

The Nature of Global Leaders' Work

A dissertation submitted

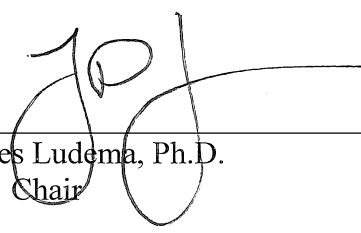
by
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to
Benedictine University

in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the
degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Values-Driven Leadership

This dissertation has been
accepted for the faculty of
Benedictine University.


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Abstract

Organizations everywhere are asking for more global leaders, and much research has been done into the cross-cultural dimensions of global leadership and global leadership competencies, assessment, and training and development. Yet, we still know very little about what global leaders actually do. To address this issue, I conducted a grounded theory study into the nature of global leaders' work. It was inspired by Mintzberg's (1973) study on the Nature of Managerial Work and informed by the broader field of work studies. I accompanied, observed, and interviewed five global leaders for an average of four days each to see what they do on a day-by-day, minute-by-minute basis. I also interviewed some of their colleagues. My analysis shows that the essence of global leaders' work is a blurring of the boundaries between work and life. Global leaders bridge geographical and cultural distance, using their intercultural competencies to transcend cross-cultural differences. They integrate functional and leadership activities while dealing with unusually high degrees of complexity. Global leaders travel extensively to enable face-to-face communication, which is considered essential and the preferred way of communicating, while also relying heavily on electronic communication, particularly email. Work is dynamic and characterized by a large amount of variety and fragmentation, with frequent synchronous and sequential multitasking. All five of the global leaders I studied enjoy the unique challenges of their work, and I show how this enjoyment is enabled by embracing an approach of transformational learning.

Acknowledgements

Everyone associated with the Center for Values-Driven Leadership in some way helped me get started with this project, provided valuable input and support while I was struggling with my topic, and enabled me to finish my research. I am grateful to you for the program you created and for having been part of it.

My chair, James Ludema, Ph.D., Co-Founder and Director of the Center for Values-Driven Leadership, provided guidance when I needed it most, and offered constructive feedback that was always helpful. Thank you, Jim, for always seeing the good parts and helping me make the other parts better. You are the best when it comes to encouragement.

Committee members Inger Stensaker, Ph.D., NHH Norwegian School of Economics, and Peter G. Northouse, Ph.D., Western Michigan University, were the best committee members I could have hoped for. Inger not only taught me the best in qualitative research methods, but she also made sure I practiced what I had learned. Thank you, Inger, for your careful review and for putting your finger on exactly where I needed to be more crisp in applying the chosen methodology to my study. You have really turned me on to qualitative research. Peter opened my eyes to the abundance of thinking in leadership theory, and he enabled me to develop my own thinking. I had the best introduction to leadership. Thank you, Peter, for allowing me

to practice intellectual sparring with you and for the feedback you provided on an earlier draft of my dissertation. I learned so much from you.

My gratitude goes to the five global leaders who hosted me at their places of work. Without them, this study would not have been possible. I am addressing them here in the order in which I visited them; thank you, Navin Metha, SVP & GM Global Services at Polycom; thank you Bob Weber, Vice Chairman, Chief Financial Officer and Treasurer at Woodward; thank you, Remi Vespa, CEO at Blue Trail Software Holding; thank you, Luis Ramirez-Alonso, VP HR Asia Pacific, Middle East & Africa at Laureate International Universities; and thank you, Ward Vermoere, Global Account Director at Zebra. You allowed me to follow you around, you explained your work to me, you put up with me and the intrusion that a visitor inevitably causes. Thank you for being available before, during, and after my visit for clarification questions, and thank you for keeping me honest in my write-up.

My thanks also go to Jackaline Rutter at Woodward, who managed the logistics of my visit and all the staff who shared their time and wisdom with me in interviews. At Polycom, Gloria Loredó opened doors, provided background information, and was a true friend. Erica Calderon provided support that allowed me to get the most out of my visit. Thank you to all.

Joyce Osland, Ph.D., Executive Director of the Global Leadership Advancement Center at the School of Global Innovation and Leadership at San José State University, opened my eyes to research in global leadership. Her support of my topic convinced me that this study could be done and would add to the academic conversation. Joyce, thank you for your support throughout my literature review. Thank you for being so generous with your own research and the work that is done at GLAC.

Stefan Tengblad, Ph.D., School of Business at the University of Skövde, Sweden, introduced me to work studies and the field of management and work behavior. Early in my research he helped me out by sending me photocopies of material I seemed not to be able to access otherwise. Thank you, Stefan. Your response not only provided me access to material but really allowed me to grow into the very new role of junior researcher.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The desire to better understand what global leaders do goes back to the time I worked as a global leader. I often asked myself, “What am I really doing?” after a busy day or a busy week: what had I done all day and all week? I could explain to others what my role in the organization was and how I added value, but most times I could not figure out where my time went, what I actually did on the job. Ever since those years I have had the desire to explore the nature of global work and a yearning to understand what leaders actually do. Now, teaching at a business school, I often ask myself for what kind of work I am preparing my students.

My study was inspired by Mintzberg’s study, *The Nature of Managerial Work* (1973), which is often cited as the seminal study in this field (Tengblad, 2006). Mintzberg (1973) designed his study with a “focus (1) on the job rather than the man, (2) on basic similarities in managers’ work rather than on differences, and (3) on the essential content of the work rather than its peripheral characteristics” (p. 230). Mintzberg observed five men at their work for a week each. All of them were based in the US and leading US organizations.

Having worked in a global context myself, I was particularly interested in the nature of *global* work, rather than domestic work. But research into global leadership is young, and, to date, very little research has been done looking at the work global leaders do. Bird and Stevens (2013) conclude that for global leadership research to

proceed, more work is needed “a little closer to the ground” (p. 140). They believe it would be very useful to learn more about what effective global leaders actually do. And when I learned that “no one has replicated Mintzberg’s (1973) landmark observation of managerial behavior with global leaders by following them around as they do their work” (Osland, 2013a, p. 76), I knew what I wanted to do. I, too, would observe five leaders; however, the difference from Mintzberg (1973) is that the leaders would all have *global* responsibilities.

The five leaders I accompanied and observed for a total of 20 days were all leaders in for-profit businesses. In their work, they were responsible for business results that crossed geographic boundaries. To get their work done, they had to inspire others from multiple countries to willingly pursue a common goal, and they had to do that in a context characterized by significant levels of complexity and flow. Except for one entrepreneurial leader who was heading up his own company, the global leaders were heads of different functions (human resources, finance, global account management (sales), and global services). As such, they were not only leading their teams, but they were also hands-on involved in the tasks associated with their function. One was on an expat assignment, and two lived in their countries of origin. All of them were successful in their work.

Research in cross-cultural and intercultural studies provided the knowledge about the importance of cross-cultural competencies, and research into assessment tools,

training, and development has been used to develop future global leaders. Work studies like Mintzberg's (1973) provided insights on the nature of work and work activities of manager and leaders. The area of leadership theory has provided insights into the domain of leadership.

In chapter two, I review the literature in detail before I explain my methodology in chapter three. This is a qualitative study that used observation as the primary data-gathering method and constructivist grounded theory as the overall methodology. In chapter four, I present my results, first addressing the records that Mintzberg had used as well, then exploring further major themes. In chapter five, I present the essence of global leaders' work and a framework of the nature of global leaders' work. The final chapter discusses future research.

Statement of the Problem

Leadership has fascinated practitioners and researchers for a long time, and a range of theories about leadership, assessment tools, and development frameworks have been developed and published (Northouse, 2013). Interest in global leadership is increasing in the business world as more and more companies are going global and asking for more global leaders; furthermore, global leadership is establishing itself as a field in academia. Yet, we know very little about the work leaders actually do (Barley & Kunda, 2001; Luthans, 1988; Pettigrew, 1992; Tengblad, 2012b). And in the

relatively new field of global leadership, even less is known about the work itself (Osland, Bird, & Oddou, 2012; Osland, 2013a).

What do global leaders do? Which activities do they pursue? How do they spend their time? What factors influence their everyday activities? These are the questions this study explores.

The purpose of this study is to advance our understanding of global leadership, develop theory about global leadership, and provide a more solid foundation for global leadership development.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In this chapter, I review the existing literature for global leadership, as well as the literature of work studies and leadership theories, identifying what is already known about global leadership and the work global leaders do.

My focus is on insights gained through empirical studies, primarily from the academic tradition, although I also include insights from practitioners, sometimes also referred to as the troubadour tradition (Curphy, Hogan, & Hogan, 2004). Both empirical research by academics and personal accounts from practitioners provided valuable insights into the work done by global leaders (Rynes, Bartunek, & Daft, 2001).

I end the chapter introducing the definitions used in this study, including the construct definition, and conclude by identifying the need for future research and how my research contributes to the field of global leadership.

The first section of this chapter addresses research in global leadership. Since the literature on global leadership has multidisciplinary roots, I review research in cross-cultural as well as intercultural studies and also touch on research in international human resource management (especially managing expatriates). The core of global leadership research has been conducted in the areas of leadership competencies and how to develop them. I review research in both of these areas and then go on to

review the assessment measures that have been developed to identify development opportunities. I conclude the review of the core research in global leadership by reviewing research done in the area of scope of global tasks. An outlook into future trends on global leadership research closes the section on the global leadership.

Global Leadership

Insights into various aspects of the phenomenon of global leadership have been published since the early 1980s. And even though the field of global leadership is still in its nascence (Mendenhall, 2013), we have a plethora of literature addressing global leadership from many different angles. How do we get a better understanding of the field and its boundaries when we do not yet have an agreed-upon definition of the field? Perhaps a metaphor can help.

One of the metaphors used to describe global leadership is that by McCall (2001): He speaks of a leopard in the dark woods. Maybe all we are able to see are the leopard's spots, but nobody yet has seen the whole animal. Some bright spots that have captured the interest of many researchers are the publications on competencies of global leaders, and the large field of cross-cultural leadership. Expatriates, global teams, and international human resource management would be another identifiable spot. But the whole animal—global leadership—still hasn't been seen in its entirety. Surely that's one of the reasons why a definitive construct definition is still missing. And then there is more; there's the relationship between the leopard and the woods. What do we know about the woods, and what is the leopard doing in the woods? The

territory is simply too large to easily grasp. We are, after all, talking about leadership, a complex matter in itself, which becomes exponentially more complex when it goes global.

In this section on research into global leadership, I first review the origins of global leadership in cross-cultural studies and intercultural studies. I then look at the core of global leadership, where I focus on the key insights we have in the following areas: competencies, training, assessment measures, and tasks

The origins of global leadership

Research and publications about global leadership developed hand-in-hand with an increase in globalization and businesses expressing their need for more global leaders.

While we first saw rapid growth in trade, we are now looking at interconnected economies and companies benefitting from integrated global value chains (OECD, 2013).

A quick search on Google for *global leadership* returns 3,660,000 results, and even a search on Google scholar, excluding citations, gets over 30,000 hits. The interest in global leadership is immense and has been increasing steadily over the last decade.

The type of literature found with a Google Scholar search is diverse. Sometimes what is known about business management and leadership is simply repackaged and branded “for global leaders.” There is a great deal of material on global leadership development, there are interviews with global CEOs, and a few reports from

empirical studies (Goldsmith, Greenberg, Robertson, & Hu-Chan, 2003; HBR, 2010; Kets de Vries, & Florent-Treacy, 1999; Oddou & Mendenhall, 2013).

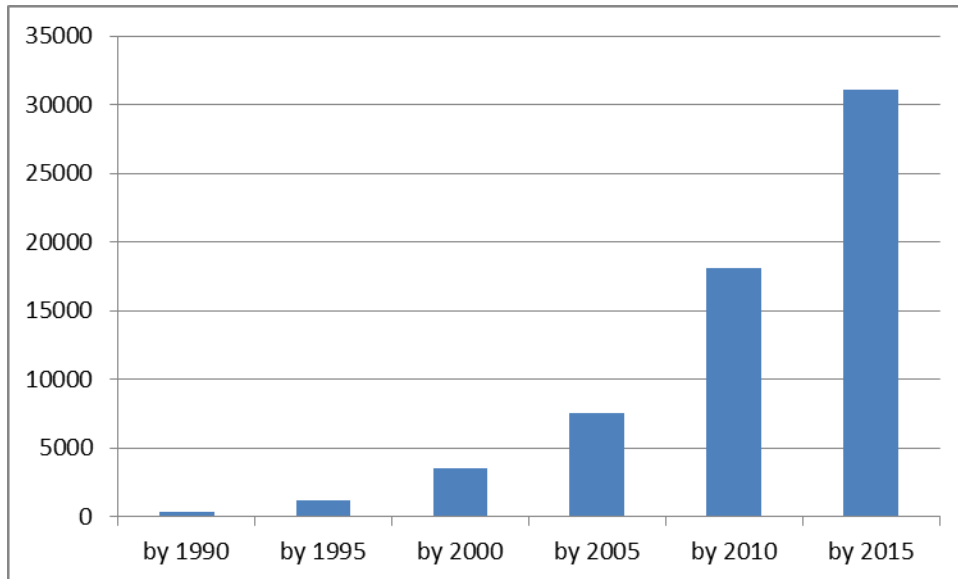


Figure 1. Development of Literature on Global Leadership
(Hits on Google Scholar; cumulative count)

Despite the immense number of publications, by 2012, results from only 21 empirical studies had been published (Osland, Bird, & Oddou, 2012). Much of the literature is conceptual or is pondering the changing business reality.

Leaders in organizations operating with global value chains are facing a world of work that is very different from that of their colleagues who run domestic operations.

Khanna (2014) put it well when he summarized his research:

Companies enter new markets all the time relying on what they know about how their industry works and the technical competencies that have allowed them to succeed in their home markets. But given the

results of our study, it's not much of a stretch to say that what you learn in your home market about a particular industry may have very little to do with what you'll need to succeed in a new market. (p.63)

People overestimate what they know about how to succeed in other countries and need what Khanna (2015) calls “contextual intelligence.” That’s why being a global leader is so very different from being a leader in a domestic context. And that’s why companies everywhere are eager to find and develop their global leaders. The World Economic Forum, in its *Global Agenda Outlook 2013*, identified global leadership as “the biggest challenge of all for 2013 and beyond” (Elliott & Roberts, 2013, p. 6). Even though most organizations believe they need to develop global leadership capabilities, only very few think they are doing so effectively (Gitsham, 2009).

The fields of cross-cultural (comparative) leadership and international human resource management (intercultural communication, expatriation) have contributed to the field of global leadership (Osland, 2013b). Their contributions are discussed next.

Cross-cultural studies

Despite the ongoing internationalization of business, research of cross-cultural management did not receive much attention in the 1970s. Adler (1983) reported that of the articles published during the 1970s in the main 24 journals that would be expected to carry research on cross-cultural management, only 3.6 % were in the cross-cultural management category. Major studies in cross-cultural leadership began

to be published in the 1980s: Hofstede's (1980a) *Culture's Consequences*, followed by Trompenaars' (1993) *Riding the Waves of Culture*, and the GLOBE studies reports (Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) were the most important.

Studies in cross-cultural management research the behavior of people in organizations located in cultures and nations around the world (Adler, 1983, p.226). Organizational behavior within countries and cultures is compared across countries and cultures, as well as the interaction of peoples from different countries working within the same organization or within the same work environment. The following sections review the main studies in cross-cultural management with specific emphasis on cross-cultural leadership.

Hofstede's six dimensions

The first major study in the field was conducted by Hofstede (1980a), who, between 1967 and 1973, worked with IBM and analyzed 116000 questionnaires completed by employees from 38 professions working in 50 different countries. Hofstede initially established four underlying value dimensions of country cultures (Power Distance, Individualism versus Collectivism, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Masculinity versus Femininity) that together explained 49 % of the variance in the countries' mean scores (Hofstede, 1983). With time and more research, particularly with participants in the Asia Pacific region, a fifth and sixth dimension were added.

Table 1. Hofstede's Six Dimensions

Power Distance	Masculinity vs. Femininity
Individualism vs. Collectivism	Long-term vs. Short-term Orientation
Uncertainty Avoidance	Indulgence vs. (Self-)Restraint

Source: Adapted from Hofstede, 1983

Together these dimensions form a model of national cultures with each dimension representing independent preferences for one state of affairs over another. The combination of the strengths in the six preferences varies from country to country and allows for easy comparison. A frequently cited comparison between the US and Japan is on the dimension of individualism versus collectivism: the US scores 91 for individualism and Japan only scores 46 (country comparison on the Hofstede Center website). That the US is more individualist and that Japan is more collectivist is taught in all leadership development courses. Often these insights are used to prepare Americans who travel to Japan for business, even though Hofstede never intended his results to be used on an individual level.

Hofstede's (1983) study has had a tremendous impact and to this day influences our understanding of culture and work (for good reviews, see Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006; Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010). Hofstede's cultural value dimensions inspired thousands of empirical studies, and Hofstede-inspired empirical research is increasing exponentially with the interest in doing business across national borders. However,

more anecdotal than empirical evidence exists as to the effects—antecedent, mediating, and/or moderating—these dimensions have on leadership (Scandura & Dorfman, 2004, p. 284).

Kirkman, Lowe, and Gibson (2006) qualitatively reviewed 180 empirical studies published between 1980 and 2002 that used Hofstede's dimensions. They show that relationships between cultural values and various outcomes were examined at the individual, group, or country level. Hofstede developed his model on the country level, but the meta-analysis shows that it was used on the individual level more often than on the country level (87 versus 82 studies, with an additional 11 on the group/organizational level). In their analysis, Kirkman et al. (2006) further distinguished between culture as main or moderator effect in the research that had been conducted.

Noteworthy for global leadership research are four studies carried out between 1996 and 2001 that Kirkman, Lowe, and Gibson (2006) reviewed. These studies looked at leadership style preferences. The first study, conducted by Casimir and Keats in 1996 (as cited in Kirkman et al., 2006), assessed preferences for leadership styles of Anglo- and Chinese-Australian managers and found that both cultures preferred leaders who expressed high concern for high performance and group relations but Chinese respondents in low-stress environments preferred leaders with high concern for group relations just as much. In 1998, Pillai and Meindl (as cited in Kirkman et al., 2006)

showed that collectivism was positively related to charismatic leadership which was positively related to satisfaction with the leader. I will return to charismatic leadership in the discussion of the GLOBE studies and in the section on leadership theories. In 1999, Helgstrand and Stuhlmacher (as cited in Kirkman et al., 2006) found that Danish and US students rated leaders who were feminine and individualistic as most effective. This might indicate a generational shift in expectations of leaders and is an important reminder that culture-based leadership expectations might change as culture changes. In 2001, Chan and Drasgow (as cited in Kirkman et al., 2006) explored links between cultural values and motivation to lead. They found that an individual's self-concept of being autonomous and equal to others was negatively related to that individual's desire to lead people when they are not calculative about the costs of leading relative to the benefits.

Overall, the meta-analysis by Kirkman et al. (2006) showed more than anything else how pervasive Hofstede's model is in cross-cultural research, and how a better understanding of cross-cultural differences can help the leader. For example, Newman and Nollen (1996) showed that when managers fitted their practices to a country's values, the work unit had higher returns on assets and sales and, in some cases, higher bonuses than those with less fitted practices. Using Hofstede's dimensions, they found that financial performance was higher when management practices were congruent with national culture.

Overall, the reported findings of the 180 studies have to be taken with some reservation. The authors caution that seemingly contradictory results on the individual level might be a reflection of methodological issues. Hofstede was researching culture on the *national* level, but his dimensions were applied to the *individual* level—something Hofstede had never intended.

Studies on the individual level have shown that people in one country can be more individualistic *and* collectivistic, on average, than people in another country. Using Hofstede's dimensions to research leadership, caution needs to be applied. We do not know if the meaning of a value changes when assessed on the individual or group versus the country level. In addition, variance within country can be larger than variance between countries. Sackman and Phillips (2004) pointed out that the dominant perspective in cross-cultural management research implicitly defines culture as a substitute for nation. But nations and, even more so, work places are no longer homogeneous enough for this approach.

Among the studies based on Hofstede's culture dimensions are also those examining the moderating effect of culture on teams and leaders. Working on a brainstorming task, Asian students generated more ideas working with a transformational leader, whereas American students generated more ideas working with a transactional leader (Jung & Avolio, 1999). This leads me to wonder how much global leaders instinctively change their leadership style based on the individuals or groups they are

working with. We can speculate that experienced global leaders adjust their leadership style based on the needs of their followers. Using culture as a moderator, studies using Hofstede's dimensions were able to specify a significant variable that could account for differences across countries.

In summary, Kirkman et al. (2006) found that most country differences predicted by Hofstede were supported by the 180 studies they examined, and Hofstede's values are still clearly relevant for cross-cultural research. The many conflicting findings across the reviewed studies indicate the need for further research into the role of culture. Research on the organizational level provides insights helpful to the leadership for decisions on how to expand internationally and how to reinforce management practices across the corporation when a good fit with the national culture produces better results.

Taras, Kirman, and Steel (2010) examined the impact of Hofstede's cultural value dimensions by taking a more quantitative approach and conducted a meta-analysis of 598 studies, analyzing the relationship between Hofstede's initial four cultural value dimensions and a variety of organizationally relevant outcomes. They explored the predictive power of cultural value dimensions' main effects and potential moderators or boundary conditions of cultural value. On the whole, there were very few statistically significant differences regarding the predictive power of the values at the individual level of analysis. The second research question involved the comparison of

the predictive power of the cultural values versus that of other individual-level attributes—such as personality traits, general mental ability, and demographics—on organizationally relevant outcomes. Taras et al. (2010) showed that cultural values explain only low amounts of variance in outcomes, but that the amounts of variance explained by cultural values are as much as those explained by individual differences, such as the Big Five personality traits, demographics, and general mental ability. Congruent with earlier findings, the study recommended that cultural values will yield more precise predictions in countries that are culturally tighter and less so in multicultural societies.

Hofstede's contributions are not to be underestimated, both regarding his impact on other cross-cultural research and on practitioners. Nevertheless, many questions remain open. Is culture static, or does it change over time? Certainly, significant political events like the reunification of East and West Germany trigger a change in culture, as does the increased influx of refugees into countries in Europe. And the development of increasingly multicultural societies and corporations with a work force with a diverse background require a new framework to develop insights helpful for global leaders.

Hofstede (Hofstede, 1980b; Hofstede, 1993) identified cultural constraints in leadership and management theories. His studies, as well as those following him, showed that different cultures have different ideas of leadership and followers have

different expectations of their leader. Global leaders need to be able to juggle these differences. Either they can transcend global differences or they can adapt their own leadership style based on different cultural preferences. Hofstede established culture as one of the important factors next to others like personality.

Many researchers have called Hofstede's study *the* seminal study of cultural dimensions, including House, who was the principal researcher behind the GLOBE studies that took Hofstede's work to the next level (Chhokar et al., 2007; Hofstede, 1980a; House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997; House et al., 2004). I am reviewing the GLOBE studies next.

The GLOBE studies
The GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research) project took Hofstede's original 1980 research findings (Hofstede, 1980), and Lord and Maher's implicit leadership theory (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002) and formed a global team that grew to about 200 researchers in over 60 countries to further develop knowledge relevant to cross-cultural interactions with a focus on the intersection of culture, leadership, and organizational behavior (House, Javidan, & Dorfman, 2001).

Conceived and led by Robert J. House, the GLOBE Project began its work in the early 1990s and progressed in three phases. The meta-goal of the GLOBE project was "to develop an empirically based theory to describe, understand, and predict the

impact of specific cultural variables on leadership and organizational processes and the effectiveness of these processes” (House et al., 2001, p. 492). Leadership and culture have been and still are the two main elements (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012).

Project GLOBE identified 10 culture clusters based on their cultural similarities of nine core attributes. The nine core attributes of societal and organizational cultures are listed below:

- Uncertainty avoidance
- Power distance
- Institutional collectivism
- In-group collectivism
- Gender egalitarianism
- Assertiveness
- Future orientation
- Performance orientation
- Humane orientation

The similarities are in idealized values, and grouping multiple countries and country-level cultures into clusters allows researchers to map the world culturally. Global leaders can use this map to develop approaches based on cultural clusters.

In addition, the researchers created 6 global leadership scales and then determined the relationships between the culture dimensions and the leadership dimensions. The six dimensions, in order of highest importance across the 60 countries, are listed below:

- Charismatic/Value-based leadership
- Team-oriented leadership
- Self-protective leadership
- Participative leadership
- Humane-oriented leadership
- Autonomous leadership

Four dimensions are closely linked with leadership constructs found in Western literature (charismatic/value-based, team orientation, participative leadership, and humane leadership with similarity to supportive leadership). The dimensions of self-protective and autonomous leadership include dimensions such as “face-saving” and “status conscious,” and are not as well researched in the West (Dorfman et al., 2012).

The major result of the first two phases of the GLOBE Project was the identification of universally desirable and culturally specific leadership qualities. Examples of the 22 attributes that were universally desirable are *trustworthy*, *just*, and *honest*. Five of the original 21 leadership *dimensions* were rated very highly, with integrity being one of the more highly rated dimensions (comprised of the attributes mentioned in the previous sentence: trustworthy, just, and honest). Summarizing 20 years of the GLOBE journey, the authors identified the ideal leaders “to develop a vision, inspire

others, and create a successful performance oriented team within their organizations while behaving with honesty and integrity” (Dorfman et al., 2012, p. 507). The GLOBE study found universal positive endorsement of charismatic/value-based leadership, if, however, at different levels of endorsement. So even findings of what might be considered universals still shows national/cultural differences. Next to universally desirable attributes, universally undesirable leadership attributes and dimensions were identified: they include attributes such as *irritable*, *ruthless*, and *malevolent*.

Even more interesting are those leadership attributes and dimensions that are culturally contingent (i.e., desirable in some culture but not in others). Of the original 112 attributes, GLOBE found 35 attributes to be culturally contingent. Attributes such as *ambitious*, *elitist*, and even *compassionate* and *sensitive* were not universally endorsed.

The GLOBE studies produced a descriptive norm model for the different cultures. The assumption is that members of a given society share what they value (espoused values), and that this differs between cultures. In summary, phases one and two showed that culturally contingent expectations of leadership exist, and that cultural values predict expected leadership attributes.

In phase three of the GLOBE study, lasting well over 10 years, 1000 CEOs in 24 countries were interviewed and surveyed, as well as their 5000 direct reports. The impact of national culture on actual behavior and CEO effectiveness was studied. Here, actual behavior (versus expectations of the top management teams) was investigated, whereas the earlier phases looked at endorsed or expected qualities. Before I turn to the results, I need to add a caveat: what the researchers call *actual* behavior was assessed through interviews and surveys, albeit not just with the CEOs themselves but also with their top management team. The study's overall and perhaps not unexpected finding is that there is a match between CEO behavior and culturally desirable leadership behavior. In other words, the CEOs behave in a way that is the expected way for a CEO to behave in that country. Cultural values predict leadership expectations, which, in turn, predict leadership behavior.

GLOBE researchers demonstrated that organizations mirror the "culture" of societies in which they are embedded (e.g., highly performance-oriented organizational cultures are found within highly performance-oriented societies). The results of the GLOBE studies highlight the differences between countries; however, the teams of leaders and followers within each country are fairly homogeneous. The more homogeneous the country and the team within the organization, the stronger the comparative results.

Global leaders transcend these country differences when they lead their teams made up of members located in multiple countries. The GLOBE studies provide helpful insights into the cross-cultural differences, differences that the global leader needs to bridge. The studies inform research into the interrelationships among persons, behaviors, and organizational and national contexts, and they are the foundation for research into truly global settings. Leadership in an international or global context requires emphasis on context, something that the GLOBE studies model (Scandura & Dorfman, 2004, p. 294).

Cross-cultural studies, in particular Hofstede's research and research inspired by him, as well as the GLOBE studies, show how leadership in organizations is embedded in cultural values and how these differ between cultures. While universally endorsed and universally rejected (undesirable) leadership attributes exist, there are many culturally contingent leadership attributes. Leadership styles are adjusted for different cultural preferences.

Cross-cultural studies, by definition, take a comparative approach. They compare and contrast values and leadership in various cultures, look for commonality and differences, and provide insights into the relationship between cultural issues and leadership. They differ from studies into global leadership in that they do not address the need to constantly deal with multiple cultural realities. They enlighten us about

what it means to be in another culture, but tell us little about what it means to do business there (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002).

I will now turn from cross-cultural to intercultural research. Insights from intercultural management research assist the global leader working with members of various cultures, and insights from research in this field are discussed next.

Intercultural studies and international human resource management

Research in intercultural studies has looked at intercultural skills, attitudes, and traits as they relate to intercultural effectiveness, including the ability to communicate, the ability to establish and maintain relationships, and the ability to accomplish and maintain the following: interaction management, orientation to knowledge, world view, cultural empathy, linguistic ability, flexibility, a realistic view of the target culture, and organization skills (Hannigan, 1990). Focus is on the interaction between people of different cultures in work settings and how this interaction can be most successful. The field addresses the increasing diversity of the work force, even for domestic businesses. Here we also see the greatest challenges and the most interesting opportunities for global leaders (Lane & Maznevski, 2014, p. 3).

Being competent in working with people from diverse backgrounds is defined as having a broadened perspective reflected by a) positive attitudes toward other cultures (i.e., lack of ethnocentrism), and b) the ability to adapt to new cultural contexts (high in cultural intelligence) (Reichard et al., 2015). This gets harder as the difference

between two cultures increases (Black, Morrison, & Gregersen, 1999). As a person acquires knowledge about different cultures, intercultural effectiveness increases.

As companies were growing from domestic to international to global companies, human resource departments sent expatriates abroad to manage new subsidiaries and trained leaders in working with employees from other cultures. Gregersen, Morrison, and Black (1998, p. 22) explained that many CEOs reported that companies had the financial resources to go global but were lacking global leaders: “We have the money, products, and position to be a dominant global player. What we lack are the human resources.” A company may decide to develop all of its senior managers into global leaders, or, develop a dedicated group of global leaders who work at different locations throughout their careers. These leaders would then be able to handle the necessary global integration and co-ordination activities (Suutari, 2003).

Especially during the early years of a company’s journey to becoming global, managers from headquarters are sent to new locations overseas. For a long time, expatriation was seen as the solution to control foreign operations and to provide collaboration between headquarters and subsidiaries (Bonache, Brewster, & Suutari, 2001; Edström & Galbraith, 1977). International human resources developed the necessary knowledge and tools to send expats for shorter or longer assignments to manage the tension between global standardization of operating policies and local

requirements. The field raised awareness of the central role that intercultural effectiveness plays for being a successful global leader.

The field of international human resource management has grown since the 1980s, where its focus was on the expatriate job choice process, top management attitudes, staffing decisions in multinational corporations, expatriate adjustment, and how to manage expatriates in the field. Recently, the focus has broadened to include research on the strategic role HRM can play: HRM is seen as long-term, proactive, and strategic, and constitutes an integrated approach to the management of people. With the development of the field also arose the question if there is a universal model of HRM. Comparative studies were launched. Parallel to the discussion in leadership research if global leadership differs from domestic leadership, it is argued that IHRM differs from HRM not only in degree, but also in kind, because the challenges faced by individuals and the organization in a global context are qualitatively different from those faced in a domestic context (Björkman & Stahl, 2006).

In international human resource management, the focus for development of global leaders has been on international travel and expatriate assignments. Living and working abroad is often named as the most powerful experience for developing global leadership capabilities (Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998, p. 29). Reichard et al. (2015) explored how cross-cultural competence develops in situ, and found that discreet experiences—trigger events—develop cross-cultural competence. A trigger

event is, for example, a situation that raises awareness for cultural differences. When a person from a culture where speaking one's mind is expected publicly challenges their supervisor in a culture that has strict cultural norms around expressing one's opinion, the person might be met with silence or a negative response. This situation can stimulate the person to consider the contextual variables of the situation. Reichard et al. (2015) developed a theoretical model of the role trigger events play in accelerating cultural competence. The more culturally novel situations with radically different norms a person experiences, and the more the person engages in these situations—observing, learning, interacting—the more cultural competence this person builds, which, in turn, will increase the person's available resources for the next trigger event.

