) research project and seek your informed consent prior to your participation in my project. The research I am conducting is for a doctoral dissertation in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) at California Baptist University (CBU), Riverside, California, USA. Obtaining your informed consent is in accordance with the research guidelines by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at CBU.

IRB is a committee tasked with the review of research and the protection of human participants. If you should have any questions about the nature of the research, your participation, or your rights as a research participant, please contact the IRB via email at [IRB@calbaptist.edu](mailto:IRB@calbaptist.edu).

**Dissertation Title:**

Global Mindset Development: Qualitative Research of Japanese Business Leaders based on the Global Mindset Inventory

Researcher: Yasunari Matsuura, DBA candidate (ABD), CBU

Advisor: Dr. Henry L. Petersen, PhD, Associate Professor, Dr. Robert K. Jabs School of Business, CBU

**Purpose of Research:**

The purpose of this research is to identify (1) which competencies of the global mindset Japanese business leaders find difficult to develop, and (2) how such competencies can be developed by taking background factors unique to Japanese corporations into consideration. If you participate in this research, you will be asked to:

1. Take the online assessment test: Global Mindset Inventory, taking approximately 15 minutes
2. Interviewed online by the researcher, taking approximately 30 minutes

**Eligibility for Participation in Research:**

1. You are a Japanese national
2. Ten years or more of working experience
3. Three years or more of experience in total in living, working, or studying outside Japan

**Procedures of Research:**

You will have received the URL and the passcode to log in to take the GMI test. Upon finishing your test, your answers will be sent directly to Thunderbird Najafi Global Mindset Institute, which will process the assessment of your global mindset levels. When the assessment is done, the feedback report and raw data will be sent to me, and I will send you by email the GMI feedback report in PDF format.

**Risks or Discomforts to Participant:**

There are minimal risks to participants in this research. Possible discomforts may be: (a) difficulty in answering some questions that you might find uncertain; (b) discomfort when answering questions related to your past experiences that you recall as unpleasant;

and (c) disagreement to the results of your GMI assessment, which may not meet your expectations.

**Voluntary Participation:**

Your participation is voluntary, and your refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

**Compensation:**

You will not receive any compensation for participating in this research. You will, however, receive a feedback report of the GMI assessment free of charge after your successful submission of the test, which could be considered as compensation for your participation in this research.

**Alternative Procedures Available to Participants:**

You can take the GMI assessment test by applying directly to Najafi Global Mindset Institute, Thunderbird School of Global Management (TSGM), Arizona State University. The cost to take the same test is \$150 at the date this form is issued.

**Confidentiality:**

Any information about you, including the results of the GMI assessment and the interview, will be treated as strictly confidential. They will be used solely for the purpose of writing my doctoral dissertation, and no data or information about you, your GMI assessment results, or the content of our interview will be disclosed to any third party. If you are participating via an introduction from someone in your organization, the person who introduced this project to you will not receive the whole or any part of your GMI feedback report or any part of our interview, even if such person is a member of the human resources department of, or at the highest level in, your organization. If you should provide someone with your GMI feedback report, you may do so at your discretion. The researcher or CBU will play no part in it.

The information about you collected and stored as part of this research, as physical or digital documents, will be destroyed from my physical files, computer files, and the cloud storage after this doctoral dissertation project is terminated, and it will not be used or distributed for any further research studies.

**Contact Information:**

If you have questions related to this research project, please do not hesitate to contact me at: xxxxx@xxxxx.xxx or call me at xxx-xxxx-xxxx.

**Consent:**

By ticking and signing below, you indicate that you understand this Informed Consent Form and agree to participate in this research study.

( ) I consent.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Name: \_\_\_\_\_