When multinational companies fail, one reason might be that they apply what they know about their home market to other markets (see quote on page 16 from Khanna, 2014). Another equally important reason is the lack of understanding the essential differences in managing human resources at all levels in an international organization (Dowling, Festing, & Engle, 2013, p.17). International human resource management (IHRM) is the domain that addresses these concerns: IHRM identifies the increase in HR activities needed to support global operations, needed a broader perspective, needed more involvement in employees' personal lives, needed the make changes in emphasis as the workforce mix of expatriates and locals changes, needed for additional risk management, and needed an increase in external influences on the

organization. Global leaders not only deal with a more complex life personally, but also manage people globally, and need to understand the complexities in their lives. Leaders with a geocentric orientation see the world as one big market and strive to develop truly worldwide solutions. They build trust between persons of different nationality.

The main barriers to being successful in global work situations are “preconceived notions about how the world works (or should work), how individuals behave (or should behave), and which behaviors are acceptable (or unacceptable)” (Nardon & Steers, 2008, p. 48). Doing business across multiple cultures does not mean that we can develop an approach that is independent of the specific country, culture, and context in which we work. Nardon and Steers (2008) advocated a third way that is based on experiential learning theory. Every concrete experience offers opportunity for reflexive observation, which allows for abstract conceptualization, and then provides the basis for active experimentation. Most important is that every intercultural encounter can either be seen as a threat to one’s own identity or an opportunity to learn more about oneself and the other. Global leaders face some of the deepest personal challenges because working in or with other cultures forces them to question basic assumptions about who they are (Conger & O’Neill, 2012; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). Each interaction provides an opportunity to uncover cultural assumptions and to learn how to deal with them. The acquisition of intercultural competencies is non-linear and can be compared to a dance with multiple partners

(Osland, Bird, & Mendenhall, 2012). Transformation into a competent global leader comes from the interaction with the multiple partners; it is learning from decisions in response to the behaviors of others. In non-linear systems, all elements are working together to bring about certain outcomes. There is no cause-and-effect relationship, but mutual causality that characterizes the interdependence among the participants.

Cultural knowledge does not equal intercultural competence. Being an expert on a particular culture does not mean that one is competent to do business in it. And being exposed to differences does not naturally grow intercultural competence (Bennett, 2010). As we can see, understanding what intercultural competence is and how it can be developed is an area of research of great interest to the field of global leadership. After an extensive review of the global literature and expatriation literature, Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, and Oddou (2010) defined the content domain of intercultural competence for global leaders and concluded that the dimensions of intercultural competence in the context of global leadership comprises three factors:

- Perception Management
- Relationship Management
- Self-Management

These factors, made up of 17 dimensions, which consistently appear in empirical studies, are relevant to global leaders because they address interpersonal processes and influence the development of dynamic competencies. Studies that have used the framework have shown that they can be seen as building blocks for global leadership

competency (Stevens, Bird, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 2014). The three factors are also embedded in the competence pyramid (Figure 2). Sixteen of the 17 dimensions are also used in the GCI tool discussed in the section on assessment measures.

Cross-cultural and inter-cultural research provided important insight for the study of global leadership. Cultural differences are reflected in different approaches to leadership; the role of the leader is not universally associated with positive attributes and the endorsement of leadership attributes like “ambitious” or “compassionate and sensitive” are culturally contingent. These are important, “necessary but insufficient” insights for scholars of global leadership (Osland, Li, & Wang, 2014a, p. 4).

Intercultural communication takes center-stage in intercultural studies and in IHRM. People who withhold blame and search for situation-based explanations of miscommunication interact more effectively. This emerged as the single best predictor of effective cross-cultural interaction (Lane & Maznevski, 2014, p. 80). Intercultural communication is one aspect of intercultural competence for global leaders that is discussed in the sub-section on competencies within the following section on core areas of research on global leadership.

The core of global leadership

In this section, I will address prior research in the four areas of a) competencies, b) training and development, c) assessment measures, and d) scope of global tasks.

Research on global leadership began in earnest in the 1990s and has been focused on the person of the global leader and how to develop this person (Osland, Oddou, Bird, & Osland, 2013). Competencies or skills are still the most common topic in the literature to date (Osland et al., 2014a). I, too, asked my five participants to participate in a self-assessment of their intercultural competencies and will talk more about the tool I used in the methods chapter (Chapter 3). Next to competencies, the focus of global leadership research has been on training and development, developing assessment measures, understanding the scope and tasks of what global leaders do, and developing a generally agreed-upon construct definition necessary to advance the field.

Joyce Osland and her team at the Global Leadership Advancement Center at San José State University are tracking all publications about global leadership and regularly provide updates about the empirical research that is being published. My review builds on the table by Osland (2014), where the foundational research is grouped into five categories, as demonstrated in Table 2.: competencies and skills needed for global leadership, training and development, assessment instrumentation, scope of global leadership tasks, and construct definition.

Table 2. Areas of Focus in the Field Today

Competencies & Skills	Wills & Barham (1994); Black, Morrison, & Gregersen, (1999); Gitsham (2009); Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou (2010); Caligiuri & Tarique (2009); Mendenhall et al. (2013)
Training & Development	McCall & Hollenbeck (2002); Terrell & Rosenbusch (2010); Li, Mobley & Kelly (2012; 2013); Tompson & Tompson (2013); Oddou & Mendenhall (2013); Miska, Stahl & Mendenhall (2013); Maak, Pless, & Borecká, (2014); Caligiuri & Tarique (2014)
Assessment Instrumentation	Kets de Vries, Vrignaud & Florent-Treacy (2004); Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens & Oddou (2010); Stevens, Bird, Mendenhall & Oddou (2014); Agrawal & Rook (2014)
Scope of Global Leadership Tasks	Caligiuri (2006); Osland, Oddou, Bird & Osland (2013); Bird (2013)
Construct Definition	Jokinen (2005); Osland, Bird, & Mendenhall, (2012); Mendenhall, Reiche, Bird & Osland (2012)

Source: Adapted from Osland et al., 2014a, p. 6

I will now discuss each of the five areas in more detail.

Competencies

Since the beginning of interest in global leadership in the 1990s, publication of expert opinion and empirical research results have been focused on competencies. In this section, I identify the main findings, including competencies, capabilities, and global mindset. I conclude with a brief excursion into personality and character.

Moran and Riesenberger (1994) identify twelve competencies required for the global manager that they group into four clusters, as demonstrated in Table 3. below:

Table 3. Required Competencies

Personal Attitude	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possesses a global mindset • Works as an equal with persons from diverse backgrounds • Has a long-term orientation
Organizational Change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facilitates organizational change • Creates learning systems • Motivates employees
Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negotiates and approaches conflicts in a collaborative mode • Manages skillfully the foreign deployment cycle • Leads and participates effectively in multicultural teams
Intercultural competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands their own culture, values, and assumptions • Accurately profiles the organizational culture and national culture of others • Avoids cultural mistakes and behaves in a manner that demonstrates knowledge of and respect for other countries

Source: Adapted from Moran and Riesenberger, 2014

Rhinesmith (1995), who had initially identified twenty-four competencies, later focused on six mindsets:

- Driving for the bigger, broader picture
- Balancing paradoxes
- Trusting process over structure
- Valuing differences
- Managing change
- Seeking lifelong learning

Many others followed until we had a list of over 160 competencies that then had to be scaled down again (Bird, 2013).

Brake (1997) took a slightly different approach to competencies when he developed the global leadership triad composed of three competency clusters:

- Business acumen
- Relationship management
- Personal effectiveness

The profile that emerges is a desired, ideal type with the following competencies: the ability to pursue and apply appropriate professional knowledge and skills to achieve optimal results for the company's global stakeholders; the ability to build and influence collaborative relationships in a complex and diverse global network to direct energy toward the achievement of business strategies; and the ability to attain increasing levels of maturity to perform at peak levels under the strenuous conditions of working in a global enterprise. Brake (1997) includes capabilities addressing the global work environment, the more complex relationships within it, and how the global leader deals with both to be effective. He points out that lifelong learning is needed in all three areas.

Caligiuri and Di Santo (2001) found that multinational organizations define global competence in terms of eight specific dimensions of ability, knowledge, and personality characteristics, as demonstrated in Table 4. below:

Table 4. Areas of Global Competence

Ability	Knowledge	Personality
To transact business in another country	Of the company's worldwide business structure	Openness
To change leadership style based in the situation	Of international business issues	Flexibility
	Through the personal network of professional contacts worldwide	Little ethnocentrism

Source: Adapted from Caligiuri and Di Santo, 2001

Whereas personality does not change with global work, knowledge and the ability to be successful in global work increase as leaders become more experienced in global work. Leaders who do global work become more sensitive to the challenges of working globally and learn to know what they don't know.

The few empirical studies in the field, too, focused on capabilities and how to develop them. In most cases, the studies used surveys and interviews. Wills and Barham (1994) interviewed 60 executives with responsibilities in multiple countries simultaneously and concluded that it can be rather misleading to focus on specific competencies or skills, but that the essence of the global leader is much more a certain essence of "being" that includes cognitive complexity, emotional energy, and psychological maturity.

Perhaps the lists of competencies present only semantic differences (Jokinen, 2005, p. 204). Jokinen (2005) recognized a common framework of personal traits, behavioral skills, and knowledge, and develops a framework of global leadership competencies. At the core of global leadership competencies are self-awareness, engagement in personal transformation, and inquisitiveness. In addition, desired mental characteristics of global leaders include optimism, self-regulation, social judgment skills, empathy, the motivation to work in an international environment, cognitive skills, and acceptance of complexity and its contradictions. The behavioral level global leadership competencies that follow include social skills, network management skills, and knowledge. Jokinen (2005) commented that the focus should move away from creating lists to an approach that sees global leadership competencies described as continuums rather than dichotomies, especially since they are not task but context specific.

A visually appealing model of global competencies was originally developed by a team of international management scholars and was later refined first by Bird and Osland, and then Osland. It is reproduced here in its latest version (Osland, 2013a). The model has five levels and suggests a cumulative progression, advancing from bottom to top. This extensive framework embraces many areas that are all being researched individually. Its advantage is that it is very intuitive and suggests progression, even if it is not dynamic.



Source: Adapted from Osland, 2013a

Figure 2. The Pyramid Model of Global Leadership

The pyramid model includes knowledge, traits, attitudes, and interpersonal skills with a focus on stakeholders and leading change.

Rosen, Digh, Singer, and Phillips (2000) identified what they call “global literacies”—four leadership universals that every leader needs to practice:

- Personal literacy—understanding and valuing yourself
- Social literacy—engaging and challenging people
- Business literacy—focusing and mobilizing the business
- Cultural literacy—valuing and leveraging cultural difference

Rosen et al. (2000) looked at companies that treat the world as a global market, have assets around the world, and, therefore, not only need a new approach to leadership, but also need a globally literate workforce. Interestingly, Rosen et al. (2000) saw growth as the primary objective for any business leader, and culture and traditions as the greatest roadblock (p.25). People, relationships, and corporate culture are the key assets for any company wanting to be successful globally. Leaders using the four competencies listed above lead their businesses to success by seeing the world differently, thinking with an international mindset, acting with new relationship skills, and mobilizing the workforce around the globe (p.58).

To Osland (2013a, p. 65), there seems to be growing consensus that global leadership consists of these three similar elements:

- Core characteristics
- Context-specific abilities
- Universal leadership skills

Global mindset

The term *global mindset* has become very popular since the early 2000s (though it has been around much longer than that), and it originally came from cognitive psychology addressing how we deal with new information along the two dimensions of differentiation and integration (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002). A global mindset combines an openness to and an awareness of diversity across cultures and markets with a propensity and ability to synthesize across this diversity. The term has,

however, become a catchall for all competencies required for global leaders. To be a global leader takes a global mindset *and* a global job (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). This is a nice reminder that we need to look at the personal and the context, and it might also be one of the reasons why there is no agreement on a set of global competencies: there is no universal global job.

Clapp-Smith and Vogelgesang Lester (2014) applied a process model of mindset activation to global mindset, using a perspective from cognitive psychology. They saw a global mindset as a dynamic process of mindset switching and argued that in a global leader we find mindset/situation congruence. This described how global leaders problem solve when they are facing dualities like global and local.

Global mindset has also been studied on the group (typically top management teams) and firm level. Osland, Bird, and Mendenhall (2012) reviewed these studies but hesitated to draw definitive conclusions because there is a lack of consensus on the construct. The studies suggest that companies with a stronger global mindset have greater international scope, more global strategic posture, and increased international financial performance.

Personality and character

Personality is sometimes seen as an antecedent for competencies, and, therefore, I am including the insights from an interesting study here. Winsborough and Hogan (2014), in a study involving almost 12 000 executives in five countries, explored the

question of what executives are like using the five factor model developed in the 1990s, and included emotional stability, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness. Using a sample of leaders from five countries (the US, Germany, China, Australia, and New Zealand), and using the Hogan suite of assessment tools, they found that the five groups of leaders scored higher than the general population in emotional stability, ambition, extraversion, and conscientiousness, and also scored higher than the general population on the dimensions of intimidating and manipulating behaviors. In values, they scored higher than the general population on power and hedonism. Differences between the five countries of origin still exist. The results confirm that senior business executives are both different from and more homogeneous than the rest of the working population. The results suggest that there are certain personality elements that are universal across culture. Even though the study does not distinguish between domestic and global leaders, these results suggest that next to culture-specific attributes there are certain global personality traits that are shared between global leaders and that distinguish global leaders from the larger world population. Conger and O'Neill (2012) suggest that while certain personality attributes can be helpful, there is no universal personality that characterizes the global leader.

In one of the very few quantitative studies on the antecedents and mediators of global leadership effectiveness, Caligiuri and Tarique (2012) showed that certain personality characteristics (extraversion, openness to experience, and lower neuroticism) in

combination with cross-cultural experiences, (whether work-related or non-work related) predict dynamic cross-cultural competencies (tolerance of ambiguity, cultural flexibility, and reduced ethnocentrism). These competencies are predictors of global leadership effectiveness as measured by supervisor ratings.

Morrison and Black (2014) focused on the character of global leaders, which manifests itself in two ways: in the ability to connect emotionally with people from divergent international backgrounds, languages, values and perspectives, and in integrity. Emotional connections require the leader to demonstrate a sincere concern for others, to listen effectively to people, and to understand and respect different viewpoints. This has direct impact on the work the leaders do and how they spend their time: Morrison and Black (2014) provide examples of global leaders who, time and time again, return to a location “solely to build relationships” (p. 187). Showing respect is done in many ways, from speaking without jargon to attempting to learn foreign languages. Global leaders also travel to far-away locations to be in the presence of their employees and customers, to spend time with them. An international marketing executive is quoted as saying that he spends 80% of his time being around people in the field and talking to them so that he can make better decisions when in the office and directing people (p. 193).

Training and development

Business leaders repeatedly identified the need for more global leaders as among their top concerns. As early as 1995, Chrysler CEO Robert Eaton complained in *Fortune Magazine* (1995, March 20) that the company had the capital but not enough managers to grow faster abroad, and in 2013 the World Economic Forum identified global leadership as “the biggest challenge of all for 2013 and beyond” (WEF, 2013, p. 6). In the United States, concerns were raised if the country had the capacity to develop the expertise that was needed. RAND proposed a study that researched the question if the United States were producing the leaders needed for the 21st century, referring to the events of September 11, 2001, to underscore the importance of international leadership in the business, public, and non-profit sectors (Bikson, 2003). Through structured interviews, the researchers found that international leaders must have an integrated repertoire of skills, including the following: technical knowledge (business knowledge) to make sound decisions; interpersonal skills and an ability to work in teams; strategic understanding of where the organization is going and placing it in a global context; and cross-cultural experience that develops multicultural sensitivity.

Black, Morrison and Gregersen (1999) focused on the characteristics of effective global leaders to then address how these characteristics could be developed. They, too, interviewed and surveyed senior leaders in 50 companies throughout Europe, North America, and Asia. They concluded that overall global leadership success is a

function of capabilities driven by both general global dynamics (two-thirds of the capabilities for success) and business-specific dynamics (one-third). Competency in inquisitiveness, perspective, character, and savvy make up two-thirds of the capabilities needed for success, with inquisitiveness being the glue and the source of energy. These four competencies are needed by all global leaders. Global leaders love to learn and master the complexities of the global business environment. The potential for leadership is innate, as people are born with a certain degree of inquisitiveness and ability, and key experiences develop the critical global competencies. The four most important development options are summarized as the four Ts: travel, teams, training, and transfers. International transfers are the most powerful global leader development tool. Some “natural talent” is needed, and then this talent needs to be developed. The development process takes time and needs to be systematic and multifaceted. It should vary depending on the stage of one’s career.

Insights into global competencies and skills needed in a global leadership role are then applied in training and development. Here, expected insights include the realization that high contact cross-cultural leadership development experiences are helpful, that the leaders’ personality and extroversion can help, and that individual-level accelerators like personality characteristics, language skills, motivation, and prior experience affect the development of cross-cultural competencies. (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2014).

Kets de Vries and Florent-Treacy (2002) introduced a model about the contributing forces in the development of the global leader: the personal side (which includes the cultural background into which a person is born, the family background, their education, the immediate support system [i.e., spouse, children]), and the professional side (which includes corporate culture, global leadership development, and more). As we can see, leadership development is not a linear progression of adding competencies, but rather a non-linear process of changes in closely held beliefs (Osland, Bird, & Mendenhall, 2012). This is in conflict with leadership development models, which are necessarily static.

In many ways, business is business, whether it's domestic or global, and the people engaged in global work as leaders are as different as the businesses they are in. What all global leaders have in common is that doing global work requires emotional or self-learning rather than simply intellectual and cognitive learning (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002, p. 31).

Global assessment measures

The development of assessment tools also revolves around competencies. In this section, I am reviewing the Global Competencies Inventory (GCI) and the Global Executive Leadership Inventory (GELI).

The Global Competencies Inventory (GCI), for example, is a 160-item self-report measure that assesses the degree to which individuals possess the intercultural competencies that are associated with global leader effectiveness (Stevens, et al., 2014). It can be used for selection purposes as well as in development programs. The GCI can help multicultural teams better understand the members' differences, something that would also help the global leader leading the team. Since theoretical and empirical evidence strongly supports the use of GCI, I decided to ask the participants of my study to take the GCI. Results are reported and discussed in the following chapters.

The Global Executive Leadership Inventory (GELI) is based on leaders embodying two roles: the charismatic role and the architectural role. The instrument measures 12 dimensions of global leadership behaviors through a combination of self-ratings and observer ratings. The dimensions were developed based on questionnaires and semi-structured interviews (Kets de Vries, Vriegnaud, & Florent-Treacy, 2004). The categories in the questionnaires were based on interviews with four top executives (Kets de Vries, & Florent-Treacy, 1999). The GELI uses findings from psychoanalysis, cognitive theory, developmental psychology, and family systems theory, and looks at the triangle of a person's mental make-up consisting of emotion, cognition, and behavior. In a comparative leadership study of 1,748 leaders using the GELI, Agrawal and Rook (2014) found that while leaders across the world display

similar patterns of leadership behavior, there are also significant differences that can be attributed to the leaders' cultural origins.

Scope of global tasks

Kets de Vries and Florent-Treacy (1999) focused on the leader who leads a global organization when they interviewed Richard Branson, Percy Barnevik, and David Simon. They concluded that global organizations are looking for authoritative leaders rather than autocratic ones and need charismatic leaders who also serve as organizational architects (The insights informed the GELI instrument discussed in the previous section.). The global leaders' main tasks are to express the vision and then help everyone embrace the discontinuous change that is needed by communicating a lot. They do not hoard power but share information, minimize secrecy, and get people involved. Kets de Vries and Florent-Treacy (1999) also found that the three global leaders were very interested in outside opinion and for that reason chose to surround themselves with complementary colleagues.

Research grouped under the category of tasks is primarily interested in competencies, but the competencies are now grouped based on categories that resemble tasks. Bird (2014) provided an overview of the terrain global leaders need to cover. Embedded in a list (Table 4.1) that includes skills, values, orientation and more (representing different types of competencies) are the following tasks of global leaders:

- Articulating a tangible vision and strategy/Architecting and designing
- Scanning the environment/Recognizing patterns

- Inspiring and motivating others/Managing uncertainty
- Building relationships/Building teams
- Managing conflict/Managing cross-cultural ethics issues
- Creating learning systems

The tasks in this list also have to be addressed by domestic leaders. Interviews with seventy highly successful international assignees serving in a key leadership role in thirty-two different countries led to the overriding consensus that global leaders must carry out tasks similar to those of domestic leaders but “they must be able to shift strategies, business processes, and personal styles to fit different cultural environments along with a broader range of employee backgrounds and motivations” (Gundling, Hogan, & Cvitkovich, 2011, Chapter 2, “Research findings: a brief overview,” para. 1). The interviewees all agreed that global leadership was very different from domestic leadership, but the difference was not so much in the *what* as in the *how*.

Caligiuri (2006) worked backwards to identify how leadership development needs to be offered to have most impact. She started with the jobs and activities the global leaders need to accomplish. From there, she identified knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal attributes needed, and then assessed the best development methods for each of them.

To get to the jobs and activities, Caligiuri (2006) conducted a job analysis and identified a list of ten activities that are common among and unique to global leader.

Table 5. The Tasks of Global Leaders

Work with colleagues from other countries	Develop a strategic business plan on a worldwide basis for their unit
Interact with external clients from other countries	Manage a budget on a worldwide basis for their unit
Interact with internal clients from other countries	Negotiate in other countries or with people from other countries
May need to speak in a language other than their mother tongue at work	Manage foreign suppliers or vendors
Supervise employees who are of different nationalities	Manage risk on a worldwide basis for their unit

Source: Adapted from Caligiuri, 2006

Caligiuri (2006) conducted her job analysis through a series of focus-group meetings and surveys of leaders from European and North American firms (She did not observe the global leaders at work.) This list of activities represents what the leaders *reported* they did. Some of the activities are not unique to global work (e.g., I may need to speak in a language other than my mother tongue because the company language is not my mother tongue), but still be involved in purely domestic tasks. Not all global leaders will perform all the activities she lists (e.g., I know global leaders who complain because their P&L is not global, i.e., they do not manage their budget on a worldwide basis but rather by region). We can conclude from Caligiuri's (2006)

task list that global leaders' work includes activities that are also performed by domestic leaders, as well as activities that some—but not all—global leaders perform.

Osland, Oddou, Bird, and Osland (2013) stated that “research on how global leaders perceive and respond to their work context is scant” (p. 517). They also reported on a study focusing on how global leaders think, how they perceive their work and how they approach change. Using cognitive task analysis (CTA), a guided retrospective protocol analysis, they used the critical incident technique and interviewed participants who had lead global change efforts. From this study we receive themes related to the global leaders' work context: managing multiplicities, huge challenges, precariousness, and ambiguity were identified (p. 525). Within these contexts, five approaches to work were identified (p. 527):

- Problem-solving
- Strategic thinking
- Boundary spanning and stakeholders
- Influencing
- Global skills

This is the only study to date that investigated cognition in expert global leaders and is a first approach to describing work contexts and work approaches. It is removed from a direct observation of what global leaders do in that it relies on the global leaders' memory of what they did (and we know that memory is not always a reliable instrument).

In this section on research done on the core of global leadership, I reviewed the competencies necessary for global leaders (i.e., the need for global knowledge, business acumen, certain character traits and interpersonal skills), in addition to a general outlook that includes all stakeholders and facilitates change. Certain personality characteristics like emotional stability, extraversion, and a sincere concern for others seem more prevalent. These insights are used for training and development. Assessment tools are available for selecting global leaders and for diagnostic purposes. Initial research into the scope of global tasks identified tasks that are also performed by domestic leaders as well as other tasks that are only performed by some global leaders.

Future trends in global leadership research

Global leadership is researched in the context of global challenges as well. In his book *The Global Leader: Critical Factors for Creating the World Class Organization*, Terence Brake (1997) reminded us that “business at its best is a moral act” (p. XV). To Brake (1997), globalization is an opportunity to release ingenuity and imagination in the pursuit of prosperity, liberation, and world community. Perlmutter (1969) said that global leaders are engaged in building a world with greater universal sharing of wealth, which could make war less likely: “Bombing customers, suppliers and employees is in nobody’s interest” (Perlmutter, 1969, p. 18). With the resources available to them, global leaders have huge impact not only on the future of their organization, but on the future of the world at large. Waldman and

Galvin (2008) even stated that responsible leadership is at the heart of what effective leadership is (p. 327).

The Fowler Center for Business as an Agent of World Benefit (BAWB) at Case Western University is a global forum uniting business in World Inquiry, a global search for the many ways that the business sector is putting its people, imagination, and assets to work to benefit humanity. Its goal is to build relationship value with stakeholders, including customers, communities, and societies, and, ultimately, with a thriving biosphere. At Ashridge Business School, CEOs and senior leaders from companies participating in the UN Global Compact got together with leaders in academics to better understand how business leaders are reframing leadership in a changing world, and to explore CEO perspectives on the implications of sustainability for leadership and leadership development. The business leader today is leading change beyond business boundaries and addressing societal issues of the day. Understanding and addressing the major forces shaping society has become central to how business leaders create value (Gitsham & Wackrill, 2003).

Miska, Stahl, and Mendenhall (2013) used the Global Competencies Inventory (GCI) tool discussed under assessment tools to assess which competencies are relevant when different approaches to Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) are used. The three approaches they used were a) a globally standardized approach, or b) a transnational approach, or c) a locally adapted approach. Each approach required a

different set of competencies. This is an interesting result, not only because it shows that global leaders need different competencies depending on their strategies, but also because it again suggests that because the global context is so complex, there are many ways to achieve one's goals. Simply cause-and-effect relationships don't apply.

Pless, Maak, and Stahl (2011) pointed out that research in global leadership fails to address the complex ethical dilemmas and responsible leadership challenges facing global leaders, despite growing awareness of the need for responsible corporate leadership in the global arena. Leading responsibly in this context includes, for example, taking a stance on human rights issues, contributing to solving the global environmental crisis, and being responsive to expectations from a diverse group of stakeholders. It requires a sound understanding of matters of global justice and fairness and the ability to differentiate when different is different and when different is simply wrong.

International service-learning programs are one way for global leaders to develop the key competencies required for responsible global leadership. Participants learn on the cognitive, affective, and behavioral level to develop and practice a responsible mindset, ethical literacy, and community building, in addition to improving their cultural global competencies of cultural intelligence and global mindset (Maak et al., 2014; Pless, Maak, & Stahl, 2011).

At a conference on global leadership held at the Institute for Management Development (IMD) in Lausanne, Switzerland, in the fall of 2011, scholars and practitioners identified the following needs:

- The need for research to shift away from the content-oriented research that focuses on global leadership competencies to a process- and learning-perspective on global leadership
- The need for research at the intersections of global leadership and other fields of study (as reported in Maznevski, Stahl, & Mendenhall, 2013, p. 495).

Work at the intersection of global leadership, CSR, and sustainability pays tribute to the increased importance of these areas and acknowledges that these issues are different when addressed in a global context.

As the role of the global leader is changing and more leaders are moving between the sectors of for-profit, government, and non-profit, research on the global leader's work will continue to change in tandem.

In summary, prior research in global leadership has established a thorough understanding of leadership as culture-based and, therefore, different in different cultures. Cultural values predict leadership expectations, which, in turn, predict leadership behavior. Intercultural studies often focus on the expatriate and what it takes to be successful in a different culture. The main barriers to being successful in global work situations are preconceived notions about how the world works or should

work. The competencies needed for global leadership work can be summarized as perception management, relationship management, and self-management (Bird et al., 2010). Global leaders need substantial global knowledge and business acumen as well. Their responsibilities include interaction with a wide variety of stakeholders and leading change efforts for the organization. Cultural knowledge does not equal intercultural competence. Competencies are best developed through experience. Assessment tools help diagnose strengths and identify areas for improvement. They can also serve the global leader in better understanding the make-up of the global team by highlighting the individual differences. Some of the tasks global leaders perform are also performed by domestic leaders. In addition, there are tasks that some global leaders need to perform. Just as global leaders' jobs differ, so do the tasks they need to perform. Domestic leaders with multi-cultural teams need many of the competencies identified in the research on global leadership as well.

Work Studies

The focus of the present study is the work of global leaders. The research done in the field of Management and Work Behavior (MWB) is therefore relevant here (Tengblad, 2012b). We know very little about the work leaders actually do (Barley & Kunda, 2001; Luthans, 1988; Mintzberg, 1991; Pettigrew, 1992; Tengblad, 2012b). Even though no study on the work of global leaders has been undertaken yet, in this section of the literature review, I review what we do know about the global work environment and the insights we can glean from research on the work of senior

leaders, including global leaders. Tengblad and Vie (2012) provided a very helpful overview of what has been published in the field of management and work behavior. They reviewed twenty-one studies that were published between 1951 and 2010. Their research provides content descriptions of the leaders' work, how leaders do their work, and also the research methods used to gain these insights.

In their review of the history of organization theory, Barley and Kunda (2001) pointed out that work studies provided an empirical foundation for theories of bureaucracy, but that such research became marginalized or ignored in organization theory circles. Since the nature of work remained fairly stable throughout the twentieth century, Taylor's work (1998), originally published in 1911, and that of others informed research and practitioners for a long time. But work in industrialized nations has changed sufficiently by now to require new studies. For example, the evolution of the knowledge economy and the increasing importance of human capital have changed the world of work, as has the total quality and lean movement (T. Stewart, 1997; Womack, Jones, & Roos, 1990). Understanding that knowledge best resides in communities of practice helps when addressing the development of people in organizations (Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002). Even the language we use to describe the world of work might no longer be adequate (Barley & Kunda, 2001, p. 83). Barley and Kunda (2001) advocate *bringing work back in* (which is the title of their article) with studies that look at work itself using methods that yield detailed descriptions of work life, especially field studies that examine work practices and

relationships in situ. They do not explicitly call out the work of global leaders, but we can easily assume that global work has changed more than any other work and, therefore, needs new empirical research.

I have divided this section into four parts: I briefly review prior work on the global work environment, and then I highlight insights gained from work studies prior to Mintzberg (1973), the study that inspired mine. In the third part, I review Mintzberg's (1973) results, and then in last part of this section, I address research done after Mintzberg (1973) until today.

A global work environment

Complexity is mentioned in almost all studies as the major challenge for global leaders (Mendenhall, Reiche, Bird, & Osland, 2012). Global leaders confront ongoing change with stakeholders across cross-cultural, geographical, and socio-political contexts (Rosen, Digh, Singer, & Phillips, 2000). They lead in an environment of increasingly interconnected organizations, markets, societies, and governments in what is sometimes called the "connected economy" (IBM, 2012). Complexity is the contextual dimension of global work.

Complexity arises out of conditions of multiplicity, interdependence, and ambiguity, which are in constant flux (Lane, Maznevski, & Mendenhall, 2004). Multiplicity refers to the multiplicity of stakeholders (customers, competitors, governments, and

others) and the diversity among them. These actors can represent a multitude of different ideas of work, and how work should get done. Interdependence reflects the linkages within and across industries and geographies, and it is also found within the companies (e.g., in their matrixed organization structures). Ambiguity addresses a condition characterized not by a lack of information, but by a lack of clarity of meaning, which then does not allow for a meaningful interpretation of data in a way that guides action effectively. Equivocality is the condition in which multiple interpretations of the same facts are possible. The three conditions of multiplicity, interdependence, and ambiguity occur in a system that is always in motion, always changing, always in flux.

Kotter (1982a) had already identified complexity as the overwhelming issue for domestic general managers, and there is unanimous agreement that global work is even more complex. We know that the increase in multiplicity and interdependence among larger groups of players from different cultures and organizations places greater demands than ever on global leaders (Osland et al., 2014a, p. 6).

Work done before Mintzberg's 1973 study

Chester Barnard's (1968) *The Functions of the Executive*, originally published in 1938, is one of the best known early reports by an executive looking at the work of executives. He identified the maintenance of a formal organization and the communication system for the organization as the two primary functions of an executive: "Executive work is not that *of* the organization, but the specialized work of

maintaining the organization in operation” [italics in the original] (Barnard, 1968, p. 215). The focus needs to be on the cooperative effort, and, therefore, communication plays the central role. Executives function as the “points of interconnection” within the system. In the literature on global leadership, we have seen the emphasis on boundary-spanning work and the need for connecting members inside and outside the organization. Barnard (1938/1968, p. 215) pointed out that, using his definition, some of the work executives do is not executive work—they are often selling or engaging in some of the production work. Mintzberg (1951/1991), too, said that a good part of what the manager does is what specialists do (p.109). He concluded that the *why* is as important as the *what*.

In 1951, Sune Carlson published the results of his pioneering study with Swedish executives in *Executive Behaviour* (Carlson, 1991), an account of the first systematic study of the work of top managers ever made and “one of the earliest empirical studies in business administration in all categories” (Tengblad, 2002, p. 3). With this study of managerial work, Carlson established himself as the founder of the managerial work approach (Tengblad & Vie, 2012). Nine managing directors (CEOs) of Swedish companies kept a diary of their daily work for four weeks in which they detailed where, when, and with whom they worked, and their secretaries kept a record of the CEO’s incoming and outgoing mail and telephone calls. Carlson (1991, p. 35) saw—and originally described in 1951—the following two aspects as the main tasks of an executive:

- To take decisions or to see to it that decisions are taken by others
- To make sure that these decisions are carried out by members of his organization

Carlson provided thick descriptions of the work. One of the memorable remarks is, for example, when he said that before he began his 1951 study, he “always thought of a chief executive as the conductor of an orchestra,” but after the study, he was more inclined to “see him as the puppet in a puppet-show with hundreds of people pulling the strings and forcing him to act in one way or another” (Carlson, 1991, p. 46).

Mintzberg (1991) commented that there certainly are situations where the leader is in control and uses his network to get the information he needs to make decisions, but there is also the other side, and that side needs to be included in any theorizing we might want to attempt (p. 107). Both Carlson’s study of 1951 and Mintzberg’s study, published in 1973, reflect their interest in developing systematic methods to improve job performance.

Melville Dalton (1959) and his research is noteworthy here because he was mainly concerned with the informal aspects of work. Schein (1989) credited Dalton with teaching him about “the leadership situation” (p. 103). Dalton not only “infiltrated the hallowed halls of an economic enterprise” but through “his descriptions of the collusion between senior managers and older workers that made things happen, the complex cliques that rose to foster necessary communication,” Dalton brought to life for Schein “the complex social drama of companies, managers, and leaders” (Schein,

1989, pp. 103–104). Dalton described the interplay between managers’ private lives and their work lives, perhaps really relevant again today as the lines between time “on the job” and time “off the job” are blurring and leaders are “always on.”

Mintzberg (1973) and work described in roles

In 1937, Gulick wrote, “What is the work of the chief executive? What does he do?”

The answer is POSDCORB” (p. 13). The made-up word was crafted to call attention

to the various functional elements of the work of a chief executive: a) planning, b)

organizing, c) staffing, d) directing, e) coordinating, f) reporting, and g) budgeting.

Gulick (1937) was building on Fayol’s 1916 work (as cited by Mintzberg, 1973, p. 9)

and his introduction of the five basic managerial functions as a) planning, b)

organizing, c) coordinating, d) commanding, and e) controlling.

Mintzberg (1973) found little use in this list of activities (POSDCORB) or any similar

lists, since they do not describe the actual work of managers. Instead he (Mintzberg,

1973, p.59) grouped the work managers do into three main categories made up of ten

roles:

- Interpersonal Roles
 - Figurehead
 - Leader
 - Liaison

- Informational Roles
 - Monitor
 - Disseminator
 - Spokesman

- Decisional Roles
 - Entrepreneur
 - Disturbance handler
 - Resource allocator
 - Negotiator

Mintzberg's (1973) study received much recognition, has been cited and revisited, and his ten roles have inspired further research. To this day, Mintzberg has been refining his initial ten roles. Two decades after the original publication, he referred to his findings as “a list of the things managers do” with an arbitrary ordering, and found that, in general, research on the work of managers produced “a great many lists” (Mintzberg, 1991, p. 101–102).

Mintzberg (1973) also described the work the managers did in 13 propositions about managerial work. The manager's work is open-ended, with little free time. The activities are fragmented and interruptions are commonplace. Because there is always something else that needs to be done, there is a danger of superficiality. Current information is preferred over routine reports, and non-routine activities get most attention. Verbal communication is much preferred over written, and the manager

generates much less written communication than he receives. The manager is the link between his own organization and the outside contacts. He spends little time (less than 10%) with his superiors. The manager is responsible for many initial commitments.

Work studies after 1973

Mintzberg's (1973) observational study of five chief executives was published during what Tengblad and Vie (2012) called "the golden era in management and work behavior research" (p. 26). Some of Mintzberg's ideas of programming managerial work have become reality: managers use computerized systems for budgeting, financial reporting, human resource management, and others tasks. But the complexity, variation, and uncertainty that Mintzberg found in 1973 can still be observed today, and Mintzberg's description of the essence of managerial work to Tengblad and Vie (2012) is perfectly contemporary (p. 28).

Mintzberg's (1973) study was replicated by Kurke and Aldrich (1983), who confirmed his results, reinforcing the image of managers as operating in a work setting characterized by fragmentation, brevity, concentration on live media, and dependence on others for initiating contacts.

In 1982, Kotter (1982a) published *The General Managers*, his multi-method research into the work of the general manager. Below is one of his insights:

Almost all of the GMs I have met in the course of this study, and elsewhere, are highly specialized. That is, they have an unusual set of personal characteristics that closely fit the specific demands of the contexts in which they work. (Kotter, 1982b, p. 5)

Kotter (1982a) asked what exactly effective general managers (GM) do on a daily basis, and answered this question by observing fifteen general managers from nine corporations in the United States. Between 1976 and 1981, he spent first three days with each GM, then another one to two days observing the GM at work, and then interviewed key work partners. Kotter noted that the differences among the GMs and their situations were in many ways greater than the similarities. The key demands associated with their jobs, the personal characteristics of the GMs, the way they approached the work, and what they did each day, were sometimes radically different (Kotter, 1982a, pp. 7–8). Nevertheless, Kotter (1982a, p. 75) summarized the observed behavior. For example, choosing what to do, the GMs selected the following:

- Items on agendas that were not being effectively attended to by networks
- People in the networks who could help get action on those items
- An approach to influencing others, which accomplished multiple objectives at once and minimally disturbed important relationships in the networks

The participant GMs used their network's knowledge to decide what to focus on, depended on the network to get things done, influenced the network to move in the same direction (essence of leadership), and did all of this while keeping in mind what the people in their network wanted (attention to stakeholders, influence

of the leader by the network). All these aspects seem highly applicable to the situation of a global leader as well.

Kotter (1982a, p. 80) also summarized how the executives spent their time:

- Alone or with others (only 24% alone, with a variation from 10% to 30%)
- Covering a wide breadth of topics
- Without making “big” decisions
- Involved in activities that the GMs themselves regarded as a waste of time
- Influencing others
- Behaving in a reactive mode
- In short and disjointed conversations

The first three points of observed behavior directly support his interpretation of the importance of the network. And perhaps even what looked like “wasting” time was important for balancing the needs of others in the network. GMs spent a lot of time walking around talking to people:

They “wasted” time walking down corridors, engaging in seemingly random chats with seemingly random people, all the while promoting their agendas and building their networks with far less effort than if they’d scheduled meetings along a formal chain of command (Kotter, 1999, p. 159).

And, finally, “influencing others” again made it on the list and affirmed its place as the essence of leadership. In summary, Kotter’s (1982a) work highlighted that leaders set their agenda and network to get it done.

Short disjointed conversations are a common observation. Almost all researchers report that the job of the leader is characterized by constant “interruptions” and comment on the fragmentation of work (Carlson, 1991; Kotter, 1982a; Mintzberg, 1973; Tengblad, 2012b). It is unclear if brevity of work activities and fragmentation are forced onto the global leader or can be the chosen pattern of work (Mintzberg, 2013). Interpretations vary as to whether fragmentation is productive or actually very efficient (Mark, Gonzalez, & Harris, 2005; Mintzberg, 2009b; Mintzberg, 1971; Tengblad, 2006).

Fascinating is the observation by Kotter (1982a) that GMs behave in a reactive mode. This echoes Carlson’s (1991) puppet on a string metaphor from 1951. Perhaps the complexity of the situation (as discussed in the section on the global work environment) demands of the leader a reaction to all of these divergent demands, make sense out of them, and order them for the benefit of the organization. Mintzberg (1991) suggests that, perhaps, the essence of the manager’s job is to absorb all the ambiguity, thereby allowing everyone else in the organization to do their work in an orderly fashion (p. 111). Getting things done through people would best be accomplished by removing the ambiguities for them.

After many empirical studies motivated by the desire to help leaders be more effective, R. Stewart (1976; 1991) developed a model of demands, constraints and

choices to describe and compare leaders' roles. The model suggests that job responsibilities can be viewed in terms of the core of the job (demands), what can and cannot be done (constraints), and the way the job holder chooses to embrace certain aspects of the job more or ignore others (choices). The model can explain why no two jobs are the same: managers don't perceive the job the same. They attribute different meaning to what they see and what they do. As McCall and Hollenbeck (2002) experienced in their in-depth study of 101 global leaders: "Neither global jobs nor the people in them are all alike. They come in many shapes" (p. 12). Perhaps in a global environment, with the dynamic complexities described earlier, an approach that pays attention to the differences is more appropriate than the emphasis on similarities between global leaders' jobs.

Osland, Oddou, Bird and Osland (2013) researched how global leaders perceive and respond to their work context. Using applied cognitive task analysis and content analysis, the team identified how global leaders conceptualized their work contexts, how they approached their work, and how they developed their expertise. The team investigated how exceptional global leaders think. By asking the participant to remember a global change initiative and what steps were taken to accomplish it, the researchers identified skills like diagnosing and predicting, situation awareness, perceptual skills, and improvising. Expert global leaders think about or approach their work in terms of problem solving, strategic thinking, boundary spanning and stakeholders, influencing, and use global skills like perspective taking, engaging in

mindful dialogue and conscious “code switching” to be effective in different situations.

Luthans, Hodgetts, and Rosenkrantz (1988) were the first to pursue the question what real managers really do empirically by conducting a major study involving 248 American managers. In the first phase of their study, they used trained observers to freely observe and carefully record all behaviors and activities of 44 managers. These 44 managers all had people working for them, came from all levels of the organization and from all types of organizations (e.g., corporate headquarters, a financial institution, an insurance company). The observations of behaviors and activities captured in the logs were then combined into 12 descriptive categories that were further grouped into four main activities using the Delphi process. The four main activities were: communication, traditional management, networking, and human resource management.

Once the activities had been established and verified, the relative frequency of these activities was measured with 248 managers. Analyzing the data, the researchers found differences in behavior frequency between those managers who were promoted quickly (“successful” managers) and those whose performance was rated as superior and whose immediate subordinates were satisfied with their manager and highly committed (“effective” managers). Successful managers spent more time socializing, whereas effective managers spent the bulk of their time on communication and

human resource management activities. While the study was conducted with what we can assume are domestic managers, the resulting list of four categories with 12 activities, as well as the fact that effective managers spent much more time on human resource activities, is very interesting. If we wanted to compare global leaders at work with domestic leaders, this study would make a good basis.

Kets de Vries and Florent-Treacy (2002) included in their job description of a global leader the need “to establish and maintain a corporate culture that transcends cultural differences” (p. 299). The values and attitudes need to be comprehensible and compelling to employees with diverse backgrounds and cultural differences.

Dalton, Ernst, Deal, and Leslie (2002), in a study involving 211 global managers, looked at how *essential* managerial capabilities that *all* leaders need to have expand for *global leaders*. I am including their findings in this section and not in the section on competencies, because the researchers directly relate their findings to behaviors and actions at work, as demonstrated in Table 6.

Table 6. Extension of Essential Capabilities for Global Role

Essential Managerial Capabilities	With Global Responsibilities
Ability to Manage People	Distance increases differences in how people understand and make sense of the world around them
Ability to Manage Action (Decision Making; Negotiation and Conflict Management)	Decision making is the strongest predictor of performance locally and globally; decision making is strongly affected by culture and distance
Ability to Manage Information	Different countries and cultures have different rules about who can have what information and when (order in which information is disseminated), and how that information needs to be communicated; ability to disagree with the message
Ability to Cope with Pressure	Healthy managers are better managers: adopting stress-reduction strategies is more critical when work is globally complex
Core Business Knowledge	Understanding what customers, suppliers, and other business partners who are culturally different want, and what the country systems and structures will allow

Source: Adapted from Dalton et al., 2002

Managers have to do many of the same things whether their jobs are domestic or global—the difference is in *how* they do them.

In addition to the essential capabilities that domestic and global managers share, Dalton et al. (2002) identified four more pivotal capabilities that only global leaders need. These four pivotal capabilities represent an integrated package.

Table 7. Pivotal Capabilities of Global Leaders

International Business Knowledge	Know how to leverage business across all countries and markets; know the laws, history, customs in all countries; intellectual knowledge is insufficient; to understand something deeply means being able to experience it, feel it, practice it, (i.e. alter one's behavior appropriately)
Cultural Adaptability	Knowledge of culture and ability to adapt one's style, and adapt the various roles that a manager plays; alter behavior appropriately
Perspective-Taking	Know how to hold someone else's frame of reference in mind; experience the other's perspective; cultural empathy; understand how to act, communicate, or lead from the perspective of deeply held values or beliefs (the symbol system) of someone else in another culture; personal intelligence
Ability to Play the Role of Innovator	Very essence of being a global manager: the ability to create something new out of two parts or more that is greater than the sum of its parts; leveraging globalization

Source: Adapted from Dalton et al., 2002

Answering their research question of “What do global managers do?,” Dalton et al. (2002) compared the roles most important for managers in low-global-complexity jobs (similar to domestic) with those roles most important to managers in high-global-complexity jobs.

Table 8. Importance of Roles and Capabilities Comparison

	Managers in low-global-complexity jobs	Both	Managers in high-global-complexity jobs
Roles	Leader	Monitor, Decision maker, Negotiator, Innovator	Spokesperson, Liaison
Capabilities		Self-development, Perspective-taking, Business knowledge, Insight, Coping, Integrity	Cultural adaptability, International business knowledge, Time management

Source: Adapted from Dalton et al., 2002

These findings suggest that global leaders are more likely to endorse an understanding of their role as working across organizational boundaries and connecting people inside and outside the company. Global leaders also recognized the importance of cultural adaptability and the increased need for time management.

Mintzberg (2013), in *Simply Managing*, revisits the question about the nature of managerial work and shares his findings from having spent a day each with 29 leaders around the world. Tengblad (2012) calls the study a *sequel* to the 1973 book *The Nature of Managerial Work*. Mintzberg (2009a) also made available a 130-page document in which he describes the days spent with the leader and then provides his interpretation of his observations. Of the 29 leaders visited, the notes about the days with six leaders from business are of particular interest for the present study, even though they are not necessarily global leaders. The day at work is completely

different for each of the six leaders. The six leaders work in Canada (3), Great Britain (2), and France (1) in different industries (e.g., banking, telecom, retail). And even though their positions might be very similar (e.g., CEO, Managing Director, Co-President), what they focus on and how they spend their days at work is very different. It is impossible to summarize their activities or behaviors.

What makes the document (Mintzberg, 2009) so fascinating is that it makes visible how Mintzberg developed his thinking about management (and leadership). We do not get to see his field journal (he refers to the many pages of notes he took each day), but he shares an account of the day, which is followed by an interpretation of what he observed. In his book, he developed this into a model of managing, which is reproduced below.



Source: Adapted from Mintzberg, 2013, p. 37

Figure 3. A Model of Managing

The manager (Mintzberg always uses the term *manager*) is bridging from within the unit (unless the unit is the entire business) to the rest of the organization and the world outside it. The job is to bring information and demands from outside into the unit, to communicate, control, lead, link, deal, and do.

In his analysis of the daily accounts, Mintzberg (2009) has developed these roles. It is interesting that 40 years after he so dismissed Fayol's and Gulick's roles, Mintzberg, too, was once again left with a list of roles. Mintzberg's summary conclusion was that "management is neither a science nor a profession," but a practice, and "managers are only as good as their ability to work things out thoughtfully in their own way" (2013, pp. 8, 12).

Research into the work of managers and leaders has produced detailed, representative accounts of managerial work and behavior that are very sensitive to context and setting (Tengblad, 2012b). We find great complexity and variety of work, with work being highly fragmented, and much time being spent exchanging information, primarily verbally. The observed way leaders work in their organizations is very different from the rational management theory. We find little evidence for systematic planning and decision-making; rather, these activities are happening much more spontaneously. Mintzberg (2009a) calls this "management of an adhocracy". And we find that while the leaders might have a few things in common (traits, attributes,

competencies), and the *what* of their jobs might be similar, *how* they spend their days at work is very different.

In summary, work studies can provide the qualitative and empirical foundation for theories about global leadership. The world of work has changed since the early studies into the nature of managerial work and the work of the executive. This is especially true for global work which is characterized by the complexity of its environment. We find studies that distinguished between the work of the organization, work maintaining the organization, and work of specialists. Leaders are involved in all three kinds of work. Leaders are seen to be in charge, yet at the same time, they are mostly in a reactive mode. The brevity of their activities, the fragmentation, and the fact that they got interrupted often was highlighted by many researchers. Mintzberg (1973) identified three roles managers play: interpersonal, informational, and decisional roles. Kotter (1982a) saw managers using their network's knowledge to decide what to focus on and to get things done, influencing their network to move in the same direction while keeping in mind what the people in their network wanted. Global leaders manage information flows and are the liaison between different stakeholders.

Leadership Theories

There is no commonly agreed upon definition of leadership (Adler, 1997; Northouse, 2013); instead, there are at least 130 different definitions (J. M. Burns, 2010). Day and Antonakis (2012) didn't think a specific and widely accepted definition of

leadership will ever be found; the nature of leadership is just too complex. No central concept of leadership has emerged, let alone a grand theory of leadership (J. M. Burns, 2010). We know that leadership is a universal phenomenon, but how it is practiced by the leader and what is expected of the leader is very different in various cultures. We look at the person, the situation, and the interaction between the two when assessing leadership, and systematic differences in beliefs, values, decision styles, and more shape the interaction. Leadership processes can vary significantly across geographic regions, and if current management theories aren't globally applicable, leadership theories, too, need to be overhauled to apply in different parts of the world (Hofstede, 1980b; 1993).

To date, there are no theories of global leadership either (Osland et al., 2013, p. 528). The full range model of leadership has some degree of universality (Bass, 1996; Bass, 1997). In these works, Bass reported that the transactional-transformational paradigm (or full range model of leadership) despite systematic differences in beliefs, values, and implicit theories, has universality because people everywhere have ideals and implicit theories of leadership that are more transformational than transactional. The situational context accounts for variances. Since mutual obligation between the leader and the followers is much stronger in collectivistic cultures, individualized consideration might be more pervasive in collectivistic societies. Transformational leadership may be autocratic and directive or democratic and participative; these are cultural contingencies. What is charismatic, motivating, stimulating, or being

considerate (the four elements of transformational leadership) very much depends on the culture.

One of the reasons for the lack of theory is that there is limited agreement and knowledge about the antecedents and outcomes of global leadership and how it develops (Osland, 2011). Global pragmatic wisdom, hope, and courage have been identified as antecedents that enhance our understanding of effective global leadership (Adler, 2014).

Leadership models are being developed in one of three ways: 1) using a universal approach, built on the belief that leadership traits and processes are relatively constant across cultures, 2) using a normative approach, focusing on the competencies that effective global leaders need, or 3) using a contingency approach. The work that is being done on competencies, global mindset, and globally preferred leadership styles falls into the normative approach. The contingency approach assumes leadership as a culturally embedded process. The GLOBE study is an example for this approach with its findings that leadership is to a large degree culturally contingent (see detailed discussion in section on GLOBE studies). Other contingency approaches include leadership models like symbolic leadership (in Japan and Korea), or leadership without being in the limelight (China), where an ideal leader might be barely known and considered highly successful if the people think they achieved success on their own (Steers, Sanchez-Runde, & Nardon, 2012).

To understand leadership in the global context, the emphasis has to be on context and the variation in the interactions between individuals within this context (Scandura & Dorfman, 2004, p. 295).

My study was influenced not only by previous research on global leadership as summarized in my review of the literature, but also by my understanding of theories of leadership (Northouse, 2013). I am particularly interested in a view of leadership that does not focus on the leader's traits or characteristics, but on the process of leadership that includes followers and the situation in which leadership is practiced (i.e., where leadership is co-constructed in organizations because individuals claim and grant leader and follower identities in their social interactions) (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). In global leadership, where the leader uses influence to align many different stakeholders over which the leader has no direct control, a leadership theory that is focused on the interaction with others rather than on the person seems to be most helpful. This approach to leadership also encourages the observing researcher to look at the leader in relation to all the other elements of each specific situation.

Leadership styles and conceptualization vary across culture (G. N. Burns, Levi, Kotrba, & Denison, 2014; Chao & Dexin Tian, 2011; Hofstede, 1980a; Hofstede, 1993). So a global leadership theory would have to be developed on a meta-level. Since the construct already embraces the context, especially the multi-cultural aspect of the context, the theory would most likely be one that is less focused on the leader

and more focused on the follower or the interaction between follower and leader. Expectations followers have of leaders and vice versa are culture-dependent. An assumption here is that leaders and followers influence each other, and because of the complexity of the situation, different leaders emerge as the situation requires (shared leadership).

According to Yukl (1989), there has been deep disagreement about identification of leaders and leadership processes, and despite much empirical research, there has been no integrated understanding of leadership. Yukl (1989) identified the narrow focus of most researchers as one of the reasons (p. 253). In my construct definition, I use a broad focus in that I accept a large definition of leadership (including aspects like power, traits, and situational factors) and focus on the work global leaders do.

Kets de Vries and Florent-Treacy (1999; 2002) argue that the underlying drivers for successful global organizations are leaders who establish a state of complementarity with the universal motivational need systems of their followers (whatever the national culture may be). “The relationship between leader and led is not what it used to be” (Kets de Vries & Florent-Treacy, 1999, p. XVII). Leadership styles will become more authoritative rather than authoritarian. Certain aspects identifying which kind of leadership global leaders prefer are sprinkled throughout the studies (see the section on cross-cultural studies). Osland et al. (2013) found that expert global leaders are less likely to use position power or an authoritarian leadership style, but are more

likely to use a negotiated form of influence and social capital to change mental models and to keep groups focused (p. 530).

The research on leadership styles suggested that leadership theories of shared leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003) were applicable. Mendenhall, Reiche, Bird, and Osland (2012) also noted that when we see leadership as a process rather than a state, it allows us to more easily include global leaders who temporarily assume a leadership role in a team effort and then become followers again. Especially global change initiatives can have multiple leaders who take on more pronounced leadership roles at different stages of the initiative.

Leadership in a world characterized by globalization will need new leadership models. Hill (2008) talked about the notions of leading from behind and of leadership as collective genius. Leadership from behind was similar to Greenleaf's (1991) servant leadership concept in that it enables others, it removes roadblocks. It is also not done by one person alone, but as an inclusive, collaborative leadership style, similar to a team approach to problem solving. It requires a leader who is comfortable sharing power, and who creates opportunity for collective leadership. In a globalized world with all its complexities, no one can be an expert in every area that requires expertise. It takes many global leaders to lead a global organization.

Moving forward, shared leadership might become more important for the research of global leadership. In a study conducted in the late 1990s, 200 next generation high-potentials from 120 international companies were interviewed (Goldsmith et al., 2003). They anticipated more partnerships and alliances, and with this more collaborative decision-making. With the continuing increase in globalization, the accompanying increase in complexity will see shared leadership as a superior way of collaborating. No individual is likely to embody all the competencies and capabilities identified for global leaders. Goldsmith et al. (2003) even suggested that there will be fewer single CEOs (p.4).

In summary, the research done on leadership and the work of leaders assumes certain theories of leadership and work. Carlson (1991) based his view of management on Fayol's theories and the scientific management movement. Mintzberg (1973) was informed by management science theory; his study was explicitly in support of the goal to standardize managerial work practices to make work more effective. Later, the focus was on decision-making (i.e., seeing the leader as the ultimate decision-maker), even though not much time in the work studies was classified as "decision-making time." R. Stewart (1991) developed the model of demands, constraints, and choices to theorize about the work of leaders. Tengblad (2012a) suggested the theoretical concept of the expectations handler, akin to the stakeholder perspective, for the leader and wants to move towards a practice theory of management. Management as a practice and leadership as communityship are the directions in which Mintzberg

(2013) would like to see the field evolve. Luthans et al. (1988) approached their study based on social learning theory (Luthans & Lockwood, 1984). A social-learning theoretical framework recognizes leadership as a reciprocal, interactive process involving the leader, the environment, and the leader's behavior.

In my study I approached leadership as a practice. Borrowing from Mintzberg's (2013) *Management as a Practice* model, I believe that leadership needs vision and creative insights (art), analysis and systematic evidence (science), and experience and practical learning (craft) to work well.

Definitions Used in this Study

No generally agreed-upon construct definition exists yet for global leadership. Before I end with the construct definition I am using in my study, I will review the two terms that make up global leadership.

After a review of the multitude of ways in which leadership has been conceptualized, Northouse (2013, p. 5) identified the following components as central to the phenomenon of leadership:

- Leadership is a process
- Leadership involves influence
- Leadership occurs in groups
- Leadership involves common goals

Defining leadership as a process means it does not reside in a person, but between leaders and followers, and both influence each other. Key to leadership is the influence leaders have on their followers as individuals and in groups. Together, they achieve something that both leaders and followers want.

Mendenhall et al. (2012) provided a thorough review of definitions used for global leadership, and then, focusing on the “global” in the construct, provide the following dimensions:

- Complexity
- Flow
- Presence

Complexity is the contextual dimension of the global construct, which itself can be further broken down into the elements of multiplicity, interdependence, ambiguity, and flux. Ambiguity, a factor often mentioned, is further broken down into information clarity, nonlinear relationships, and equivocality. I find the aspect of equivocality especially intriguing. If many interpretations of the facts are possible, and different stakeholders choose different interpretations, then how does the global leader choose how to act?

Flow is the relational dimension and addresses the variety of boundary crossings the global leader has to undertake. It is not often mentioned in the literature on global

leadership, but it basically addresses the information exchange that the global leader is engaging in.

Presence addresses the spatial-temporal dimension, and the need of the global leader to physically move across geographical, cultural, and national boundaries. This factor seems to be the most challenging in defining global leaders. Expatriates have high presence, but are not necessarily leaders. Virtual assignments would have low presence. The way globalization is happening is certainly changing. In the early years, we had many expats; now companies rely much more on technology to cross these borders (i.e., less presence might be needed). Perhaps the next generation of global leaders—the online generation—is more comfortable doing things virtually and has less of a need of high presence.

Construct definitions have been developed since the field has been developing. Adler (1997) suggested the following definition: “a process by which members of the world community are empowered to work together synergistically toward a common vision and common goals resulting in an improvement in the quality of life” (p. 174). She emphasized that global leadership is different because global leaders address people worldwide. The field is not looking at the efficacy of a particular leadership style within the leader’s home country, nor is it comparing leadership approaches across countries. She concluded that it focuses on cross-cultural interaction. The CEOs of global companies cannot tailor their message to the many countries in which the

company operates. Global leaders need to articulate a vision that resonates around the world.

Mendenhall et al. (2012) suggested 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, flow and presence”

(p. 500). For the latest volume of *Advances in Global Leadership*, Osland, Li, and Wang (2014a) used the following definition for global leaders: “people who inspire followers from multiple cultures to willingly pursue a positive vision in a context characterized by significant levels of complexity, flow and geographical presence” (p. 5).

Construct definition

The definition of a global leader I am using in this study is: a person who inspires others from multiple countries to willingly pursue a common goal in a context characterized by significant levels of complexity and flow.

This definition embraces both the central elements of leadership identified by Northouse (2013) and the dimensions of leading in a global environment provided by researchers of global leadership (Mendenhall et al., 2012; Osland et al., 2014a).

Northouse (2013) defined leadership as a process “whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 5). Osland et al. (2014a) have

built upon Mendenhall et al. (2012) and put forward the following definition of global leadership:

[T]he process of influencing others from multiple cultures to adopt a shared vision through structures and methods that facilitate positive change while fostering individual and collective growth in a context characterized by significant levels of complexity, flow and presence.
(p. 5)

Complexity, flow, and presence address the global element.

Complexity addresses the contextual dimension and can be found in many of the definitions that are in use. It stems from operating in multiple geographical markets, dealing with heterogeneity in terms of diverging optimal solutions for different businesses, countries, and tasks. Complexity implies handling environments that are very different from those that domestic leaders face (Rosen et al., 2000).

Flow addresses the relational dimension, the boundary spanning nature of relationships. Global leaders exchange information throughout the global context, across functional, geographic, and organizational boundaries. These boundaries are marked by cultural, linguistic, and political differences, to name just a few. Global leaders build relationships across all of these boundaries to ensure rich information flow.

I am not including the dimension of “presence” in my definition of a global leader. This dimension reflects the degree to which an individual is required to move across geographical, cultural, and national boundaries, and, therefore, is very helpful in developing a taxonomy of global leaders. In my study, the amount of presence was not used to include or exclude possible participants. In Figure 5, however, I show the differences in team member dispersion.

Terminology

Global leadership is not positional. Conger and O’Neill (2012) defined global leaders as “leadership talent who work across geographic and cultural boundaries. ... These leaders can be found at all levels of the organization; they are a unique breed compared to other line leaders, with distinct capabilities” (p.53). We can find people who lead global efforts at any level of the organization and leadership is needed throughout the organization (Black et al., 1999; Brake, 1997; Jokinen, 2005; Osland, 2013a, p. 40). Brake (1997) affirmed that leadership in general, not just global leadership, matters from boardroom to basement (p. XV).

It is likely that someone who serves in a senior role in a global business is a global leader. The term *executive* is frequently used to describe leadership at the senior level (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). Sometimes the term managing director is used, sometimes the term CEO. Sometimes the distinction is made that a manager works at maintaining the status quo whereas a leader is someone who leads change efforts

(Bennis, 1989; Kotter, 1990; Zaleznik, 1977). Yukl (1989) introduced another term when he used *managerial* leadership, and stated that it is only the degree of overlap that is a point of sharp disagreement. Kets de Vries and Florent-Treacy (2002) spoke of the charismatic and the architectural role of the leader and that global leadership expands on these two roles. All good leaders need to also manage the changes their lead, and all good managers need to lead their teams as well. Mintzberg (2013) went a step further when he said, “Instead of distinguishing leaders from managers, we should be seeing managers *as* leaders, and leadership as management practiced well” (p. 8).

For my research, the distinction between executive, managing director, leader, and manager is not relevant; my focus is on the leader/manager/executive who works in a job with global responsibilities. I use these terms interchangeably throughout this paper.

Mintzberg (1973) did not use the term “leader” but rather talked about the “manager” exclusively, whether he referred to the executives and CEOs in his study, all of whom held the position of “chief executive” (p.237) and today are typically referred to as leaders, or anybody else in the company who has a certain degree of responsibility. To this day Mintzberg much prefers the term manager, as his latest book, *Simply Managing* (2013), shows. In research on work done by managers or leaders, the distinction between leaders and managers often isn’t made. Leadership has been

studied for many centuries, and we now have a multitude of approaches to leadership and leadership theory (Northouse, 2013). The first known use of the term *management* dates to 1598 (Weiner & Simpson, 1991). It is much more recent that we distinguish between managers and leaders, and, more specifically, distinguish between those tasks that managers do and those tasks for leaders (Bennis, 1989). That leaders lead the organization through change, whereas managers maintain the status quo, has been repeated over and over again. But already in 1990, Kotter argued that companies need “to groom their top people to provide both” (Kotter, 2001, p. 4). Before Bennis (1989), Mintzberg (1973) referred to the five executives of his study as managers, and after Bennis (1989), Tengblad (2012b), with *The Work of Managers*, clearly embraces people (managers or leaders) at various levels of the organization, including very senior leaders. I am not distinguishing between leaders and managers; my focus is on people who have global responsibilities, both leading others and managing the business. The five people I observed are all referred to as leaders in their organizations.

A global leader is not easily defined since the person and the job can take on many different facets. McCall and Hollenbeck (2002) put it well when they said it’s a small wonder the “secret of global leadership” hasn’t yet been found. There’s such a layer of complexity, neither the jobs nor the people are alike (p.39).

Need for More Foundational Research

There is little consensus as to what being a global leader is all about (Kets de Vries, & Florent-Treacy, 2002). More foundational research is needed (Osland et al., 2013). As late as 2013, Osland, Oddu, Bird, and Osland (2013) counted only roughly 20 empirical studies of global leadership in print (p. 520). Research is ongoing and more articles are being published, but there's a loud call for more work on construct definition and on "specifying how global leaders differ in terms of roles, behavior, cognitive processes from global managers and domestic leaders, creating a construct definition that unifies the field, testing a taxonomy of global leaders" (Osland, Li, & Wang, 2014b, p. 369). Better understanding global leaders' work provides the foundation for the answers to these questions.

The literature review did not provide any key concepts regarding the nature of global leaders' work, nor did it suggest any hypotheses. My research contributes to advancing the field by focusing on foundational research in terms of roles, behaviors, and activities of global leaders. It is exploratory and provides a theoretical contribution on the nature of global leader's work.

Chapter 3: Research Method

In this chapter, I first discuss the methodology I chose (constructivist grounded theory), followed by a comprehensive description of the study participants and their place of work. I then discuss the processes of data collection and data analysis. I end this chapter with a reflection on the quality of my research, drawing on the aspects of originality and utility (Corley & Gioia, 2011), and three lenses (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

Methodological Considerations

Work as a construct is being studied, among others, by organizational psychologists, organizational behavior researchers, those interested in human resource management, organizational development, and those interested in a practice theory of management. They each bring their own lenses with them. My lenses were primarily those of leadership and global work. I investigated what situations my participants were facing, who they were working with, and how they made sense out of the demands they were facing and then interacted with the situation.

The present study was inspired by Mintzberg (1973), who designed his study “to focus (1) on the job rather than the man, (2) on basic similarities in managers’ work rather than on differences, and (3) on the essential content of the work rather than its peripheral characteristics” (p. 230). My research design was also focused on the job rather than on the person, and on the essential content of the work. I looked at the

larger context in which the work was taking place—I was not out primarily to find basic similarities, but rather to appreciate the variety of global work and get at the essence of what makes global work in all its variety. Mintzberg’s research objective was to apply scientific management principles to the work of the manager, to see how to standardize the work, how to develop procedures, and how to systematically improve on them. My research objective was to provide a better understanding of the nature of the work itself by providing a descriptive understanding of the work, and to contribute to the development of a theory of global leadership. A further objective was to provide insights helpful for the selection and development of global leaders.

The nature of work is socially constructed. What I see at work are people; their roles as managers or leaders is socially constructed. People at work can be in the same situation and yet walk away from it with completely different interpretations of what happened in the situation and then, based on their interpretation, what should happen next. The organization of the company, the reporting relationships, hierarchies, stakeholders, etc. all exist, but each actor responds differently to these social phenomena. Reality is socially constructed. The nature of global leaders’ work is not a truth that can be discovered but is a phenomenon that can be constructed.

Mintzberg (1973) said that “standing between a) what the manager is supposed to do and c) what he actually does is b) what he thinks he does” (p. 214). I would go even a step further and say that the manager interprets what he thinks he is supposed to do.

But I am also pragmatist enough to say that I believe there is real work that is being done, that real activities take place. My in-depth investigation uncovers what these activities are, how they are done, and how much time is spent on them. What this all means is then constructed by me with the help of my participants.

Grounded theory

Given that I wanted to see for myself and without any preconceived notions (or categories) what the nature of global leaders' work is in order to contribute to a theory of global leadership, I chose grounded theory as my strategy of inquiry. While qualitative research explores and describes the phenomenon of interest, grounded theory goes a step further and explains the phenomenon being studied (Charmaz, 2014; Locke, 1996; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

I first explored and described the nature of global leaders' work, but then went on to explain it further. Leadership is a social practice. Grounded theory provided the process to describe, analyze, interpret, and explain what I observed in order to develop theoretical explanations in a substantive model. Rather than finding theory in the observations, a positivist approach, the inductive process allowed me to construct theory. Mintzberg (2005) was very encouraging when he said, "What makes me salivate is induction: inventing explanations about things. Not finding them—that's truth; inventing them. We don't discover theory; we create it. And that's great fun; if only more of our doctoral students took the chance" (p. 357). I took the chance!

Grounded theory methodologists differ on certain foundational assumptions, but all have in common that they begin with inductive logic, subject their data to rigorous comparative analysis, aim to develop theoretical analyses, and value grounded theory studies for informing policy and practice (Charmaz, 2014, p. 14). I see my research solidly in the camp of researchers who explore a phenomenon of interest with a broad question, use multiple sources of data, and constantly compare their insights to develop theory.

Guiding steps

In my methodology, I followed Charmaz (2014), who moved away from a more positivist approach to grounded theory to a more constructivist grounded theory. I adopted an inductive, comparative, emergent, and open-ended approach to my study. Charmaz (2014, p. 15) prescribed the following steps that I followed:

1. **Conduct data collection and analysis simultaneously in an iterative process:** I had time in the evenings, ten days between observation one and two, and two months each between the third and fourth, and the fourth and fifth observations. I analyzed my data during these times and my following observation was informed by the previous one.
2. **Analyze actions and processes rather than themes and structures:** My focus was on the actions the global leaders took, and since I see leadership as a process, this informed my analysis.
3. **Use comparative methods:** I compared between similar actions of the same participants and between the participants. I also compared my own ideas to

my data, and used my intuitions as another set of ideas to check (Charmaz, 2014, p. 132).

4. **Draw on data in service of developing new conceptual categories:** I worked very closely with my field notes, the raw data, as well as the codes, my reflections and memos, and from all of that developed the conceptual categories that I present in the next chapter.
5. **Develop inductive abstract analytical categories through systematic data analysis:** My initial codes and the memo-ing led to focused coding and, throughout the categories, became more abstract.
6. **Emphasize theory construction rather than description or application of current theories:** In a first step, I was heavily concerned with description and saw this as an important part of my findings, in line with my research question. Using the descriptions to develop abstract categories then allowed me to develop my own model. In the process of developing the model of global leadership, I was also able to connect my individual aspects of my findings to existing theories.
7. **Engage in theoretical sampling:** Theoretical sampling really means “seeking and collecting pertinent data to elaborate and refine categories in your emerging theory” (Charmaz, 2014, p. 192). In my case, I did not go out to the field repeatedly to continue sampling, but I did go back to my field journal (both the hand-written and the typed versions) to seek and collect more data to

refine my categories. Theoretical sampling for me meant that I went back to the existing field notes, but with fresh eyes.

8. **Search for variation in the studied categories or process:** As I stated earlier, I was struck by the amount of variation I observed and perceived a healthy struggle to generalize and to honor the variation in my data.
9. **Pursue developing a category rather than covering a specific empirical topic:** Here, my desire not to lose the variation in my data was helpful, and it allowed me to develop categories that were not tied to my topic. At the beginning of my study on the nature of global leaders' work, I was so focused on the work (versus the worker) that I did not at all expect to construct categories around the person.

I used the above nine steps to guide my work; they provided a path to theory development without being prescriptive (Charmaz, 2014, p. 16). My research objective to contribute to a better understanding of the nature of global leaders' work and my approach to use semi-structured observation meant that I adjusted the methodology appropriately. Grounded theory was a helpful methodology because it guided me in not staying on the descriptive level but aiming for substantive theory. It was not, however, treated as a "cookbook" or template that I needed to follow, but rather as "a flexible orientation toward qualitative, inductive research that is open to innovation" (Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton, 2013, p. 12). My main intent was always to demonstrate the connection between data and theory.

Linking concepts

I was also influenced by some of the critique of grounded theory, especially the concern to be systematic in the way of using data specific levels of scale (the codes) to gain insight into more macro levels of scale (concepts and themes). The method of linking concepts together within and between levels of scale using fractal concept analysis seemed appropriate, and inspired my analysis process (Wasserman, Clair, & Wilson, 2009). I looked at static versus dynamic relationships within each level as well as the evaluation that was implied and the sense of self. Doing this within and between the levels of analysis allowed me to pull out what makes up the essence of global leaders' work. I also gained unexpected insights into the person of the global leader. Starting at the static (descriptive) level, then moving to the dynamic (process), and then the evaluative (meaning), allowed me to arrive at the self/identity (the core) of the person and the work (Wilson & Lowndes, 2004). A brief example in Table 9 should help illustrate the analytical process:

Table 9. Coding Field Notes

Field notes	Coding	Level of analysis
C. interrupts what he is doing and turns his attention to the latest news. He comes across a brief mention of an event from the previous day involving an Italian and decides to investigate further. He googles the information and chooses an Italian source to get more details.	alone	Static
	getting caught up on the news	Dynamic
	getting excited about a particular piece of news	Evaluative
	turning to best domestic source for information; language	Self/Identity

Reflexivity

Because social reality is multiple and constructed, the researcher's position, privileges, perspective, and interactions are an inherent part of the research reality, and the researcher, too, is a construction. "Viewing the research as constructed rather than discovered fosters researchers' reflexivity about their actions and decisions" (Charmaz, 2014, p.13). I understand that I was the tool for the research I undertook. Strauss and Glaser, the fathers of grounded theory, later differed in their understanding of the role of the researcher. While Strauss located agency for theory development in the human researcher, Glaser conferred agency on neutral methods and data (as cited in Locke, 1996). I follow Strauss in that I was the one who got to the essence of what global leaders' work is all about by thinking through the codes and abstracting from what I had observed and written down. During the observation period, the participant global leaders had been the knowledgeable agents, but during the analysis I became the knowledgeable agent who could and had to think at multiple levels simultaneously (Gioia et al., 2013).

Triangulation

I used secondary data for my own education (i.e., to understand the situation, the company, the organization structure). These were publicly available materials on the companies as well as internal materials that the participants made available to me. I also read extensively both before conducting my own study as well as during the analysis phase. Some researchers are of the opinion that "knowing the literature intimately too early puts blinders on and leads to prior hypothesis bias" (Gioia et al.,

2013, p. 7). I am of the opinion that there is no such thing as an *empty head* but what is needed is an *open head*. Strauss and Corbin (1998) elaborated on the usefulness of professional experience when they say that it “can enable the researcher to move into an area more quickly because he or she does not have to spend time gaining familiarity with surroundings or events” (p. 47). Locke (1996) suggested that Strauss and Corbin saw many different sources as valuable: prior theory, nontechnical literature, personal as well as professional experiences of the researcher all can help gain insights. As a practitioner, I brought my own experience to the situations I observed; the work I observed, the situations I was in, this was all very familiar to me. As an academic, I am a beginner and had much catching up to do to understand the conversation. Reading helped, even though there was little prior research into the nature of global leaders’ work. I made a conscious effort to be open to what I was observing, taking an ethnographic stance where even the known was treated as something unknown. My experience and the knowledge of the literature opened my eyes rather than limiting my ability to record the data and letting the data speak. Finally, during the analysis phase, I went back to my participants when new aspects arose and I needed to check assumptions or clarify notes in my field journal. My participants were never more than an email or an Internet chat away.

Following the grounded theory methodology, I arrive at a substantive low-level theory. We currently do not have theories explaining the work of global leaders, how

it differs from local leaders and what it takes to be successful in a global role. My hope is that my research is a helpful contribution to theory-building.

Given these methodological considerations, I now to turn to a description of the study participants and their place of work before I then discuss data collection and data analysis.

Study Participants

In this section, I first discuss how I selected my study participants and then introduce the five participants with key data about them and their place of work, as well as provide the naming convention I use throughout the report. After the brief introduction, I provide full profile descriptions for each participant. These full profiles also include a description of their place of work.

Selection of participants

Mintzberg (1973) observed five participants for a week each, and this was the basic design of my study as well. Since I wanted to explore the nature of the work of global leaders, I needed to be purposive in my selection of participants (i.e., I needed to find global leaders). I recruited participants in my network and my friends' networks who all work for multinational or global companies and have global responsibilities. My study participants all meet my operational definition of a global leader: a person who inspires others from multiple countries to willingly pursue a common goal in a context characterized by significant levels of complexity and flow.

All participants had been in their current positions long enough to ensure that they were experienced in their responsibilities. Since global competencies had been identified as so critical during my literature review, I asked all five participants to take the Global Competencies Inventory (GCI), a validated tool to assess their global competencies (Mendenhall, Stevens, Bird, & Oddou, 2008; Stevens, Bird, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 2014). Their overall Global Competency Index ranged from high moderate to very high. Given the geographical reach of their responsibilities, their position within the company, their time in the current position and their GCI score, these five participants were all successful global leaders.

The first three participants, all based in the US, were very quick to recruit. One participant was a former manager of mine, another a former colleague, and the third a former classmate. I shared with them the goals of my research and that I would like to spend a week interning with them, and all we needed to do was figure out a week that was convenient for both of us.

Back in Europe, the search for two Europe-based participants ended up being a lot more difficult. There were a number of reasons: my network isn't as developed in Europe as it is in the United States, and I needed someone who spoke either German or English at work, but not any of the other European languages. In one case, my contact, the personal assistant to the CEO of a large insurance company, gave me his regrets saying that my request would be too much of a burden for an executive who

has a very heavy work load. In another case, my contact, a former colleague, was very enthusiastic about my research and happy to help me out. Before we could schedule a week, he wanted his manager, who lives in another country, to approve the internship, and he also needed buy-in from HR, the local management, and the works council. We made good progress getting all these entities to agree, I conducted a two-hour preliminary interview to better understand his job, and then it was announced that his company would be bought, at which time my visit was no longer possible. Another potential participant, the COO of a global marketing firm, was happy to participate until he spoke with his wife; since he is working out of his home office when he is not traveling, and his wife did not agree to having me in the house for a week, he gave me his regrets. It took me over three months to line up my fourth participant, a former colleague of a friend of mine, and five months before I could set up the last week of job shadowing with a former colleague. To let someone into one's personal space—and work *is* a personal space, whether in the corporate office or, especially, in the home office—takes much more time in Europe. The differences in recruiting participants in the US and in Europe are in line with what we know about the differences between specific and diffuse cultures (Trompenaars, 1993).

Profiles

The participants came from my network of contacts and agreed to participate in the study because they had become curious themselves about their work, and because they wanted to help me. All of them initially said that there was nothing to observe—

that they just sat at their desks or were in meetings most of the time, but that there was really nothing to observe. They were all worried that I would get bored watching them. If I had asked them for an interview, I am sure each of them would have told me how interesting and multi-faceted their job was. Each of them really liked their jobs.

Table 10. Introduction of Study Participants

Industry	Employees	Title	Location	Name in study
Telecom Equipment	4000	SVP & GM Global Services	San Jose, CA	Telecom SVP
Control Systems for Aerospace and Energy	7000	Vice Chairman, Chief Financial Officer and Treasurer	Ft. Collins, CO	Aerospace CFO
Software Development	70	CEO	San Francisco, CA	Software CEO
For-profit Higher Education	80000 (6500 in AMEA)	VP HR AMEA	Madrid, Spain	Education VP
Tracking Technologies	7000	Global Account Director	Brussels, Belgium	Technology GAD

All five study participants were male. I would have liked to include a woman, but I could not recruit one. A woman might have given me additional insights into the work of a global leader; however, to date, there simply aren't that many female global leaders yet, and, as Osland (2013a) mentions in the context of Adler's research on

women global leaders, “women leaders in business merely inch up annually, and there is little hope that this will change quickly” (p. 50).

All of the five leaders I observed had advanced degrees: three had an MBA, one an MA in Human Resource Management, and one an MSC in Mathematics. Of the five men Mintzberg (1973) observed, only one had an MBA; the other four had various bachelor degrees. Carlson (1991) found that in 1945, over 50% of executives had a university degree and another 25% had graduate degrees from business schools or similar technical institutes. We can expect changes in educational background over time and differences by country. It would be interesting to compare the educational backgrounds of domestic leaders and global leaders in a quantitative study.

I have listed the participants in the order in which I spent time with them and will now introduce each global leader in more detail.

Telecom SVP

Telecom SVP had been with the publicly-traded company (founded in 1990) for only five years but is an industry veteran in his early sixties. Born in India, he briefly pursued a career in corporate law, working in India before he moved into sales and later into services. To pursue an MBA, he went to the US, and later also worked out of Hong Kong and Singapore, living in each location for about five years. Telecom SVP is fluent in two Indian languages in English. He is currently responsible for all

services worldwide, with offices in all regions. His organization includes 600 employees, with eight persons reporting directly to him. The company has a physical presence in more than 30 countries. When he is not traveling, he works out of the corporate office four days a week and from his home office on Fridays.

Telecom SVP's office had no personal items in it. The office was furnished similar to a standard cubicle—the only difference is that it had walls and a door. It was located inside the building and, therefore, did not have a window, just glass on one side looking into the building. Other than his administrative assistant, Telecom SVP's direct reports were not at this site but scattered mainly throughout the US, with a few team members located “in the theaters” in the regions. Most communication was done electronically. On some occasions, Telecom SVP walked over to his administrative assistant, whose cubicle was located far enough away to make it impossible for either of them to see if the other one was in. But often he communicated with her by instant messaging. Most calls with staff members were video calls.

I observed Telecom SVP for four days in his corporate office in August 2015. He welcomed me warmly and took time to show me the company's products and services in an experience center set up for customers. We had lunch together every day—something that he never does normally—and spent time together after work, having dinner together. During the observation, I sat about five feet away from him. I saw and heard the video call conversations often without the other participants on the call

knowing about my presence. I was not able to see his email correspondence and, therefore, could only note that he was “doing email.” I appreciated what he shared with me, but I did not inquire when he did not volunteer to share. For example, on one occasion, he stepped outside his office to take a call while he was logged in to a video conference call, and later he shared what the call was about. On another occasion, he stepped outside and I didn’t know if he went to be restroom, to make a call outside of my hearing range, or something else.

Aerospace CFO

Aerospace CFO has been in his current position for over 11 years. He is an American in his early sixties who worked in various finance functions throughout his career, most often with global responsibilities. He took this job after having worked in Germany for four years as the general manager for a business unit of a different company. In his current position, he holds dual roles as Vice Chairman for the entire company with 7000 employees and as the CFO. The finance organization has 80 employees and Aerospace CFO has 11 people on his direct staff.

Aerospace CFO worked in the most traditional of the five work settings that are part of this study. His office, with a nice view of the landscaped garden outside and a door that allowed us to walk outside and sit in the sun, was located next to the office of the CEO on one side, with the VP HR across a small space outside the office, one of his direct reports right next to him on the other side, and his administrative assistant just outside his office. Aerospace CFO and his administrative assistant could see each

other from their respective work spaces. Team meetings and other operational meetings were held in his office; he had a nice conference table with speaker phone and a video-conferencing capabilities. The office was decorated with company items and photos of family members.

When Aerospace CFO was not traveling, he worked out of his corporate office five days a week, and I spent a week with him in his office in August 2015. In his office, I sat in front of his desk, which meant that I did not see what he was working on when he was using his computer. In addition, he was involved in a special project the week that I was visiting. Even though I had signed a nondisclosure agreement, I could not be allowed into meetings related to this project because I could not be made an insider. During the times I was not able to observe Aerospace CFO, I interviewed his staff, all of whom also had global responsibilities. These interviews provided additional data and valuable insights into the work of global leaders in a publicly-traded company that was founded in 1870 and has offices in 14 countries covering all regions. Aerospace CFO had been my boss in Germany and it was a great pleasure to see him again after more than ten years. He took time for lunch with me off-site, arranged a team dinner during the week I was there, and invited me to dinner with his wife, one of his staff, and that person's wife. He also took time for a scheduled tour of the plant with me. We were very comfortable with each other, even if my presence as a researcher took some getting used to. I return to the topic of my presence in the next section on data analysis.

Software CEO

Software CEO is a French national in his late fifties who has worked in the software industry all his life, with over 20 years as CEO. He is the founder and owner of the privately-held company where he has been holding his current position for over nine years. The company currently has offices in the US, Mexico, Argentina, and Uruguay, and uses employees, consultants, and freelancers in these countries as well as in Brazil. Software CEO speaks French, English, Spanish, and some Italian. As the CEO, he is responsible for all employees, freelancers, and partners; his direct reports are seven.

When Software CEO is not at one of his other sites, he is working out of his home office and connects with his teams in four countries daily. I spent four days (Tuesday through Friday) following Labor Day with him in his home office in September 2015. His office, on an open gallery in his house, includes two desks that he uses, some office equipment (like a flipchart), and has been decorated with a personal touch. Software CEO was online at all times and interacted with his team primarily through online messaging. He used multiple screens, and I sat slightly behind him, seeing everything he saw while I observed him.

Education VP

Education VP is originally from Spain, where he also met his American wife. He has been working in human resources throughout his career, almost all of the time in the US, until he returned to Spain on an expat assignment three years ago. Now in his

early fifties, his focus is on human resources in Asia, the Middle East, and Africa. Until just a few weeks prior to my visit with him, he had been responsible for Europe, Middle East, Africa, and Asia, when the businesses in six European countries were carved out and became a stand-alone region with their own CEO and VP HR. This was done in recognition of the complexities in the region. Education VP was now focusing on the businesses in Australia, Thailand, Malaysia, China, India, Singapore, Saudi Arabia, and South Africa. The CEO for this business was located in Singapore, and Education VP had 11 direct reports in all of these countries and in the US at corporate headquarters. The HR organization includes approximately 400 people. The company, founded in 1998, recently filed the S-1 with the US Securities and Exchange Commission with the intention to become a publicly traded company.

When Education VP was asked to develop the business teams outside of the US, he transferred into the region to be closer to the businesses. He was offered different locations like Madrid, Dubai, Paris, and Singapore, and he chose Madrid because that allowed him to be close to his Spanish family. With his family nearby and fluent in the local language, his American wife, a trailing spouse, was well integrated and shared that she enjoyed the stay. Their two daughters were also enjoying their stay; the older one had decided that she would stay behind and continue to work in Madrid when the family would return to the States. Education VP speaks Spanish and English, and spends three weeks out of four traveling. When he is not on the road, he works from his home office. The room was decorated with memorabilia from the

Chicagoland area that he and his family call their home. After checking in with his wife, he agreed to have me join him on a Monday and Tuesday in November 2015 and to send me detailed reports (diary studies) of how he spent the other three days that week.

Technology Global Account Director (GAD)

Technology GAD is a Belgian national in his late forties who has worked in Belgium, Germany, and the United Kingdom. He has held his current position for the last seven years and is today responsible for strategic accounts headquartered in Europe. He holds a staff position and, therefore, does not have anyone directly reporting to him; his virtual team includes about 150 colleagues from national account teams, product and marketing teams, the pricing desk and legal offices, and other support functions. His organization includes approximately 550 persons. He is in touch with people in at least 60 different countries. The business unit he has been a part of for over ten years has gone through a number of reorganizations and was last acquired in early 2013 by a publicly-held company that was founded in 1969. In 2009, after seven years in the UK, Technology GAD changed jobs within the same organization and relocated with his family from the U.K. to Belgium. His job is formally located in an office in Germany (he is on German payroll), but his wife and he decided that they wanted to raise their two daughters in Belgium. They have two teenage daughters and live in the suburbs of Brussels. In the early years, Technology GAD regularly commuted to the German office, but for some years now he has been occasionally working out of his Belgian house when he is not visiting customers.

After a remodel, Technology GAD's office is located in the attic, where he occupies a nice warm space with two desks, a large conference table, and personal touches on the walls and around the big open space. I spent a week with technology GAD in January 2016 and sat directly behind him with easy visibility of the various monitors he used for his work. Technology GAD spent most of his time online or on the phone, talking to colleagues and customers in Dutch, English, German, and French.

All five leaders welcomed me into their work spaces and into their personal lives. We shared not only the work for a week but also meals—lunch and, occasionally, dinner. Sometimes team members were invited to these dinners, often family members would be present. When Technology GAD and I had agreed on a week that would be representative, he followed up with recommendations for hotels in the area, directions to his house, and the following: “The name of my wife is E.___ and of my daughters A.___ (17 years) and C.___ (14 years). Our cat is called Mitzi but she is so shy that you will probably not see her the whole week” [names abbreviated by me]. Opening his office to me meant opening his home and introducing me to his family. I was welcomed in similar ways by the other two leaders who were working from their home offices. Even though the space between work life and private life was separated (e.g., Technology), GAD's office was in the attic, there was a lot of to and from between work space and private space. Every time we took a break, we would enter private space.

Days spent observing

Ideally I wanted to gather 25 days of observation, but I ended up with 20 days. While in the States, one day (Monday) was Labor Day and my participant took the day off; one day (Friday) a participant who works out of the corporate office was working from home and didn't invite me to join him there. In Europe, one of my two participants was on the road three weeks out of four, and when he wasn't travelling, he worked out of his home office. I was invited into his home for two days and later received detailed information on the other three days by email and in a follow-up phone conversation. So even though I ended up with 20 days of direct observation instead of 25, the observations I made, combined with the material I received from my participants, allows me to say that my sample provided me with ample material to analyze the work of the global leaders. Kurke and Aldrich (1983), in their replication of Mintzberg (1973), observed four managers for a week each (i.e., they also ended up with 20 days).

All five global leaders were very welcoming. The first two invited me into their corporate offices, the following three into their home offices. Even though each of the three had a dedicated room that constituted the office, having me join them at their place of work was really inviting me to join them in their homes, where I met their spouses and children.

I discussed what would be a good week with each participant and was offered choices. In the end, we agreed that a week during which there was no travel would be the best because it offered more of a variety within the week. All agreed that they were very focused on one group of people (e.g. customers), or on one issue when they were traveling, and that a week in the office would provide me with much more variety. Joining my participants on business trips could have also quickly been beyond my research budget. I was invited to join one of the global leaders on a trip (and had a choice of country) and another global leader regretted that there was no need to take me on the corporate jet the week I was there.

All participants agreed that a “typical” week did not exist. The week’s activities were very much dependent on the time of year and any special projects the participants were involved in. The weeks I observed were, however, very representative of the kind of work the global leaders did. This is similar to Mintzberg’s (1968) conclusion that “no one week (indeed, no one year) can be called *truly* typical” (p. 91), but that the observational periods were *representative* of the usual mix of work. All of my participants confirmed this. The time I spent with the five global leaders gave insight into what some of their work looks like. My observations and my field notes led me to appreciate various aspects of global leadership that I am presenting in this chapter.

Ethical considerations

The five participants were extremely generous with access to them and their work. In the corporate offices, I was introduced to the team and had the opportunities to

interview direct reports of the global leaders. The interviewees were also very generous with their time and their insights.

When I was not physically in the meeting (i.e., when the meeting was on the phone or using video-conferencing), the global leaders often found it easier to simply ignore my presence. This meant that I attended meetings without the other participants being aware of my presence. In one situation, a global leader was on the phone with someone who specifically asked if his door was shut before he proceeded with his story. The global leader answered in the affirmative and did not reveal that I was present. Had he shared my presence, the phone call would have been affected by it. By not acknowledging my presence, the conversation could proceed undisturbed. I decided that my stealthy presence was acceptable since I was not interested in the other participants—my focus was always on the global leader and on the work context. I was never in a situation in which I felt that someone was harmed or even affected because I was there unknowingly.

In the report of my study, I am striking a balance between enough details to allow the reader to follow my observations from my experience in situ to initial open coding to the development of a grounded theoretical framework and my desire to not disclose too many personal details of the participants. All participants saw the final report before it was submitted.

I now turn to a description of my data collection methods.

Data Collection

In preparation for my time with the global leaders, I gathered publicly available information for the three publicly traded companies and received internal company-related information from all five participants. I also had phone conversations with the global leaders ranging from 30 minutes to over two hours. During my time with the global leaders, they provided additional company-related information that helped me better understand what they were working on. Once I arrived at their place of work, the global leaders all provided another brief introduction to their companies and their own work with the company. I immediately started taking notes, and by the time we had found a good place for me to sit, we had both settled into me being there, observing, and taking notes.

Structured and unstructured observation

My own experience as a global leader has been that analyzing one's own work day is difficult. It is difficult to recall in a meaningful way what has kept one busy all day; a leader who is in the moment doesn't have the distance to see the larger picture. Ask a global leader about his or her job and they will tell you how exciting it is, but when you ask to shadow them for a week, they will respond that there is really nothing to see and that what is there to see is really boring.

Next to surveys (questionnaires and structured interviews) used for data-gathering in empirical research on global leadership, prior research on leaders-at-work has made

extensive use of the diary method. The diary method asks leaders to keep track of what they do, most often in a structured way (i.e., the researcher provides a template to the leaders that they then use to keep their records) (Ohly, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Zapf, 2010; R. Stewart, 1965). With this method, the researcher is asking the participant to do the recording, and since the act of recording itself is already an interpretation, the researcher is asking the participant to analyze the work. A related method was employed by Matthaei (2010) who collected weeks of electronic calendar entries that had been done to facilitate the work of the executive (not for the researcher) and then analyzed those. The drawback of this method is that it gave him only 76% of the overall scheduled work time, since about 24% of the time was not scheduled and, therefore, did not show up in the calendars he received.

Interviews often focus on specific situations and how the leader developed into the current position or how the leader overcame obstacles (Kets de Vries, & Florent-Treacy, 1999). Research on how global leaders perceive and respond to their work context used structured interviews for an applied cognitive task analysis and content analysis to identify how global leaders conceptualize and approach their work (Osland, Oddou, Bird, & Osland, 2013). The global leaders were asked to remember work they had completed and to describe how they accomplished the results.

I decided that I needed to go and spend time with the global leaders and see for myself, to observe them at their place of work and see what they actually do. My

observations could fill the gap identified in the literature review and, based on my observations, a theoretical contribution could be made.

Observation provides a different avenue to understanding the nature of a person's work. Here, the researcher sees with her own eyes what the leader is engaged in. These observations are noted down carefully and supplemented by information gained through interviews that help explain what has been observed. Participant and researcher together make sense of the reflections. Osland et al., (2013) called the absence of direct observations of the behaviors of global leaders a “glaring deficiency” (p. 520). With my behavioral-based view of leadership (versus trait-based view), and my focus on the individual in relation to others, I needed to see with whom and how the global leader interacts.

To get a deeper understanding of what the global leader does at work called for observation as the primary source for data gathering. I used a field journal to capture my field notes and followed Spradley's (1980) guide for participant observation. In my field journal, I distinguished between what the participants and other people themselves said, the behavior I observed, and the thoughts and ideas that came to me during or after the observation. In some cases, I started reflecting on behaviors observed earlier or connecting what I had just seen to things read before. In the evenings, I typed up my notes and took down questions that I had to get clarification on the next day.

Mintzberg (1973) used the following three main categories to capture data during his observation:

- Chronology record
- Mail record
- Contact record

The chronology record captured the duration of time spent alone or with others, and the mail record for Mintzberg (1973) captured the amount of snail mail the managers received. In my study, I captured the amount of email and snail mail received. The contact record captured with whom and for how long the manager was meeting. I used the same categories. In addition, I captured distinct activities and coded them based on the kind of activity. These data make up the structured observation of my study.

Of course, like every method of data-gathering observation, too, has its strengths and weaknesses. Since in direct observation not all details can ever be captured, selective attention and biased interpretation of the event may lead to low quality data. In addition, structured observation “may focus attention away from the most interesting aspects of the events being observed” (Yukl, 1989, p. 278).

I did not want to miss out on the most interesting aspects, and so, in addition to the structured observation using Mintzberg’s (1973) three records mentioned above, I mainly captured information during my observation that was unstructured. What I

captured was the flavor of the work and anything that was helpful to make sense of the activities and behaviors I observed. These unstructured observations were coded during the analysis process and later grouped into categories.

The combination of structured and unstructured observations allowed me to get to the essence of the nature of global leaders' work.

As a participant observer, I became explicitly aware of things that a casual observer might block out to avoid overload (Spradley, 1980, p. 55). There were times when I found myself drifting off because of an overload of stimuli and my desire to "capture everything". I ended up trusting my gut as to what I captured and what I ignored. This instinct was influenced by what I know about work in a global company and past experience of similar situations. Spradley (1980) emphasized that as the participant observer the researcher is the research instrument and will use introspection to enrich the data that are captured (p. 57). On the rare occasion that I "blanked" (my mind was somewhere else), my field journal would show time passing without any observation. Since this happened only on very rare occasions and was completely random, I am confident that it did not impact my findings.

In addition to observation, all participants were generous with their time. They provided explanations as the day progressed (running commentaries) and made themselves available for longer interviews (inviting me to ask questions in-between

scheduled meetings). I also interviewed seven of Aerospace CFO's staff, all of them global leaders themselves, with the interviews ranging between 30 minutes and almost two hours. Telecom SVP's "right hand man", a woman, made herself available not only during the observation phase but also during the analysis phase to clarify and answer any question I had. I also followed up with the other three participants as I reflected on my observations and worked with my data.

Finally, in my search for five participants I conducted interviews with other global leaders who ended up not participating in this study; the insights I gained during these conversations nevertheless shaped my thinking. My findings were co-constructed with all the people who shared their insights with me.

My field notes included condensed and expanded accounts of my observations, as well as things that were said verbatim. I captured other aspects, e.g., mood, light, smell, as concrete as possible. In my journal I also recorded the personal side, i.e. my impressions, confusions, breakthroughs and initial analysis. Being the most important instrument in this study, I wanted to make sure I took into consideration how I was "calibrated".

The field journal constituted the primary data for my analysis. Writing my field notes, I followed Spradley's (1982) recommendations of a) the language identification principle, b) the verbatim principle, and c) the concrete principle (p. 65). This meant

that I always identified whose language I was using (i.e., the global leader's, someone else's who was in the situation, or mine).

My notes were structured as described above, but other than keeping the different kinds of notes apart (verbatim utterances, observations, impressions, etc.) the expanded account (my typed-up version) remained unstructured to allow me to later code uninhibited from any structure.

Capturing the chronology of events allowed Mintzberg (1973) to analyze the duration of activities and led him to one of his big discoveries: managers get interrupted in their activities a lot. Mintzberg (1973) also quantitatively captured the amount of incoming and outgoing pieces of mail, and finally, Mintzberg (1973) kept a contact record. The latter provided him with the insight that most managers spent most of their time with a small number of direct reports. I replicated this record-keeping, adjusted for the change in times (e.g., email, which was nonexistent in 1973, was the primary form of mail, and snail mail became fairly unimportant).

In summary, my data collection included both structured (mail, contacts, work hours) and unstructured (interesting aspects of the who, what, and how) observations to capture the essence of the nature of global leaders' work.

Effects of my presence

My own background as a global leader helped me gain access, and my relationships with the participants made it easy for me to be comfortable quickly. My challenge was to “see beyond the known,” to practice “radical looking” (Clough & Nutbrown, 2002). It required of me to not forget what I already knew, but to look at it with an open mind and fresh eyes.

Spradley (1980), who wrote his guide for ethnographers, discussed the degree to which the observer is participating in the activities involved and with the people in the activities (p. 58). I was a non-participant observer; I did not get involved in the work the global leader was doing. On occasion, my opinion was sought, and the global leaders did express that my questions prompted them to reflect on their own work. Of course, questions are interventions and, as such, every question in this context is an interference. I am very aware of this and understand that this is an integral part of inductive, qualitative research. It is worth elaborating on the effects of my presence.

Where my presence made a difference was identifiable: on numerous occasions the global leader chose not to use a headset for a conference call so that I could hear both sides; one participant commented at the end of the first day that he had never taken so few breaks during the day; often, the global leaders would provide a running commentary on what they did for my benefit.

At the end of the observation period, I asked all five global leaders about their experiences. They all shared that, in general, they had been aware of my presence throughout. Being under such intense observation (“scrutiny”) was simply not something they were used to. For me to know exactly how many “bio breaks” they were taking was a little unnerving. And while the two leaders working out of conventional corporate offices could always slip out with the comment, “I’ll be right back,” and have a moment of privacy to talk to their administrative assistant, get coffee, use the rest room, make a personal call, or anything else, the global leaders working from home didn’t have that option. Not only was every moment accounted for, but the access they provided went beyond the access in a traditional office because I literally sat with them behind their desks and, therefore, had visibility to every key stroke they made. When the observation period was over, one global leader shared that “it wasn’t awkward, it wasn’t weird, it wasn’t strange, but it was definitely unusual” to have someone shadow him. Another global leader shared that he had felt “naked” because I had total visibility to everything he had been doing. This comment really took me by surprise because he had been most generous with access throughout the days I had spent with him, and he assured me that even though it had been unnerving, he still had wanted to go through with it. When asked on the last day of observation, all of the global leaders assured me that they had not changed anything because of my presence and that the days had been no different than usual. We had a good rapport the whole time, and one global leader even suggested that he might want me back as a consultant since I understood the challenges of his position.

Because all five participants were very generous with access to their work, I am very confident that the impact my presence had did not, in a material way, affect the data I gathered and the insights I drew from the observations I made.

Limitations

The observation method comes with certain limitations:

- When the global leader was on the phone, I sometimes only heard one side of the conversation.
- When the global leader was reading and responding to email, I sometimes wasn't able to capture what it was about.
- When the global leader was working during times I was not with him, I couldn't capture that either.

In many situations, the global leader had the phone on loudspeaker and I heard both sides. In one situation, a one-on-one with a subordinate, the global leader offered to put the call on speakerphone so I could listen in. I declined the offer because that would have changed the nature of the call, and throughout the observation I kept reiterating that my presence shouldn't interfere with the work. The amount of times I was unable to capture in more detail what was said or what an email was about was not significant. I have no reason to believe that more details on those events would significantly change my findings or the interpretation of my findings. I asked the global leaders to share with me any work they had done while we were not together, and I captured that in my data as well. Obviously, that is not the same as observing the global leader myself, but it provided enough of an indication for the structured

part of my data collection. Again, the amount of work done without me is small in relation to what I observed, except for the case of Education VP, who I observed for only two days, but who provided me with his diary of the whole week, other data relating to his work, and was available to clarify all questions I had about his records.

I did not use any recording devices, neither audio nor video; my physical presence was intrusion enough. I took notes all the time, and while my global leaders quickly got used to that, other employees were startled, at least initially. When a group meeting with Aerospace CFO in his office was about to begin, I noted the way participants strolled into the office and socialized and took notes. One of the participants commented: “We haven’t even started yet and she’s already taking notes!” This, of course, too was a comment I immediately captured. In hindsight, I know I made the right decision. Adding additional recording devices would have really influenced the situation and changed the whole atmosphere. A friend of mine in New York, who serves on various boards, shared with me the impact a young person tagging along job shadowing her had on a board meeting: it ended up being the best meeting she had ever attended because everyone was on their best behavior (e.g., listening carefully and not talking while someone else was talking). I can assume that my presence perhaps made the global leaders more productive, but it did not substantially change the nature of their work.

Time line of field research

I started my field research in California in August 2015, and I completed the fifth observation in Belgium in January 2016. In between the first and second observation, I had a whole week to catch up on my notes. I spent that week in New York with a friend and sat in Columbia University's library every day, finishing my write-ups and reflecting on my observations.

In between the second and third observation I spent the long Labor Day weekend with friends in Napa Valley. Both holds PhD's in industrial and organizational psychology, and we had an intense weekend discussing my first two weeks in the field. Interestingly, both are grounded in evidence-based talent management and leadership development, respectively, with research interests in identifying and developing the right people for leadership positions using psychometric assessments. They argued for a solid quantitative approach to research, but in the end only convinced me even more that taking an exploratory qualitative approach is the way to go with my research question.

After my third observation, I headed back to Europe, where I had two months to ponder the first three observations and read more about the research others have done before I headed off to Spain for my fourth observation in November 2015. With the Christmas holidays approaching, it wasn't until another two months later that I completed my fifth observation in January 2016 in Belgium. With the time between

observations, I had time to let the field experience “sink in” and each observation stand out. In hindsight, this was a good thing—otherwise, there would have been the danger that things blur together in my head, like when you watch movies back-to-back on a long flight and, afterwards, can’t keep the storylines and characters apart.

Data Analysis

My field journal covering 20 days of observation ended up being 216 pages long, which translated into 156 typed pages. In addition, the participants had all given me materials relating to their companies and their work that I referred to while taking field notes and during the analysis. The additional information helped me keep straight who was who in the company and beyond, as well as how people and topics related to each other. In addition to the typed pages of my field notes, I used spreadsheets for the quantitative part of my analysis, and paper and pen to capture ideas about categories.

The coding and focused coding happened primarily once the raw data in my field journal was typed up. But already while I was taking notes in my field journal, I also wrote beginnings of memos that I elaborated on when I typed up my notes.

Spradley (1982) provided excellent guidance for conducting participant observations and capturing my observations, participants’ voices, and initial ideas. Coding inductively, I appreciated the clear process from initial coding to focused and axial

coding, complemented by memo-writing that Charmaz (2014) provided. The Gioia Method (Corley & Gioia, 2004; Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton, 2013) added a clear data structure that helped move my thinking along.

Table 11. Steps in the Data Analysis

	Participant observation after Spradley (1982)	Grounded theory coding after Charmaz (2014)	Gioia Method after Corley and Gioia (2004), and Gioia et al. (2013)
Step 1	Making a descriptive observation	Initial coding/ coding with Gerunds	Open coding
Step 2	Making a domain observation	Focused coding (2nd order coding)	Conceptual coding (in-vivo); first-order coding
Step 3	Taxonomic and componential analysis	Axial coding	Axial coding
Step 4	Theme analysis	Memo-writing	Memo-writing
Step 5	Ethnography	Grounded Theory	Emergent Framework

The process I used was not linear, but I moved back and forth between the raw data, my initial codes, and the more abstract focused codes. I used my memos to remind me of the situation in all its dimensions. I especially appreciated the advice that thinking at multiple levels (informant terms, codes, and more abstract) simultaneously is necessary to construct a deeper structure (Gioia et al., 2013). I wasn't too interested

in “business as usual,” but I was really open to aspects that stood out as something that would not necessarily be found in work that does not span multiple countries.

Review of field notes

My primary sources were the observations in my field journal. They also included all conversations and interviews I conducted on site. Secondary data were all the information on the company, the job, and the person that I had received.

In the field, I spent most of my thoughts on the last participant, whoever he was, and found myself comparing what I was observing with the previous observations I had written down. This comparison happened between participants but also between individual days in the field with the same participant, where I compared what I had typed up the evening before, including my added reflections (i.e., memos), with what I was observing in the moment. The memos allowed me to further reflect on and expand short comments I had noted down in my field journal during the observation. Comparing new material to material I had previously gathered, an important step in grounded theory, came naturally. In the second round, when all observations had been typed up, I went back and forth between the notes from the five observations to remind myself of what had happened and to compare and contrast. I used the comment function in Word for my coding. This was helpful in clarifying what I had observed but didn't limit me to reading my codes only; I could easily go back to the full text for more analysis.

Quantitative data

I started with the structured data, compiling the quantitative information into the three records that Mintzberg (1973) had used:

- Total hours worked
- Mail record
- Contact record

Here it was important to have clean definitions for each category, and it was in the struggle with the categories that some of my findings regarding the essence of global leaders' work originate. The results are presented in tables and accompanying discussion.

Next, to the challenges in counting total hours the global leaders worked and the number of people the global leaders had met with, I used my typed-up field notes to further investigate the work, to make sense of what was keeping the global leaders busy, and to better understand the global aspect of their work.

Coding of field notes

Data analysis was an iterative process where I let the data drive ideas that I then developed into memos and descriptive passages. Constantly re-reading the journal entries and writing memos on all aspects that jumped out helped me to develop higher level concepts.

Evaluation Criteria

Grounded theorists seldom embrace the criteria of validity and reliability (Charmaz, 2014, p. 14). Instead the terms they use to evaluate qualitative research depends very much on the perspective they are taking (Creswell, 2013, p.244).

Charmaz (2014) uses credibility, originality, resonance, and usefulness as the most important aspects for grounded theory research. Creswell (2013, p. 262) recommends the following items to assess the quality of a contribution using grounded theory:

- The study of a process, an action, or an interaction as the key element in the theory
- A coding process that works from the data to a larger theoretical model
- The presentation of the theoretical model in a figure or diagram
- A story line or proposition that connects categories in the theoretical model and that presents further questions to be answered
- The use of memo-ing throughout the process of research
- A reflexivity or self-disclosure by the researcher about her stance in the study

Golden-Biddle and Locke (1993) asked pointed questions using three criteria:

1. Authenticity
 - a. Has the author been “there”—in the field?
 - b. Has the author been genuine to the field experience?
2. Plausibility

- a. Does this make sense to me?
 - b. Does it offer something distinctive?
3. Criticality
- a. Does the text activate readers to re-examine assumptions underlying their work?

With my study report, I am hoping to provide what Charmaz (2013) and Creswell (2013) were asking for and to answer the questions Golden Biddle and Locke (1993) have asked. How successful I am is for the reader to decide.

I started out by ensuring that the information I collected through observation, interviews, clarifying comments, and secondary data were pointing in the same direction. I triangulated my coding (initial and focused) by comparing my work between the five global leaders to ensure corroborating evidence. I stayed in close contact with the leaders so that I could check for misinformation frequently. I took my preliminary findings back to the global leaders and asked for their views to validate my interpretation.

Reflections on the quality of my research

Creswell and Miller (2000) recommended using three lenses to determine the validity of qualitative inquiry:

Table 12. Validity Procedures

Lens of the researcher	Looking for disconfirming evidence and researcher reflexivity
Lens of the study participants	Collaboration; asking participants
Lens of people external to the study	Thick, rich description

Source: Adapted from Creswell and Miller, 2000

Lens of the researcher

For this study, I was the research instrument and, as such, needed to be sure I was “calibrated.” I was not a naïve person knowing nothing about business, but someone who has been a global leader herself. Nevertheless, my approach was similar to that of an ethnographer who encounters a group of people she has never met before. Using Spradley’s (1980) guide for participant observation put me in the frame of a researcher rather than just a curious colleague. I followed his suggestions and took note of the situation, including describing the room. At one point, at the beginning of a meeting, one of the meeting participants commented: “She’s already writing down stuff and we haven’t even started yet!” This constant writing down allowed me to focus on the situation at hand and, in that sense, “bracket” my own ideas. In notes and memos, I reflected on what I had seen and heard. Of course, I was not able to write down everything, but I made choices, many of them unconscious. But the choices I made reflected my research interest, understanding the nature of global leaders’ work, and, as such, helped me in practicing theoretical sampling (i.e., focusing on what stood out) that helped getting to the core of the phenomenon I was researching. In the

presentation of my study findings, I was careful not to jump to conclusions and not to generalize beyond an appropriate level. I was careful not to create a cause and effect relationship where none existed or where the direction of the relationship was not clear.

Lens of the study participants

Do my findings accurately represent what I saw? Before starting the study, I had not imagined that the method I used—observation—would be experienced as so intrusive by my participants. It is not mentioned in previously published studies using this method, and since global leaders spend little time alone, it didn't seem to matter that I was there with them. However, I learned that the intrusion occurred because they granted me such almost limitless access to their work and, therefore, access to themselves. In a way, the acknowledgement of intrusion confirms my finding that work and life are, for global leaders, so entangled, and so by granting me access to their work, the participants granted me access to their lives.

That said, all participants assured me that my presence did not fundamentally affect their work or how they did their work. In the end, when we debriefed after my observation was complete, all of them said that what they did and how they did things was no different than it always is. I have no reason to doubt that.

Once I had a draft of my findings, I was in touch with the participants. They confirmed my interpretations; as I said earlier—in many ways, my findings were co-constructed with them.

Lens of people external to the study

This third lens is the lens of the reader. I attempted to describe the situation in the field, in the leaders' work space, in a way that allows the reader to join me there. And it is my hope that I provided examples that allow the reader to follow my journey from the office to the journal entry and, finally, to the grounded essence of the nature of the global leaders' work. But it is for the reader to decide how good a job I did.

Chapter 4: Findings

In this chapter, I present my findings in two sections. In the first section, I present quantitative data using the categories that Mintzberg (1973) had used. I present the total hours worked and the challenges I had distinguishing between what is and isn't work for a global leader. Counting time was made more difficult because work time and non-work time were so intertwined. The main reason for this intermingling of work-time and free-time is the time-zone-spanning nature of the global leaders' work. They often begin their work very early to address issues in those countries where the local time is hours ahead, and they often end their day late to still be available to those members who work in countries where the local time is hours behind their own.

After discussion of total hours worked, I turn my attention to the mail record. This is probably the area where work has changed most since Mintzberg (1973) conducted his study in the late sixties. The global leaders in my study received almost no snail mail but lots of email. I present the findings of my study and the importance email has in the communication of global leaders.

I then turn to the contact record, the third of Mintzberg's (1973) three records. After presenting the data on time spent alone and time spent with others, I dwell on the differences based on place of work and further explore the findings by discussing the concept of working with others. In a traditional office (like the one Mintzberg's

managers were working in) working with others meant being face-to-face with them or on the phone. Today, video-conferencing can bring people face-to-face without being in the same place, and technology like instant messaging can create a virtual office for people who are far away from each other. Texting from one desk to the next is like texting from one cubicle to the other; it's just that there can be an ocean between the desks. Multitasking of the global leaders made it challenging to count with how many others they were interacting at any time. I address this aspect as well in the sub-section on time with others.

Finally, I turn to the last part of Mintzberg's (1973) contact record: scheduled time. Here we explore the difference between scheduled and unscheduled meetings. Global leaders spend much less time in scheduled meetings than the managers in Mintzberg's (1973) study, but there is quite a big variation between them.

After presenting the quantitative records in Section One, I move on to Section Two, where I turn to major themes in global leaders' work that I found through inductive analysis of the notes from my observations and qualitative interviews. Global leaders work across multiple locations, and global work comes in many forms. Travel makes up a large part of a global leaders' work, and despite the use of technology to create a virtual office, face-to-face communication is still desired and the reason for the travel activities. Global leaders are supported by a lot of technology; that also means they need to be comfortable with many different tools and spend time maintaining their

equipment. Intercultural competency is a must for global leaders, and multilingual competencies help. Languages are not learned for a job but for life. Global leaders embrace their life style and pass on the “bug” to their children.

Global leaders are both leading people and engaged in functional work, just as they are both strategic at times or are hands-on and tactical at other times. Some work can be done from anywhere, but for some tasks it is necessary to be in-country. An analysis of the distinct activities and breaking them down into tasks shows that global leaders, too, are primarily engaged in soliciting and providing information. Global complexity—and I provide examples—lies in the business activities themselves. I conclude this sub-section sharing how global leaders see their role.

Fragmentation of work, a topic for Mintzberg (1973) and even more so today in the digital age, did not seem to be an issue for the global leaders. The “interruption” doesn’t necessarily come from outside but from the global leader himself, fragmenting his own work. Perhaps this is just another way of weaving work and life together, as the global leader working from home does when he takes his lunch break: he travels back and forth between the work space and the private space with ease.

Global work means that people at different hierarchical levels might work together.

This does not eradicate the hierarchy but changes the communication within it.

Developing into a global leader is not something that can be learned from books but

only in interaction with others. Global leaders seek out opportunities for learning, even though that means putting themselves in situations that are, at least initially, awkward, and are opportunities to make mistakes.

Finally, I mention the added risk involved in global work. It might mean that you can't go home when you want to.

Section 1: Quantitative Records

Mintzberg (1973), in the study that inspired my research, collected and reported on three aspects of the work the five men were doing: total hours worked, total amount of mail, and the contact record. I will report on these aspects as well and will summarize data from all five leaders to give a first impression of the work I observed.

Total hours worked

Mintzberg (1973) reported 202 hours of composite total work time for his five managers, including 24 hours worked in the evening and excluding 18 hours in travel to external meetings. There was quite a bit of variation between the five managers: manager A worked 28 hours, not counting a seven-hour trip to Washington, D.C. to attend congressional hearings, while manager D worked a total of 53 hours.

The five global managers I observed worked almost 50 % longer hours. Capturing total hours worked ended up being more challenging than I had anticipated. To capture the total number of hours worked by the five global leaders I had to distinguish between activities that were counted as work versus non-work activities,

and I had to distinguish between work time and non-work time. If I started counting the time when the global leaders tended to their first work activity each morning and ended counting when they put work aside for the day, I arrived at 294 ½ hours of composite total work. During this time, the global leaders were certainly preoccupied with work most of the time, and the column labelled “start to finish” probably most accurately reflects the number of hours they worked, leading to an average work week of 59 hours.

Table 13. Total Hours Worked

Global Leader	Start to Finish	Narrow Definition
Telecom SVP	55 hrs 30 min	36 hrs 25 min
Aerospace CFO	53 hrs	42 hrs 25 min
Software CEO	56 hrs 30 min	30 hrs 5 min
Education VP	72 hrs 30 min	51 hrs 10 min
Technology GAD	57 hrs	40 hrs 45 min
Total hours	294 hrs 30 min	200 hrs 50 min

I also took a much narrower approach to counting hours worked where I excluded everything I could possibly exclude: I did not count any time spent explaining work to me, time where I had the opportunity to ask in-depth questions about the global leaders’ work. I excluded time that was spent showing me around (e.g., customer experience tour with Telecom SVP and factory tour with Aerospace CFO). I excluded lunch, unless it was a business lunch at which work was being done. For example,

Aerospace CFO went to the cafeteria to buy some lunch (time not counted) and took it with him to a working meeting with the CEO (time counted). I did not count break times or travel time (e.g., when Software CEO and I travelled to a local meeting). I also did not count any time spent on personal work when it took more than 2 minutes. I probably underestimated the amount of time worked in the mornings “before work” and in the evenings because the global leaders themselves were modest in “counting” work time. I did not capture work done on weekends. At least on one occasion, Software CEO had a dinner that was a regularly scheduled business dinner, which I did not include. Neither did I include the “after work” time I had with the global leaders, having dinner, which sometimes included their staff, and sometimes included their families. Nor did I include a networking event hosted by a business school that Technology GAD attended one evening.

So actual time spent on work activities, including thinking about work, was probably much closer to the average work week of 59 hours. The hours reported as “narrow definition” in Table 13 reflect the hours I observed and hours reported to me.

Telecom SVP worked from home on Fridays, and I assumed the hours to be similar to the average of the hours I had observed on the previous days. The week I spent with Software CEO started with a national holiday (Labor Day), and he had decided to take that day off. Again, I assumed an average number of hours for that day for my calculations. Education VP’s total hours worked were calculated based on my observations and on a diary study since I observed Education VP for 2 days only. I

had the opportunity to interview Education VP after receiving the diary entries and took more notes on them. Education VP also made available other records related to his work, and the data I received from him were of high quality, so I am confident of the numbers reported here.

The interesting findings are really in the difficulty to record working hours.

Mintzberg (1973) reported that he excluded travel time and does not say how he handled breaks or the time he spent interviewing the managers each day. In my study, I had multiple challenges counting work hours that in and of themselves are relevant to my research question because they shine a light on the nature of a global leader's work. What is and isn't work does not have clear boundaries, and work time and non-work time are mixed. I will now go into detail on both of these aspects.

What is and isn't work

All leaders spent time that was hard to classify as either work or non-work. Perhaps some of this is a sign of the kind of work they were doing (knowledge work, leadership work)—not so much that it was global work, but some of it is probably exaggerated because of the global work they were engaged in. When phone calls are taken very early in the morning or very late at night, it is not only the call itself but there is a spill-over because the leader's thoughts are now back at work. Whereas we are being told to really go off-line during our vacation, global leaders don't have much time to be off-line. One morning, I came in to join Software CEO as he was sitting down at his desk. He had already read the newspaper (online) and shared those

pieces of information that were relevant to his work: especially news in Argentina were important since he had a business there and the rules of doing business kept changing, leading him to conclude: “It’s a strange country.” Technology GAD, in passing, mentioned a recall of Maggi Noodles in Argentina in 2015 (coincidence that it was also Argentina), and when I asked him how he knew about this, Technology GAD smiled and told me that it was his job to know about these things and that he scans the newspapers for these kinds of news. On another occasion, Technology GAD filed marketing reports commenting to me that he would be reading those while on vacation. Since there is so much more global leaders need to be informed about, and since they are interested in the global aspect of their job, they need to keep up with much more information. But can we call all of it work? Telecom SVP shared that he sets aside an hour or two every day to reflect upon work —and he does that in the car or watching TV. Where does work end? Where does non-work begin?

Work time versus non-work time

The global leaders participating in my study all addressed personal issues during the day. At the same time, they also took business calls during unusual business hours, or, rather, hours that would be unusual for someone working a regular nine-to-five job. But not only did the global leaders I observed share that they made themselves available early in the morning or late at night, I observed other global leaders being available at unusual hours, too. For example, on Thursday at 1:00 p.m. in the afternoon, PST Telecom SVP and two people on his staff were discussing a minor reorganization when someone suggested that the general manager for the US should

be included in the conversation. He was quickly reached on his mobile phone, but he needed to move to a quieter location to join the conversation: he was in a pub in the UK where it was 9:00 p.m. local time. The general manager was in Europe for two weeks filling in for the European general manager, who was on vacation. When Telecom SVP concluded the phone conversation after the important issues were discussed, he invited his general manager to go back to the bar, but he was then reminded that the general manager's regularly scheduled staff call was just about to begin—at 10:00 p.m. local time. And these arrangements did not seem to be unusual in any way.

Personal time and work were mixed. One leader shared that his wife took a female colleague from Brazil shopping on three nights, and the colleague said she was eternally grateful. It was hard to tell whether this was done simply as a friendly personal gesture or because it would help with business relations. Perhaps an attempt to separate the two isn't even possible. Personal life and work life are so intertwined. One staff member talked about global leadership needing to be in someone's DNA.

Global workers can be found at all levels of the organization. One of the meetings I observed was a regularly scheduled executive review board meeting that approves the launch of new products. At one point during the meeting, two employees working in the Beijing office were presenting a software update that needed approval from this board before it could be released globally. They presented their proposal at 8:40 a.m.

PST which was 11:30 p.m. local time. I wondered how the two young women would get home after the meeting and whether it was really not possible to schedule these meetings at a better time. Working odd hours is probably not specific to global leaders' work, but to the work carried out by many people who work in a global business.

While all global leaders also spent time on personal issues while I observed them, they didn't hesitate to take work-related calls while on break (e.g., during lunch). Technology GAD added a personal evening meeting into his calendar that was shared with others in the company to block the time for his colleagues "so nobody schedules something" during this time. Aerospace CFO scheduled a team lunch, then remembered that he had his grandkids over that night, but stuck to the team dinner when more team members were available on the original date than a day later. When he informed his wife, it was obvious that this was nothing unusual. Life at work and life away from work were very intertwined. None of the global leaders seemed to mind. On the contrary, the intermingling of personal time and work time seemed to be very much part of the nature of the work and very much part of how they saw themselves as human beings.

Often, it was impossible to really draw a line between work and free time. The participants accepted this "blend" of time being on and off work; they all took it as a

given that global work means that they have to be available during long hours of the day and on weekends, too.

Working hours

The global leaders did not keep typical office hours, but they made themselves available as needed. The odd hours were not brought up as noteworthy but were simply accepted as part of the job. Only when I interviewed them and they recalled transitioning from a domestic to a global role, did the topic come up, or in unusual cases.

When one works in a domestic office where most people work 9 to 5, it is more likely to talk more about the odd hours a global job brings with it. A staff member commented in a meeting: “It’s been a rough morning since I had my 6:00 a.m. call.” Perhaps the impact of global work is worn like a badge of honor, perhaps there is some bragging about work hours, too. Another staff person shared with me that people in the US are now sometimes using *global* to show off how hard working they are. Working hours can be long but there are also people who take things to extremes. “I have people who answer their cell phone at 2:00 a.m. That’s not what it means to be global.” The staff went on to say that nobody expects anybody to do anything at 2:00 a.m. I got the impression that working a global job was used to enhance one’s own reputation. Perhaps in reaction to that, the staff member shared his opinion that global work really isn’t such a big deal and that it all boils down to general good leadership skills. Global work, even in a global company, can be the exception, not

the norm. It comes with added prestige, and the international travel and odd hours are the badges.

Time zones

Often the first thing that comes to mind when we talk about global work is the fact that global leaders have team members in different time zones, and dealing with time zones is certainly one of the first things global leaders have to learn. Nothing is more embarrassing than calling someone on their mobile at the wrong time. One of Aerospace CFO's staff said: "It takes a conscious effort," and commented that staff calls were much more challenging to schedule when Aerospace CFO had a person in another time zone on his staff (which he didn't when I observed him). Another staff member commented that time zones in the US can be accommodated more easily than across the globe, emphasizing that co-location was still the best because it allowed a stroll down the hall for a face-to-face conversation. And a third staff member recalled how he first learned about time zones: "None of it can be learned out of books. I learned by watching. Even basic things like how to dial the phone internationally, how to use the calendar with different time zones, how to understand when to call..." Leaders working out of office situations seemed to see time zone as a hassle they had to deal with because of their global work. For leaders working from home, it seemed to be more a way of life. Software CEO knew the time zones by heart, and Education VP had a "cheat sheet" (see Figure 4.).

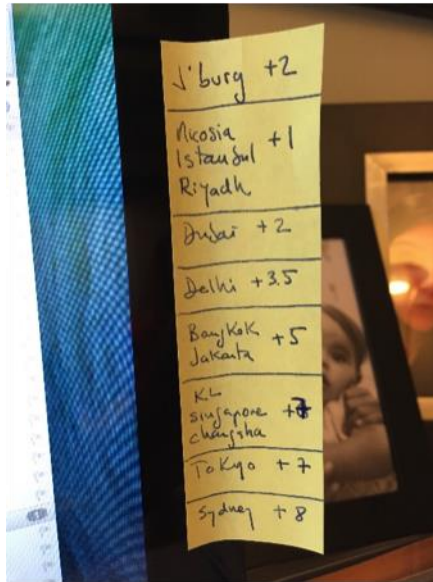


Figure 4. Cheat-Sheet for Time Zones

Of course, one doesn't just need to keep track of time zones, but also of clock changes between standard time and daylight savings time. For example, in the spring of 2016, the US, Europe, and Australia changed their clocks on three different Sundays. Working with people in the southern hemisphere also means having to keep in mind that the direction in which the time changes is opposite to that in the northern hemisphere, and that means the number of hours of difference between the locations changes. And finally, some locations do not switch at all. In addition, the global leader needs to know what is the right time to call, and that includes knowledge about local habits, like times for lunch breaks. The leaders in the US tended to go to lunch around 12:00 noon, while the leader in Spain only had an espresso around that time

and had lunch around 2:00 p.m., not at all unusual for Spain where lunch is often served until 4:00 p.m.

Getting time zones wrong and calling at the wrong time was acceptable perhaps once, but the second time the person doing that would be written off as “not knowing what they were doing.” Staying on top of time in various locations can easily leave the global leader with the feeling of not being really sure what time it is in any one location at any time. If something as basic as time—like when people work and when people take their breaks—cannot be taken for granted, a sense of dis-orientation occurs.

Mail record

Mintzberg (1973) recorded the mail that was received by the five men during the weeks he observed them—all snail mail (i.e., traditional mail delivered by the postal service). These pieces included memos, letters, periodicals, books, and more. The five men I observed received hardly any snail mail at all. Aerospace CFO received newspapers and magazines like *The Wall Street Journal* and *The Economist* through the traditional mail; I never saw him touch any of them other than to put them in his briefcase to read later, but I did see him give his secretary a clipping from a printed source (showing of the largest donors in the community). Software CEO had a few pieces of snail mail that he attended to. These were bank statements and a mailing from the DMV. Education VP received a registered letter regarding back taxes from

the local IRS. He opened the letter, scanned it, and forwarded it to the company that handles his taxes.

Except for the few pieces mentioned above, all other mail the leaders received came in as email. Altogether, excluding spam, the five leaders received 1282 pieces of email, ranging from 86 to 544 emails.

Table 14. Number of Emails Received During One Week

Participant	# of emails	% of total
Telecom SVP	218	17%
Aerospace CFO	168	13%
Software CEO	86	7%
Education VP	544	42%
Technology GAD	266	21%
TOTAL	1282	100%

That is much more than Mintzberg's (1973) managers had received. Mintzberg's (1973, p. 244) five managers had received a total of 659 pieces, of which they skimmed 31% (204 pieces), read 63% (415 pieces), and studied 6% (40 pieces).

Overall, the pieces of mail received increased by almost 50% but then we know that an email is sent more quickly than a letter, and an email can be sent to many recipients at the same time.

I do not know in how many cases the global leaders were copied on an email versus how many times they were the recipients, neither do I know how many times they were the only recipients. I heard none of the leaders complain about the amount of email they received. Whether they were on the “To” line of the email or the “cc” line, they appreciated receiving the email and decided if they should take action at all. Two of the participants (Telecom SVP and Education VP) were in the habit of responding to each email they received, even if it was only with a very short reply. Telecom SVP shared that he likes to acknowledge every email, even if it is only with a short note, especially when it will take a while until the email is answered. Education VP shared his admiration for a CEO who sent one syllable emails (e.g., “yes”) without being rude.

Education VP also shared that he likes to empty his inbox before he goes to bed around midnight or 1:00 a.m., and that he has about 60 emails from Asia waiting for him in the morning. He pondered that the “cc” function was “abusive to a point” because too many people were copied, but he also appreciated being informed, to “stay on top” of an issue. Ideally, he just didn’t want to receive all the intermittent emails related to the issue.

Technology GAD made much use of the “cc” function; he sent most of his emails with multiple people included on the “cc” line. I observed an incident where he was very deliberate about who to include and spent time thinking about the various

recipients that should be copied before he sent the email, only to return to it 40 minutes later to add two more recipients to the distribution, commenting: “I’ve been doing this for so long, always need to check who is on the distribution, and still forgot two people!” Connecting the right people to find solutions for any issue was an important part of his job.

The span between the amount of mail received in Mintzberg’s study was between 10% and 26% whereas in my study the span increased to between 7% and 42% of all emails received. This is a reflection of how the participants used email versus other channels of communication. Software CEO with only 7% of emails received used synchronous technology extensively. Interestingly, in a conversation some months after my observation he shared that he wanted to increase the amount of email he was sending and receiving and gave the following reason: using synchronous technology makes it much more difficult to find specific information from previous communication.

Email is perhaps the most important way for global managers to communicate. Understanding communication requires us to look at the broader use of technology in the global leaders’ work. I will return to technology in the second section, where I discuss major themes. Now, I would like to turn to the third record that I reused from Mintzberg (1973), the contact record.

Contact record

Within the contact record, I am reusing two aspects that Mintzberg (1973) used:

- Time with others, including size of meeting, versus time alone, and
- Scheduled time

Further explanations of these two aspects follow in the sections in which I present my findings.

Time with others versus time alone

My observations show a significant range in the time spent alone: 11% to 72%. If we separate my data based on the work place, then average time spent alone at a more traditional work place was 20% (for Telecom SVP and Aerospace CFO; very similar to Mintzberg's 22%) but the average time spent alone working from a home office was 63% (for Software CEO, Education VP, Technology GAD). What comes to mind is that in more traditional work settings, like those for Telecom SVP and Aerospace CFO, employees, on occasion, work from home for a day "to get things done" because there are too many distractions at work. These findings seem to support this.

Table 15. Time Spent Alone or with Others

	Alone	1:1	3+ people
Telecom SVP	28%	41%	31%
Aerospace CFO	11%	49%	40%
Software CEO	56%	37%	7%
Education VP	61%	29%	10%
Technology GAD	72%	15%	12%
Composite	46%	34%	20%

Table 16. Time Spent Alone or with Others Based on Place of Work

Place of work	Time Spent Alone (average)
Traditional Corporate Office	20%
Home Office	63%

Aerospace CFO spent almost all his time (89%) with others. Most of the people he worked with were co-located with him. Project reviews with teams not co-located and meetings with external stakeholders were conducted using video-conferencing and phone calls; time alone was used to get ready for the next meeting.

The three global leaders (Software CEO, Education VP and Technology GAD) who worked from home spent much more time alone. At first glance, this is not surprising. But how were leaders working from home—alone—in touch with their coworkers and teams and got things done?

It is interesting to reflect on what exactly is meant with the phrase “to get things done.” If the nature of the work is to connect people and information and to work as the glue, then time spent in meetings is exactly what would be considered “getting things done,” because in meetings with others information is received and passed on. If, on the other hand, “getting things done” means focusing on a task and working on

this task alone, then, indeed, more work can get done in an environment that is lacking other people. I will return to this aspect in Section Two when I look at distinct activities and talk about functional work and leadership work.

Another aspect Mintzberg (1973) captured was the time spent in scheduled versus unscheduled meetings. In my study, Telecom SVP had the largest number of scheduled meetings and spent time alone in between these meetings to prepare for the next meeting and to catch up on email. In his company, virtual work with the use of video-conferencing was very common. Since people weren't co-located, they couldn't just pop into someone's office. A high frequency of scheduled meetings is not surprising in this context.

Larger meetings seemed to be more common when people were co-located or worked for a company that is set up for video-conferencing. Both Telecom SVP and Aerospace CFO spent more time in meetings with three or more participants (36%) than the three global leaders who were working from home (10%). It could be that less time in larger meetings is compensated for by including more people on email communication. People often attend meetings to be in the loop; when more communication is handled through email, people are kept in the loop by being "cc-ed".

Working with others or spending time in meetings

As I analyzed the time spent alone or with others, it struck me that I did not have an explicit operational definition for “meeting.” Mintzberg (1973) distinguished between three kinds of “verbal contacts”: phone calls (“purely verbal”), scheduled meetings (formal, face-to-face), and unscheduled meetings (informal, face-to-face, and generally brief). In addition to these three forms of verbal contacts, Mintzberg used two non-verbal modes: mail (desk work) and tours (walking around) to categorize the work. The global leaders I observed spent almost all of their time at their desks. When Telecom SVP and Aerospace CFO went to someone else’s desk, it was sometimes just to get away from their own desk for a change. The way I had sorted my data distinguished between meetings, working with others, and working alone. Meetings did not necessarily imply face-to-face, but could be held using technology, like video-conferencing, or could be a phone call. An activity was a meeting when it was scheduled, had a more formal character (e.g., operational review meeting), and was focused on receiving an update, and perhaps providing approval for the team to move to the next stage. (See more on meetings in the next section on “scheduled time”). When the leaders got together with others to work on issues, to do functional work, I coded that as “with others” but not as being in a meeting.

There is one last aspect to cover under Section One, based on Mintzberg’s (1973) contact record: scheduled time.

Scheduled time

Understanding how much of global leader's time is spent in scheduled versus unscheduled meetings provides an interesting lens into the work. I coded all time spent with someone else that had been scheduled in advance as time spent in scheduled meetings. I only included those meetings that the global leader actually attended and not those that were on his calendar but that he chose not to attend.

Table 17. Time Spent in Scheduled Meetings

	Hrs	Type of meetings
Telecom SVP	15	Customer council; weekly revenue forecast, supplier meeting, working with staff on strategy prep, 1:1 with staff, HR issues (reorg, new team member)
Aerospace CFO	18	2 hours with admin assistant, 2 ½ hours with financial community (investors, analysts, lenders), projects: JV, process improvement, strategy deployment, HR issues (performance review), risk management. (audit), 1 hour training
Software CEO	4	3 team meetings, 1 external networking meeting
Education VP	13	Biweekly call with all leaders, 1:1 with CEO, GMs, staff members, mentoring; staffing, 1 training (webinar)
Technology GAD	8	Customer calls, marketing updates, account strategy discussion, training about new products; IT migration
Composite	58	= 20% of total work time of 295 hours

The global leaders I observed spent 20% of their work time in scheduled meetings.

When I talked to Software CEO a few months after I had observed him, he shared that he had increased the number of scheduled meetings because his teams had requested more regular information-sharing. Still, average time spent on scheduled

meetings is only half as much time as the time the managers in Mintzberg's (1973) study spent in scheduled meetings. This is an unexpected finding.

Table 18. Time Spent in Scheduled Meetings (Mintzberg)

	Hrs
Manager A	11
Manager B	21
Manager C	29
Manager D	29
Manager E	30
composite	120

Source: Adapted from Mintzberg, 1973, Table 10, p. 242

Of the 202 hours Mintzberg observed, almost 120 hours (59%) were spent in scheduled meetings. Total number of hours spent in scheduled meetings varied between 10 and 30 hours, with three of the managers spending close to 30 hours in scheduled meetings. Other studies have found slightly less time spent in scheduled meetings. For example, Kurke and Aldrich (1983) had 50%, and they also quoted an unpublished study by Chorán (1969) in small organizations where only 21% of time was spent in scheduled meetings.

There are many possible reasons for the difference (time spent in meetings is only half as long for global leaders), and I can only speculate and name a few possible reasons:

- Position

Mintzberg's (1968) managers worked in different kinds of organizations (three for-profit businesses, one public organization, and one non-profit) (p. 81), but they all were the chief executive of their organization. The participants in my study had in common that they were all global leaders, but their functional roles in their respective businesses were different, as were their hierarchical positions. How much time is scheduled might depend on the function and the level of the person's position. The more functional work needed to get done, the more the global leaders needed time (alone and with their teams) to address this work.

- Changes in work conditions and technology

Mintzberg (1973) conducted his study almost 50 years ago. Work has changed during this time. Information technology could be a factor here, since it is much easier to reach others anytime and anywhere to pull them into an ad hoc meeting. In some cases, meetings were scheduled to happen within the next 30 minutes. Those were included in my count of scheduled meetings. Fragmentation of work has increased, and that might have also led to a decrease of scheduled meetings.

- Global work

We could speculate that it is the global nature of the work that lets global leaders keep more time available for unscheduled meetings. Knowing that global work is often characterized as having large variety, interdependence, ambiguity, and flux (Lane et al., 2004), it would make sense that global leaders want to make themselves available to what comes up. Carlson (1991), in his study first published 1951, reported that the

executives “become slaves to their appointment diaries” (p. 58). Mintzberg (1973) suggests that managers are particularly interested in the general discussion at the beginning and end of scheduled meetings because that is where important information flows (p.52).

The quantitative findings are in line with my notes about the kind of work the global leaders were engaged in: they were spending their time with their teams working on functional issues. Aerospace CFO, with 18 hours of scheduled meetings, worked very closely with his staff. Scheduled meetings were regularly scheduled as one-on-one meetings with his staff and other employees, as well as project updates, a staff team meeting, and three longer meetings scheduled with investors and lenders. Telecom SVP worked closely with his staff, all of whom were in other locations. Meetings were scheduled to allow all participants to “dial in” to the meetings, which were primarily video-conferencing. Even when a customer issue was escalated and needed immediate attention, a call was scheduled that then took place about 20 minutes later with participants from various locations and countries. The scheduling simply allowed everyone to be connected, no matter where they were in the world (in this case: the US, the UK, and India). Telecom SVP had 15 one-on-one meetings scheduled for the week I spent with him. These were all regularly scheduled meetings, either biweekly or monthly. Most of these meetings were with internal members, allowing time to check in with the various projects his staff was working on, to share information, and to decide on next steps; other meetings were with

customers and suppliers. Each meeting was scheduled to last 30 minutes. In addition, there were regular business meetings as well as preparation calls for these reviews. These working sessions lasted between 30 and 60 minutes. A longer working session, originally scheduled as a three-hour dry-run, was cancelled.

Software CEO spent the least amount of time in scheduled meetings (four hours), with his teams (three hours; one hour each) and with an external organization (one hour). Software CEO used multiple channels for communication, primarily synchronous ones like instant messaging. The technology made it much easier to reach anyone in the company instantly most of the time, perhaps to a large degree doing away with the need for scheduled meetings. The newly added scheduled meetings had the format of town halls, where Software CEO shared corporate news with the employees and entertained questions. Education VP had regularly scheduled meetings with his team as well as with the general managers of the various business units. In addition, he attended calls relating to the hire of new senior employees. The scheduled meetings Technology GAD attended were meetings providing marketing updates or getting him ready for the sales kick-off that started the following Sunday, scheduled phone calls with customers, and training videos he had scheduled himself to watch. In addition, a phone call was scheduled to discuss strategy between a larger group of team members involved in a complicated customer proposal.

Reflecting on the meetings I observed (using my notes and my coding), much of the time was spent on sharing information. The global leader picked up information from one person in one situation and shared it with another person in another situation.

Scheduled meetings tended to be for status reports (updating everyone, sometimes to gain the needed approval to move to the next phase); unscheduled meetings were working meetings, where the global leader and his team joined in working on a given business issue. Meetings were either scheduled on a regular basis, one-offs, or ad hoc.

In Section One, I presented the findings from the quantitative data I had collected based on Mintzberg's three quantitative records: total hours worked, mail record, and contact record. With each record, I reported my findings and the issues that arose from collecting the data: what is and isn't work, when work is performed, what kind of mail global leaders receive, what role it plays, and, finally, how they spend their time is all very different from the managers Mintzberg (1973) observed. I now turn to the major themes that surfaced during the inductive data analysis of my observations and the interviews I conducted with the global leaders and their staff.

Section Two: Major Themes in Global Leaders' Work

In this section, I present the major findings from the inductive analysis of my observations and my interviews with the global leaders and their staff.

Working across multiple locations

The five global leaders all worked with teams located around the world, but the number of locations and the degree of direct contact with teams in other locations varied. This variation in contact is demonstrated in Figure 5.

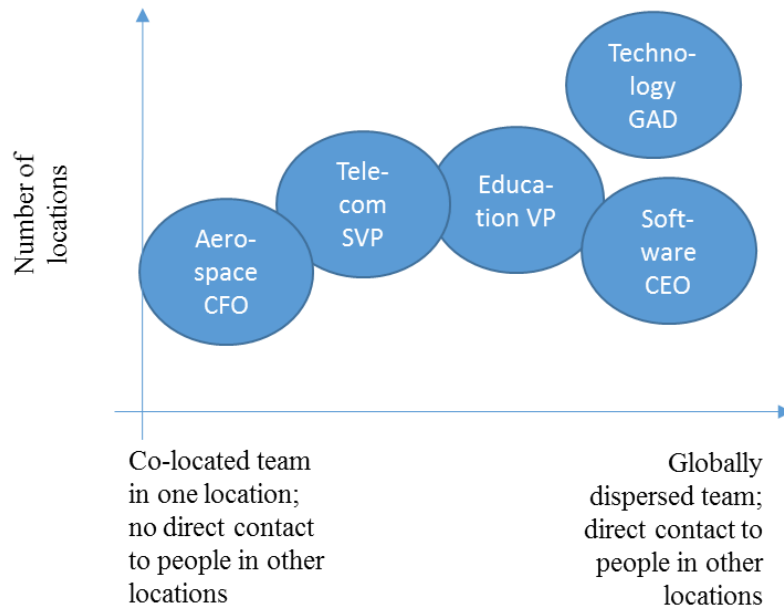


Figure 5. Conceptual Map of Team Member Dispersion

Aerospace CFO spent most of his time working with people who were at the same location with him. Technology GAD, on the other hand, had nobody working in the same location with him, so he was working directly with many people in many other locations. This shaped the work of the global leaders. While Aerospace CFO was responsible for the global company, he worked primarily with the members of his staff who were co-located with him, and efforts were underway to further consolidate the finance function in one location. His staff, in turn, worked with the team members

in the various business units who were located throughout all regions where the company was doing business. Most of Telecom SVP's direct staff was located in the same country (but not the same location), in addition to the three general managers located in region, and he worked with the teams in the countries in which the company had a presence. Technology GAD, on the other hand, had direct contact with team members in at least 60 countries.

Doing global work implies that there is no location in particular that is best for the global leader. The global leader cannot be close to all teams and customers at all times. If the global leader works primarily with the executive team, then being co-located with the chief executive and one's peers is the location of choice. If the global leader works with a virtual team dispersed throughout the world, then he is free to choose his location like Technology GAD and his wife, who chose their native Belgium.

Many Forms of Global Work

Two of the global leaders were working in their native countries, and one of them was on an expatriate assignment. Global work can take many forms. Two global leaders worked out of corporate offices, and three worked out of their home offices.

Working from home seems to be a common occurrence among global leaders. While I was recruiting global leaders to participate in this study, I was in contact with more global leaders who worked from home. For example, I interviewed the COO of a

global marketing company. The agency positioned itself “in the cloud,” and being totally global meant having only one P&L. Many of the employees and freelancers (they were all called partners) worked from home. Even in a country where the company had a “creative space” for people to meet and work together, the partners worked from home most of the time. And so did the COO.

I was surprised to find that so many global leaders work from home. That employees work from home a few times a week or even all the time (telecommuting) has become very popular and is well understood (for an example, see the metastudy by Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Research has addressed how to best lead telecommuters (Gibson, Blackwell, Dominicis, & Demerath, 2002). But that global leaders also work from home was a new finding.

Even though all global leaders emphasized the importance of face-to-face communication, whether they worked in an office or at home made no difference since their teams were spread out across the world. So they worked from home and travelled frequently.

Travel for face-to-face communication

All global leaders were traveling a substantial amount of time. For my observation week with them, we had chosen a week where they were not traveling, but they had either just returned from a trip or were preparing the next trip while I was with them.

Education VP made a spreadsheet with his travel schedule for the whole year available to me (records were kept for tax purposes). In the last 12 months, he had travelled during three out of every four weeks. Software CEO is rotating between the different locations where he has offices. When we discussed what would be a good time to spend with him, he offered that I could choose the location: he would be in every one of them in the near future. Despite the technology that each had available to them, face-to-face communication was still very much needed.

All global leaders shared with me the need for face-to-face communication. While most of Telecom SVP's meetings were held using video-conferencing technology, he would go upstairs for meetings that involved the CEO and attend those in person. These meetings presented a nice opportunity to get out of his office, and despite excellent technology, being in the same room with the CEO made for a better meeting because it allowed for informal chat with peers. Telecom SVP had no doubt that much of the important work gets done as people chat just before and just after a scheduled face-to-face meeting. Using video-conferencing technology was saving time and money, but also meant losing some of the richness of meetings. For larger projects, he would get his closest staff (four people) to join him for day-long face-to-face sessions that would be used to jointly work on these projects. The staff flew from the west coast to the east coast to join Telecom SVP; staff from other countries did not normally participate in these working sessions, which often lasted a day or two.

During my week with Aerospace CFO, I met a junior manager from Germany working out of the US headquarters for six months as part of his development program. The company provided these opportunities, understanding that face-to-face is superior to other means of communication. In the interviews I conducted with Aerospace CFO's staff, the importance of travel was reiterated multiple times. One staff member shared an interesting quasi-experiment:

When I meet with the US team, we meet over the phone; meeting in person is really no different. Overseas it's very different. They don't talk over the phone. 2012 in Germany is an example. I scheduled a trip, threw out my back, and scheduled a phone conference instead. But the Germans were really unhappy about that. I called them but we didn't get to discuss the issues they wanted to discuss. So I then went on the trip anyhow. They were really frustrated: had wanted to talk about this issue and had really wanted me there. It ended up being a quasi-experiment and really eye-opening!

Whereas in a domestic situation, face-to-face is better than using technology (see Telecom SVP; in an international setting, certain things just don't get addressed at all, unless in a face-to-face environment.

Software CEO was getting ready to visit with his teams two weeks after my week with him, and during a Skype call, when team members seemed stressed, he expressed that it would be easier if he were there with the team: "In addition, I am far away from you guys, which doesn't help." He felt the limitations created by the physical distance. He also worked on bridging the distance between the teams. Software CEO's organization in Buenos Aires, Argentina, was getting ready to host

someone from the Montevideo, Uruguay, office for a month. Software CEO was encouraging and supporting (and funding) employees to go and work in a different office for a month to get to know their colleagues there and to “overcome prejudice” between the teams.

Education VP moved to a different continent to be closer to the business units he helped develop, and then, in 2015, he travelled during 33 of the year’s 52 weeks. Much of his work was done face-to-face, and in his case, having global responsibilities meant being on the road most of the time.

While Technology GAD worked from his home office the week I joined him, he was going to be traveling all of the following week: leaving on Sunday to attend a 3-day meeting, returning late on Wednesday to leave for a customer meeting Thursday morning, returning late at night to attend a local customer meeting on Friday, and finally, to be back home in the afternoon in time to take his daughter to the orthodontist. Although he was very comfortable working virtually and didn’t think about (and often didn’t know) where others were physically located, he also mentioned the positive impact of face-to-face meetings repeatedly. For example, to provide a discount on an indicative price for a product that had not yet been developed, various functions needed to work together (pricing desk, legal, country manager, in-country account manager, etc.), and Technology GAD commented that because some of the actors were at the same meeting (the National Retail

Federation's annual meeting in New York), it would be easier to figure out how to proceed. And indeed, when he called one of the people involved, they were in a cab in New York on their way to the show and promised to work on the issue with the other key player who would be there as well. Technology GAD commented to me: "This is good; we can get things done quickly."

In all companies, face-to-face leadership meetings are scheduled at least annually. And while they incur costs, everyone found that they were really needed. As one staff member put it: "It's expensive but well worth it keeping people connected so that people understand when they get an email. It has paid off tremendously."

My observations and the insights I gleaned from the interviews leave me to conclude that we need to better understand when global work can be done from any location and when face-to-face communication is required. The quality of a global leader's work is greatly affected by this, and a better understanding would greatly contribute to improve the work of the practitioner as well as to the work of developing a theory of global leadership.

Substitute for face-to-face: The virtual office

When face-to-face is not possible with both parties being in the same room at the same time, global leaders use other means of communicating. Video-conferencing is perhaps the next best thing. Companies are also using video-conferencing to cut down on travel cost. Constantly being on email provides a feeling of connectedness, as do

other technologies. Even though Software CEO, Education VP, and Technology GAD were not in meetings with others face-to-face, they were in almost synchronous conversations via email or other means. Especially Software CEO, who was connected to his teams via instant messaging technologies, was very much in a virtual office with his team members, almost as if they were all sitting in a large office together. So even though I coded 56% as time spent alone, there were actually only very few times where I had the feeling that Software CEO was truly alone. With the touch of a button, he would be connected with someone on his team, often to check in on progress made. In the vast majority of cases, Software CEO initiated the contact. Education VP and Technology GAD, who relied more on email than on instant messaging, had short cycle times between emails. They, too, were in direct communication with others throughout the day. When is a person really alone? When they are not interrupted? When they are not contact-able, not accessible?

The five participants in my study were of different origins: American, Belgian, French, Indian, and Spanish (in alphabetical order). Three worked in a country different from the one they were born in; all had previously worked in other countries. All of them enjoyed working in a job with global responsibilities. Technology GAD was very clear about how much he enjoyed the constant interaction with colleagues in many countries:

Ich brauche das auch. Wenn ich das jetzt machen würde nur in Belgien, nur mit Belgiern, das ginge nicht. Im Ernst. [I need that. If I

were to do that only in Belgium, only with Belgians, that wouldn't work. No, seriously.]

The staff I interviewed, all in global roles as well, all shared the sentiment that a person can only be successful as a global leader if they embrace it completely because personal life and work life are so intertwined. One staff member talked about global leadership needing to be in the person's DNA.

Synchronous communication

When we think of synchronous communication, we think of face-to-face conversations where both participants are in the same space at the same time; perhaps we also include video conversations or phone conversations (synchronous, but not face-to-face). Synchronous communication took on other aspects for the global leaders. In many instances, the global leaders' use of email was also almost synchronous; they received responses very quickly and continued working on the issue at hand using the new input. For example, Education VP (located in Madrid) wanted clarification on who should sign the contract for a contractor in Vietnam, sent an email to corporate headquarters in the US, shortly afterwards received a reply, and then proceeded to forward the paperwork to the regional CFO (in Singapore).

Approvals were also addressed almost in real-time. Education VP was working on getting a new FP&A director hired for Asia, to be located in the regional office in Singapore. He worked with colleagues in the US and in region, including the in-business HR person supporting the region, who lives and works in Japan. I observed

the three agreeing on the timing of the offer (wanted the offer to go out quickly because the candidate had another job offer in hand) within the hour, and once that agreement was reached, the compensation package for the candidate was quickly approved by the regional CFO (in Asia) as well as by the corporate controller (in the US) so that the offer could go out to the preferred candidate. Even though the different people involved in this task were located in three different continents and used email, they worked together almost in real-time (i.e., not very different from being co-located in the same office).

At times, observing the global leaders interact with their counterparts gave the impression that they were all working together in one office spanning the world. It was strongest with Software CEO, who was never more than a key stroke away from his people and who interacted with them throughout the day. Often these interactions were chats, not face-to-face conversations, but chats by instant messaging.

Technology is an enabler of global work for global leaders as it is for others working together across geographies and time zones. Knowing how and when to use technology is something the current generation of global leaders have learned. It is not only how the technology works, but also when and how to use it.

Technology

The global leaders each used a variety of tools (see appendix A). They had laptops, tablets, smart phones, and made use of various applications (apps). They used both

their personal devices as well as those provided by the company. Some of them looked after their own data storage and backup capabilities. Because technology was so important to them, it received a lot of attention. When an update was slowing down the laptop, fixing this problem was prioritized (by returning to an earlier version of program); backing up files was done using external drives and the cloud; and when a company-issued laptop needed to be re-flashed, the preparation for that (including freeing up space on the laptop) took a lot of time and attention. The leaders augmented their company-issued devices with personal devices to make their work easier. Sometimes the personal devices were faster (because they were newer), sometimes having two devices allowed the leader to do two things at the same time, especially when one activity was backing up data or other maintenance issues.

For Software CEO, whose employees were all miles away, technology was absolutely essential. He had invested heavily in technology; for example, he had “spent a fortune on a private line in Mexico.” At one point, when he was running into technical issues, he exclaimed, “If there’s no Internet, I’m on vacation.”

I observed two of the participants using social media to get information on a business contact. It struck me that this created a sense of connectedness, as the participants were picking up clues about their contacts that they would otherwise pick up at a first meeting. For example, in a world where most people were from somewhere else, the physical attributes and the accent would provide clues as to where the person was

from originally. Online, looking up where people were originally from, where they had gone to school, or where they had worked previously, provided this initial “getting acquainted.”

The dependence on information technology means the leaders need to keep up with various means of communicating. Different teams in Software CEO’s company preferred different tools, and he responded by using each team’s preferred tool. Even though the leaders were all tech savvy, it is easy to see that this adds another dimension of complexity to the job. They were embracing the challenge because technology enabled them to bridge time and space. Technology is changing rapidly, and global leaders need to learn how to take advantage of the various technologies in their jobs. They are not IT professionals, and yet they are willing (perhaps even eager) to embrace the use of technology, despite the frustrations it can sometimes provide.

Despite their technological savvy and the tools they all had at their disposal, the participants still preferred face-to-face communication, or rather, preferred to do certain things face-to-face. For example, Telecom SVP rescheduled a meeting with a new peer to be able to have that first meeting in person; Aerospace CFO has his staff fly in for face-to-face working sessions; Software CEO and Education VP travel a lot to be with their teams in the various locations; and Technology GAD holds face-to-face meetings with customers. In addition, Technology GAD emphasized how

decisions are made much more easily and faster when leaders all meet at trade shows and can discuss issues face-to-face there.

The sentiment was voiced that working globally was a lot easier now than it used to be. And it was easier at all levels of the corporation:

Global is a lot easier now because of tools. We use the same tools, email. Travel is much easier. We go more often face-to-face, and we bring them here [bring employees from other sites to corporate headquarters]. We have established relationships on the functional level, and no longer bring the corporate guys. People have regular calls set up at night to talk to each other. You can take calls from home, can Skype.

In a globally operating company, global leaders can be found at all levels. But the technology that enables the work across the globe also adds a dimension of complexity to the work. Perhaps this is an issue only for a certain generation of global leaders. For the next generation of global leaders, the generation of digital natives (the only generation for which these new technologies are not something they've had to adapt to), perhaps what today is an added complexity will simply be the way work gets done.

Intercultural competencies

Each global leader had his own personality and style in how he addressed his work. In my literature review I had found that so much research had been published on intercultural competencies—often seen as a prerequisite for any successful global work—that I had asked my participants to complete the GCI (Global Competencies

Inventory), a validated tool that assesses the degree to which individuals possess the intercultural competencies that are associated with global leader effectiveness (Stevens et al., 2014). Intercultural competence comprises three factors: Perception management, relationship management, and self-management.

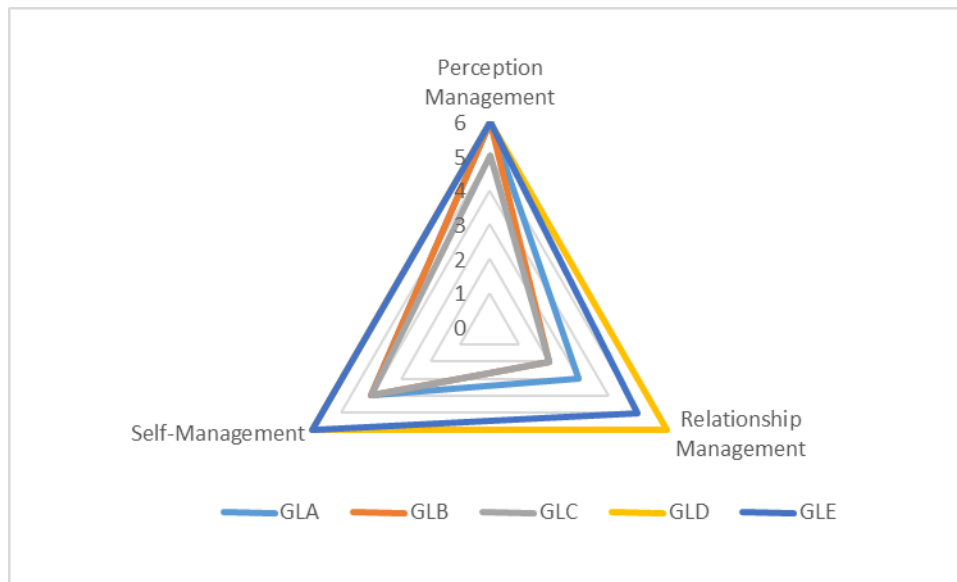


Figure 6. Intercultural Competence of Participants

The five participants received an overall GCI score of high or high moderate. All five participants were very strong in perception management. This factor explores how cultural differences are approached mentally. It includes the willingness to withhold or suspend negative judgments about situations and people, inquisitiveness, tolerance of ambiguity, an interest in and curiosity about foreign countries, as well as a willingness to try new things. They were all also strong in self-management. This factor assesses the strength and clarity of one's self-identity, including the ability to

effectively manage oneself in stressful situations. It includes optimism, self-confidence, emotional resilience, a disposition to respond with calmness and serenity, and an active effort to manage stressors.

The composite findings for relationship management are more diverse. This factor assesses the orientation toward developing and maintaining relationships in general, as well as relationships with people from different cultures or ethnic groups in particular. The sample size is too small to analyze this result, but the fact that the scores have such a range might suggest that some of the participants, because they are working in a global environment, do not “take the initiative to meet and engage others in interaction, including strangers from other cultures” (one of the categories in this factor). They have no need to seek out strangers from other cultures because they work with people from other cultures. So while these competencies are needed to become a successful global leader, they might become second nature once a person is used to working in a global environment. Take, for example, languages. It certainly helps to learn other languages, but once you know other languages, using them is not something you think about (and you don’t remember in what language you read something or heard something). So the same might be true for the development and maintenance of relationships with people from different countries: once you work with them on a daily basis, this becomes the norm, and you no longer seek out people just because you want to get to know people from other cultures. Perhaps this is a competency that is important for expatriates who need to acclimatize in a different

culture by making new friends, but since none of my participants were traditional expats, they worked with people from other nationalities and interacted with them as required by the work at hand.

Multilingual competencies

Four of the five participants spoke multiple languages, and Software CEO and Technology GAD used multiple languages throughout the day.

On any given day, Software CEO spoke English, French, and Spanish, switching back and forth without ever thinking about the language. When he became interested in news from Italy and wanted more details, he switched to an Italian online newspaper and read that. The company language was English and the internal reports that were created were in English. At one point, when Software CEO was not satisfied with a report that showed the progress of work that was being completed, the employee brought up, “We have a problem with language.” Software CEO’s response was, “It is getting better.” Because most customers are located in the US, the customer-facing employees are also in the US (and speak English). All team members in this global team are expected to improve their English language skills; all internal communication is in English.

Technology GAD in Belgium also used multiple languages at work, and even though he was working out of his native country, on my first day of observation he didn’t use his native language until 4:00 p.m., and that was when he spoke to a colleague in the

Netherlands. Speaking Dutch, German, English, and French came naturally, but when an important email needed to be sent to a German customer, Technology GAD appreciated that a German colleague offered to write it.

Software CEO, Education VP, and Technology GAD, and most of the people they interacted with used English as a second language. None of the work I observed could have been done if many of the actors didn't speak in a language that wasn't their first language. Unless you are truly bilingual (and only few people really are), there are situations in which speaking a second language means feeling like you are not expressing exactly what you are thinking. This, of course, can also happen using one's first language, but the feeling of impotence, of being misunderstood, is much greater when one is handicapped using the common tool (the language used). If all participants in a conversation use a second language (as was the case in many conversations I observed), then the opportunities for miscommunication multiply. The global leader now isn't just faced with his *own* limitations, but also with an added layer of complexity in understanding what the *other* person is saying. Knowing first hand that *what* is expressed in a second language, and *how* it is expressed might not be received as it was intended can create a feeling of unease. The global leader puzzles: *What is going on? What was meant by this utterance? How are the other speakers positioning themselves in relation to me?* Since these are internal processes, I did not directly observe them, but since I can relate to them, I took note of these feelings as I was witnessing these kinds of situations: The conversation would not

flow as easily but would be more like people leaving what others had said hanging in the air.

The global leaders had not learned other languages for the benefit of their work, but because it was something that belonged in their lives. They had moved to another country early in their lives, or married someone with another first language. It takes time to develop the competencies to be a successful global leader, and learning other languages certainly takes time. Perhaps the seed is planted very early in life.

Giving the global bug to the children

Aerospace CFO had a staff member whose daughter, studying political science and interested in Latin America, was doing an internship at the time of my observations at the State Department in the section for Latin America. And afterwards, her plan was to study in Chile for a year. Clearly, her father's interest in global affairs had rubbed off on her, and from how he shared her plans with me, it was clear that she had his full support.

Technology GAD was getting ready to send his oldest daughter abroad after graduating from high school. She would spend five months each in two different countries. This came up during my time with him because he was investigating health insurance options for her while she was abroad. Technology GAD explained that it wasn't just about getting better in those two languages. "It's important not only to learn the language but to be there for the weekend, to see what people do, how they

do it. It's different. There are different ways of doing things.” Technology GAD also shared that his younger daughter surprised him during a flight to New York when she started chatting with her seat neighbor in English. The daughter had not had any formal language training but had picked up the language through social media. Growing up in a country that officially has three languages and in a metropolitan area that is very cosmopolitan (Brussels is considered the capital of Europe) perhaps provides the right setting for children to grow up multilingual and with a deep interest in other cultures. Having such a father perhaps makes it easier to just “pick up” languages; certainly a good start for a future global leader.

A global leader is not a global leader at work but a global person. The intermingling of personal and work life and the competencies that are only developed if the person wholeheartedly embraces them (so they become part of the DNA) require the whole person.

Functional and leadership

Each of the five participants was responsible for a certain function in their company, and each of them was involved in work that is specific to his function. One of Aerospace CFO's staff commented that because they were understaffed, the leaders had to be “more hands-on and tactical than we should be,” and that the leaders otherwise “could be more visionary.” Aerospace CFO also commented that because of the work on the special project, he was more involved in project work than he would be otherwise. It seemed to me like a reaction to an ideal of a leader who is

visionary and spends the day leading others, but the fact that all of my participants were hands-on involved in functional work confirmed that the division between leading and managing is somewhat arbitrary. Global leaders do both.

The functional work that was done (strategic planning, financial planning and analysis, growing the business, talent management, and sales) as well as the leadership work are both present in a domestic business and in a global business. And on the surface, there didn't seem to be much of a difference in terms of how work got done. As one staff member said, "Business is business." And yet the same person gave me examples of how different global work is by describing what is different and how it is different. Or, as another staff member said, "Global leadership is not just *what* is different but also *how*." The differences in the *how* relate more to the consequences in behavior or expectations due to the differences in *what*.

For example, a global leader reminded his staff that they should not worry about not having received any responses from their colleagues in India, even though the deadline for a project was getting close: "Remember, India was off last week. Everyone goes off, that's probably why you didn't receive anything." It helps to know the Indian high holy days (in this case, *Divali*), and when they are in any particular year, and that "everyone goes off" for them. How certain holidays affect work behavior is important to keep in consideration.

In all organizations, domestic and global, different cycles determine what gets done in which quarter of the year. The global services team of Telecom SVP was getting ready for a strategy planning meeting scheduled in the third quarter of the year which would be held the following week (a three-day offsite meeting). Telecom SVP spent a good part of his time getting ready for the strategy meeting. One of the staff members commented on how strategy used to be done: “When you think how you get together, flipcharts, post-it notes, the HR person facilitating, action items, and hallway conversations: we really need to work on this...”, which elicited a good chuckle from everyone else. The process I observed with staff members involved in the strategy development all in different locations was very different. Telecom SVP spent time with his staff virtually using video-conferencing and file-sharing, and then spent time alone working on the material that went into the strategic planning session.

In finance (Aerospace CFO), the work was shaped by the close of the books for the month and the report of the results towards the end of the week, as well as a special project that couldn't be specified at the time. (I was later told that it was the exploration of a possible acquisition that was not pursued in the end.) The leadership team was also planning a key leadership summit, a 3-day off-site meeting that would kick-off the next financial year and would be held a month later.

Software CEO was focusing on getting his projects staffed. Getting the right people with the right qualifications quickly was of utmost priority. The team needed to

deliver to their customer because the customer's customer was a large company and, as Software CEO explained to one of his staff members, "If they don't deliver—they are a small company—they might not survive. You have to put it in perspective. Really, super important." Software CEO also needed to address performance issues and assign and re-assign team members to different projects, always based on their availability and the projects that needed staffing. It seemed a big juggle.

Education VP was busy with year-end performance reviews, salary planning, development plans for senior leaders reaching across regions, as well as planning for the next year. A major focus was the global talent reviews that were underway. They were done locally and then rolled up to the next level to identify future leaders for the company.

Technology GAD was getting ready for a global sales kick-off meeting that was approaching. In addition, a major opportunity with one of the global accounts required a lot of attention and coordination between various functions across the globe.

Distinct activities and tasks

Observing the global leaders, I captured the functional work and the leadership work they were doing. Every time the leader I observed turned his attention to something new, I made a note in my field journal. This was easy in some cases and impossible in others. When the leader changed the mode (e.g., he made or received a phone call, or

he attended a meeting), the start and finish of these activities was recorded. When the leader attended to his email, I did not count each email as one incidence but rather bundled the activity in “working on email.” I did note when a certain email required more attention or when writing an email included making a related phone call. In those cases, writing the email and making the phone call would have been recorded as one activity. Even though my method here was evolving as my observation progressed and the results are necessarily crude, they are interesting, nevertheless.

Table 19. Distinct Activities

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Total	Days observed	Per day
Telecom SVP	17	10	19	23		69	4	17
Aerospace CFO	19	20	25	15	20	99	5	20
Software CEO		44	44	31	40	159	4	40
Education VP	32	26				58	2	29
Technology GAD	30	42	36	32	41	181	5	36
						566	20	28

In total, I observed 566 distinct chunks of activities during 20 days of direct observation, or an average of 28 activities per day. I then categorized each activity based on its reach. Was it of local consequence or did it address issues in multiple countries? It was not necessary to explicitly mention other countries or locations, but

the direction of the activity had to have a global dimension. Either the person the global leader was talking to was physically in a different country (and this was of significance), or the topic that was being discussed was of importance in multiple countries, or the global leader was pursuing a global solution. This yielded 170 global activities.

Table 20. Global Activities

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Total	Days observed	Per day
Telecom SVP	7	7	5	8		27	4	7
Aerospace CFO	3	2	4	7		16	5	3
Software CEO		20	9	12	11	52	4	13
Education VP	12	8				20	2	10
Technology GAD	8	10	11	10	16	55	5	11
						170	20	8.5

Once I had identified 170 as activities with global impact, I further analyzed them by looking at the tasks involved. Within each distinct activity, many different topics could be addressed. Here is an example of a scheduled 30-minute check-in of Telecom SVP with one of his direct staff, a regional business leader:

Telecom SVP wanted to know if the business leader (BL) in the UK had spoken to an employee about a project management role and found out that the BL planned to do so the next day. Telecom SVP

shared that he was inclined to outsource this function and asked the BL to investigate further and provide advice on whether or not to outsource. Telecom SVP then provided an update on extra revenues that were expected on an account in the region and asked if this extra revenue would close the existing gap in the plan. The BL responded that he would find out. Telecom SVP addressed a third point about problems with a particular product and shared his view of the product. The BL, well aware of the problem, suggested that this issue needed to be escalated internally to a peer of the Telecom SVP. Telecom SVP added the issue to his list of things to discuss with his colleague later in the week. BL brought up a different issue regarding licensing. Telecom SVP advised to add certain people to the distribution list on a reply email. He added his view of how licensing should work in conjunction with the product roadmap strategy and a software strategy. Telecom SVP advised BL to answer the email at hand and copy certain people, and to let him address licensing for the whole company. Moving on to the next topic, Telecom SVP asked if there were any escalations from customers, and this was discussed briefly. Then the BL moved on to share his experience of branded rooms at a local call center. Telecom SVP shared that he had seen this in India as well. BL provided a few more pieces of information as to what he had done during the previous days. The call ended on time.

The topics that were addressed were typical business issues:

- Human resources (filling a vacant position or outsourcing the function)
- Revenue forecast (unexpected revenue and monthly plan)
- Product quality (escalation to resolve issue)
- Licensing (vision, addressing issue at hand, addressing issue long-term for the whole company)
- Customer service complaints
- Physical environment of call centers

Focusing on the global leader, we can identify the following tasks:

- Asked for information
- Requested advice
- Provided an update with information he had received in an earlier meeting that day
- Asked what impact this piece of news had on the overall plan
- Requested information on a product quality issue
- Took an action item to talk to his peer about the product quality
- Advised how to address a licensing issue and who to copy on the response
- Shared his view for a licensing strategy
- Identified “licensing for the whole company” as an issue for him to pursue
- Asked for an update on customer complaints
- Exchanged information on branded rooms
- Listened to miscellaneous updates

These activities can be summarized into five broad categories, as shown in Table 21:

Table 21. Typical Tasks

Requested/received information or advice	Provided information
Asked for an update on customer complaints	Provided an update with information he had received in an earlier meeting that day
Asked for information	Shared his view for a licensing strategy
Asked what impact this piece of news had on the overall plan	
Requested information on a product quality issue	
Requested advice on outsourcing	
Exchanged information & ideas (both ways)	Took an action item for self
Exchanged information on branded rooms	Took an action item to talk to his peer about the product
Listened to miscellaneous updates	Identified “licensing for the whole company” as an issue for him to pursue
Gave advice and direction	
Advised how to address a licensing issue and who to copy on the response	

The 170 global activities could be broken down into 530 tasks with a distribution as displayed in the table below. The detailed table for all 530 tasks can be found in appendix B.

Table 22. Frequency of Global Tasks

Task	Frequency
Requesting/receiving information or advice	26%
Giving advice and direction	19%
Exchanging information & ideas (both ways)	16%
Providing information	12%
Taking an action item for self	5%
Other	22%

These numbers are not very different from Mintzberg's (1973). Requesting, receiving, and giving information make up the majority of activities for his five managers, too.

The basic activities in terms of the functional aspect of business as well as the basic tasks as a leader have not changed.

Strategic and tactical

All global leaders were engaged in work that was strategic and in work that was tactical. Examples for strategic work were all the planning activities that were taking place: Telecom SVP was working on the strategic plan for the next three years with a focus on the next year; Aerospace CFO was working on an off-site meeting for the entire leadership team to kick off the new financial year; and Education VP was getting ready for strategy sessions on global talent reviews. All of the global leaders were also very tactical; for example, Aerospace CFO spent time alone editing a letter

to the accounting firm explaining the depreciation method for a new facility that two staff members had drafted.

Time was spent on urgent matters addressing immediate needs as well as on planning for the future.

In interviews, the global leaders expressed that their companies were not as global as they would like them to be. One leader said that, in his mind, a global company takes advantage of being global for growth and improvement, but many companies—including the one he was working for—were using the global footprint only for cost savings. Global work is constantly changing with leaders working on harvesting more of the advantages of being global.

Remotely or local

One of Aerospace CFO's VP's clearly distinguished between work that can be done remotely, like financial planning and analysis, and work that needs to be done locally, like accounting. This was corroborated independently by another VP of a different business unit.

Customer expectations have changed, and while in the past customers expected a local representative, this is no longer the case. "The world is flat. It used to be you had to be in the Netherlands to sell there; now, they don't care where it's coming from. Customer expectations have changed."

Global companies are looking to partner with companies that are also global. For example, Aerospace CFO wanted his internal audit VP to partner with a firm that had local resources in all the locations where the company was.

Global complexity

Global complexity becomes visible in functional work. Within the finance arena, global differences seemed particularly pronounced: mergers and acquisitions, taxes, accounting, regulatory filings, and how to structure a deal—these are all different in different countries. Global leaders working in these areas need to know as much as possible about these local differences. Even though the global leaders were all traveling extensively, they needed to rely on local partners since they could never be sure that they knew all the pertinent things. As one leader put it, “But you can’t know everything so that all bases are covered.”

To illustrate what complexity at work really means, I will provide some examples from across the businesses where I spent time. In the first example, the question arose if there was corporate tax exposure in one country because the company had two expats working there and the US entity was paying 50% of the cost for the employees. Did that establish a “physical presence,” which would mean that the US entity was liable for VAT and income tax in this country? The assignments had commenced almost two years earlier, but the question only surfaced now.

Another example included a senior global leader who was French, had been hired in Hong Kong and was living in Hong Kong (because his wife worked there) and worked out of the Bangkok office. This global leader was being paid in Thailand, received a housing allowance in Hong Kong, and was going to get a year-end bonus in France because France was considered his “home base.” The person working out the total compensation package needed to be very familiar with the local rules in at least three countries and needed to understand how the different country-specific rules affected each other. Education VP himself received correspondence from the local tax authorities regarding his taxes from two years earlier while I observed him. When things are that complex, can you ever be sure that all the rules have been followed in all countries? It adds a layer of uncertainty to anything that gets done.

My observations were confirmed in interviews like this one:

There are just too many things; we pick and choose the issues. Complexities of international organizations means we spend a tremendous amount of time understanding the different rules. People constantly underestimate the cost of going global. You need \$20k-30k a year just to get your taxes filed in any country. VAT, and employment tax, and you might still get caught on something you missed. For a short-term project that spans two years you could easily end up filing four years [also need previous and next year]. People just underestimate the cost.

The global leader has to ask the right questions and needs to know the right direction in which he wants the decision to go. For the rest, he needs to trust his local people.

“Transactions that cover four countries are really complex. I have to call four experts and get opinions to give advice.”

As this example shows, the functional expertise of the global leader is needed to direct the teams: The company was opening up a new facility in Bulgaria and the business had bought a machine in Chicago and shipped it there. When the global leader reminded the team in Chicago that they would have to sell the machine to the Bulgarian entity, they were very surprised. During the initial phase, the new facility was going to buy parts in the US, work on them in Bulgaria, and ship them back to the US. To capture these transactions required new learning.

A global company wants to benefit from the cost savings achieved through global standardization and yet wants to also be responsive to local needs (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). The global leader is asked to decide which aspect should receive priority in any given situation. When in a project review, the global leader found out that one of the global locations wasn't fully utilizing a new tool for approving invoices, so he inquired as to the reasons. “If the system is a drag for a location, that wouldn't be good.” The explanation was that in this location, invoices needed to accommodate two currencies because the local VAT needed to be on the invoice in the local currency, even if the invoice was made out in another currency.

When a new part-time employee in Argentina negotiated her contract, different options to pay her were discussed because she didn't have a checking account and didn't want to open one due to the fees associated with that. A possible solution (discussed but not pursued) was to pay her in cash in Uruguay. She would have liked to be paid in US dollars (because of the high rate of inflation in Argentina), but even though her salary would come from the US, she could only withdraw Argentinian pesos from her savings account due to Argentinian law.

Work within a global company becomes complex when the different locations and entities work together. In this section, I provided some specific examples that I observed. This increase in complexity can be found in all areas of the business.

Global complexity also addresses the increase in external complexities. Global leaders need to keep up with what is going on in the world in which their business operates. The global leaders I observed were aware of a diverse range of things: natural gas production in China (slowing down because of the low price in oil), demand for liquefied natural gas (LNG) (the world's second liquefied natural gas ship had just been launched), the economic development in Ghana (demand for the customer's products was down). And yet, the global leaders could never be sure that they hadn't missed something important.

Approaches to work

The complexities in global work are apparent in many aspects, and the approach to taxes might serve as an example for how different cultures approach work differently. In an interview with a senior global leader responsible for global tax, I learned the following: where the US is clearly rules-based when it comes to taxes, other places are principles-based. To understand the different characteristics of the two approaches, a quick glance at a table that Arjoon (2006) produced from contemporary research into the topic is helpful:

Table 23. Characteristics of Rules-Based vs. Principles-Based Approaches

Rules-based	Principles-based
Complies with a specific set of procedural requirements	Emphasizes “doing the right thing” by appropriate means
Follows the letter of the law	Follows the spirit of the law
Tends towards the quantitative, objective end of the spectrum	Tends toward the qualitative, subjective end of the spectrum
Requires constant monitoring	Develops over the longer term
Focuses on detection	Focuses on prevention

Source: Adapted from Arjoon, 2006, Table 1

The staff member provided me with an example from the business that illustrates the difference: the company discovered a gap between US and German tax laws that could potentially provide savings of \$3million annually. The German colleagues saw this loophole as an oversight in legislation and were advising to not take any potential

savings, whereas the US colleagues were wondering why they should give up the advantage when the loophole was clearly there to be exploited. The global leader needs to facilitate the conversation when staff members are struggling because of cultural differences.

Ethics

Another staff member, responsible for internal audits, shared how important the ethics of the leaders in global locations are as a cornerstone of fraud prevention. The company does not have any means to engage in fraud prevention from corporate headquarters; the strategy is to rely on the local leaders. This is a strategy typical for global businesses who do not have expatriates in foreign locations (to control the foreign enterprise) but who rely on local resources. “First we had expats. In the late 80s to mid-90s, the policy changed to locals. Then learning from the locals, local leaders with international experience were hired.” As the organization became more experienced in being a global company, the global leaders who were put in charge learned from each other.

In a global organization, global leaders rely on each other to bridge cultural differences in their approach to work and develop trust that ensure that all employees everywhere adhere to the company values.

How the global leaders see their role

The global leaders I observed and interviewed all saw their roles as serving their organization by keeping everyone informed, and by helping their staff solve any problems that came up. Because the teams are located around the globe, they need the leader to keep the team together, to solve problems that arise because of the global nature of the business. Comments like, “I’m their life line,” or “It’s all about getting people to work together,” express sentiments that were shared by all. Another leader gave me the following analogy:

When you coach a team of five-year olds, they all run after the ball. You need to teach them to play their position, trust that others will play theirs. And if everyone does their part, the ball will come to them. Not everyone has to be running after the ball.

The global nature of the work could manifest itself very directly (physical distance, time zones, different approaches to ethics), or could be less obvious when the global leader was operating on a corporate level that transcended local differences. In a conversation after a staff meeting, one of the participants pointed out to me that there had been multiple references to issues in other countries during the meeting (e.g. the impact of a senior staff person retiring in Scotland) that were addressed no differently than they would have been had they happened in the States. In those cases, there was no distinguishable difference between domestic and global work.

Global leaders engage in work that is strategic and long-term, as well as in work that is tactical and short-term. It is not always easy to identify global work. One of the

global leaders explained to me that he might be working on a global account for years, and then, in a meeting during a particular situation, not say anything. And because he knows when to keep quiet, the company reaps a benefit (e.g., closes a deal or receives a better margin). What would be observed? Global work is not only in what is being done, but also in what is not being done; not only in what is being said, but also in what is being left unsaid.

Conceptually, there are two modes that describe how the global leaders interact with the global presence of their business. I call the first mode *delegating complexity* because the global leader relies on functional and country leaders to address global complexity. The global leader is the integrator who brings to life the alignment matrix by balancing the needs of the different internal and external stakeholders. At this level, all locations are handled in a similar fashion.

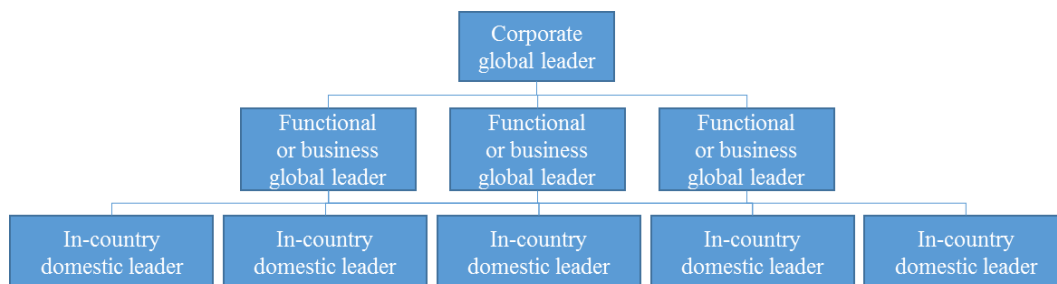


Figure 7. Delegating Complexity

In the other mode, the global leader himself is *connecting the network*. The global leader actively connects team members in various functions and locations.

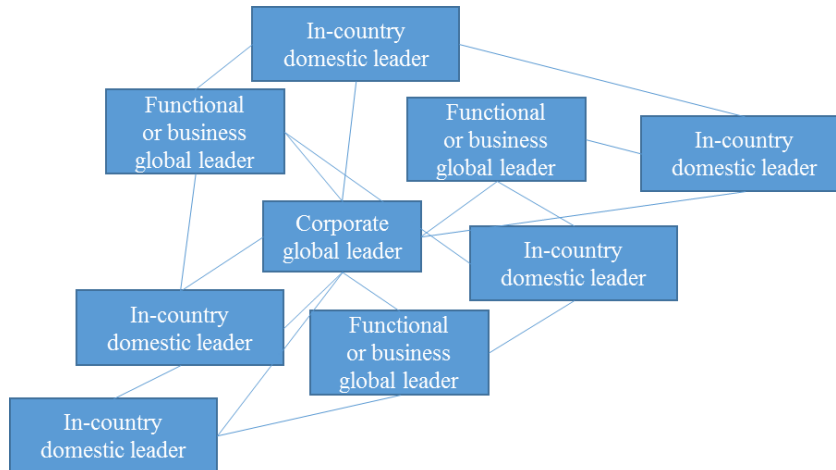


Figure 8. Connecting the Network

Bartlett and Goshal (1992) argue that there is no such things as a universal global manager and distinguish between business, country, and functional managers, and the top executives at headquarters who coordinate the interactions of the three. All play a different role in a global company; all are global leaders.

My study showed that global leaders will have a predominant mode but will use both modes depending on the situation.

Fragmentation

The 566 activities, including the 170 global activities, confirm the often cited fragmentation of a leader's job. However, I never had the feeling that the global leaders I observed felt that their days were fragmented. Rather, they were addressing what needed to be addressed from different angles. Work was more like working on a puzzle: each distinct activity was a puzzle piece that needed attention in order for the

whole picture to get completed. In a micro-study, we could take each of these chunks and further analyze them to better understand the nature of each of them. This would go beyond the scope of this study.

Each participant had his own leadership style and his own way of addressing the tasks at hand. For example, while Education VP and Technology GAD never multitasked but were always entirely focused on the task at hand, Telecom SVP and Software CEO multitasked a lot, talking to people in video conferences and doing email and chatting on IM. Software CEO multitasked most of the time. It was not unusual for him to be in a conversation with someone on the phone, and at the same time in three other conversations with three other people on IM (using Skype chat and Slack). He might even clean up his junk email while being in these conversations.

Most noticeable was *how* the global leaders I observed engaged in multitasking. I became aware of it when I tried to categorize and count how the time was spent: all global leaders were multitasking at times, some of them more often, some of them less often. I ended up identifying the main task and counted time towards that task. I also identified time as spent alone or with others based on the main focus at the time. (Time was coded as time alone when the global leader worked on his email while also listening to a conference call.)

There were two kinds of multitasking: synchronous and sequential. The first kind is what is typically referred to as multitasking: for example, I observed global leaders dialing into a call and doing their email at the same time. On the other hand, I also saw global leaders being very focused and not engaging in anything else other than, for example, the phone call they were in. The home office lent itself to multitasking, but at the same time, the leaders could be very single-focused on the task at hand (e.g., when they were in a phone conversation). Software CEO, Education VP, and Technology GAD all used special bound notebooks to keep their hand-written notes. Education VP showed me his stack of notebooks, which he had collected over the year; they were all of the same make. Technology GAD received an order of new notebooks the week I spent with him; it was obvious that he had spent some time choosing just the right notebook for him. When Education VP and Technology GAD were in phone conversations taking notes in their notebooks, they were not only *not* multitasking but instead *very* focused on the conversation at hand.

There was also another kind of multitasking: while one task was ongoing, the leader engaged in another task. I call this *sequential multitasking*. For example, a leader would be in a meeting and step outside to take a call. Clearly, the impetus came from the phone call, but the leader made the decision to take the call and switch from participating in the meeting to participating in a phone call. What was really interesting were the many instances I observed of self-imposed sequential multitasking: the leader would be engaged with one issue, put that aside temporarily,

engage in something else, and then come back to the first task. These tasks could be physical or virtual. For example, one of the leaders I observed got up from his desk to pick up snail mail, brought it back to his desk, attended to other business, and only much later addressed the snail mail. Another leader would compose an email, then decide to call someone in an unrelated matter, and, afterwards, return to drafting the email. Interruptions in work flow did not come from impulses generated by others but from the global leader's own impulse. This was particularly interesting because of the focus in the literature on the relentless pace of the leader's job and the characterization of the work as being brief, varied, and fragmented (e.g. Mintzberg, 1973, p. 31). Perhaps some of the fragmentation is self-created (or, should I say, self-inflicted). This was a fascinating discovery that should receive more attention to be better understood. There is an unspoken assumption that multitasking and fragmentation are not productive. We need to know much more about global leaders work before we can identify the impact or consequences of this fragmentation of the day.

Weaving work and life together: Breaks

Both global leaders working from office had a recurring lunch break in their calendars. One had a 90-minute lunch break scheduled: "lunch w/gym—DO NOT SCHEDULE OVER" [caps in original], but he never took a 90-minute break the week I spent with him, and I didn't get the sense that he ever did. This obviously was a good intention but wasn't put into practice. The other had a 60-minute lunch break in his calendar and shared that, because of me, he was taking his lunch break;

normally, he would just have a sandwich at his desk. Both didn't take much time for lunch, even though they had cafeterias in their buildings and colleagues with whom to share lunch.

Compare that to the three global leaders working from home. All three global leaders working from home took lunch breaks. All three prepared their lunches, either heating up leftovers or preparing a fresh salad, and all three took time to enjoy their lunch. They moved away from their work spaces and into their personal spaces to enjoy the lunch break, sometimes being joined by family members.

Global leaders have a huge degree of freedom shaping their work and their work hours. Yet the situation in the office makes it difficult to stick to one's plans. It seems to be much easier for those who work from home. At home, work and personal life are intertwined. All global leaders pursued personal chores during the day. This ranged from a short phone call to a regularly scheduled workout walk with the wife. For at least one global leader, while working from the office had the advantage of being face-to-face with most of his direct staff, working from home had the advantage of better combining both personal and work worlds. Having both worlds intertwined made it easier to be a global leader. Work was not a job but a way of life.

Hierarchies remain, communication changes

Because technology allows leaders to connect across traditional boundaries of business units and hierarchy, global leaders—wherever they are in the organization—

the can initiate new connections. In Technology GAD's organization, each global account has a senior VP who acts as the executive sponsor for that account. This is a common structure and also in place in the customer's organization. Technology GAD's work partner on one of the change projects that was underway was a junior employee whose executive sponsor is the CIO of that global company. During my week of observation, Technology GAD and the junior employee in the customer organization worked on connecting the senior sponsors in both companies. They connected the respective secretaries and initiated a face-to-face meeting between the two senior leaders.

Global leadership can be found at all levels of the organization and changes the communication structure in companies. Global responsibilities at lower levels open doors. These communication and collaboration channels do not make traditional hierarchies irrelevant; they back into traditional hierarchies. In this example two more junior people work together and connect, and then they initiate and collaborate to get their senior leadership (executive sponsors) to meet and do what needs to be done on that level. Traditional hierarchies still exist, but the way communication and collaboration between the hierarchical levels works is changing.

Developing into a global leader

My observations were accompanied by interviews with the global leaders and, in some cases, also interviews with their staff. This allowed me to capture additional aspects of global work that I could not observe in a week (e.g., how they saw their

own development as global leaders). One staff member had earlier shared their insights into their own development with the entire team: he made an effort to visit with his teams in person, and he always tried to fit sightseeing and culture into the trip. As a result of getting to know the people better, his phone calls were getting better. “Initially the calls were not effective, not deep, but short.” The little attempts to understand the other, to learn a few words in the other’s language, helped build relationships. And slowly, the global leader became more effective: “My phone calls were getting better. Things blossomed and flourished; we built rapport.” The staff member conveyed to his peers how important local site visits are: “They are very important.”

There are two aspects to this reflection worth exploring. First of all, the importance of getting to know others and their culture and their language is probably something every leader knows. We could call this book knowledge. And to some degree, it also applies to everyone we are working with, no matter where they are located, no matter who they are. The second aspect is that this senior leader felt the desire to share these lessons with his peers. Why? Again and again, the global leaders shared how these lessons were not books lessons, but needed to be experienced. As another staff member put it: “None of it can be learned out of a book. I learned by watching.” Or yet another leader stated, “I travel to all locations at least once a year; spend time in the field with my staff, building interpersonal relationships; it’s soft stuff and it’s real.”

We all know that trying out something new can be awkward, we have all hesitated before perhaps mispronouncing a foreign word, and it is easy to understand the reluctance to try to say a few words in another language. We know we will make mistakes. Global leaders know that, too, and yet they seek out opportunities to learn. That means they seek out opportunities to make mistakes and feel awkward.

Additional risks when being global

That global businesses need to manage additional risk that they face because they are global is well researched, and lately, the risks associated with terrorism are highlighted more (Henisz, Mansfield, & Von Glinow, 2010). Only three days before I began my observation with Education VP in Madrid, the terror attacks in Paris (Bataclan massacre) had happened, and it influenced many conversations that Education VP had that week. He knew who had family in Paris, even if they lived in Asia, and never forgot to ask about the well-being of family and friends before he turned to the business issues at hand. The recent attacks drove home how the safety and security of employees and customers comes before any concern for the business.

Eight days later and only a few weeks before my field research there, the city of Brussels was under lockdown for five days in an effort to capture one of the perpetrators, Salah Abdeslam, who was finally captured four months later.

Technology GAD and I talked about the impact the lockdown had had on the family, as well as the fact that Molenbeek, the neighborhood where the terrorists of the Paris

attacks were from, was nearby. While spending a week with Technology GAD, he was getting ready to attend a large kick-off meeting in Madrid (with more than 500 participants) beginning on the following Sunday. Part of the briefing for this meeting were security alerts, not only regarding industrial espionage (“we will not have exclusive use of the hotel; please be careful with conversations in public spaces”), general company precautions (“our security limit of 25 people per flight means you might have to stay an extra night”), but also terrorist warnings that were explicitly not only for Madrid (“we are not singling out Madrid”) but general alerts regarding terrorism. Of course, such a general alert is very difficult to turn into actionable behavior. But the warning was meant to raise awareness and remind everyone that terrorism was a real threat to all employees traveling on company business.

Just a few weeks after spending time with Technology GAD in Brussels, while I was writing up my findings, terrorist attacks at the Brussels airport and a downtown Brussels subway station shocked the world. I contacted my participant and found out that he had flown out of Brussels airport 24 hours earlier. Had his appointment been a day later, he would have been caught in the attack. As it was, he was now stuck in Geneva because all transportation had come to a standstill. The airport would be closed for two weeks.

Summary of Findings

In the first section of my findings, I provided the quantitative results, following the structure used by Mintzberg (1973). Compared to the five managers Mintzberg

(1973) observed, the five global leaders I observed worked almost 50 % longer hours (almost 300 hours compared to a little over 200 hours). And this did not include work done on weekends. They worked longer hours because the global nature of their work saw them at work early in the morning and late at night. Within this time frame, their mind was never far from work, even if the day was interspersed with personal activities. After having addressed issues in Asia first thing in the morning, Education VP, for example, liked to work out during the late morning before the Americas would come online. Global leaders need to be informed about many countries, and keeping up with the news blurred the line between work and private time. When is reading the newspaper considered work? When is it not? Not just the five global leaders themselves, but their colleagues and staff also made themselves available at odd hours. The blending of being on and off work was typical for all global leaders. Working across time zones required global leaders not only to stay on top of time zones and their changes but also of break times and local holidays. Not knowing local customs makes it harder to be seen as knowledgeable. Not knowing what time it is can lead to a sense of dis-orientation.

Mintzberg's (1973) five participants received their mail through the post their secretaries delivered to their desks; the five participants in my study received almost no snail mail but email instead. Pieces of mail received increased by almost 50%, but none of the leaders complained about too much email. They all acknowledged that they wanted to be kept in the loop, and that email was perhaps the most frequent way

for them to communicate—and communicating was an essential part of their work. Copying the right people on emails was important because connecting people was an important part of their work (and necessarily increased the amount of email received by all).

The third group of data I collected looked at the amount of time the global leaders spent alone or with others, and how much of their time was spent in scheduled versus unscheduled meetings. There was a clear difference between those working in more traditional offices and those working from home. The global leaders working in a traditional office spent about the same amount of time alone as Mintzberg's (1973) managers had (20 % of their time for global leaders versus 22 % in Mintzberg's study). In other words, they spent the vast majority of their time with others. The leaders working from home on average spent almost three times as much time alone (63 %), but given that they were working from home, that still left almost 40% in interaction with others. Even when they were not on the phone or in an online meeting, their colleagues often were only a button click away. The virtual office extended beyond the walls of their home offices. They, too, were seldom *really* alone working on something by themselves without frequent interaction with others.

Keeping everyone in the loop, making sure everyone who needs to be informed is informed, can either happen by organizing larger meetings or by copying more people on email. Copying others on email might reduce the need for large meetings. Global

leaders in traditional offices spent more time in large meetings than global leaders working from home. It is helpful to distinguish time spent with others based on the nature of the activity. Spending time with others can be in a more formal setting, like a meeting, to exchange information, to provide updates on an ongoing project, to provide, and to receive approvals. Spending time with others can also be in a less formal setting, sometimes also referred to as *working meeting*. Here, the global leader and his team work together on the company's business. Compared to Mintzberg's (1973) managers, the global leaders I observed on average spent only half as much time in scheduled meetings. This could be a result of the greater flexibility new technologies provide (i.e., people can get in touch with others much more easily without having to schedule a meeting). It could also be that global leaders today spend more time in working meetings than in formally scheduled meetings. The five global leaders I observed were all very hands on and performing functional work.

In section two of this chapter I presented the themes that emerged from my qualitative approach. When work is global, there is no location that can easily be identified as the best place to locate one's office. I did not set out to observe global leaders who were working from home; the fact that three out of five did, was an interesting, unexpected finding. There were indications that certain functional responsibilities can be accomplished from anywhere in the world (remotely), whereas others require the person to be local. All of the leaders travelled extensively, and when they were in their offices, they worked on action items from previous trips or were preparing for

upcoming trips. Travel, of course, was to facilitate face-to-face communication. And it was more than that: face-to-face communication would also be facilitated by others traveling to the global leader's office, but by visiting stakeholders at their place of work, they developed deeper and more meaningful insights. Some conversations might not be had unless in person and in the person's work space. My observations revealed how much traveling affects activities when the global leaders were not traveling, too. Technology used to bridge geographic distance was used extensively by all global leaders. Leading from a distance created its own challenges, especially when teams faced stressful times. In a global organization, opportunity for global leaders to meet—be it in internal meetings or at trade shows—is always appreciated as an opportunity to get work done more quickly. Cost of travel is part of the cost of being global, a cost that includes much more than just travel, and that is often underestimated.

Global leaders know how to stay connected: they work in a virtual office that can span the globe. Work gets done using synchronous and asynchronous communication and a variety of tools. These include instant messaging technologies as well as emails that get answered almost in real time. Much of the work gets done in real time.

Global leaders embrace an intercultural life: they live in a country that is not their home country, they are often married to someone from another country, they speak multiple languages, and they pass their interest in other cultures on to their children.

Intercultural competencies are not developed for work but for life. Global leaders can articulate their own development path and enjoy the continuous learning that comes with the job.

In addition to their executive roles, the global leaders I observed all performed functional roles. Their staff were looking to them for subject matter expertise and they were hands-on involved in the work of their function both with strategic and tactical work. They were involved in 28 activities on average each day, which made for a fragmented work day. About a third of these activities directly involved global issues or were of global consequence. Requesting, receiving, and giving information made up the majority of activities for the global leaders, just as they had for Mintzberg's (1973) managers. The activities of the global managers, therefore, were similar to those of the global managers. The complexity all global leaders faced required them to rely on local partners with local knowledge to make the best decisions. The complexities made any decision more challenging and added a layer of uncertainty to all activities. The global leaders often cannot be certain that their understanding and interpretation of the situation is correct.

Global leaders shape their work and set preferences. The global leaders working in corporate offices had their lunch times blocked in their calendars to find time for workouts, primarily, but hardly ever took these personal breaks; their lunch was often a working lunch. Global leaders working from home had the opportunity to "go

home” for lunch when they left the office and entered the kitchen. In both cases there was a blurring of work time and personal time.

While the tasks and activities of the global leaders did not seem to differ significantly from those of domestic leaders, how these tasks were accomplished did. The context in which the work took place was characterized by complexity. Interdependence between different factors, the ambiguity due to the complexity and an ever-changing reality, made it more challenging to choose the right course of action. Global leaders focused on information flow between all stakeholders. Working and living in this environment required the whole person.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The Essence of Global Leaders' Work

This is the chapter for the conceptual leap. After close familiarity with the data both in the sense of deep immersion in the data as well as the data structure, I needed to step back to appreciate the whole (Gioia et al., 2013). What stands out when we look at the findings provided in the previous chapter? What do my observations suggest about the nature of global leaders' work? I will first address the key insights I gained by providing and discussing a model that shows how integrated a global leader's work and life are. Following the discussion about the model, I discuss some key insights into how global leaders develop.

That global work is characterized by a high degree of complexity, and flux is well researched (see Chapter Two, Section: A global work environment). Organizational responses to globalization were the creation of organizational capacity through the matrixed organization, even though this organization form creates new internal complexities (Pitts & Daniels, 1984). Organizations need leaders who can deal with the cognitive complexity in the global environment and within the organization: global leaders. The global leaders I observed inhabited and embraced that world. Here is how I made sense of what I saw:

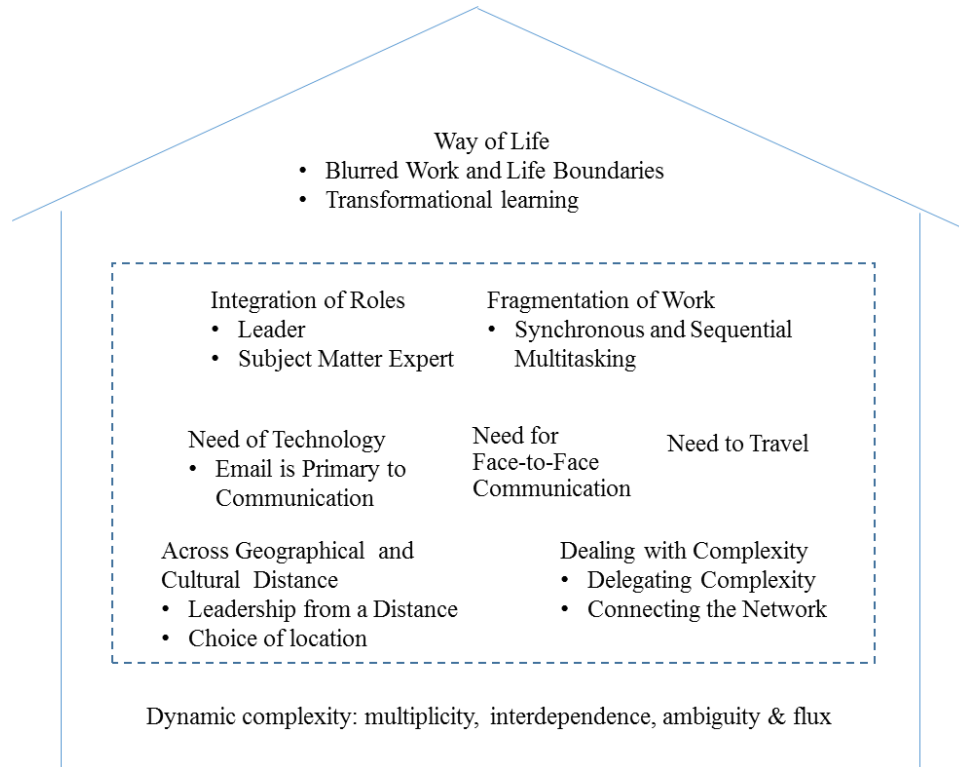


Figure 9. Global Leadership: A Way of Life

A way of life

Global leaders stand firmly in a globalized world characterized by dynamic complexity with its dimensions of multiplicity, interdependence, ambiguity, and flux (Lane et al., 2004). They live in it and embrace a way of life that blurs the traditional boundaries of work and life. Because they keep up with what is going on in the world, because they socialize with team members and business partners, what is and isn't work is sometimes impossible to distinguish. They work at all times of day and night. Black, Morrison and Gregersen (1999) were right when they called them "global explorers" (also the title of their book) (p. 48). In all aspects of their life do they

explore new frontiers and repeatedly put themselves in new situations. They enjoy their lives and don't consider the long hours, the travel, or any of the other added demands a global job brings as a hardship—they simply see it as a way of life.

Working from home, the two physical spheres of personal life and work merge.

Global leaders really embrace the global dimension and wouldn't be interested in a domestic job. Work and their own understanding of themselves is so intertwined that one goes with the other. Distinguishing between the work of global leaders and their lives is not helpful. The nature of global leaders' work is a way of life.

The blurring of the lines between work and non-work can be understood as border-crosser participation, and raises interesting questions about the relationships between border-crossers and others. New theories on work-life balance help explore this further (Clark, 2000).

Global work requires intercultural competencies, and prior research has shown its significance when doing business globally (see Chapter Two, Section: Competencies). The call for a global mindset (as the ultimate state) focuses on the need to think differently, but just like there is little agreement on which competencies are most important, there is also little agreement on what exactly a global mindset is (Osland, Bird, Mendenhall, & Osland, 2006). This is not surprising, given that global leaders come with different strengths and styles and approach their work in many different ways. I suggest a more integrated approach is needed when we look at how

global leaders deal with the complexities they face and turn to adult learning theories for that.

Global leaders over and over again put themselves in challenging situations where they learn. Experiential learning theory established learning as a process whereby knowledge is created through transformation of experience (Kolb, Boyatzis, & Mainemelis, 2001). This learning can be very different from “book learning” in that it doesn’t just add new knowledge and insights to already existing knowledge of the world. Experiential learning includes making mistakes and feeling awkward, and can lead to changing one’s beliefs about the world and about one’s own identity (Reichard et al., 2015). Global leaders know that the challenges they face are business challenges, not personal problems. Yet, as McCall and Hollenbeck (2002) put it, working globally is “an assault on the identity of the person” (p. 22). When working with others who come from different languages and cultures, the assumptions we make about ourselves and others are questioned. The impact this has on the self and how central this is to understanding the nature of global leaders’ work was the most unexpected insight I gained while spending these weeks with the global leaders. Working globally demands a kind of transformation of who we are and how we see ourselves (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002, p. 22). Global leaders have strength and clarity of their sense of self-identity (as measured by the GCI). But they are not stuck in their ways. They seek out opportunities for learning, learning that allows them to

construct and appropriate a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of their experience as a guide to action (Mezirow, 1990, p. 141).

Transformation theory is helpful in understanding how critical the desire to learn is for global leaders and how they approach the world. Transformation theory is a theory of adult learning that assumes that, by adulthood, we have a set of beliefs about the world, other people, and ourselves (Mezirow, 1990). These belief systems serve as frames of reference for perceiving and comprehending new data. They profoundly affect how, what, and why we learn. Global leaders enjoy the sensation of exploring new territory, geographically and culturally. They do not just acquire new knowledge, but they challenge their self-identity and are transformed by their experience. In the process of learning, global leaders construct and appropriate a new or a revised interpretation of the meaning of their experience as a guide to action (Mezirow, 1990, p. 141). Applying transformative learning theory to global leadership allows us to understand how the global leaders' self-identity changes with every new experience.

Essential characteristics

Given the complexity of the global workplace, it is not surprising that getting the work done can be accomplished in a variety of different ways. Global leadership is work that needs to be done, and the same leadership job can be accomplished by different people using a range of styles and behaviors. Systems theorists label situations where different initial conditions can result in similar outcomes or there are

equally effective but different ways to achieve the same outcome *equifinality*. There is no one best way to do the job, no one best way to be a global leader (McCall, 2010). Looking at leadership as a social practice, calls for a mode of scientific inquiry that rests on close empirical observation (Barley & Kunda, 2001). The observation of global leaders at work surfaced the following key aspects of their work:

Integration of roles

The five global leaders each approached their work in their own ways. All of them were leading their teams and available as subject matter experts in their functions, with much experience in the global aspect of the work. Team members looked to them for advice, especially on the global aspect of the work. The global leader's expertise in working globally is a resource for the team. When work is complex, there are many situations where the leader becomes *primus inter pares* who works with his team. Leadership in these situations is shared because no one person alone knows enough to address the complex situations alone. Theorizing using shared leadership will help to better understand global leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003). How leaders interact, how people collaborate, the impact of easy access to information for all, and the ease with which leaders can connect with anybody in the organization have changed our view of leadership (Avolio, Kahai, & Dodge, 2001; Weisband, 2008).

Fragmentation of work

Fragmentation of work is assumed to happen because leaders get interrupted. Carlson, in his 1951 study, said that managers had little control over how they spent their time,

and Mintzberg, in 1973, talked about the preference for short activities: “The manager actually appears to prefer brevity and interruptions in his work” (p. 51).

Fragmentation of work might not be imposed by others who interrupt, but might be by choice.

Synchronous multitasking and sequential multitasking are ubiquitous. Just like the juggler keeps many balls in the air, the global leader juggles different work activities. Each ball, each work activity, receives just a very short amount of attention at a time, and balls can be added or dropped as time goes on (see Figure 10). The balls can be juggled alone, with another person, or even in a group. If we see fragmentation not as a negative side-effect of leadership and management work but as a core characteristic, the stress that is created—created because we *think* interruptions are bad—might go away. The preeminence of information-sharing in the global leaders’ work, the abundance of information available to them today, and the “ease and seductiveness to retrieve information” need to be better understood (Mark, 2015, p. 4).



Figure 10. Metaphor for Synchronous Multitasking and Sequential Multitasking

Managing multiple activities is becoming more recognized as a basic characteristic of work life for information workers, not just global leaders. Understanding the nature and extent of how information workers manage multiple activities in IT-rich environments is important to inform the design of technology to support this type of common work practice (Mark et al., 2005).

Need of technology

Global work would not be possible without the technology that enables it. Global leaders depend on technology and embrace it (Software CEO: “If there’s no Internet, I’m on vacation.”) Global leaders use multiple technologies and are very tech-savvy.

Email is the primary means of communication for global leaders, and they know how to deal with email. While we often hear popular complaints about too much email, global leaders accept email as the best way to communicate. Only spam emails can become an annoyance, and better spam filters should take care of that. “Doing email” comes with its own rules, and global leaders are reflecting on the use of email: etiquette around handling email is important, including who to copy and when. Emptying one’s inbox provided a sense of accomplishment in a job that is never done.

Need for face-to-face communication

The importance of face-to-face communication and the challenge to enable it as frequently as desired was an issue of ongoing concern to global leaders and came up in different ways. Global leaders understand that not only is person-to-person

communication much richer than through other means, but some things are left unspoken when they do not create opportunities for face-to-face communication. Global leaders understand the need to balance a visit to the team's location with bringing team members to headquarters. They foster face-to-face communication among their staff by providing short-term assignments in other locations.

The need for face-to-face communication, despite the availability of substitutes like video-conferencing, has an impact on the ability of the global leaders to respond to the business complexity. Research using social systems theory is looking at an organizational response to complexity (Schneider, Wickert and Marti, 2016).

Need to travel

There is no substitute for face-to-face communication. Therefore, travel plays a major role in the work of global leaders. Travel also offers the opportunity to have informal side conversations. The reason given for a trip, the official agenda, only makes up a small part of the reason to go. Travel needs to be called out as a major factor in global leaders' work, not just in the context of facilitating face-to-face communication, but also for the impact it has on the global leader's work and life. Work is structured in time at the home office or corporate headquarters and time on the road. While at home base, the global leader spends time following up on the action items taken during the last trip and gets ready for the next. When traveling, global leaders almost exclusively focus on the people they are meeting with. They dedicate their attention

to the people and their issues at hand. Time on the road also has a major impact on their personal life.

Across geographical and cultural distance

In a truly global company, the global leader can be anywhere, is anywhere, either using technology or traveling. Because the leader can be anywhere and has a choice of location (e.g., working from home), new forms of work and leadership need to be developed. Physically, the leader can only be in one place at a time and is, therefore, always at a distance from many of his or her followers. This means that we need to better understand leadership from a distance. Northouse (2013) defines leadership as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 5). How does the leader influence the followers when they are far away? What is the relationship between leader and follower? The complexity of the situation often requires shared leadership, and shared leadership theory can explain how distributed leadership can foster collaboration, so important for distributed teams (Fletcher & Käufer, 2003). Because of the complex environment, more fluid, multidirectional models of leadership might be more applicable. We need to better understand influence management across geographical and cultural distance. In leadership research, we need theories that address how leaders foster cohesiveness, despite the challenges of geographical and cultural distance. Global leaders also rely on their network of global leaders within the company to ensure that locations everywhere adhere to company values and operating principles. Their use of social

control (instead of hierarchical control) is another facet of shared leadership (Ferner et al., 2004).

Dealing with complexity

The global leader has many options to deal with in the complexity the work brings with it. There is no universal global leader. Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989; 1992) distinguish between three groups of specialists: business managers, country managers, and functional managers, and then see the top executive at corporate headquarters, who integrates the business across the specialties. My observations suggest that the global leader can, at times, rely on others to work through the complexity and, at other times, is the connector who juggles the complexities. This might be a question of personal style preference, too. My study showed that global leaders will have a predominant mode, perhaps depending on the amount of contact a global leader has with people in other locations. This contact can vary in both dimensions: how many locations and how close the contact (i.e., once in a while or multiple times each day). To better understand the nature of a global leader's work, we will need to distinguish between the amount and the intensity of these contacts.

Looking at individual work activities under the aspect of complexity would allow us to distinguish between different types of complexity. A recent proposal for a theory of global leadership types distinguishes between four global leadership ideal-types based

on the differences in task complexity and global connectivity (Reiche, Bird, Mendenhall, & Osland, 2006).

Global leaders approach their work as a way of life where work and life are integrated. Finding themselves over and over again in situations that challenge their knowledge of the world, they use these experiences to transform themselves.

Approaching global leaders' work as a practice, looking at how it is done in everyday work practice, surfaced behaviors and activities that are essential to global leaders' work.

In summary, my study showed that global leaders' work is a way of life. Adult learning theories, and especially transformational learning theory, can help us understand how global leaders thrive in an environment characterized by dynamic complexity (Mezirow, 1990). To better understand the nature of leadership practiced by global leaders, leadership theories of shared leadership promise to be helpful (Pearce & Conger, 2003). Finally, a practice perspective on leadership, basically seeing leadership as a work practice, is well adapted to provide insights into the global leaders' work in a complex and changing environment (Tengblad, 2012b).

Developing Global Leaders

I set out to better understand the nature of global leaders' work because there is such a need to develop more global leaders (WEF, 2013). I was hoping that my insights would inform those who develop leadership development programs. Unexpectedly, I

also developed insights into the process of leadership development itself. These insights were triggered by a paradox I came across in conversations with global leaders (the staffs of my participants). They would brush aside any suggestion that working globally was any different than working domestically, saying: “People are people, and business is business,” and then go on and share with me examples of their work, highlighting the complexity only found in global work. Their statement could be either one of ignorance or one of true transcendence of cultural differences.

The need for high levels of intercultural competence is irrefutable. When there is frequent direct contact with people in other locations, a high level of competence is needed when dealing with strategic as well as tactical aspects of global work, like understanding time zones, national holidays, lunch breaks, and more. Being at home in the world means knowing when and how things get done. Not being fully competent in these things lets a person come across as incompetent in other areas as well. Even if the global leader does not have much direct contact with team members in other countries, his intercultural competencies enable him to know whether a standardized global solution should be implemented or a local solution should be developed. The global leader directs the team by asking “jaw-dropping” questions and guiding the team. Intercultural competencies help with the functional work as well as with leading directly and indirectly the global members of the team.

Perhaps the statement “People are people, and business is business” can be heard in two different places within a global leader’s development? I developed a model that incorporates both stages, and I will discuss it next.

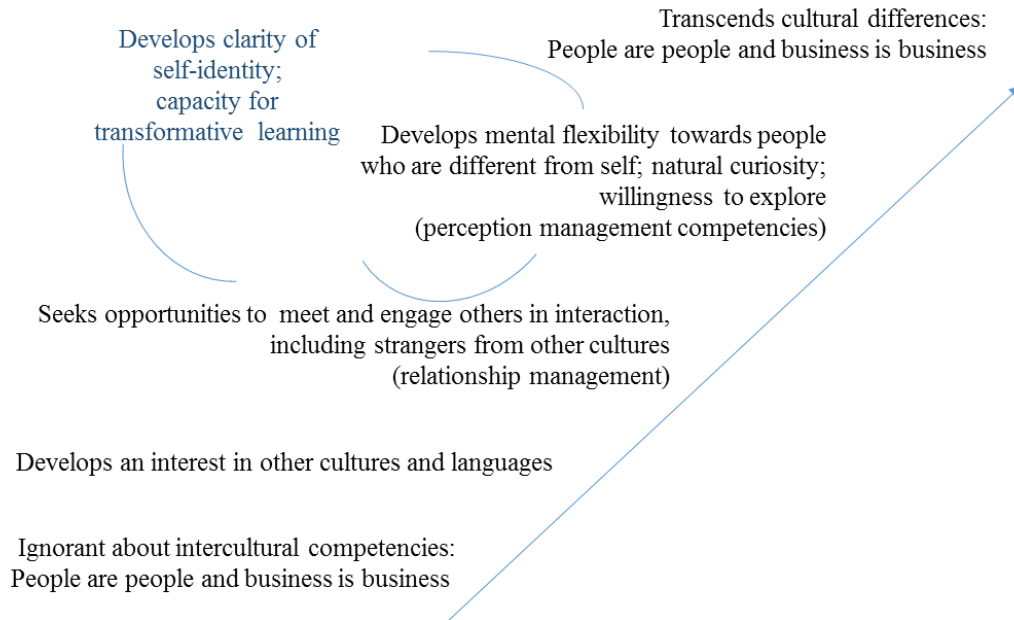


Figure 11. Global Leadership Development: Transcending Cross-Cultural Differences

When a person lives in a homogeneous cultural environment and believes in universal values (e.g., human dignity and human rights), this person might very well assume that all people are alike. All people want to be loved and all people want to be happy (stage 1). Once a person has had some exposure to other cultures, she might have experienced that people behave differently, have different priorities, see the world differently. If she is naturally curious and wants to explore these differences, she

might seek out opportunities to meet and engage with others, especially strangers. And through these interactions she will develop more clarity around her self-identity, around who she is as a person. She will experience a multitude of possible ways of living and will question her own identity. She will develop mental flexibility towards people who are different from her. She will develop a capacity for transformative learning (i.e., she will change). Once she has friends in many countries (and cultures) and is comfortable interacting with people from many different backgrounds, she will see past the cultural differences and only see individuals. At this stage, all people will once again just be people (final stage).

One more example: learning another language. Children are fascinated when they discover that not everyone speaks the same language. Learning another language as an adult is often accomplished by comparing the new language to the mother tongue, by focusing on what is different in the grammar. Once a person is bilingual, they forget which language they are using.

Global leaders need global business competencies (global business knowledge and skills) and intercultural competencies. The GCI is a validated tool that assesses the degree to which individuals possess the intercultural competencies that are associated with global leader effectiveness (Mendenhall et al., 2008; Stevens et al., 2014). The tool uses the three dimensions of perception management, self-management, and relationship management. The five leaders in this study scored fairly close in the

dimensions of perception management and self-management, while their scores in relationship management showed the largest variation. This dimension assesses people's orientation toward the importance of relationships and looks at how mental structures shape behaviors, especially with respect to the development and management of intercultural, interpersonal relationships. The dimension gauges the person's interest in other people, especially those who are different, and the willingness to take the initiative to meet strangers from other cultures. It also assesses a person's capacity to understand others and respond with empathy, self-awareness about one's own values and beliefs and how they might impact others, and the capacity to adapt behavior to fit in.

Perhaps there is a difference between the intercultural competencies needed early in the development phase and those needed later, when global work has become part of the DNA of the global leader. In both cases, competencies of self-management and perception management should be strong, but once a person is a global leader, the need to seek out strangers from other cultures is no longer that strong (relationship management). The idea for the model presented in Figure 11 came from analyzing the results of the GCI that the five participants took and the comments made by them and other leaders about the difference between domestic business and global business.

In a state where the person is ignorant about intercultural competencies and different ways of doing business, the assumption is that doing business is the same

everywhere. Only when this view is challenged through experience (trigger event), might the person become interested in other cultures, languages, and ways of life. During this phase the future global leader seeks opportunities to engage with people from other cultures, and, over time, develops a mental flexibility towards people who are different from herself. A natural curiosity and willingness to explore are the traits that encourage the global leader to seek new experiences. By exploring the other, the global leader becomes more aware of her own self-identity. Some global leaders develop a capacity for transformative learning, where their understanding of their own self is transformed. Working in a global environment with frequent interaction with people from other cultures, the desire to seek opportunities to meet and engage others in interaction, including strangers from other cultures, diminishes. Being with people from other cultures is no longer something that is sought out, but is simply a reality.

Eventually, the global leader transcends the distinction between their own and other cultures. Switching languages throughout the day, using those sources of information that are deemed most informative, independent of their language, the global leader now is on a level of personal development where business again is just business. “In the end, business is business, and people are people.”

Finally, as I discussed in Chapter Two, there is much research on developing global leaders, but almost nothing on selecting them. Osland (2013a) suggests flexibility, or

a low level of ethnocentrism, as a personality trait that doesn't change much over time. It could be used for selecting the right candidates. In addition, my model suggests self-selection as the best strategy. I will get back to this point when I talk about implications for practice in the next chapter.

Chapter 6: Implications for Practice and Future Research

In my study, I observed five global leaders at work for a total of 20 days to contribute to a better understanding of the nature of global leaders' work. My study provided a glimpse into the everyday work practice of global leaders. In this chapter, I discuss the implications of my findings, first for practice, then for research.

One of the reasons for my study was the need for more global leaders and the lack of knowledge about the nature of global leaders' work. How can we develop more global leaders when we know so little about the job they do? I used direct observation to conduct a work study to find out what the day of a global leader looks like. At the highest level of my findings, the global leader's work is embedded in a way of life. This leads me to suggest that it would be beneficial to focus on the development of strong selection procedures for future global leaders. Allow me to explain with an example: During my observation, Education VP explored global career opportunities with an associate in Vietnam. In the conversation, Education VP asked about the family situation, the wife's desire or readiness to leave Vietnam, the age of the children and the parents' ideas about their education, and more. The conversation, which was supposedly about the associate's work opportunities, was really a conversation about the life and dreams of the associate's entire extended family. Education VP knew that a global career would have an impact on all of them. We know from work practices around realistic job previews that they lower initial job

expectations while increasing self-selection, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, performance, and job survival (Premack & Wanous, 1985). Realistic job previews as part of the selection process would be very beneficial for potential global leaders. Understanding what the job entails, that it means choosing a way of life, would allow employees to self-select in or out.

Other aspects of my findings on the nature of the work can make a contribution to policy-development: The reliance on technology to access and share information (the most important role of the global leaders) requires adequate support by the organization. Global leaders should not be required to use their personal devices, perhaps for the purpose of information protection. That means the organization needs to prioritize technology support for global leaders. In organization design, questions of spans and layers should include aspects of leading from a distance to address the question with how many team members the global leader can maintain face-to-face communication? Leadership development should be informed by transformational learning theories and support the global leader in her experiential learning with sense-making activities. These would allow for growth through self-reflection and transformation of self-identity.

In global leadership research, the time might have come for a more integrative approach. If the global leader sees her role as a leader, her work and her life all blurred together, a more holistic approach is called for. Leadership as a work practice

opens up new avenues for research. Rather than approaching leadership from a linear, rational approach, using insights from complexity theory, researchers should be more attentive to the complex and ambiguous that it is in practice (Tengblad, 2012b). A practice theory of management and leadership would combine the functional and the leadership side of the work.

To better understand the nature of leadership practiced by global leaders, leadership theories of shared leadership promise to be helpful (Pearce & Conger, 2003). The complexity of the situation calls for distributed leadership models, and the geographical distance for an investigation into how the leader bridges the distance and is successful in influencing her followers. Finally, research into follower expectations of leaders should be helpful for global leaders who all lead cross-cultural teams.

Research into competencies should evolve into research looking at how adult learning theories can inform global leadership research. Equifinality suggests that there are so many different combinations of competencies that leaders might or might not have, and so many different leadership styles that can or cannot make global leaders successful. A shift to adult learning theories would be beneficial, because it would help focus on how global leaders learn.

In this study many aspects came together: the inspiration by Mintzberg (1973) implied a comparison with work almost 50 years ago. There is research that supports the idea that nothing has really changed, while others contend that the world of work is changing rapidly. There was an implicit comparison of domestic and global work, and there was a clear indication that new technology has a tremendous impact on work, enabling global work and new forms of work from anywhere. All of these aspects should be researched further.

In summary, my study showed that global leaders' work is a way of life. Adult learning theories, and especially transformational learning theory, can help us understand how global leaders thrive in an environment characterized by dynamic complexity (Mezirow, 1990).

Appendix A

Technology used by the five global leaders

	Desktop	Laptop	Tablet	Monitor	BlackBerry	Mobile phone	Landline	SMSing	IMing	Intranet	Document sharing	Video equipment	Skype video	Cloud storage	External hard drive
Telecom SVP		1	1	2		1	1	1	1	Y	Y	1			
Aerospace CFO	1	1	1	2		1	1	1		Y	Y	1			
Software CEO		2 (Mac and PC)	1	2		2	1	1	2 (Skype and Slack)	Y	Y		1	1	
Education VP		2	1	1	1	1	1	1		Y	Y			1	1
Technology GAD		2	1	3		2	1	1	1	Y	Y			1	1

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